Science and Mathematics Education Centre

Transactional Analysis, Interpersonal Behaviour and Science and Mathematics Outcomes: A Case Study in a New Zealand School

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This thesis is presented as part of the requirements for
the award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
of the
Curtin University of Technology

December, 2000

ABSTRACT

Transactional Analysis, or TA, has been used for more than four decades to enhance interpersonal relationships and promote personal growth through counselling and psychotherapy. It has been used to advantage in organisations, principally in the business world. It was thought at the outset of this study that TA could also be of benefit to schools.

The aim of this study was to find out whether TA methods could be used in schools to improve student outcomes in science and mathematics, to enhance interpersonal relationships and to promote positive behaviour. The study trialled TA by using it with a group of at-risk students to discover whether its use would bring about positive change.

A group of ten at-risk students became part of a mentoring programme, using TA. This programme focussed on the behaviour and academic progress of the students, and sought to empower them to make positive changes. This group referred to as the sample group, was compared with a control group. The *Adult ego-state* (thinking) was promoted in the students in order to shift their 'locus of control' from their *Negative Adapted Child ego-state*, the source of much non-productive, inappropriate and rebellious behaviour.

The study upheld the reliability and validity of the questionnaires used, namely the Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction, the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (School Form) and the Mooney Problem Checklist. The study prompted the construction of an informal test, the Ego-State Questionnaire, which proved to be informative.

Poor attendance and school behaviour records were good indicators of a student's 'at-risk' status. At-risk students were found to be already achieving below their potential in science and mathematics at entry to secondary school.

The mentoring programme ran for six months, and at the end of this the sample group had improved behavioural records and increased self esteem. Their number of perceived problems had dropped dramatically, and their academic results were improved.

Interpersonal relationships between the sample group and their science teachers were better than the interpersonal relationships with their mathematics teachers, indicating a continued difficulty with abstract ideas at the end of the programme and a need to run such programmes over a longer time span. Interpersonal relationships did improve out of school with parents and peers. Clear preferences were indicated for what students preferred in the behaviours of their ideal teacher: understanding, helping/friendly, leadership and strict behaviours.

Encouragement of *Adult ego-state* was shown to be an appropriate and productive approach to the improvement of academic and behavioural outcomes for at-risk students in science and mathematics. The study also showed that at-risk young people had a lower than average *Nurturing Parent ego-state* available to them.

Teachers rated their TA101 course highly, and found that it gave them a fresh perspective on classroom difficulties. Both teachers and students benefited from the use of TA in this study.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to thank and acknowledge the people and organisations whose help has led to the completion of this thesis.

First, my supervisor, Associate Professor Darrell Fisher, Science and Mathematics Education Centre, Curtin University of Technology. Darrell has been supportive in a number of ways, from the inception of the idea behind this study, through five years of patient reading of draft chapters to completion. I have greatly appreciated the tact with which Darrell has suggested change, the encouragement which has both shaped the study and kept me going, the wisdom, insight and expertise that have been invaluable and most of all his forever positive nature.

Secondly, my associate supervisor, Dr. Gordon Hewitt. Gordon has provided expertise in the Transactional Analysis aspects of this thesis. He has been a valuable mentor, encouraging and affirming, providing numerous helpful suggestions for draft forms of the chapters, for readings and for sources of information. The availability of such an expert in TA as Gordon has been a boost to this thesis, but it is his personal qualities that have helped most; his positiveness, his faith in the worthwhileness of the project and his infectious joy in learning.

Thirdly, I am indebted to my partner, Liz West, who has provided the moral support necessary to enable this thesis to be seen through to completion. For the encouragement, the understanding and the selfless giving up of our time, I thank you.

I shall be forever mindful of the initial encouragement of my late mother, Nancy Glen. An Australian by birth, she was delighted I was studying through an Australian University.

Next, I extend grateful thanks to the many students and teachers who helped with this project.

I am most grateful for the help received from Curtin University, from the HECS scheme and from the International Transactional Analysis Association.

Finally, I thank Michelle Wickens for her patience and care in typing, the hours put into tables and figures and for her meticulous proofreading.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ABRV	Abbreviated
ADHD	Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
CD	Cooperation Dominance
CS	Cooperation Submission
DC	Dominance Cooperation
DO	Dominance Opposition
IQ	Intelligence Quotient
ITAA	International Transactional Analysis Association
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OD	Opposition Dominance
OS	Opposition Submission
PAC	Parent Adult Child
QTI	Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction
SC	Submission Cooperation
SO	Submission Opposition
SQ	Stroke Survival Quotient
TA	Transactional Analysis
TAC	Transactional Analysis with Children
TOSCA	Test of Scholastic Abilities
US	United States

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter opens with an outline of the purpose and significance of the study. It then gives a background to the study and to the educational problems that were perceived. 'At-risk' is defined as it is referred to frequently. The context of the study is then given. Next, ethical issues are discussed and research questions that arose from the proposal of the study are presented. Following that is a summary of some ways in which *Transactional Analysis* (TA) was seen to apply to schools. The chapter concludes with an overview of this thesis and information on the chapter to follow.

1.2 Purpose and Significance of the Study

The importance of this study stems from the need for educators to know what will enhance the learning and the personal growth of students. It was thought that TA might be a theory that could be applied to student personal growth as well as to classroom interaction and learning. Since the late 1950's when Eric Berne began to document TA, to the present day, there has been evidence that TA could enhance communication between people. It made sense that if the personal growth needs of students were enhanced, classroom interaction would improve, leading to academic gains.

Transactional Analysis methods are being used increasingly in organisations to enhance performance. Educators need to know:

i) whether Transactional Analysis methods can be used in schools to improve student outcomes; and

ii) whether the positive outcomes that Transactional Analysis has produced in the fields of counselling, psychotherapy and in organisational management can also be obtained in Educational Institutions.

It was thought to be timely that a study be undertaken of a process that would promote positive behaviour, enhance interpersonal skills, and improve academic performance. Early experience of positive relationships between teachers and students could have a positive influence on other relationships both within and outside the school. Increased feelings of self-worth resulting from these positive outcomes could be a vital springboard for a satisfying and productive life.

1.3 Background to the Study

Students identified as being 'at-risk' are increasingly arriving at school with already established patterns of negative and disruptive behaviour. Schools seem to reflect society's tendency towards a Skinnerian approach to behaviour management. There are systems in place to punish, whereas rewards are gained by only a few, and are given out sparingly. More needs to be done to replace the negative management systems of the past with a philosophy and a methodology that will see us well into the 21st century.

Various writers have suggested that positive methods and environments enhance learning (Illsley-Clarke, 1978, 1989, McLean, 1992, Mukhopadhyay & Saxena, 1981, Myrow, 1977, Santa Rita, 1993, Tricket & Moos, 1979, Wubbels, Brekelmans & Hooymayers, 1991). The motivation to carry out this study came from a belief that to encourage appropriate behaviour in a positive and meaningful way is both more effective than traditional methods, and more far-reaching.

This study sought to bring about positive change in a group of students who were 'at-risk', i.e. seen as being in danger of becoming disaffected. It sought also to give teachers ideas on what they could add to their repertoire of positive behaviour promotion and management techniques.

1.4 'At-Risk' Defined

The New Zealand Ministry of Education (1998) defined 'at-risk' in a way that applied to the Sample Group in this study. The term 'at-risk' was said to include students who were at-risk of:

i) low achievement in the educational system;
ii) having an adverse impact on the education of others; and
iii) not reaching their own potential in social and personal development.

'At-risk' students are also defined in the Ministry report as children who are failing in school and unsuccessful in making the transition to work and adult life and as a consequence are unlikely to be able to make a full contribution to active society (OECD, 1996).

1.5 The Context

This study was conducted in a Registered State Secondary School for young men. The school is situated in the inner-city area of a New Zealand city. The school was established over 130 years ago to provide a complete education from Form 3 (Year 9) to Form 7 (Year 13). Traditionally, there was an emphasis on preparation for tertiary education and tertiary education continues to be a major destination for school leavers. There is a mainly academic curriculum, and a strong extra-curricular programme which promotes interest in cultural activities and a competitive interest in sports.

1.6 Ethical Issues

The nature of this study was such that it was likely that personal information would be revealed by participants. Those taking part in the study were informed in writing of the aims of the study, that they were the subjects of research and that their anonymity would be preserved.

The participants in the study were high school students. Written consent was obtained from the students to participate in the study, with parental permission required for minors. The students were able to withdraw from the study at any time.

Schools' names have not been used, and the students' names have been changed. Confidentiality was requested from the TA support group members regarding personal information shared with the group.

Data presented in this thesis has been recorded accurately and has not been altered in any way.

1.7 Research Questions

This study set out to determine whether TA methods could be of use to educators. In particular, it sought to find ways of helping troublesome students in science and mathematics classes to improve their academic results and to suggest ways in which teachers could lessen the disruptive effects of such students on their classes. The aim of the study was to find answers to these questions:

a) To what extent was the theory and practice of TA useful to schools?

b) Could TA be used as part of a school's strategy to promote positive behaviour?

c) Could TA methods have a significant effect in changing the attitudes of 'at-risk' youth?

d) Does the attitudes of 'at-risk' youth have a bearing on their progress in science and mathematics, their behaviour, and their self image?

e) What effect does teacher interpersonal behaviour have on student outcomes in science and mathematics?

1.8 TA and its Application to Schools

1.8.1 *Preamble*

This sub-section gives an introduction to TA and to the way in which TA ideas could be applied in schools. A more detailed account of TA and explanations of some of the related concepts are given in the next chapter.

1.8.2 *TA and Schools*

One of the fundamental ideas of TA is that three different *ego-states* exist in all people at all times. These *ego-states* are known as *Parent, Adult* and *Child.* TA theory maintains that the *ego-state* that is operative at a given time influences the individual's response to the current context.

Mukhopadhyay and Saxena (1981) wrote about the usefulness of TA to schools, and in particular noted the value to teachers of knowing about the theory of *ego-states.* They said that the *Parent ego-state* asserted value judgements and clarified behaviour as being either good or bad. In the *Parent ego-state,* people behave, think, and feel in ways similar to their parents or parent figures. In the *Adult ego-state,* people respond to the world in the present, in the 'here and now', in a grown-up way. The *Adult ego-state* is seen as being intelligent, organised, curious, and adaptable. The *Child ego-state* is also curious but in a less sophisticated way than the *Adult* state. A person in the *Child ego-state* may return to ways of responding to others and/or to a given context that that person used as a child. We may thus continue to replay childhood strategies in grown-up life. The *Child ego-state* can be described as containing the impulses that come naturally to children. It is full of emotion.

Functionally, *ego-states* can be described in terms of observed behaviour. In this functional model, *Parent* and *Child ego-states* are split in two. *Parent ego-state* may be *Controlling Parent* and may control, direct or criticise, or it may be *Nurturing Parent* and nurture, care or help. *Child ego-state* may be *Adapted Child* and conform

to rules, and societal demands or *Natural Child* where feelings and wants are expressed without censure.

TA encourages our positive aspects, and it is this feature that could be of great advantage to educators. This 'stroking' encourages growth, 'OKness', problem solving, and creativity. People can learn to be free of personality adaptations, to be aware, spontaneous, and to have the capacity for intimacy.

TA maintains that people are 'OK'. Everyone has the capacity to think, choose, and change. Through thinking, people may gain insight into the ways they and those around them operate. It is through this feature of TA that a scientific basis can be provided for modifying teacher and student behaviour. Verbal and physical signs can be observed that indicate interplay between *ego-states*; language and behaviour can indicate which *ego-state* a person is in.

It might be expected that if teachers were aware of *ego-states* as explained by TA, and adopted appropriate *ego-states* for any given transaction, they would then relate to and teach students better. There could be fewer negative confrontations in the classroom and a climate conducive to both learning and personal growth. A lot of classroom confrontation seems to be set up when the *Controlling Parent* behaviour of teachers elicits *Adapted Child* responses from students. These roles can also be reversed with the *Controlling Parent* behaviour of students eliciting *Adapted Child* responses in teachers. Teachers need to be mainly in *Adult*, choosing to use *Parent* and *Child* as appropriate. Being in *Adult* enables people to have more control over their choice of *ego-state* and therefor their choice of action.

The notion of choice is critical. With knowledge of TA, teachers and students would have an insight into the nature of their transactions, and a choice in how to deal with them. TA is seen as having the potential to be a powerful tool in the promotion of positive behaviour in the classroom, which would in turn lead to the achievement of positive student outcomes in learning and personal growth.

1.9 Overview

Following this introductory chapter, Chapter 2 explains the basic concepts of TA. TA is defined, then the basic concepts and terms used by Transactional Analysists are discussed. Chapter 2 gives a comprehensive coverage of TA terms as teachers wanting more than a cursory understanding of TA would want at least the detail given here.

The literature review, Chapter 3, has been divided into six sections. The first section is a summary of literature on TA and interpersonal behaviour and the second section contains a summary of literature on student outcomes. The next three sections cover the uses of TA in schools, TA as a positive behaviour strategy, and TA and at-risk youth. The final section is an outline of some of the literature relating to how TA might be of use to teachers of science and mathematics. This latter section has a double function, being part of the literature review while at the same time providing guidelines for teachers on how to apply TA to the classroom.

Chapter 4 contains a summary of some of the previous research and studies using TA. Like the literature review, this chapter separates out different areas of previous research and studies into sections. The first section is on students and self esteem, the second is on teacher classroom behaviour, the third is on teacher-student interaction, the fourth on teacher training, and the final section is on other projects and studies using TA.

The next chapter, Chapter 5, is an outline of the study. Here an explanation of the context of the study is given with information about the sample. A section on the method describes the sample selection. Work with students and teachers is related with some detail given of the mentoring programme, which was a major part of this study. Further detail is given on how the sample and the control were selected. A section is devoted to a description of the evaluation instruments before the chapter ends with a conclusion.

Chapter 6 contains the case studies of each of the students in the sample group. The introduction explains the layout of each case study, and describes each section of the case studies. These sections give personal data, presenting behaviours and history for

each member of the sample group. Their contracts are then outlined. Next a section describes what took place for each student during the mentoring programme and then a section is devoted to the results followed by a conclusion which describes the outcomes for each student. There are ten case studies in all followed by concluding comments on the mentoring programme.

Chapter 7 contains a summary of the outcomes for each member of the sample group. Individual summaries are given, then the collective results of the sample group are compared with the collective results of the control group. The summary and conclusion section includes comments on the various factors considered and the evaluation instruments are evaluated. The chapter concludes with a summary of the findings.

Finally, Chapter 8 is the conclusion to the study. This chapter draws together the findings from the various parts of the thesis, from the literature review, the previous research and studies using TA as well as from the study itself. Chapter 8 summarizes the main findings, and suggests what educators could do to take advantage of the perceived benefits of TA and indicates areas for future research.

1.10 Conclusion

This chapter has introduced this thesis, which seeks to apply the principles of TA to the key tasks of educators of helping students to learn and to grow and develop to the best of their abilities. The chapter has given some reasons for doing the study, has given the background to the study, defined 'at-risk' for the purposes of the study, and has described the context in which the study was conducted. Ethical issues have been outlined and research questions presented. Some views on the application of TA to schools were given, followed by an overview of the thesis. In the next chapter, those concepts of TA that will assist the understanding of this study are presented.

CHAPTER 2

BASIC CONCEPTS OF TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS

2.1 Introduction

In the 1960's *Transactional Analysis* (TA) was popularised by Eric Berne's '*Games People Play*' (1964). This book was written in language that was easily understood by the lay person. In this book, Berne introduced the major themes of TA, upon which later writings and ideas were based. A major feature of this study is the use of TA. This chapter explains the concepts that are fundamental to an understanding of TA.

The major themes of TA are *ego-states, transactions, games*, and *scripts*. The concept of *ego-states* is the most basic and is the foundation upon which TA is built.

An explanation of TA is given in this chapter, followed by a section on *ego-states* and *transactions*. Sections follow on *strokes, discounting, games, the drama triangle, rackets, script, life postion*, and a number of other concepts developed by those Transactional Analysts who followed Berne.

2.2 What is TA?

TA, or *Transactional Analysis*, is defined by the International Transactional Analysis Association (cited in Stewart & Joines, 1987) as 'a theory of personality and a systematic psychotherapy for personal growth and personal change' (p. 335). When Berne coined the term *Transactional Analysis*, and was writing about it in the late 1950's, the main focus was on psychotherapy. Since then, a vast amount of writing by other authors has added depth to the theory. TA has also expanded and now has a wider range of applications.

The most common application of TA remains in the field of psychotherapy where it is used in the treatment of anything from the general problems of everyday living to severe disorders such as psychosis. Because TA is a theory of personality, Stewart and Joines (1987) believed it helped in the understanding of how people 'express their personality in terms of behaviour' (p. 3).

What is exciting about the development of TA in the last 40 years is that it is more than a theory of psychotherapy. It also explains personality, child development, and communication. Thus TA has expanded into the fields of business and organisations, into management in a wide range of settings and into welfare, police, and prisons.

TA has applications for individuals, couples, groups, large companies, and organisations. Of importance to this study is that TA is now being seen as having much of value to offer schools. Stewart and Joines (1987) stated that 'outside the therapeutic field, TA is used in educational settings. It helps teachers and learners to stay in clear communication and avoid setting up unproductive confrontations' (p. 3). Because of its applications to organisations, TA has the potential to be of huge benefit to schools' management. It is of enormous help to those school counsellors who use TA to explain family, peer group, and classroom communication.

TA challenges fatalism and enables one to see that one may have some control over one's life. According to Holland (in Corsini, 1973), TA expounds the theory that 'beginning early in life each person fashions a *life plan* for him/herself which he/she thereafter devotes him/herself to living out in an obsessive and unknowing fashion' (p. 353). By becoming more aware of what motivates a person, e.g., through feedback from a counsellor or teacher or through therapy, a person may be able to alter their *script*.

Fundamental to the understanding of what might be driving a person is the notion of one's '*OKness*' and the '*OKness*' of others. This notion is also based on early life experiences, and again can be challenged in therapy and/or from feedback.

However, TA is largely untapped in educational settings but has the potential to be applied to all areas of school life. The prospects for its future expansion in this area are enormous. The next section discusses *ego-states*, a concept Berne developed from observation of his clients in psychotherapy. Berne noticed that his clients sometimes behaved and reasoned from different places, and that these different *ego-states* were even characterised by distinct behaviour patterns identifiable by voice tones and facial expressions.

2.3 Ego-States

TA challenges the traditional view of human nature and of life as being a constant battle between good and bad, right or wrong. By introducing the notion of three primary *ego-states*, *Parent, Adult*, and *Child*, one is able to view oneself in a new way as a prelude to life changes. A tripartite division replaces the traditional view of duality in human nature.

Berne (1966) defined an *ego-state* as 'a consistent pattern of feeling and experience directly related to a corresponding consistent pattern of behaviour' (p. 364). He identified three such *ego-states*, which he designated *Parent, Adult* and *Child*. Stewart and Joines (1987) wrote that 'putting the three *ego-states* together, we get the three-part *ego-state* model of personality which is the heart of TA theory' (p. 11). This model is commonly known as the *PAC model* (see fig. 2.1).

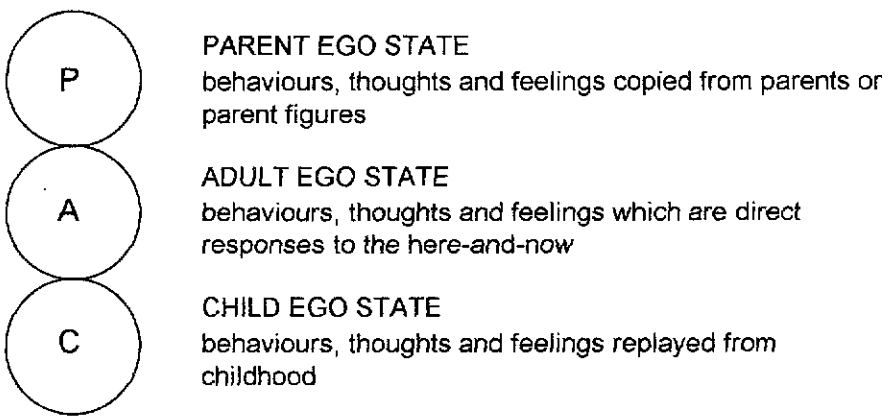

Figure 2.1. First-order structural diagram: The ego-state model. (From Stewart & Joines, 1987, p. 12)

A healthy, balanced person needs all three *ego-states* and shifts from one to another in response to day-to-day situations and in response to different *transactions* with others.

Stewart and Joines (1987) claimed that 'there is now a substantial body of observation work that supports (*ego-state* theory)' (p. 17). That people:

1) ---show three consistent and clearly distinguishable sets of behaviours that correspond to --- the three *ego-states*.

2) ---reported experience and feelings (that) correlate with the sets of behavioural clues in the way we would expect from the model. (p. 16)

There are two models of *ego-states*. Firstly, the *Functional Model*, according to Stewart and Joines (1987), 'divides the *ego-states* to show us **how** we use them' (p. 329). Using this model we can observe behaviours and assess which *ego-state* they represent. Secondly, the *Structural Model* gives a means of showing the content of the *ego-states*. Stewart and Joines (1987) said it shows '**what** is classified as belonging in each *ego-state*' (p. 334). What is classified is made up of stored memories.

In the next section the *Functional Model* is expanded with an explanation of *Functional Analysis* of *ego-states*. This section is followed by accounts of *Parent, Adult* and *Child* from a *Functional* point of view. It will be seen that the *Functional Model* is about **process**. In section 2.8, *Structural Analysis* of *ego-states* is explained with an account of *second order structure* of *Parent, Adult* and *Child*. It will be noted that the *Structural Model* is about **content**.

2.4 Functional Analysis of Ego-States

In the *functional analysis* of *ego-states* it is possible to view **how** a person uses his/her *ego-states*. The *Parent ego-state* and the *Child ego-state* are both composed of two parts, while the *Adult ego-state* remains constant (see fig. 2.2).

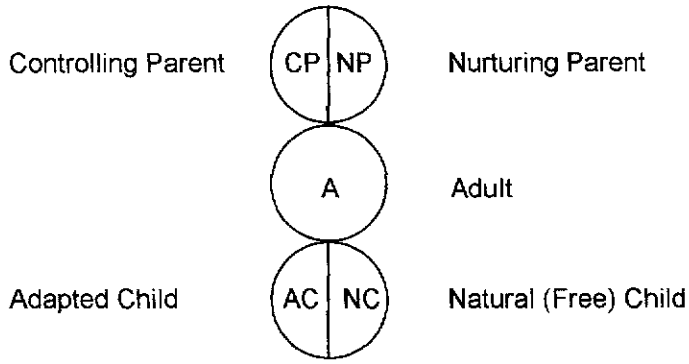

Figure 2.2. Functional analysis of ego-states. (From Stewart & Joines, 1987, p. 21)

2.5 Parent

The *Parent ego-state* is composed of the *Nurturing Parent ego-state* and the *Controlling Parent ego-state*. The *Nurturing Parent ego-state* functions when a person is nurturing, caring, or helping. The *Controlling Parent ego-state* functions when a person is directing, criticizing, or controlling. Some TA writers make a further division of *Parent* and *Child ego-states* into positive and negative. Using this division, *Parent ego-states* could be broken down into *Positive* and *Negative Nurturing Parent* and *Positive* and *Negative Controlling Parent*.

In the *ego-state* of *Positive Nurturing Parent* a person would come from a position of positive regard for the 'helpee', i.e. would probably check whether the 'helpee' actually wanted their help rather than assuming they did. In the *Negative Nurturing Parent ego-state* the helper is likely to smother the helpee. Help is given from a superior position that assumes that the helpee needs help and is unable to cope without it.

In the *ego-state* of *Positive Controlling Parent* it is possible for a person to be directive and even critical, and well meaning at the same time e.g., 'Don't run across the road.' In contrast, a person in the *ego-state* of *Negative Controlling Parent* is in a one-up position. Such a person is criticising or controlling another, and putting them down at the same time e.g., 'You've got this maths wrong again' (You're so dumb).

2.6 Adult

Adult ego-state is the rational aspect of a person and is seen by Berne (1964) as being 'necessary for survival' (p. 26). The *Adult* is the aspect of the person which according to Holland (in Corsini, 1973) 'acts as a computer recording data and using its data as the basis for computing expectancies regarding future events' (p. 362). An example of the computer functioning *Adult ego-state* is when a person makes a decision about whether or not it is safe to cross the road. In this *ego-state* information is sought and decisions made based on this information. The *Adult* may seek to know 'When?' 'Where?' 'What?' and 'How?'. The *Adult* operates in the present, and responds to the 'here and now' situation.

2.7 Child

Berne (1964) noted that 'in the *Child* resides intuition, creativity and spontaneous drive and enjoyment' (p. 26). The *Functional Model* divides *Child* into *Adapted Child* and *Natural Child*. Whether *Adapted* or *Natural*, in the *Child ego-state* Stewart and Joines (1987) said 'I am behaving, thinking and feeling just as I used to in my childhood' (p. 22).

The *Adapted Child*, according to Berne (1964), 'modified his behaviour under *Parental* influence' (p. 26). The *Adapted Child* may behave in ways 'that might please a parent e.g. compliance or preciousness' or may behave in ways that might annoy a parent e.g. 'withdrawing or whining' (p. 26).

The *Natural Child ego-state*, also known as *Free Child*, shows spontaneous expression as recognized, for example, in creativity or rebellion. The *Natural Child* expresses feelings and/or wants without reference to perceived parental sanction.

As with the *Parent ego-state*, some TA writers divide the *Child ego-state* into positive and negative. Thus, in this model there are four divisions of *Child*: *Positive Natural Child, Negative Natural Child, Positive Adapted Child* and *Negative Adapted Child.*

Positive Natural Child behaviour is that which Stewart and Joines (1987) maintained was 'productive and life-enhancing' (p. 24). Whenever a person expresses feelings in a safe way, he or she is using the *Positive Natural Child ego-state.*

Negative Natural Child satisfies the person's urges, but without regard for social conventions. Skateboarding at speed through a crowded shopping mall may feel good, but could be unsettling or dangerous to self and/or others.

Positive Adapted Child is present in most people most of the time, e.g. looking before crossing the road, and other rule-following behaviours. Simple good manners, e.g. 'please' and 'thank you' is another example of *Positive Adapted Child* behaviour. A person using this *ego-state* is co-operative. Schools would have difficulty operating without a lot of *Positive Adapted Child* behaviour from both students and staff.

Negative Adapted Child uses old patterns of behaviour learned in childhood that are no longer appropriate e.g. throwing a tantrum in an attempt to get one's way. Most at-risk behaviour could be classified as *Negative Adapted Child* behaviour. In educational settings, many of the time-consuming discipline matters that are dealt with involve *Negative Adapted Child* behaviour. Many classroom confrontations and disruptive incidents are perpetuated by those students who are in their *Negative Adapted Child ego-state.* Stewart and Joines (1987) stated that 'an aim of personal change in TA is to replace these old outdated patterns with new ones which make full use of our grown-up options' (p. 24).

2.8 Structural Analysis of Ego-States

Considering *structural analysis* of *ego-states* using the *second-order structural model,* the examination is of what the *ego-states* contain. An infinite number of experiences are stored in the memory of a person. Stewart and Joines (1987) stated that 'the purpose of the *second-order structural model* is to **classify** those memories in a useful way, within our familiar framework of *ego-states*' (p. 30). This *second-order structural model* was diagrammed by Stewart and Joines (1987) viz:

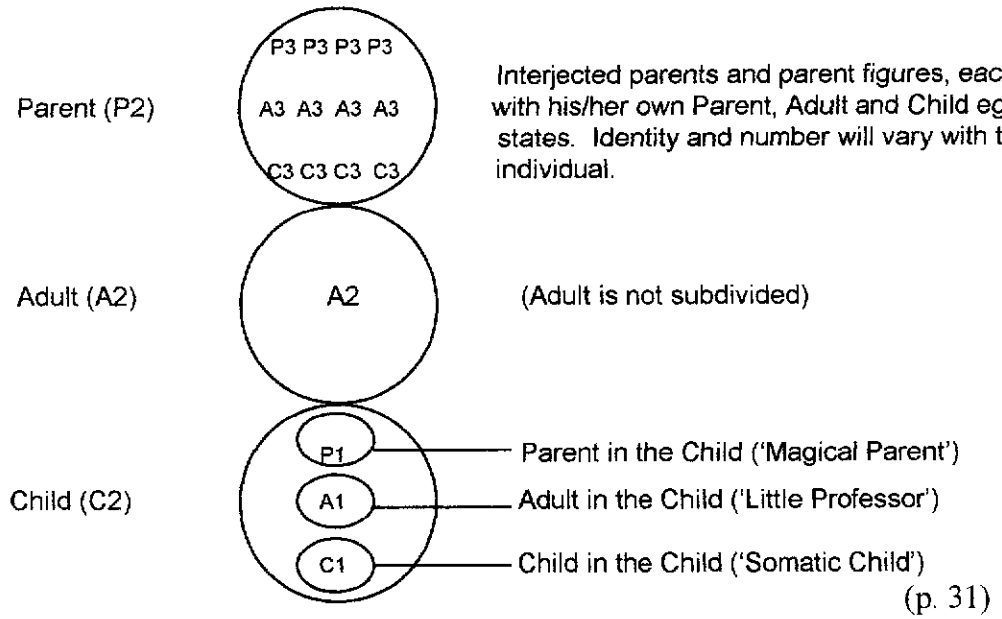

Figure 2.3. Second-order structural model.

2.8.1 *Second Order Structure: Parent*

Parent in the Parent (P3) contains the messages we received from our parents or parent figures e.g. grandparents, teachers. The *Parent in the Parent* is a whole store of messages, which may have been passed on and stored for generations.

Adult in the Parent (A3) contains a host of statements about reality, which may or may not be true. These statements are reasons for why the P3 messages matter. Some of the messages were received non-verbally.

Child in the Parent (C3) contains stored memories of a person's perception of their own parent's and/or parent figure's *Child.* Stewart and Joines (1987) said that 'any secret and covert implications are stored in C3' (p. 31).

2.8.2 *Second Order Structure: Adult*

Adult contains what is done (thinking, feeling and behaving) in response to the here-and-now. What one thinks about the messages from P2 becomes the content of *Adult* (A2).

2.8.3 *Second Order Structure: Child*

Parent in the Child (P1) contains the fantasies formed as a child about what might happen if the person did or did not follow the messages from *Parent* (P2). Being the *Parent in the Child*, P1 is concerned with rules. *Parent in the Child* is also referred to as '*Magical Parent.*'

Adult in the Child (A1) contains the early decisions about what a person will do about the *Parent* (P2) messages, the way in which the child solved problems. *Adult in the Child* is also referred to as '*Little Professor.*'

The *Child in the Child* (C1) contains the feelings a person had about the fantasies formed in P1. *Child in the Child* is also referred to as '*Somatic Child.*'

Children rely on intuition as their logic is not well developed. Their ways of verifying information about the world are not the sophisticated problem solving strategies of an adult. Knowledge is based on intuition and instant impressions. Teachers can tap into the intuitive and creative sides of students of all ages by tapping into the *Child ego-state*. *Child* is what enables all of us to play and have fun.

2.9 Transactions

Berne (1964) stated that 'the unit of social intercourse is called a *transaction*' (p. 28) and explained that when two or more people meet together, and one speaks to or acknowledges the other(s), this is called the *transactional stimulus*. The reply or reaction to this *transactional stimulus* is known as the *transactional response*.

According to Harris (1973) '*Transactional Analysis* is the method of examining this one *transaction* wherein **I do something to you and you do something back** and determining which part of the multiple-natured individual is being activated' (p. 12). Transactional Analysts attempt to discover from which *ego-state* of a person's *transactions*, e.g. *transactional stimuli* or *transactional responses*, come from.

There are three types of *transactions*: *complementary, crossed*, and *ulterior.*

2.9.1 *Complementary Transactions*

Transactions can be *complementary*, which to Berne (1964) meant that 'the response is appropriate and expected and follows the natural order of healthy human relationships' (p. 28). An *Adult-Adult* exchange is an example of a *complementary transaction.* Both the *stimulus* and the *response* come from the *Adult ego-state* of the parties involved, e.g.:

A^1 'What is your name?'

B^1 'My name is Stewart.'

This may be shown diagrammatically:

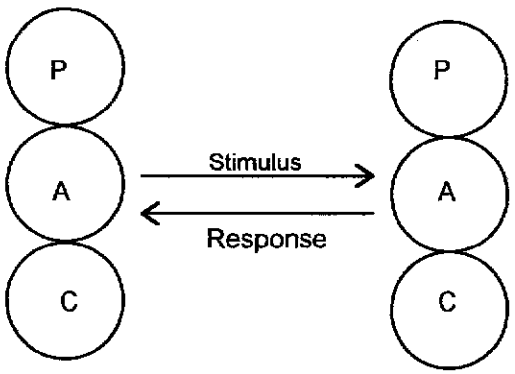

Figure 2.4. A complementary transaction: Example 1.

Complementary transactions can be to and from *ego-states* other than *Adult.* For a *transaction* to be *complementary* the requirements are (a) that the *transactional vectors* are parallel, and that (b) the *ego-state* addressed is the one that responds. So, other examples of *complementary transactions* are:

A^1 'This homework is a real mess!'

B^1 'Sorry Miss. I was in a hurry.'

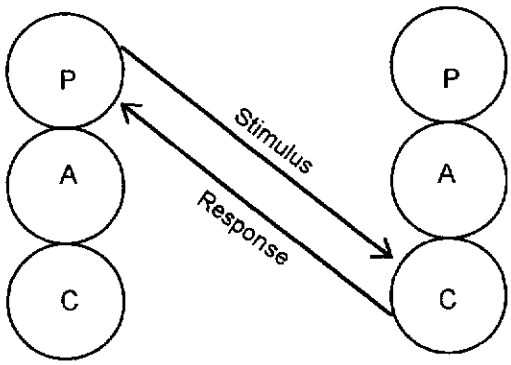

Figure 2.5. A complementary transaction: Example 2.

A^1 'Let's go fishing!'

B^1 'Yea. That will be fun.'

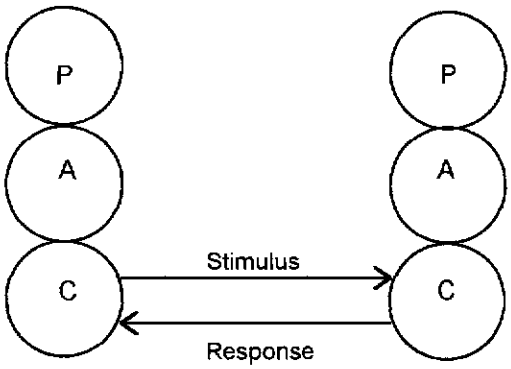

Figure 2.6. A complementary transaction: Example 3.

2.9.2 *Crossed Transactions*

In a *crossed transaction* the *response* does not come from the *ego-state* that was addressed. *Crossed transactions* cause most classroom conflict as communication ceases when a *crossed transaction* occurs. In a *crossed transaction* the *stimulus* may come from the *Adult ego-state*, while the response may be directed to the *Parent ego-state* from the *Child ego-state*, for example:

A^1 'What time will you be home?'

C^1 'You're always checking up on me, just like my father used to!'

This *Child-Parent* response, shown diagrammatically below, has crossed vectors, hence the term *crossed transaction.*

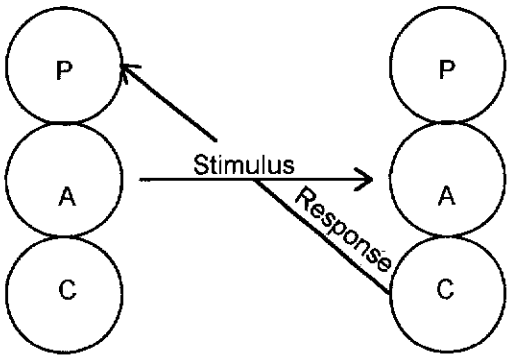

Figure 2.7. A crossed transaction.

Teachers may use this knowledge of *crossed transactions* to their advantage. A teacher might want a particular *transaction* to continue because it is healthy, productive, stimulating, etc. In this instance, the teacher would reply from the *ego-state* that the student addressed. When a teacher does not want a particular line of communication to continue, he/she may *cross* the *transaction* and reply from an *ego-state* other than the one addressed.

2.9.3 *Ulterior Transactions*

Ulterior transactions are, according to Berne (1964) 'those involving the activity of more than two *ego-states* simultaneously' (p. 31). Such transactions seem to be directed at the social level, but have an ulterior (psychological) purpose, for example:

A^1 'What are you doing after the show?'

C^1 'Wouldn't you like to know!'

Shown diagrammatically (next page) the content appears to be *Adult-Adult*, but at the psychological level the *Child ego-states* are involved:

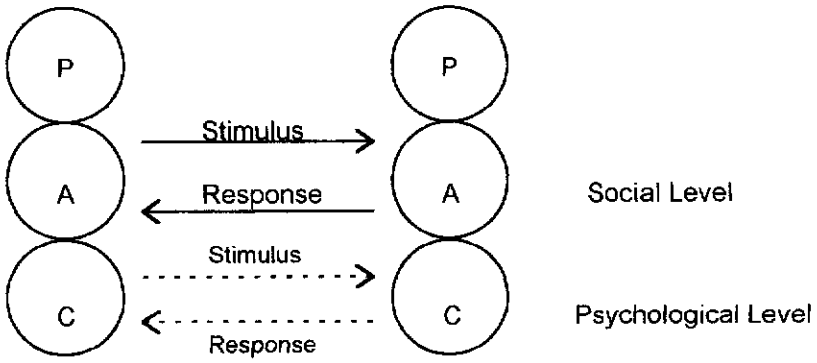

Figure 2.8. An ulterior transaction.

This type of *Ulterior Transaction* is known as a *duplex transaction* as it has a duplicity in its nature.

2.10 Strokes

Strokes at a basic level seem essential for survival. In the classroom, appropriate *stroking* builds the teacher-student relationship and may be used to encourage desired behaviour, thus a knowledge of *strokes* is essential for teachers.

Stewart and Joines (1987) stated that a *stroke* is 'a unit of recognition' (p. 334). To understand *strokes* and *stroking* as applied in TA, it is necessary to understand the concepts of *stimulus hunger* and *recognition hunger*, the relationship between them, and their interrelationship with *strokes*.

2.10.1 *Stimulus Hunger*

Berne (1964) said '*stimulus-hunger* in many ways parallels the hunger for food' (p. 13). Deprived of food, one would wither and die. Deprived of such stimuli as touch, infants have been found to be retarded, and in some cases have died. *Stimulus hunger* is the need for actual physical contact and comfort.

As an individual develops, the need for actual holding, rocking etc. lessens. An adult can get along if enough time and attention is received from others, whether or not physical contact is included. Berne (1964) said 'the result is a partial transformation of

the infantile *stimulus hunger* into something which may be termed *recognition hunger*' (p. 14). The response needed to satisfy both *stimulus hunger* and *recognition hunger* is described in TA as a *stroke*. While it is clear that the term *stroke* applies neatly in describing how physical needs are met, abating *stimulus hunger*, *stroking* is also used to describe the way in which the need for *recognition hunger* is met.

2.10.2 *Recognition Hunger*

The term *recognition hunger* is used in TA to describe the need to receive recognition of one's existence by others. *Strokes* provide such recognition, and according to Berne (1964) 'by an extension of meaning, *stroking* may be employed colloquially to denote any act implying recognition of another's presence' (p. 15). *Strokes* could be physical touch, or greetings, acknowledgement, etc. Holland (in Corsini, 1973) said 'this concept of *stroking* is analogous to the idea of physical stroking, an assumption of Transactional Analysis being that either physical stroking or recognition of another meets a basic human need' (p. 383). *Stimulus hunger*, *recognition hunger* and *stroking* reflect different aspects of a basic human need - the need of a person for his/her fellows.

2.11 Discounting

Teachers, through an understanding of this concept, can be aware of when a student is *discounting*. They can also be aware of when they themselves are *discounting* someone else, or are being *discounted* by someone else. Steiner (1975) defined a *discount* as 'a crossed transaction in which the discountee emits a *stimulus* from his/her *Adult ego-state* to another person's *Adult* and that person responds from his/her *Parent* or *Child*' (p. 144). The discountee's *Adult* is not acknowledged. Holland (in Corsini, 1973) maintained that *discounting* 'refers to any action by which a person is persuaded that he/she is not OK, not important or not helpable' (p. 367).

There are four ways in which *discounting* can be done:

1) *Doing nothing*
2) *Overadaption*

3) *Agitation*
4) *Incapacitation and Violence*

2.11.1 *Doing Nothing*

By *doing nothing* a person actually needs to make an effort to stop him/herself from acting. Stewart and Joines (1987) explained that while the person 'feels uncomfortable and experiences him/herself as not thinking' he/she *discounts* his/her 'ability to do anything about the situation' (p. 175). In a sports training session, I foolishly asked a player 'What is it that you're doing that's making you miss the ball?' The player froze, stared ahead and down. He was *discounting*, doing nothing. It was some time before he spoke again, then I had the chance to use a more positive approach and re-establish our relationship.

2.11.2 *Overadaption*

Stewart and Joines (1987) defined *overadaption* as '*discounting* (one's) ability to act on (one's) own options. Instead (one) follows options (one) believes others want' (p. 176). A person behaves him/herself in the ways he/she thinks others will want him/her to behave and will approve of the behaviour. *Overadaption* may be seen in a person's behaviour when although he/she does not have to, and has never been asked to, he/she works long hours and sometimes weekends because his/her boss does. He/she might even take this behaviour to the extreme and take extra time with tasks so there actually is something to do out of hours.

2.11.3 *Agitation*

A third form of *discounting* is known as *agitation.* Stewart and Joines (1987) saw *agitation* as being made up of 'many common habits where the person is *discounting* his/her ability to act to solve a problem' (p. 176). A person may pace, sigh, and rattle money around on a shop counter as others in the shop push in, thus showing *agitation* due to the person's inability to be assertive.

2.11.4 *Incapacitation and Violence*

Incapacitation and *violence* are also ways in which people *discount* their ability to solve their problems. *Incapacitation*, according to Stewart and Joines (1987) is 'violence directed inward' (p. 177), whereas *violence* per se is directed at others and at property. Graffiti writing and vandalism may be seen as violent behaviours directed at 'The School' and/or the mainstream adult world, with whom the mainly young perpetrators are angry and frustrated. Because of their perceived inability to communicate their feelings, and a feeling of lack of power and problem-solving skills, reactions become covert.

2.12 Time Structuring

Time structuring is a concept developed by Berne and first discussed in *Games People Play* (1964). He further developed the idea in later works.

TA identifies six ways of structuring time. These may go on in classrooms, staff-rooms, groups and committees in the school.

1) *Withdrawal*
2) *Rituals*
3) *Pastiming*
4) *Activity*
5) *Games*
6) *Intimacy*

2.12.1 *Withdrawal*

One or more members of a class might at some point withdraw. During *withdrawal* there would be no interaction with the rest of the class. The withdrawn person(s) could be daydreaming or thinking about something else.

2.12.2 *Rituals*

Class members would probably engage in *rituals*, especially at the beginning before the lesson starts as they greet each other, answer the roll, etc. *Rituals* would also be associated with assemblies, staff-meetings, and school sports. A *ritual* is a familiar and predictable social interaction, e.g., shaking hands.

2.12.3 *Pastiming*

Pastiming may take place as students wait for the class to start or as teachers wait for the staff- meeting to begin. Here people might chat about, for example, the weather, the First Eleven, what they did in the weekend and the conversation would tend to be superficial, and about past time.

2.12.4 *Activity*

As the lesson gets under way, the homework is checked (etc.), the class are engaged in activity. With *activity,* Stewart and Joines (1987) stated 'the communication between the group members is directed at achieving a goal, not just talking about it' (p. 91).

2.12.5 *Games*

When the class starts to move through the lesson, and discussion opens up, the possibility of *games* arises. Because one is more likely to put forward personal views in discussion than to follow set procedures, clashes of opinion could lead to *game-playing*, as the class members come from negative *ego-states* (e.g.) and exchange *discounts* as part of their debating style. (Detailed section follows: 2.13)

2.12.6 *Intimacy*

As the class debate the issues of the lesson's topic, it is possible that they will move from a games level to an *intimacy* level. If the class, group, staff-meeting etc. want to resolve issues and reach conclusions, they will tend to express 'authentic feelings and

wants to each other without censoring' (Stewart & Joines, 1987, p. 93). Because there will now be more straight talk amongst the class/group members, positive and negative *strokes* might be exchanged and the outcomes for the class/group will tend to be constructive.

Games and *games analysis* are early TA concepts. A lot has been written about *games*, including classroom *games*. Knowledge of *games theory* is of enormous benefit to the teacher. *Games*, *games analysis* and *formula G* are described next.

2.13 Games and Game Analysis

Berne (1964) wrote that, in TA, *game* refers to 'an ongoing series of complementary *ulterior transactions* progressing to a well-defined, predictable outcome' (p. 44). They are not 'fun' games. In TA, *games* are where you end up feeling bad. A detailed section is included on *games* as much of the disruptive behaviour that hampers student learning and teacher teaching is caused by *games*. *Games* not only take place in the classroom, they are likely to occur all over the school. They inhibit communication, disrupt meetings, cause playground as well as classroom conflict; they waste time. One reason *games* are played is to provide *strokes* which the person is unable to obtain through straight interaction i.e. through *intimacy*. *Games* are usually learned in our family of origin.

Stewart and Joines (1987) noted that the features of *games* are that they:

1) are repetitive
2) are played without *Adult* awareness
3) end up with the players experiencing *racket feelings*
4) entail an exchange of *ulterior transactions* between players
5) always include a moment of surprise or confusion (p. 233).

Ernst (1972) proposed that 'every *game* has predictable causes, moves and payoffs. But the moves are not random. The informed teacher can spot the rules governing the seemingly random moves made by the players' (p. 9).

2.13.1 *Formula G*

Formula G was devised by Berne (1987) to show the six stages of a *game*, namely *Con, Gimmick, Response, Switch, Crossup,* and *Payoff.* It can be shown diagrammatically:

$$C + G = R \Rightarrow S \Rightarrow X \Rightarrow P \quad \text{(p. 24).}$$

Figure 2.9. Formula G.

To demonstrate *Formula G,* it may be applied to a typical classroom *game*:

Student: (looking confused) "I don't know what to do."
(**CON**: invitation to *game*)

Teacher: "Let me help you. What is it you don't know to do?"
(**GIMMICK**: teacher accepts invitation to *game* by taking up a 'helper' position)

Student: "I'm so dumb at Maths. I don't get any of it."
Teacher: "Well, show me something you don't know ----"
Student: "Oh - it's just everything ----"
(**RESPONSE**: could go on for some time. The *response* is a series of *transactions* with the same covert message, in this case 'Helping')

Teacher: "Well, if you listened properly we wouldn't be in this situation."
(**SWITCH**: each player switched *Ego-States*)

The student *response* is also likely to be angry, and lead to him/her getting into trouble e.g. "Well, if you didn't ---- I'd ----"

Possible thought: (**CROSSUP**)
Teacher: "What's going on here? I was only trying to help."
Student: "I can't help being dumb, but all they do is pick on me."

Possible *racket* feelings: (**PAY OFF**)

Teacher: Helpless

Student: Angry

Karpman was one of the TA writers to follow Berne and develop Berne's ideas. Karpman's *Drama Triangle* adds to the knowledge of *games* and is described next.

2.14 The Drama Triangle

Karpman (1968) devised the *Drama Triangle* to demonstrate and analyse *games*. According to Karpman, each person in a *game* takes up a position on the triangle, and each position entails *discounting*. At the *switch*, people change positions on the triangle.

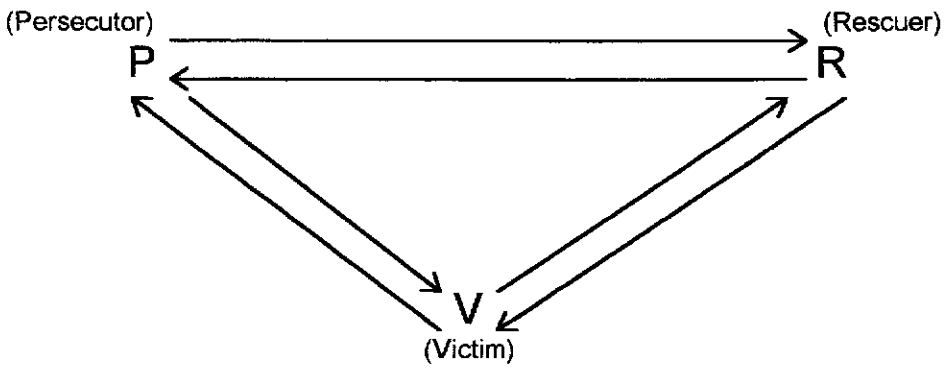

Figure 2.10. The Drama Triangle.

In the student/teacher *game* discussed in 2.13.1, the student started the *game* as *victim*, *discounting* his/her ability to do anything about his/her predicament. The teacher took up the *rescuer* position, *discounting* the student's ability to help him/herself. At the *switch* they alternated in the *persecutor* and *victim* positions, *discounting* the others value and dignity.

2.15 Rackets

A *racket* is a pattern of behaviours that are within *script*. A person involved in *racket* behaviour is unaware that he/she is using this behaviour as an attempt to manipulate

the environment. A *racket* is accompanied by *racket* feelings which cover up true feelings. People try to get *strokes* from others by using patterns of behaviour that are *rackets* or cover-ups. Stewart and Joines (1987) defined a *racket* feeling as a 'familiar emotion, learned and encouraged in childhood, experienced in many different stress situations, and maladaptive as an adult means of problem solving' (p. 332). They defined a *racket* system as 'a self-reinforcing, distorted system of feelings, thoughts, and actions maintained by *script-bound* individuals' (p. 332).

2.16 Script

Script or *life script*, is defined by Stewart and Joines (1987) as 'an unconscious life plan made in childhood, reinforced by the parents, "justified" by subsequent events and culminating in a chosen alternative' (p. 330). Decisions about *script* are made by the *Adult in the Child* (A1, or '*Little Professor*'). The *Child* makes decisions as best he/she can at the time, in order to cope. In so doing, he/she may be giving up natural parts of his/her personality. People can change their *scripts*. A lot of what counselling is about is making re-decisions about *script* with full *Adult* awareness. As part of one's *script*, one takes up a *life position*.

2.17 Life Position

Stewart and Joines (1987) defined *life position* as 'one's basic beliefs about self and others which are used to justify decisions and behaviour' (p. 119). The young child adopts a *life position* as his/her interpretation about him/herself and how he/she 'fits in' with others. The four *life positions* are:

1) I'm OK, you're OK;
2) I'm not-OK, you're OK;
3) I'm OK, you're not-OK;
4) I'm not-OK, you're not-OK.

If one chooses the *I'm OK, you're OK life position*, one is likely to be positive. In TA terms, this indicates a 'winning' *script*; one in which the individual is likely to value him/herself and others. Choosing the *I'm not-OK, you're OK life position* may lead to

a losing *script*. Such people become victims, and will give in easily. At best, life is ordinary. An *I'm OK, you're not-OK life position* looks like a winning one, but people with this *script* will not worry about winning at the expense of others. In time, such a person may find him/herself losing friends.

Choosing the *I'm not-OK, you're not-OK life position* is the most likely choice of a losing *script*. Such a person will find it hard to be close to others and is unlikely to value him/herself. Consequently, risk-taking behaviour won't matter. Little purpose is seen in life. Not only will rejection by others come as no surprise, this person will also push others away.

Stewart and Joines (1987) thought that 'once the child has adopted one of these (*life*) *positions*, he/she is likely to construct all the rest of his/her *script* to fit in with it' (p. 117). In adulthood, we tend to shift between positions influenced by our daily social interaction, however the position selected in childhood remains our basic position. We move in and out of *script*-determined behaviour, and *scripts* are usually a mixture of behaviours. We do, though, return to a general pathway that is influenced by our dominant *life position*.

Life position is formulated during infancy and childhood, and once decided on, one's life *script* can also be constructed. The *games* we play are outside of A*dult* awareness, and this is because *life position* and *script*, which determine the nature of the *game*, are also outside of *Adult* awareness. As a child, I may have learned that I ought not get angry. If I did, I got into trouble, got sent to my room etc. So when I was angry, I learnt to keep quiet. What I was actually doing was sulking. Sometimes I would get attention. Someone might say, 'You're very quiet' ('that's good'), or 'You're very quiet; what's wrong?' Either way, I got *strokes*. As an Adult, I might sulk when things are not going the way I want them to and I have not said anything about it.

The chapter concludes with descriptions of a number of basic concepts commonly found in TA literature, starting with *stamps*.

2.18 Stamps

An understanding of *stamps* will help teachers comprehend the behaviour of some of their students, including that behaviour which just seems to come from 'out of the blue'. Sometimes *racket* feelings are stored away like trading stamps. *Games* are also used to collect stamps. These saved up feelings may be from positive or negative events and they are used to justify some later behaviour.

2.19 Injunction

An *injunction* is a negative message received by the child, up to the age of six to eight years, from the *Child* of the parent. *Injunctions* are generally felt as emotions and body sensations, and they are reflected in behaviour. 'Don't exist' and 'Don't be close' are examples of *injunctions*.

2.20 Programme

Stewart and Joines (1987) said that 'the *programme* consists of messages about how to do things' (p. 131). *Programme* messages may be positive or negative, but end towards the former. Examples include:

> 'Here's how to cross the road;'
> 'Here's how to eat your dinner;'
> 'Here's how to regard other cultures.'

2.21 Counterinjunction

According to Stewart and Joines (1987) '*counterinjunctions* consist of commands about what to do or not to do, plus definitions of people and the world' (p. 130). *Counterinjunctions* come from parents and parent figures, and might include:

> 'Be loyal;'
> 'Save your money,;'
> 'Be a good sport.'

2.22 Early Decision

Early decision refers to themes given to the child. These themes are *injunctions* that are given in mainly non-verbal ways. Stewart and Joines (1987) reported on the ideas of Bob and Mary Goulding, who found that 12 such themes occur frequently:

Don't exist	Don't be important
Don't be you	Don't belong
Don't be a child	Don't be close
Don't grow up	Don't be well
Don't make it	Don't feel
Don't do anything	Don't think (p. 134).

Teachers can play a vital role in giving positive messages to students. Where a student has been brought up to believe negative things about him/herself, the teacher may be able to give messages that actively contradict the *injunctions* and *counterinjunctions* in the student's *script*. *Permissions*, described in the next section, are an example of positive messages.

2.23 Permissions

Permissions are picked up from as early as the pre-verbal stage of life. A parent enjoys playing with (*stroking)* his/her baby. The baby may conclude, 'Mother/Father wants me and likes me to be close.' These parents have given their baby the *permission* to exist and to be close. *Permissions* may be given from any *ego-state* and may be the most important thing a teacher gives a student. Positive messages not only enhance our emotional state but also our receptiveness to learning. The positive will always defeat the negative. *Permissions* are, according to Stewart and Joines (1987), 'positive, liberating *script* messages issued from the *Child* by the parent and housed in the *Child* by the child' (p. 332). Examples of permissions are:

Be yourself
Be close
Feel
Think
Succeed

2.23.1 *Script Matrix*

A *script matrix* may be used to demonstrate the terms *counterinjunction, programme, injunction* and *permission* (see Fig. 2.11 below):

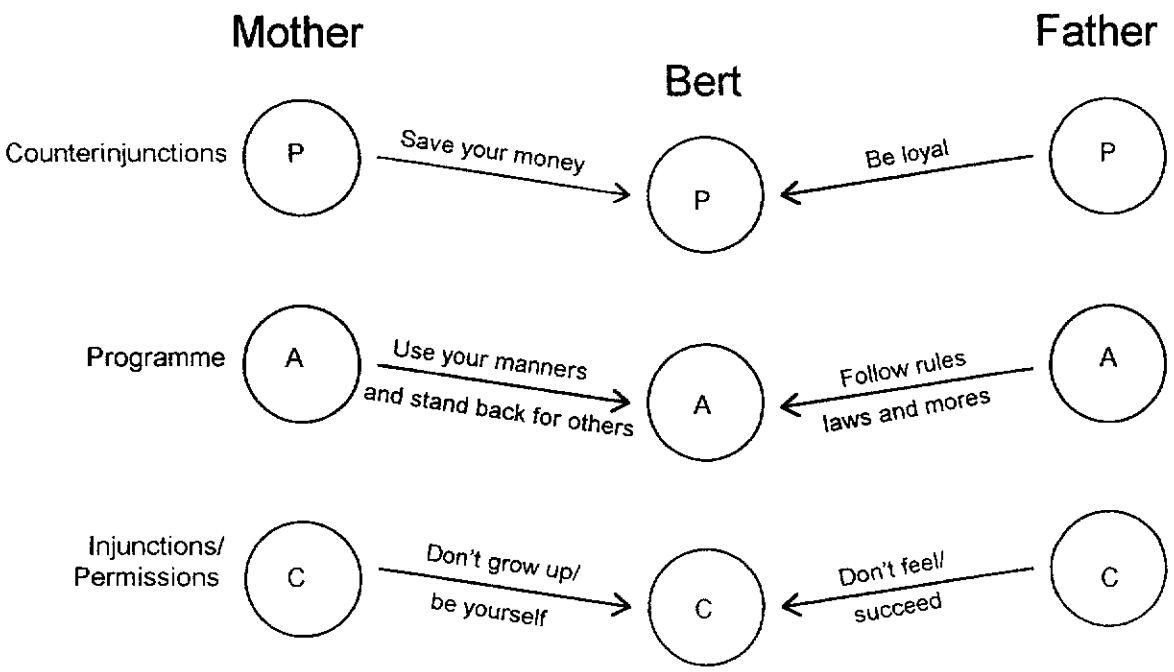

Figure 2.11. Script Matrix.

In therapy, the goal for the TA therapist is to move the client towards *autonomy*. Teachers also can play an effective part in moving students towards *autonomy* by relating in ways that move students out of *script* and '*scripty*' behaviours.

2.24 Autonomy

Autonomy in students is most likely to produce young people able to move freely between *ego-states* in response to the different learning situations. The *autonomous* student is interactive, and thus *autonomy* must be the most desirable state for learning. Stewart and Joines (1987) defined *autonomy* as 'the quality which is manifested by the release or recovery of three capacities: awareness, spontaneity and intimacy' (p. 326). They went on to say that 'any behaviour, thinking or feeling which is a response to

here-and-now reality, rather than a response to *script* beliefs' (p. 326) would be *autonomous* behaviour in terms of TA.

2.25 Conclusion

This chapter has given an outline of the basic concepts of TA. An understanding of these basic concepts could assist teachers wanting to apply TA ideas and methods to their classroom. The fundamental ideas about TA came from Berne, however, many of these concepts have evolved thanks to the thinking and writing of later Transactional Analysts. While this chapter has outlined the basic concepts of TA in a general way, the next chapter, the literature review, is more specific in that it outlines some of the literature relevant to this study.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

> O'er wayward childhood woulds't thou hold firm rule,
> And sun thee in the light of happy faces;
> Love, Hope, and Patience, these must be thy graces
> And in thine own heart let them first keep school

Here, Samuel Taylor Coleridge is talking about inter-personal relationships in the classroom. While it is not the intention of this study to provide teachers with a method whereby they are able to 'hold firm rule', having some measure of order will be shown to be desirable. Of more importance is the suggestion that the virtues we wish to implant in others must first be part of ourselves.

A review is possible of countless studies of how to apply this method or that method to the classroom. In reading, it is easy to nod wisely at the many suggestions for improving inter-personal relationships. It can be accepted intellectually that there certainly are things that can be done to enhance academic performance. It is possible to hope that because a person has learned so much, when in the classroom that person will make a real difference to the lives of the students. But what seems to count most is the teacher as a person. It is hoped that this study will help to enable teachers to be real in their interpersonal relationships, outside of the classroom as well as within. It is hoped that this study will provide some insight into how to model appropriate ways of relating, so that a lot of the distraction can be taken out of the classroom, leaving more time for the joy of learning.

This chapter is a review of literature pertaining to this study. The literature review begins with a consideration of some of the literature on teachers and classrooms. This leads on to a summary of readings on interpersonal behaviour, including teacher behavioural types. Next is a summary of some of the literature on TA. The summary of the literature on TA separates out into subsections on the use of TA in schools, how TA might be used to promote positive behaviour, ways in which TA might be used to help difficult or 'at-risk' students, and finally a section on TA and science and mathematics classrooms. This final portion is, in a sense, a set of guidelines for the use of TA in the classroom.

3.2 Teachers and Classrooms

The Strathclyde Regional Council set about promoting positive behaviour in the classroom, and in the foreward to their Teachers' Manual, McLean (1992) set out two key assumptions:

> – effective group management skills can be described, practiced and acquired,
> and
> – pupil behaviour is to some extent influenced by teacher behaviour. (p. 1)

Unless this first assumption is believed, there is little point running Teachers' Training Courses. The second assumption is very much supported by TA theory. The Teachers' Manual went on to note that "the most effective learning environments will be built upon a positive and caring classroom climate which will be supported by, and in turn contribute to, the school ethos" (p. 7).

Burns (1992) thought that the inclusion of personal growth skills ought to be part of teacher training, and that those who have had personal growth training would have better interpersonal skills than those who had not. Burns said that "those who have these skills are able to accept themselves and others more positively, cope with stress, make decisions, feel more secure in themselves (and) feel more in control of events than those who have not (had personal growth training)" (p. 62).

Tricket and Moos (1979) considered different kinds of outcomes; student satisfaction and content learning. They believed that teacher Interpersonal Behaviour was one factor in promoting positive outcomes, but that there were others:

> Students express great satisfaction in classrooms characterized by high student involvement , by a personal student-teacher relationship, by innovative teaching methods, and by clarity of rules.
>
> Classrooms in which students report a great deal of content learning combine an affective concern with students as people with an emphasis on students working hard for academic rewards within a coherent organised context. (p. 90)

Johnson and Johnson (1979) believed that the way in which the teacher structured the learning experience affected the interpersonal behaviour between students and the teacher, and that it was this interaction that determined the cognitive and affective outcomes of the lessons. Johnson and Johnson outlined three types of goal structures for the classroom: co-operative, competitive and individualistic. They believed that all three would operate in an ideal classroom, but that co-operative interaction ought to dominate. They supported the view that teachers who model appropriate behaviour had an effect on students, and suggested that if teachers instructed students in the use of co-operative skills they would be more inclined to use those same skills when interacting with other staff members.

Thus, teachers who model appropriate behaviour are likely to have such behaviour as an integral part of themselves. Such co-operative classroom and staffroom practices could go on to permeate a school.

From a systems perspective, the way in which the behaviour of one part of a system effects another part may be understood. In a classroom 'system', the behaviour of one part of the system e.g. the teacher may effect another part of the system e.g. the student(s), and vice versa. This supports the TA view that *transactions* are usually *complementary*, and that the behaviour of one person, e.g. in a *Game*, will effect the

behaviour of the other. This was summarised by Wubbels, Brekelmans, and Hooymayers (1991), who said:

> The behaviour of the teacher both influences and is influenced by the behaviour of the students. Circular communication processes develop which not only consist of behaviour, but which also determine behaviour. (p. 142)

Mboya (1995) carried out a study of 874 students from four High Schools around Cape Town, and found that there was a significant positive relationship between perceived teacher support, interest, encouragement and participation and the adolescents' family, school and health self-concepts.

A study by Wilson and Shulha (1995) produced results which indicated that behaviours that related to conforming to school requirements, when targeted, tended to produce a high level of academic achievement. They said that an interpretation of this might indicate that teachers' academic marks are affected by their perceptions of the students' acquiescence. This would be disturbing, but it is possible that for some teachers at any rate, students' marks have something to do with their classroom behaviour as well as their academic ability. In their study, Wilson and Shulha noted that in particular, the comments of mathematics teachers were dominated by reference to compliance remarks frequently followed references to achievement.

MacAulay (1990) found that the actual physical layout of the classroom influenced student outcomes. When students were seated in rows they were more easily focussed on the teacher, and showed cognitive gains. When students were seated in opposite – sex seating configurations and the teaching style was characterised by consistency, rule clarity and order, students paid attention well. More open environments influence social and affective gains. Many seating plans are instituted by the teacher. MacAulay advocated some measure of student choice, and stated:

> In classrooms where student preferences, e.g. co-operation rather than competition, are taken into account, students pay more attention to the task at hand and are more motivated towards learning and achievement. Such classrooms are characterised by low rates of friction and disruption as well as emphasis on self-efficacy. (p. 250)

The type of classroom environment that MacAulay advocated was one operated within an '*I'm OK – You're OK*' attitude.

That student outcomes are influenced by '*Strokes*' was shown in a study by Wheldall (1989) in which a group of fourteen teachers were observed before and after a skills course in classroom management. Wheldall concluded that pupil on task behaviour changed largely as a result of improvements in the ratio between the teachers' use of approval and disapproval.

There was some concern that student outcomes were influenced by the desire of some teachers to have peace and quiet. The suggestion was that such teachers may not teach the full curriculum and that they used some lessons to simply amuse and occupy the students. Heinz Wolff (1992), the director of the Brunel Institute for Bioengineering, said:

> Teachers feel that they have to keep their pupils interested and amused. They are therefore tending to let the fundamentals of science teaching drop out of the bottom. (p. 43)

Arnold Wolfendale (1992), the Astronomer Royal, shared Wolff's alarm, and said:

> I realize that mathematics is a difficult subject to teach, and we have downgraded it a lot, and seized on the more interesting areas to inspire the young --- we are not just teaching mathematics --- they must learn mathematics as the language of science. (p. 41)

When teachers' attitudes are influenced by an 'anything for a quiet life' view, there is some truth in what both Wolff and Wolfendale said. Undoubtedly, student outcomes are effected.

Levy and Rodriguez (1993) categorized teachers to the following eight types.

1) DIRECTIVE: Here the classroom was well structured and task oriented. The teacher was seen to be organised, completed lessons on time, dominated discussion and held the students interest. While sometimes friendly, the teacher set high standards and was seen as demanding. It was thought that the teacher 'had to work at it'. The teacher sometimes got angry, and called on inattentive and misbehaving students as a method of control.

2) AUTHORITATIVE: The classroom was also well structured and task oriented and was seen as being 'pleasant'. Rules and procedures were clearly set out and the students seldom needed reminders. Classes are attentive and students produced better work than those in type 1). The teacher was seen as being 'enthusiastic and open to students needs'. This personal interest in the students was seen to come through in lessons. While the favourite teaching method used by the Authoritative teacher is the lecture, other techniques were also used. The lessons are well planned and logically structured, and teachers of this type are considered 'good' teachers by their students.

3) TOLERANT AND AUTHORITATIVE: Teachers of this 'type' were seen to support students responsibilities and freedom. They used a variety of methods to which the students responded well. These methods included group work. The classroom environment was seen as being similar to type 2 but with the teacher closer to the students. Humour was present, the students were involved and enjoyed classes. There was little need to enforce rules, and the teacher ignored minor disruptions and concentrated on the lesson. The students worked to reach their own and the teacher's instructional goals with little complaint.

4) TOLERANT: Two views of type 4 were given.
   a] From the Dutch sample: a pleasant and supportive atmosphere was observed and the students enjoyed class. There was more freedom than for types 1-3. The students were given the opportunity to influence the curriculum and the instruction. The students were seen to appreciate the teacher's personal

involvement, and the way in which the teacher matched work to the students' learning styles. With students working at their own pace the atmosphere in such classes may appear confused.

b] From the U.S. sample: while the teacher seemed interested in the students, academic expectations were not evident. The teacher was seen as disorganised with lesson unprepared and not challenging. Here students were often sent off to complete individual assignments with little teacher involvement.

5) UNCERTAIN / TOLERANT: The teacher was seen as co-operative but with poor leadership. Lessons were poorly structured with incomplete introductions and little follow through. Disorder was tolerated and the students were not task oriented. Although the teacher was concerned about the class, inappropriate behaviour was often ignored. Repeated instructions were given to students not listening, and the teacher spoke loudly to those attending at the front of the class while ignoring the rest. Rules were arbitrary and efforts to stop inappropriate behaviour lacked emphasis and effect. The teacher varied between reacting and ignoring inattentiveness. Expectations were minimal, with teacher and students 'appearing to go their own way'.

6) UNCERTAIN/AGGRESSIVE: Here the teacher and students were seen as opponents. The students seized opportunities to disrupt and provoke the teacher with the teacher overreacting, with the class, thus leading to further misbehavior. The teacher attempted to discipline some students but missed the culprits. Rules were not communicated or explained, and the teacher was unwilling to experiment with different instructional methods. Learning seemed a low priority.

7) REPRESSIVE: The students of this teacher type were seen to be uninvolved and docile. They followed rules and were afraid of the teacher's outbursts. The teacher overreacted to minor misbehavior, was sarcastic and gave low grades. While lessons were structured they were not well organised and few questions were allowed. The classroom atmosphere was guarded and unpleasant. Little teacher help was given to students who were apprehensive and fearful and anxious about

exams. The teacher lectured much of the time and students' initiative was repressed. The teacher was perceived as unhappy and impatient.

8) DRUDGING: Atmosphere varied between that of types 5 and 6. The teacher struggled to control the class and showed little warmth. The students paid attention when the teacher actively tried to motivate them, but were generally lacking in enthusiasm, competitiveness and supportiveness. The teacher did most of the talking, avoided new methods and looked burnt out.

Brekelmans, Wubbels, and Levy (1993), found that older more experienced teachers were more frequently Directive and Repressive types, and that younger less experienced teachers were more frequently Drudging, Authoritative or Tolerant.

Brekelmans, Wubbels, and Levy (1993), wrote about 'Student Performance, Attitudes, Instructional Strategies and Teacher-Communication Style'. Here they discussed the various teacher styles, and said:

> The Repressive teacher has the highest student achievement scores but is low in terms of student attitudes. Directive and Authoritative teachers are rather high in both outcome categories. The teachers with disorderly classrooms have students with negative attitudes and low achievement scores. (p. 60)

The literature thus far has reviewed some of the writing on teachers and classrooms. The qualities and behaviours of teachers and the aspects of classrooms that are conducive to learning have been discussed. Good teachers have been said to be those with sound management and personal skills. They model appropriate behaviour, have well structured lessons, are encouraging to their students, and show an interest in them. It has been shown that teachers can be categorized into types. Good classrooms have been shown to be those that are co-operative and with a positive climate. There is evidence that the actual physical layout of the classroom can also help lead to positive outcomes. Teachers and classrooms then are two factors that affect outcomes. The way in which teachers relate to students, what actually goes on between them, is also

important. This interpersonal behaviour is discussed in the literature, and some of this literature is reviewed in the following section.

3.3 Interpersonal Behaviour

Flaro (1979) believed that the teacher's behavioural transactions with the student were the critical factor in teacher effectiveness. Flaro quoted Webb (1971):

> The way a teacher behaves, not what he knows, may be the most important issue in the transmission of the teaching – learning exchange. The psychological behaviour, the quality of how the teacher relates to the child, is perhaps the most important basis for the learning attitudes held by the child. (p. 194)

In discussing the *Games* that students play, Ernst (1972) observed that "each *Game* a student plays will be played only as long as the teacher --- also plays" (p. 53). Classroom interpersonal behaviour can thus be clearly described in TA terms. Interpersonal behaviour can be affected by the 'baggage' the players bring to the classroom. Frazier (1971) believed that because many teachers are involved with their traditional role of the stern parent, they look at their students primarily from above. Frazier also suggested that *Games* are brought into the classroom by both teacher and students. Moos (1979) found that while interpersonal behaviour was an important ingredient affecting student outcomes, it was not the only factor. He believed that although emphasis on the relationship dimension was necessary, it was not sufficient.

The contributions of teachers and of classrooms both contribute to positive outcomes for students. This section has added a further ingredient; interpersonal behaviour. Some researchers have used measurement instruments to assess aspects of interpersonal behaviour.

Wubbels et.al. (1991) studied teacher interpersonal behaviour, using the *Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction* (QTI). They found that particular types of interpersonal teacher behaviour caused student outcomes. Further, they found that a reciprocal casual interaction was possible and that student achievement and motivation could foster the

interpersonal behaviour of the teacher. This in turn improved student achievement and motivation.

Fraser (1979), when evaluating the Australian Science Education Project, found that learning environment variables were good predictors of student cognitive and affective learning outcomes. Wubbels, Brekelmans and Hooymayers (In Fraser & Walberg, 1991) reported the results of a Dutch study on affective outcomes using the Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction. Results showed that the co-operative behaviours indicated by the model of interpersonal teacher behaviour (Submission Cooperation, Cooperation Submission, Cooperation Dominance, Dominance Cooperation) were positively related to affective outcomes. Results also showed that the opposition behaviours (Dominance Opposition, Opposition Dominance, Opposition Submission, Submission Opposition) were negatively related to affective outcomes.

As schools tend towards competitive rather than co-operative learning experiences, opportunities to enhance affective outcomes are limited. Johnson and Johnson (In Walberg, 1979) thought that the tendency for children to compete often interfered with their capacity to adapt when co-operation was needed.

Considering cognitive outcomes, as measured by the Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction, Wubbels et.al. (1991), found that strict, leadership and friendly behaviours were positively related to student outcomes while uncertain, student responsibility and freedom and dissatisfied behaviours were negatively related to cognitive outcomes. They thought that a problem arises if teachers want to achieve high levels of cognitive as well as high levels of affective outcomes, as teachers were pulled in opposite directions by the conflicting demands of the sectors DO and SC, i.e. the conflicting demands of strict behaviour on the teacher's part versus allowing students a measure of freedom with responsibility.

Levy, Créton, and Wubbels (1993) found that students thought that their best teachers were strong leaders. These teachers were more Friendly and Understanding and less Uncertain, Dissatisfied or Admonishing. The worst teachers were seen by students as being more Oppositional and less Co-operative than average teachers. 'Best teachers'

were those considered to be student-oriented (Co-operative) and in charge (Dominant). 'Worst teachers' were those considered to be repressive and uncertain. It was concluded by Levy et.al. (1993), that the stronger a teacher's self-esteem the more that teacher was perceived as dominant (i.e. in charge) by the students and the teacher.

Brekelman and Créton, (1993), wrote about 'Interpersonal Teacher Behaviour throughout the Career'. They noted that during their careers teachers experienced periods of growth and decline, and that these variations may lead to changes in communication style. They said:

> As their career progress teachers become less co-operative and their enthusiasm seems to dwindle at the hands of routine and stress --- They can also become increasingly tired, impatient, demanding and dissatisfied with students. A small change in a teacher's co-operative behaviour can lead to negative communication spirals. (p.101)

Both 'co-operative' and 'dominant' styles of teaching make for success. The research indicates a need for inservice training throughout a teacher's career that includes time to consider teaching style and to reflect on training needs.

A number of educators have established the importance of interpersonal behaviour in the learning process. The QTI was one response used to examine this, and showed that teachers' interpersonal behaviour can be used to categorize them in terms of their different teaching styles. A further variable effecting student outcomes is the students' behaviour. Both the teachers' interpersonal behaviour and the students' interpersonal behaviour, individually and together, can effect teaching and learning outcomes. TA is a way of examining the transactions between people. It gives a way to examine what could be termed the normal, everyday transactions in the classroom, as well as the transactions that result from a teacher interacting with a 'difficult' student, or a student interacting with a 'difficult' teacher.

In discussing Transactional Analysis (TA) in Education, Stewart and Joines (1987) wrote:

> By the nature of educational settings, it is likely that the students may 'put a face on' the teacher, and that she in turn may buy into these replays of the past by taking on a *Parental* role. She can help avoid this by acquiring knowledge of *script* theory and by learning the content of her own *script*. (p. 281)

Students become noticed most often because they are misbehaving, or conforming to what the teacher wants. Hough (1971) observed that there were more and easier ways to obtain *negative strokes* than *positive strokes*. The *negative strokes* are mainly for rule infringement i.e. *Negative Adapted Child* and *Negative Natural Child* behaviour. *Positive strokes* tend to be for *Positive Adapted Child* behaviour.

The *Games* that are played in the classroom are the same *Games* that are played in other locations, e.g. the home, the Counsellor's room, etc. They are played in the classroom for the same reasons that they are played in other locations.

Games affect student outcomes. Frazier (1971) believed that a *Game* kept the student from reacting in a straight way to the teacher, the subject matter and to himself. The solution according to Frazier, is not to play the *Game*, to engage *Adult*. Focus on the present, from *Adult*, Frazier said ensured that the past, the future, the outside situations do not interfere with the learning progress.

Student outcomes can be affected by ones *script* beliefs. *Life Script* in TA is, according to Stewart and Joines (1987), "an unconscious life-plan made in childhood, reinforced by the parents, justified by subsequent events and culminating in a chosen alternative" (p. 330). Part of the *script* theory is the idea of one's OKness in relation to self and others, and the idea of being a 'winner' or a 'loser'.

The cultural background of a person contributes to *script* beliefs. Sichem (1995) thought that an individual's personal *script* was part of the *script* of that individuals family and culture. Each family (and society) conveys its way of life in which each individual is given a role to play. In situations where a teacher is teaching a student from a culture where there are suggestions of a 'losing *script*', it is important to get the

student to make some *redecisions* if his/her academic and personal outcomes are to improve.

Speaking on the B.B.C.'s Panorama programme, Hill (1997) said that people brought their own experiences of being loved or not loved into their present relationships. Teachers, as well as students, may bring such experiences into the classroom. Where teachers do this, student outcomes may be affected through teacher attitudes and behaviour. Hill also maintained that memories of one's own childhood can be overwhelming present relationships with children, e.g. a fear of our own father can still be an influence in the present. For a teacher with unresolved issues of this sort, it is likely that he/she will mimic his/her own father, or even overcompensate by 'marshmellowing' (spoiling). It is also likely that that teacher will adopt an *Adapted Child* stance with superiors, who he/she will see as *Parent* figures – so, *Adult-Adult* relationships with senior teaching colleagues are not equal. It is most important for teachers to be free of their own negative past experiences, so that they can operate in the present with *Adult* awareness, and not put their 'stuff' onto their students. Operating with *Adult* awareness enables teachers to be far more likely to (e.g.) acknowledge students who are achieving, behaving, relating appropriately, and, to give them *positive strokes*.

TA can enable educators to examine classroom interactions, and to predict the likely response to teacher statements (stimuli) by students. Because the QTI is capable of analysing a teacher's style, used together the QTI and TA have the potential to predict which teachers are likely to promote personal growth and learning, and which teachers are likely to promote conflict.

The next section reviews some ways in which TA can be used in schools, how teachers can make the most of TA, and how various aspects of TA can be applied to some of the challenges of the classroom.

3.4 The Uses of Transactional Analysis in Schools

The principles of TA can be applied to many areas of the school. Apart from its obvious use in Counselling and Psychotherapy, TA is being used to assist organisations to function more effectively as a whole. TA theory can help the teacher understand him/herself better. TA provides a theory of child development that can help the teacher understand the various developmental stages. This theory applies equally to the stages of adolescence.

The simplicity of TA language makes TA easy to teach to children at any stage of their schooling. TA helps teachers and students to communicate clearly. With knowledge of TA the teacher is able to stay on task and avoid conflict with his/her students.

An understanding of TA by teachers helps them plan activities that will appeal to all the *ego-states* of the students. According to Stewart and Joines (1987):

> Learning experiences themselves are most likely to be effective if they appeal to all three ego-states. It is especially important to recognize that the Natural Child is the source of creativity and energy in the personality and needs to be included in the learning process. (p. 281)

Payton, Morris, and Beale (1979) found that the research evidence (Kalisch 1971, Truax and Lister 1971) suggested that people in the helping professions are not adequately prepared in the human relationship skills that have been shown to enhance effectiveness. Their study supported the idea that the learning and applying of TA concepts moved a person in the direction of the *I'm-OK-You're OK* position.

A study by Erskine (1975) showed that students in the worst trouble at school changed markedly when they learned about TA *ego-states* and how that TA theory applied to themselves.

Knowledge of TA helps teachers avoid unproductive conflict. In the *Promoting Positive Behaviour* Guide (1992), produced by the Strathclyde Regional Council, the view was expressed that effective teachers were able to prevent many problems by establishing

their legitimate authority with the children through the negotiation of a few basic rules. This is like the TA idea of contracting.

Frazier (1971) concluded his study on the use of TA in a Correctional School by maintaining that the principles of TA can serve as useful strategies in the classroom setting. His article looked at how to pick up clues from students and from the environment that help the teacher predict possible future outcomes. Frazier says:

> Teachers receive many clues to students' fragmenting their experiences. What is the high-pitched voice saying? Put words to the pencil tapping – what kind of message would it have? (p. 216)

According to Hough (1971), the influence of the school in the process of *script* and *life position* formation cannot be underestimated. The kinds of messages a student receives during his/her schooling can have a profound effect on his/her self-image, on his/her life.

Baldwin, Carney, Duvall, Goldin, and Morris (1986) found, in a survey of 144 adults in full-time employment, that there was a clear sign of an association between *ego-state* dominance and chosen occupation. This has implications for teachers themselves, and for teachers involved in Careers Guidance. Baldwin et.al. found that once an *ego-state* dominance had developed it was fairly consistent over time, and as individuals mature, the actual occupations they chose were closely linked to their *ego-state* dominance. Because of circumstance and job availability, people don't always get the job they want, the job that matches their *ego-state* dominance. This means that there may be many people, teachers included, who are working in areas to which they are not suited. Baldwin et.al. adapted a summary of occupations and *ego-state* dominance from Dolliver and Mixon's (1977) study, summarised on next page:

Table 3.1

Dominant Ego-State and Related Occupations.

Ego-State Dominance	Preferred Occupation
Nurturing Parent	Counsellor, minister, teacher, social worker, parent
Controlling Parent	Politician, armed services, administrator
Adult	Engineer, accountant, mathematician, scientist
Adapted Child	Factory worker, housekeeper, unskilled laborer, librarian
Natural Child	Actor, artist, dancer

Montuschi (1984) made some generalisations about teachers based on observation of their repetitive behaviours on in-service training courses. Teachers were seen to have a 'Learning *Script*' of 'I'm *OK* only if you know everything'. This, according to Montuschi, was based on an exaggerated importance given to the students' knowledge. Here, the subject taught was seen to be an end in itself. The problems with this *script* are that student behaviour was not taken into account, the value of learning for its own sake was down played and the teacher-student relationship was unlikely to develop. Montuschi saw teachers as having a 'Change *Script*' of 'I'm *OK* only if you change'. This meant that the teacher was *OK* as long as the student behaved. However the student, if misbehaving, didn't need to take responsibility for changing because the teacher had assumed this responsibility for him/her. The teacher had taken on a Rescuer role. Teachers are also seen to have an 'Availability *Script*' which reads 'Tell me what I have to do'. The teacher aware of his/her limits, seeks help. Although the seeking of help was based on real experiences the teacher may experience guilt in asking other to help or give advice. 'Tell me ---' was seen by Montuschi as a magical expectation. A more useful approach would have been to seek co-operation from experts or colleagues i.e. to try to solve the problem in a co-operative way rather than seeking someone else's solution. Montuschi also talked about teachers who hide their talents. Opportunities for co-operation needed to be provided as many teachers had good methods and ideas that others would benefit from.

Flaro (1979) believed that a knowledge of *Ego-states* could provide teachers with an overview of what types of teacher behaviour might have a positive or a negative effect on the classroom environment or upon student behaviour.

A particular application of TA in schools is considered in the next section; how to make classrooms and learning experiences more positive.

3.5 Transactional Analysis as a Positive Behaviour Strategy

Frank (1974) ran a Creative-Training group for 30 scientists, engineers and executives. Initially, the different groups were oppositional towards each other, and didn't think they would be able to get on. TA methods were used to deal with their *Negative Injunctions*, to decontaminate their *Adult*, and to encourage them to use *Adult* and *Natural Child* to co-operate in problem solving. The methods used in this study have implications for schools.

Negative injunctions e.g. 'Don't Think', Don't Know', 'Don't Speak Up', and 'Don't Succeed' were confronted. Decontamination of the *Adult* was evident. *Controlling Parent* statements e.g. 'it'll never work' were treated by encouraging *Adult* requests for data, e.g., 'What is your information for that statement?', 'Exactly what happened?' and 'Can you give us the details on that?'. *Adapted Child* statements e.g. 'You miss my point so I'll tell you again', 'I'll never agree to that' were also treated by encouraging *Adult* statements to 'cross' the *Adapted Child*, e.g. 'I see that this is very important to you' and other positive *strokes* that recognised the feeling. A lot of *Natural Child* was used in the initial stages. Guided fantasy, make believe, brain storming and dream work proved useful. Since a child expresses himself most freely to another child, the whole group were regressed to eight years old for brainstorming. *Natural Child* responses were encouraged. Returning to *Adult*, the group ranked ideas for feasibility. Problem Solving was carried out in *Adult*.

What at the outset had looked to be three groups of people who would not be able to work together, turned out to be a most productive unit. Seventeen new and usable ideas were produced, and Frank concluded that TA could be seen as a way encouraging

creativity. As Freed (1992) said " Out of the stuff of dreams come the facts of science and inventions" (p. 127).

Van Beekum (1996) stated that in educational settings TA was very useful when parents and teachers provided a warm climate of acceptance, *stroking* positively and negatively.

Capers and Holland (1971) believed that a person must receive a certain amount of *stroking* to survive. They presented the notion of a Stroke Survival Quotient (S.Q.). People with a low S.Q. were seen as 'Losers', whereas 'Winners' had a higher S.Q. A person with a S.Q. below 60% would take any *strokes* offered. These would be the 'at-risk' or behaviour problem students. They accepted negative *strokes*, and twisted positive *strokes* to get a put down. By so doing they maintained their '*Not-OK*' position. If such students could learn the difference, between a negative and a positive *stroke*, and could recognise one from the other, they would be in a position to reject negative *strokes*. People with a S.Q. over 60% are not so at risk. It was easier to teach them the difference between negative and positive *strokes*. With a S.Q. of 60% - 87% a person was not seen to be starving of positive *strokes*, but they still needed to learn to accept only positive *strokes*. People with a S.Q. of over 87% had what Capers and Holland termed a '*stroke* bank'. They had a reserve of positive *strokes*. Such people concentrated on activities and relationships which would keep giving them positive *strokes*. Success feeds on success. Because of their high self-esteem such people were not likely to accept negative *strokes* or to be effected by them. Winners collect positive *strokes* and Losers collect negative *strokes*. It is vital that teachers know the difference.

Hough (1971) found that teachers are not all that good at giving positive *strokes* to students. In a two month period of short observations in eight primary school classes, an average of 105 'witch' messages were heard per class, for example:

> You'll never learn to speak properly------
> Your brother never gave me problems------ (p. 38)

More negative than positive *strokes* were seen in teacher-pupil transactions.

The Strathclyde Regional Council Promoting Positive Behaviour programme advocated the importance of reinforcing Positive Behaviour and of maintaining it with rewards. Positive *strokes* are a good way if doing this. Misbehaviour also has to be dealt with and negative *strokes* have their place. In *Promoting Positive Behaviour* an order of interventions is recommended e.g. early intervention ⇒ reprimand ⇒ punishment. Communication skills are needed to manage and defuse confrontation. The skills of TA are ideal.

Freed (1976) pointed out that we must have strokes to live. He outlined ways to get *strokes*:

Withdrawal
Rituals
Pastimes
Activities
Games
Fun
Intimacy (p. 44)

Freed suggested to students that "if you've been feeling lonely, unhappy or depressed, maybe you've been selecting ways of getting *strokes* that aren't as satisfying as you need" (p. 44). He advocated the goals of TA as a means of promoting the positive and getting along with others. He outlined these as:

AUTONOMY:	What you can do with TA is free yourself from self-imposed failure *scripts*
SPONTANEITY:	The freedom to have and to express your own feelings.
INTEGRITY:	Agreements, or contracts, drawn up by you and between consenting people
AUTHENTICITY:	Being genuine and real, honest and game free, *Adult*.

Positive Behaviour was far more likely in a classroom where these four qualities (above) are used. Freed thought that two authentic people were more likely to make it in a relationship than are those who played *games*.

For TA to contribute to the promotion of positive behaviour in schools, Stewart and Joines (1987) believed:

> It can be particularly appropriate to set effective problem solving as the goal for change --- *discounting* and unsolved problems may often arise because people are misinformed. Thus the (teacher) needs to focus attention --- on information exchange and the development of effective ways for people to act on that information. (p. 268)

Stewart and Joines (1987) thought also that the use of contract-making helped educators and learners to reach clear agreement about what they are there to do and how best they could do it. In TA, a contract is defined by Stewart and Joines (1987) as "an explicit bilateral commitment to a well defined course of action", and "*Adult* commitment to oneself and/or someone else to make a change" (p. 328). They outline what a contract should specify (p. 260):

- who both parties are
- what it is they are going to do together
- how long this will take
- what the goal or outcome of that process will be
- how they will know when they have reached the goal
- how will that be beneficial and/or pleasing

To be an effective contract, Stewart and Joines (p. 263-265) believed that it should be written down, it should have only positive words, it should be possible, the parties need to know how they will be able to tell when the change has been make, it should be safe, and the costs to the parties should be assessed. A further factor in the promotion of positive behaviour is that, according to Stewart and Joines, the educator needed to have free access to all his/her *ego-states*.

Illsley-Clarke (1978) spoke of the need to build up young people. She outlined the messages that can be given to build self-esteem and build positive relationships. She distinguished between messages about 'doing' and messages about 'being', and said that positive affirmations for being capable and for doing well were self-esteem building blocks that each of us needed every day of our lives. Illsley-Clarke suggested that a self-

esteem building message for 'doing' is the 'You did that well' message. Commending the teenager for passing his/her driver's test is a 'You are capable' message. These messages are important for young people who are at a time in their lives often clouded by self-doubt. A self-esteem message for 'being' would be one that the young person didn't have to earn. Such a message would suggest (e.g.) that 'You are important and lovable just because you exist'. Illsley-Clarke also believed that negative messages can also build self-esteem. When properly delivered, such messages say 'I care about you'. She suggests a three-step method for the delivery of these negative messages, which must include what to do, e.g.

1) Don't do that ------
2) because ------
3) Do this instead ------

The teacher needs to say what not to do, to say why, and give an alternative. An application of Illsley-Clarke's idea would be:

> Don't call out James, because that interrupts the lesson. Raise your hand when you have a question and I will respond to you.
>
> Or
>
> Don't comment, Mary, when someone gets and answer wrong, because that's a put-down. I want you to treat others fairly and with respect.

Illsley-Clarke warned that some messages can be destructive. Examples are what she termed 'plastic' and 'don't be' messages; e.g.

(Plastic)	"That looks good, considering you made it"
(Don't be)	"If it weren't for you, this would be a great class"

TA can play a particularly big part for teachers of the learning disabled. It can give these teachers a way of promoting positive behaviour that can be long lasting. Sichem thought that for the learning disabled, life experiences are more negative than gratifying. Often, learning difficulties can lead a person to an 'I'm not-OK' *script* that becomes generalised. Once the learning disability is seen by the student as being part of him/herself, Sichem said that learning disabilities could be linked to *script*, and could

induce a person to succeed in not learning. Further, the learning disabled can take the "I'm not-OK – You're OK' or the 'I'm not-OK – You're not-OK' *life position.*

Teachers don't have a lot of control over what happens to students outside of the classroom. Sichem suggested a method of promoting positive behaviour for the learning disabled in the classroom that had some hope of continuing into the outside world. The method involved assisting the student to a *redecision* that he/she could succeed in learning and suggested working with the family and the learning environment where possible.

Interventions included

a) Giving permissions to feel, to think and to experiment
b) Giving clear feedback
c) Provide time management and task management
d) Help with the development of positive relationships
e) Explaining the basic concepts of TA *script* theory

As learning rests on a balance between logic and the emotions, it is especially important for the learning disabled to feel good about themselves if they are to reach their academic potentials. There are lessons here for all teachers.

It may be that working with the learning disabled is less rewarding for teachers than working with main stream students. If this is so it would explain why in the Kenney and Lyons (1979) study, they were unable to discover a clear pattern of naturally occurring *ego-states*. In order to maintain the mental health of teachers of the learning disabled, opportunities need to be provided where by they can maintain a healthy balance of their own *ego-states*.

Ernst (1972) gave an account of *games* students play. He gave an outline of the main classroom *games*, and suggested ways in which teachers could anticipate *game* playing. He stated that:

> A *game* has an opening move --- aimed at getting a sympathetic response. If this response is not given, the *game* goes into more detailed manoeuvers. Every *game* has predictable causes, moves and payoffs. The informed teacher --- can spot the rules governing the seemingly random moves made by the players. (p. 9)

Ernst suggested that one of the best ways of determining what is going on in a *game* is to work out when a student (or teacher) **repeatedly** does something, what the predictable result is. This result is what the *game* player wanted, and is the clue to the *game*. He outlines 21 possible student *games* and nine teacher *games*.

Body language gives teachers a clue of what *ego-state* a student is in. Ernst (Chapter3) gives an outline on the way these physical clues can give an indication of who's understanding the lesson:

Colloquial Term	**Ego State**	**Behaviours**
Listener	Adult	Head vertical, mouth line horizontal, mouth closed, teeth touching, gaze moving location, eye blink every 3-5 seconds, hold position for 5 minutes
Impatient Child	Adapted Child	Restless
Pouting Child	Adapted Child	Is listening more than he/she lets on
Shy Child	Adapted Child	Head down, angled away
Embarrassed Child	Adapted Child	Face colouring
Defiant Child	Adapted Child	Head back, horizontal lines on forehead face, muscle flat and emotionless. Not listening.
Prejudiced Parent	Controlling Parent	Scowl. Vertical forehead lines. Head tilted.
Encourager	Nurturing Parent	Neck forward. Head tipped forward and tilted. Eyebrows raised. Head nodding.

Ernst thought that anytime there was a disruption (in class) it was caused by a *crossed transaction*. To be effective, he thought that the teacher must be in a flexible position, able to use whatever *ego-state* is needed. He indicated (p. 92) which *ego-state* a teacher might want to call on in a given circumstance. Education is most effective when:

> *Parent* approves and nurtures
> *Adult* does the programming
> *Child* lends enthusiasm

Ernst thought that individual contracts helped promote positive behaviour.

Illsley-Clarke (1989) talked about the promotion of positive behaviour in terms of structure. She said that both physically and emotionally, we needed the safety and protection of structure to survive and that successful structure was built from a combination of rules and skills. Structure is experienced though the day-to-day activities of school. Illsley-Clarke outlined these:

> Structure (is offered) to children (by) teaching them how to do tasks skillfully; to think clearly; to collect and assess information; to identify options; to set goals; to organise; to start, do and complete tasks; to manage materials, tools, time, ideas (and) feelings; to be responsible; to honour commitments; and to develop morals and values. (p. 12)

Rules help provide structure. Illsley-Clarke said that if there were no boundaries young people would either learn to become wary and limit their spontaneity, or they would become reckless and uncaring about their welfare. She outlined the types of rules, or ruling stages. They are:

> Rigidity
> Criticism
> Non-negotiable
> Negotiable
> Marshmallow
> Abandonment (p. 28)

To promote positive behaviour, classroom rules will be either negotiable or non-negotiable. As the name suggests, negotiable rules are those that have been mutually agreed to by teacher, and student. Both parties are able to offer their ideas on what would be a good rule, and both parties make judgements about the rules. This process is contracting, and teaches students clear thinking, being responsible and to seek new information.

As children become adolescents and have less physical stroking, one way in which they get attention is to challenge authority. It is also part of moral development to challenge and argue about another's morality as a way of developing one's own. Illsley-Clarke thought that negotiating gave a constructive ground on which to challenge, argue and hassle.

Non-negotiable rules are generally given as commands and demands. According to Illsley-Clarke, under non-negotiable rules are the boundaries and standards of behaviour that we need to insist on. Young people will still try to argue about these rules as they test their power, their teacher's determination, or even just to make contact. Illsley-Clarke suggested that the main rules in a classroom should be written out and posted on the wall. She spoke of the need to keep rules current, and that where there is frequent rule breaking, there may be indications of a need to re-examine the rule. Rules are boundaries, and as such need to carry consequences for compliance and for non-compliance. These rewards and penalties provide what Illsley-Clarke called "important structure" (p. 41), and they help build self esteem.

Illsley-Clarke argued that there was a need for positive consequences for desirable behaviour and life events i.e. rewards, celebrations, expressions of trust, thanks and approval. All too often rules are set up in classrooms that focus attention in their consequences only on the rule breakers. There is also a need for negative consequences. Penalties give, in Illsley-Clarke's view, the students time to think, and give them confidence in the teachers dependability. Without consequences she believed children would learn other lessons, e.g. to ignore rules. Rules only work if they are followed up on and enforced. It is important that young people know in advance what the consequences for rule breaking are.

There is a difference between penalties and punishment. Illsley-Clarke, (1989), did not advocate punishment, and spoke of the need for teachers to discharge their anger before they discipline students. In her view:

> ----punishment is treatment that is harsh or unrelated to a child's behaviour. It is what we do when we feel powerless or when we haven't carried through on consequences or penalties that were effective. (p. 44)

Illsley-Clarke believed that both rewards and penalties were positive actions, and that structure without love and nurture was harsh and constituted only half of what children needed.

The next section considers an area of major concern for many teachers: 'at-risk' young people, and how to deal with them in the classroom. Dealing with troublesome and backward students can be draining on teachers. Many of these studies use TA, and give hope that positive work can be done with difficult students.

3.6 TA and "At-Risk" Youth

In a recent study of the relationship between social skills and academic achievement, (Wilson and Shulha, 1995) it was found that emphasis from teachers and from items in measurement instruments used was dominated by language and items focussing on the ability to conform. This means that 'at risk' youth would have probably scored low.

By promoting compliance, schools as an institution took on a *Controlling Parent* aspect, which was unlikely to bring out the best in 'at-risk' youth. Such students did have positive qualities, and greater use of *Nurturing Parent* and *Adult* by the school is more likely to promote such attitudes and skills as co-operation, problem solving and responsibilities. Wilson and Shulha (1995) concluded that "to the extent that these values (co-operation, independent problem-solving and responsibility) conflict with the values that some teachers reward (compliance), schools will be preparing adolescents for the wrong economic environment" (p. 11).

Peterson and France (1992) thought that children who were lacking in social skills or who had developed inappropriate communication skills may be at-risk in school and disruptive to family dynamics. They described a social skills programme that was first developed in Australia. The *Stop-Think-Do* social skills programme provided a method of reinforcing co-operative behaviour and self-responsibility. By encouraging young people to think as a first step, teachers encourage the use of the *Adult ego-state.*

In teaching TA to students, especially those with language difficulties, Kleinewiese (1980) found that they related more quickly to pictures than to written descriptions. Stylized circle faces were used to present the functional *ego-state* model, and the four basic feelings of 'sad', 'mad' (angry), 'scared' and 'glad'. (see figures 3.1 and 3.2)

Figure 3.1. Functional Model of Ego-states.

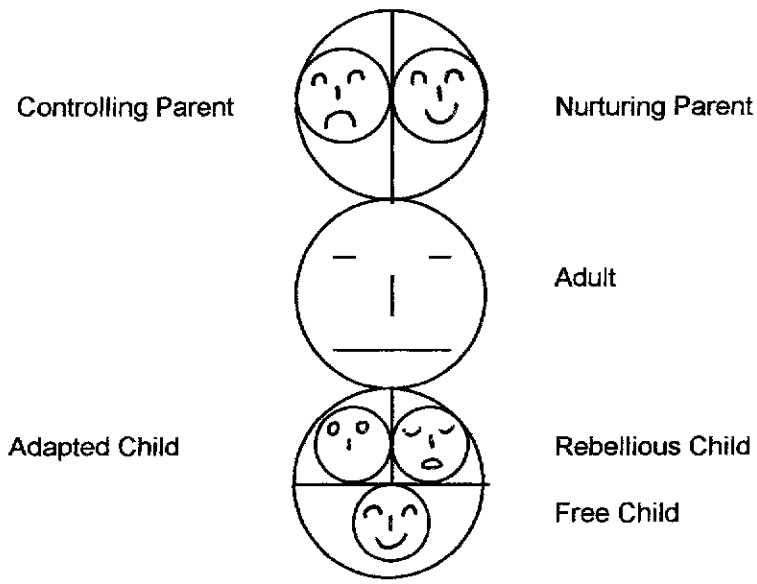

Figure 3.2. The Four Basic Feelings.

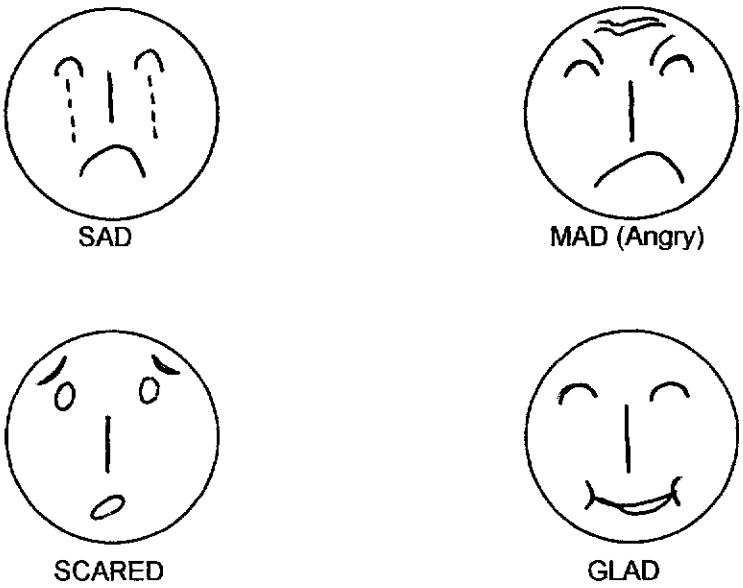

Figure 3.1, 3.2. Visual Representation of Ego-states and The Four Basic Feelings. Adapted from Kleinewiese, E., T.A. Journal 10:3, 1980

Minnema (1981) emphasised the importance of school personnel to students and to those at-risk in particular. Attention was drawn to the importance of school staff knowing about such methods as TA. Minnema stated:

> Because of the need for more effective intervention procedures in the schools, teachers as well as school social workers have by default, as well as the present state of the economy, become the only mental health workers many students will ever know. (p. 159)

Litke (1973) thought that the reason teenagers changed so much and so quickly was that their Adult ego-states held information that had been stored in what was called 'The Spindle'. The Spindle was described as being 'like a zipper in the Adult Ego-State' (p. 11). It was thought to hold information that is

i) unclear or unbelievable
ii) threatening to P or C
iii) contradictory to 'Parent Tapes'.

Litke said of teenagers that they need to use their *Adult* to clear the backlog of negative messages and that *Parent* messages from the past and new information from peers contradicts. Some teenage behaviour may appear as 'at-risk' behaviour when it could more properly be described as clearing a 'back-log' on the so-called 'Spindle'. With teenagers, behaviour to do with 'spindle back-log' comes on suddenly. Alarmed or '*Controlling*' responses from teachers and/or parents could have negative outcomes e.g. *Adapted Child* or Rebellious responses.

Litke believed that some "spindle back-log" is cleared much later than the teenage years, e.g. mid-20s. Here, the late clearance does not result in the same kind of 'all of a sudden' behaviour of teenagers. Late spindles are seen at the result of 'Don't Think', 'Don't Do', and 'Don't Question' messages learned in childhood. Teenagers may get into trouble with adults because they are less likely than late developing adults to be selective about when and where to use their new information.

Freed (1992) made a major contribution to those working with youth, including those who may be termed 'at-risk'. He maintained that a cause of teenagers' problems was attitude and advocated that they could decide spontaneously to give up putting themselves down. He had a positive approach, and a firm belief in the possibility of change, e.g. "You were born a winner ---, yet you may feel like a loser. But you can change your belief and win" (p. 1).

'At-risk' youth tend to have an *Adult ego-state* that is 'contaminated' by *Child*. Freed (1992) explained this in a simple way that was easy for teens to understand: "if you are hungry, hurting or upset, the Child messes up your Adult and you can't think" (p. 25). He gave prejudice as an example of *Parent-contaminated Adult*. 'At-risk' youth tend to operate with this *Child-contaminated Adult*, and/or *Adapted Child*. Freed pointed out that if a teenager behaves like a child, PICS (i.e. 'people in charge' – teachers, parents etc.) will talk to that teenager from Parent. The *Parent* would most likely be *Controlling Parent*, thus setting up a potential conflict situation.

Freed (1992) saw drug taking as a low level way of getting *strokes*, known in TA terms as '*withdrawal*'. He also explained that a *Game* was a crooked or hidden way of getting

strokes from other people by deceiving them. As an example the game 'Cops and Robbers' showed that "if you get caught there's excitement and a need to be rescued" (*stroked*) (p. 85). Freed maintained that when someone, e.g. in a family, is heavily into alcohol or drugs they are playing a *Game*, and other family members and/or friends are part of the *Game*, they are involved even if they are not the user.

TA was explained by Freed in terms that a young person could understand. He touched on many of the issues of 'at-risk' youth, and gave hope for change. He believed that what a young person could do with TA was free him/herself from self-imposed failure *scripts*.

Hough (1971) observed the '*stroking*' behaviour of teachers, and found that it was easier for students to get *negative strokes* rather than *positive* ones. Since *negative strokes* were better than no *strokes*, a conclusion drawn was that for some students there were fewer reasons to conform (adapt). Hough also noted that some teachers knew instinctively when to give *positive strokes* to students in a free and unconditional manner. It was thought that such teachers had probably got a lot of *positive strokes* from their own parents and teachers.

Some at-risk young people have difficulty distinguishing between *positive* and *negative strokes*. Capers and Holland (1971) postulated that winners collected *positive strokes* and losers collected *negative strokes*. Unfortunately, at-risk youth are in the latter category, but Capers and Holland thought that if the difference between *positive* and *negative strokes* could be learned the student would be in a position to reject the negatives.

Sichem (1995) wrote about the relationship between learning disabilities and *script* belief in people, and thought that learning disabilities could be linked to *script*, thus inducing a person to succeed in not learning.

Erskine (1988) drew attention to the problems that can arise when a person under the influence of *Parent*, e.g. a teacher, interacts with a person, e.g. a student. The teacher is dominant by virtue of his/her position and is thus likely to engage the *Child* of the

student. Erskine observed that the *Adapted Child* was displayed through behaviour which was presumably under the dominance of the *Parental* influence, e.g. compliance or withdrawal. As at-risk students often operate from *Adapted Child*, they tend to react badly to *Controlling Parent* which keeps them in *Adapted Child*. According to Erskine, what a teacher would be doing when displaying a *Parent* state would be feeling or perceiving the environment or speaking as his/her parents did years before.

Erskine said that

> Transactions with others can come from any one of the ego-states, often without the awareness of which state is active. Psychological problems emerge when the introjected and/or archaic ideas, images, and emotions contaminate the here-and-now perceptions of the Adult ego-state. (p. 18)
>
> (and, p. 19) The person is unaware that the introjected ideas and emotions and/or the childhood decisions and feelings are infringing on present perceptions, often resulting in communication and relationship problems.

It seems that people who are in conflict have much less energy than people who are more integrated. This may explain why teachers of at-risk students seem to suffer from burnout more than other teachers. Erskine and Maisenbacher (1975) studied the effects of teaching TA to a class of at-risk secondary students for one hour a day for one semester. A major objective was to increase their *Adult* awareness. They found 'a significant decrease in the total number of discipline referrals, and a decrease in truancy and increased grades' (p. 253). Thus, teaching TA to at-risk students may result in teachers being less emotionally depleted.

Arnold and Simpson (1975) carried out an evaluative study of the effects of a TA group of emotionally disturbed boys. They found that, with three sessions a week for a six week period, cognitive acquisition of the principles of TA was attained. Further, it was found that there was little change in self-concept and no significant difference in behaviour. The ages of the boys were ten to sixteen, and it is suggested that they may

have been too young to benefit fully. It was interesting that when the group finished, the boys wanted to continue with it on a voluntary basis.

Hill (1997) in speaking of the need to put resources into at-risk young people, said that, in Britain "the most severely behaviour-disoriented children will cost an estimated one million pounds each over their lifetimes if left untreated". (B.B.C. Panorama Programme, Capital T.V., Wgtn., 9.1.97) Such facts seem to be blindingly obvious to educators and ignored by those who hold the purse-strings.

Bendell and Fine (1979) carried out a study of boys identified by teachers as aggressive. It had been believed that children who were acting out were often inviting others to intervene and become responsible for them and that such children had little control over their life events. The study aimed at increasing the boys' internality, i.e. internal locus of control, through an experientially and TA oriented counselling group. There was one group of six and a randomly selected group of six, who were also boys identified as aggressive. Seven sessions were run where greater self control and self responsibility were encouraged. It was found that the experimental groups gained significantly over the control group in their accepting responsibility for negative events.

Arnold and Simpson (1975) evaluated changes in self concept and classroom behaviour as a function of TA intervention. Eight boys aged 10-16 identified as behaviorally disordered or socially maladjusted and functioning below their potential were seen three times a week for six weeks. Interestingly, no significant difference was found in either self-concept or through a behavioural check list and their behavioural 'tally' actually increased. This study suggested that behavioural change takes time, and six weeks of intervention is not long enough. The organisers felt there were changes that had not been measured and the group volunteered to continue.

In a much longer study, Ernst (1971) worked with students in the normal to superior I.Q. range, with academic records below their potential. Ernst believed that many of the learning disabilities turned out to be *games* based on *early decisions* and *script* beliefs, and that using TA, provided the teacher with the means to correct the disability. This study showed the benefit of a longer time span. It was found that "at the end of the

first year of the program, 90% of the students showed at least two years progress in their academic ability" (p. 15).

Kenney and Lyons (1980) worked with a classroom teacher with a highly disruptive student. The teacher received instruction in the use of *Nurturing Parent* and *Natural Child ego-states*. The student's oppositional behaviour was observed to decline markedly. The student's school work and the overall time spent in teacher-student interaction did not change. However, longer intervals of time were spent in interactions as they were more mutually satisfying. The number of interactions then, decreased, but the time spent in each one increased.

Kenney and Lyons (1979) observed two teachers of learning disabled 11-14 years olds, and found that they spent 75% and 85% of their classroom time in *Adult ego-state*. Some *Child* but very little *Parent* was used. It seemed that teachers of learning disabled and disruptive students became drained, and it is likely that this factor is a major contributor to the lack of balance in *ego-state* use.

This section has dealt with studies of ways of working with 'at-risk' young people. In the next section, consideration is given on how TA might apply to more mainstream teaching.

3.7 TA and Science and Mathematics Classrooms

Richardson and Crichlow (1995) found that the personality type of students seemed to relate to the subjects they chose. This means that in considering the student outcomes of, say, mathematics and science students, something that needs to be factored in is the possibility that mathematics and science students may be of a certain type. Richardson and Crichlow maintained that arts oriented students tend to be more autonomous, feminine and appreciative of change, while science oriented students are more dominant. This raises a host of issues, e.g. are arts students more co-operative, science students more competitive (etc.)?

Other factors influence subject choice. Studying a sample of Israeli academic track 12th grade students, Ayalon (1995) found that sciences are taken less often by the under privileged. This is more acute when mathematics is used as a filter. Ayalon also noted that physics is taken more by males and that biology is taken more by females. This finding suggests the possibility that in considering the outcomes of mathematics and science students, there may be certain bias to the samples when comparing these students with those of other faculties. Furthermore, in a school system where mathematics and science are compulsory subjects, it is likely that those causing disruption are the less academic, the 'at-risk', and that these students may not have chosen mathematics and science if they had been given a choice.

The usefulness of TA to teachers of mathematics and science depends to a large extent on the teachers' understanding of the TA concept of *ego-states*.

Mukhopadhyay and Saxena (1981) maintained that if social transactions were parallel (i.e. according to Stewart & Joines, 'a *transaction* in which the *transactional vectors* are parallel and the *ego-state* addressed is the one which responds' p. 327.) they were *complementary* and could continue indefinitely. *Crossed transactions*, which occur between people having different *ego-states*, were thought to be the source of communication problems. They believed that teachers could relate to and teach students better by adopting an appropriate *ego-state* at any given transaction. (See "Basic Concepts of Transactional Analysis", chapter two, for types of transactions).

Al-Methen and Wilkinson (1992) researched the causes of school failure as perceived by Secondary School students. Students' perceptions of the reasons for their failure fell into five main categories:

1. Examination issues
2. Subject content
3. Personal factors
4. Teacher classroom behaviour
5. Home and family factors

It is item four that is most relevant to this study, and the item that can be most readily changed through TA. Al-Methen and Wilkinson broke down this item into nine sub-categories from the original student responses. These categories were:

1. Voice
2. Explanations
3. Handwriting
4. Clear instructions
5. Attitude e.g. helping when required
6. Respect for the students
7. Concern for the students' learning
8. Encouragement of participation
9. Punishing for good cause (p. 40)

With the possible exception of item three, a knowledge of *ego-states* and an *Adult* awareness of which *ego-state* the teacher is using at a given time could greatly reduce student failure.

Voice can be a clue to a teacher's *ego-state*, so will elicit certain responses from students. Change of *ego-state* can be heard as voice tone changes up and down. *Controlling Parent* voice may be (e.g.) deep, booming or harsh. *Nurturing Parent* voice may be (e.g.) encouraging, kind. *Adult* voice could be clear, even, matter-of-fact. *Natural Child* may sound excited and enthusiastic, while *Adapted Child* may be compliant, whining or even nervous and afraid. The use of an appropriate voice to suit the particular classroom situation can help teachers engage the *ego-states* of the students that are most conductive to learning. Explanations and instructions are best given from *Adult*. Such behaviours as helping, respecting, encouraging and showing concern will tend to be a combination of *Adult* and *Nurturing Parent*. These *ego-states* in the teacher will encourage *Adult* and *Natural Child* in the student, the desired *ego-states* for learning, discovering and creating. Punishing for good cause will employ the *Positive Controlling Parent*, with *Adult* awareness.

Kagan and Grandgenett (1987) found that teachers who encouraged student interaction seemed to rely more on intuition and feeling, and tended to be extroverts. Teachers who did a lot of talking and used lecturing as a main method tended to be, relatively analytic

and judgemental. Assuming that students learn better in the (former) encouraging environment, teachers need to be able to use their full range of *ego-states*.

Onocha and Okpala (1990) studied and compared the classroom interaction patterns between practising teachers and student teachers of science. Alarmingly, they found that the student teachers were far more likely to adopt methods that would promote learning. While student teachers spent an average 78% of lesson time promoting learning, practising teachers spent an average 62% of time on behaviour which did not promote learning. Student teachers spent 11% of their time on monologue compared with 44% for practising teachers. Practising teachers seemed to be depriving their students of opportunities, e.g. through discussion, to develop inquiring minds. They also deprived their students of opportunities to develop the practical skills of science, e.g. observing, measuring and manipulating equipment. This research indicated a need to provide ongoing inservice courses for practising teachers to keep them aware of good teaching practice, and to teach methods of classroom interaction and communication.

Bowers (1995) studied assertiveness as a coping mechanism for teacher stress. It was found that teachers who had an assertive / persuasive style in coping with many of the forms of job-related stress which they encountered actually experienced less psychological stress. It was also found that the strongest link with reported stress could be found in the aggressive / confrontational style, and that avoidant strategies were also stressful. It was concluded that the ability to think about actions and to remain in control of these actions appeared to be fundamental to the effective management of many stress-inducing situations for the teachers in this study. In TA terms, this would ean being able to remain in *Adult* in stressful situations.

Devlin and Williams (1992) conducted a survey of 1600 people who had achieved fame in various professions. They found that scientists were among the happiest school children with 85% of the scientists surveyed claiming to have enjoyed school. Many of the leading scientists surveyed said they had been inspired by gifted teachers. A knowledge of the TA concept of *stroking* would be invaluable. Sir Philip Randle (Professor of Clinical Biochemistry, Oxford University) said he was inspired by an

individual teacher who "interested me in science (and) made it clear that he believed I had ability" (p. 41).

Fine, Giese, and Elliot (1979) found that the *life position* of teachers related to how they might get on with students. The four *life positions* are outlined below, with the conclusions of the Fine, Giese and Elliot study (p. 303) alongside:

I'm OK	– You're OK	The greater the I'm OK-You're OK score, the more probable the teacher will discuss with difficult students, get on with peers, and feel satisfied with teaching
I'm Not OK	– You're OK	The greater the I'm Not OK-You're OK score the less probable the teacher will feel satisfied
I'm Not OK	– You're Not OK	The greater the I'm Not OK-You're Not OK score the less probable the teacher will feel satisfied, discuss with students or relate openly
I'm OK	– You're Not OK	Correlation not found. Elliot (1976) found a low level of trust level with such teachers

TA was thus seen as a potent framework for self-evaluation. The Personal Orientation Scale for Teachers (Fine, 1975), a self-rating scale, was used in this study.

Clarkson (unpublished paper) spoke about how a knowledge of TA *ego-states* can enhance creativity and learning. Teachers with a knowledge of *ego-state* theory would be able (e.g.) to activate *Child* to come up with creative ideas for the *Adult*. The *Child* is a most valuable aspect of the personality, and if it can find healthy ways of self-expression and enjoyment, it may make an important contribution to vitality and happiness. Berne (1971) argued that the *Child ego-state* was the part of the personality which was preserved from actual childhood. He thought that 'there is a spontaneous, creative, and intuitive quality to the *Child ego-state*' (p. 304). With knowledge of TA, a teacher may engage the creative *Child* in the classroom to enhance learning through the joy of experiment, discovery and directed play. Einstein, being a somewhat 'late

developer', had an active *Child* in his 20s. When coupled with a highly intelligent *Adult*, he was able to make sense of his imaginative ideas.

Clarkson (unpublished paper), quoted what Einstein said to a friend:

> When I asked myself how it happened that I in particular discovered the Relativity theory, it seemed to lie in the following circumstance. The normal adult never bothers his head about space-time problems. Everything there is to be thought about, in his opinion, has already been done in early childhood. I, on the contrary, developed so slowly that I only began to wonder about space and time when I was already grown up. In consequence I probed deeper into the problem than an ordinary child would have done. (p. 23)

It is vital for teachers of science and mathematics to find ways to make their subjects fun. Berne (1977) maintained that the *Child* in a person is potentially capable of contributing to that person's personality what a happy child is capable of contributing to family life. What Clarkson argued was that for a person to be fully developed they needed to have an *Adult ego-state* that was in control, but capable of calling on other *ego-state*s e.g. *Natural Child*. Clarkson, quoting Berne (1966), said that for a person to have *Adult* executive control they need to learn to 'exercise *Adult* insight and control so that these child-like qualities emerge only at appropriate times and in appropriate company' (p. 306). Clarkson believed that the integrated *Adult ego-state* drew from the *Child* and *Parent ego-state* reservoirs to maintain or enhance creativity. For teachers to make full use of this theory, they may need to apply it first to themselves and through their own integrated *Adult*, encourage a full use of *ego-state*s among students. Berne (1975) said that it was the function of the 'healthy' *Child* to motivate the data-processing and programming of the *Adult* so as to get the greatest amount of gratification for itself.

Van Beekum (unpublished article) believed that the learning process ought to include fun and creativity as energising *Adult* qualities. He outlined Erskine and Moursund's (1988) belief that from a structural view of *ego-states*, TA sees learning as a process, directed towards the goal of a fully functioning *Adult ego-state*. Van Beekum thought

that learning could be defined as the process to encourage the *Adult* to be fully functioning in the here and now incorporating positive qualities of *Child* and of *Parent*.

Illsley-Clarke (1966) believed that a strong leader was one who had developed three leadership qualities, and kept them in balance. She was referring to:

a) competence
b) protectiveness
c) permission

Illsley-Clarke said, referring to teachers:

> The leader who is potent demonstrates competence, gets things done and inspires others to co-operate. The leader who offers protection creates an environment in which people feel free to achieve, grow and create.
> The leader who gives permission interacts in a way that encourages achievement, growth and creativity. (p. 217)

Illsley-Clark (1989) spoke of the need for rules which support structure in the classroom. She believed that 'children internalize protection, safety, freedom, success and self-esteem from Non-negotiable and Negotiable Rules. Despair and failure come from Rigidity, Criticism, Marshmallowing and Abandonment' (p. 16-17). Thus, Illsley-Clark saw rules coming from six different *Parent* frameworks:

1)	Rigidity:	Old rules written in concrete.
2)	Criticism:	Labels the person with bad names rather than setting standards or acceptable behaviour.
3)	Nonnegotiable:	Must be followed. *Child*ren come to know that they can count on these rules and that there are rewards when they are followed and negative consequences when they are broken.
4)	Negotiable:	Teach children how to think clearly and to problem solve. These rules are negotiated and then firmly enforced.
5)	Marshmallow:	Freedom is given without demanding responsibility in return.
6)	Abandonment:	A lack of rules, protection and contact.

Illsley-Clark thought negotiable rules have many advantages. These rules are mutually agreed on. Teacher and student offer ideas and make judgements on each rule. Negotiable rules taught clear thinking, responsibility, and the need to acquire new information. Negotiable rules require contracts that make it clear who is responsible for what. She stated:

> as children grow and have less physical touch from their parents one way they get attention is by challenging, arguing and hassling. Negotiating gives --- a constructive ground on which to do that. (p. 34)

As well as learning that they can count on their parents and teachers, young people learn, through negotiable rules, about winning and losing , about win-win situations, about disappointment and about co-operation. Illsley-Clarke suggested that teachers need to be clear and straight about their own values, about what is safe and unsafe and about what is helpful and unhelpful. An example is given of possible parental replies to a young person's request to go to a party. From this example, teachers can get an idea of the types of *Parent* responses and develop suitable classroom examples:

Rigidity:	"You cannot go to parties at houses, only at school".
Criticism:	"Those friends of yours are trouble --- I don't trust you. Of course you can't go".
Nonnegotiable rules:	"You can only go to parties at houses when the parents are home and supervising --- You are to call us anytime you feel unsafe and we will come and get you". (Parents set negative consequence for breaking the rule, positive consequence for succeeding).
Negotiable rules:	"I must know where you are when you are out. Together we will think of ways you can have fun, take care of yourself, and be safe". (Young person helps set negative and positive consequences).
Marshmallowing:	"I want you to be popular, so go to all the parties you are invited to. Do you need some new clothes".

Abandonment: "I'm gong to a party myself. Do whatever you want".

(p. 21)

Illsley-Clarke spoke of the need for consequences when setting rules and providing structure. There were seen to be two types of consequence. Firstly, natural consequences happen as a direct result of a behaviour and are either positive or negative. Secondly, logical consequences are used as negative consequences, or sanctions, when natural ones would be dangerous, too long in coming, or a great inconvenience. Illsley-Clarke also spoke of the need to stop discounting young people, and to replace discounts with *Nurturing Parent*.

Ernst (1972) thought that the teacher did not need to be *Adult* all the time. The *Adult* needed though, to monitor what the *Parent* and *Child* (of the teacher) did. Ernst described *games* played in the classroom (p. 13-36). He thought there were at least 30 possible *games*, 21 of them student *games* and nine teacher *games*. 'Trouble-marker' *games* are the most disruptive, and he outlined six of these.

1) 'Uproar' was described as a *game* played from the *Child* of the student. Students playing this *game* are defiant, and in *Adapted Child*. Players are watching to hook the teacher's *Controlling Parent* (p. 13).
   In 'Uproar' a number of small annoying behaviours lead to the teacher 'exploding', when "all I did was drop my pen".
   Ernst thought that the first thing to check was that the students' physical needs are being met, i.e. food, water, warmth and *strokes*. He suggested that the steps to then follow were (in *Adult*).
   a) request that the student see the teacher later
   b) later, explain the *game* observed
   c) list and reflect back the complaints and whining
   d) explain teacher/student roles and expectations
   e) establish rapport e.g. visit the student at a favorite subject or activity.

2) 'Chip on the shoulder' was seen as indicating a need to find out what the student is trying to avoid, then offering a mutually acceptable alternative (p. 28).

3) 'Stupid' (p. 13) was seen as one of the *games* played from the Victim position, reinforcing the idea that the student is not-OK. Ernst thought 'Stupid' players are reinforced by smiles – it is the method they have learned for getting *strokes* and that "a friendly confrontation is an effective antithesis" (p. 32-33).
In playing stupid Danny's object (p. 32) was 'to call attention to himself and --- to have people kick him verbally'. This reinforced his 'I'm not-OK – You're not- OK' position.

4) 'Clown' (p. 34) was not seen as a *game* in the strict sense as *strokes* are gained in an open way.

5) 'Schlemiel' (p. 35) is a *game* played by the clumsy student. Ernst suggested that the teacher (e.g.) tell students from *Adult* not to handle or touch any equipment, and to agree with 'that's not fair'.

6) 'Make Me' (p. 36) is a *game* played in a defiant stance. Ernst suggested that "the antithesis to the *game* is for the teacher to set up clear choices and consequences". If the student doesn't then do what is expected, consequences follow which the student brought on himself.

Ernst believed that all disrupter *games* were played in the same way and that by looking for the *pay-off* the teacher could determine which of the six *games* was being played. It was suggested that the teacher could avoid giving the *pay-off* and give an appropriate *stroke* instead before the next *game* starts. To be effective, the teacher needs to be able to change to an *ego–state* that is appropriate to the given situation, while maintaining *Adult* awareness. Ernst warned that each *game* a student played can only be played as long as the teacher also plays.

The types of *game* a student plays depend upon the '*life-position*' (arrived at through early traumatic experiences) of the student. Ernst gave the *life positions* as used in TA, and by suggesting the 'solution' gives an indication of the hidden objective of the *game*, and of relationships (p. 53). This may be summarized:

Life Position		**Solution**
I'm OK	– You're OK	Get on with
I'm OK	– You're not OK	Get rid of
I'm not OK	– You're OK	Get away from
I'm not OK	– You're not OK	Get nowhere with

Figure 3.3. Life Positions.

In Chapter 3, Ernst suggested that there are physical clues to which students are attending, and understanding the lesson, and which students are not. These physical signs are also clues to *ego-state*s. Students will listen best in *Adult*. When it seems that students are not listening, appeal to *Adult* will help to engage them e.g. request for information (when, what , where, how). Ernst outlined physical clues summarized below:

1) The listener with his *Adult ego-state* in charge will tend to have his head vertical to the ground, his mouth line horizontal often with the mouth closed and teeth touching, head slightly turned for better triangulation, his gaze shifting from location to location, and his eyes blinking every three to five seconds. His body position lasts up to five minutes.

2) The impatient *Child* is restless, and easily spotted --- he turns towards the speaker, then away, then back --- with gross body, trunk and limb movements. He doesn't focus attention in any one place for long.

3) The pouting *Child* is secretly listening more than he lets on --- face is tilted slightly forward. His gaze and face is averted. He is secretly peeking at the person their pout is for.

4) The shy *Child* has his head down and slightly turned at a slight angle away from the speaker. He looks up for brief glances from the corner of his eyes.

5) The embarrassed *Child* has face colouring, less movement and less attentiveness.

6) The defiant *Child* has his head back, face muscles often flat; he may have horizontal forehead lines. A non-listener.

7) The interacted *Child* has wide open eyes and dilated pupils.

8) The student in prejudice *Parent ego-state* may have a scowl and vertical forehead lines. Head is tilted. May shake head sideways.

9) The student in *Nurturing Parent ego-state* has his head tipped forward and tilted to the side a little. Eyebrows are raised. Head may be nodding. If doing this while talking he is saying "it is important for you to know this". If nodding while listening, he is agreeing. He is also telling you he thinks that you need encouragement. (p. 49)

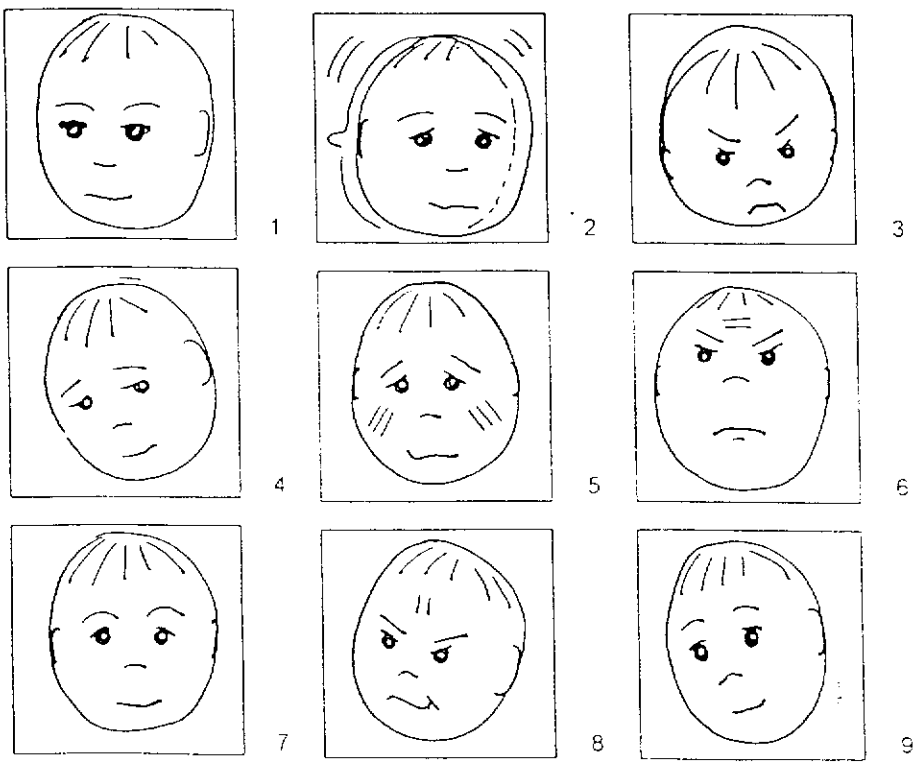

Figure 3.4. Diagrammatic Representation of Physical Clues to Students' States of Attentiveness (after Ernst, 1972).

Ernst believed that "people play *games* mainly to avoid *intimacy*, and to confirm (their) lack of trust in others" (p. 55).

Berne (1987) outlined the ways people structured time (p. 21-25). From this the relative position of *games* could be seen compared with e.g. *intimacy*. These ways of structuring time are given (below, Fig. 3.5) along with examples of each that might apply to school:

Withdrawal	Daydreaming in class
Ritual	Assembly, roll call, prize giving
Pastimes	Talk about e.g. sport, parties, the weekend
Games	Disruptor and other games
Work	*Adult* study discussion, sport or cultural activities
Intimacy	Friendships, relationships, shared feelings

Figure 3.5. Ways of Structuring Time.

Ernst (p. 52) believed that *games* could be avoided when emphasis was put on the students' efforts, e.g.

'Your idea is impressive'

'What would happen to your idea if you----------'

Ernst (1972) thought that *games* are most likely when the teacher is in the *Parent ego-state*. Ernst gave details of and suggested antitheses for a number of *games* that might be played by students. In addition to the 'trouble maker' and 'disrupter' *games* described earlier, *games* most likely to occur in the classroom are now described.

In the *game* 'Why Don't You – Yes But' the teacher is trying to help, the student has some reason why each idea won't work. It reinforces the *Parent-Child* relationship between teacher and student. Ernst suggested the antithesis "that seems quite a problem. What do you plan to do about it?" This is an *Adult* question designed to engage the students *Adult*, and break the *game.*

Sometimes a student may use a disability as an excuse, and thus enter a *game* of "Wooden Leg'. Ernst thought that some disabilities stemmed from *Adapted Child* e.g. a stammer. He suggested saying (in *Adult*) "Slow Down. Talk Clearly" to engage again the student's *Adult*. Ernst refers to these *games* as put-down *games* of the Complainer variety.

Teachers need to be aware of Tempter Games, described by Ernst. Examples include, 'Let's You And Him Fight' 'Rapo' and 'Miss Muffet'. In 'Lets You And Him Fight' a

student may be trying to set up both the teacher and a fellow student e.g. by saying "I better not tell you what she said". The suggested antithesis is to throw the statement back to the source, e.g. "You're right. It's not a good idea to repeat some things". In 'Rapo' a student may be being precocious. Ernst suggested maintaining the *Adult* role of teacher, with occasional *Parent*. He also suggested avoiding forms of familiarity which could be interpreted by a student as having sexual connotations, not intruding into 'intimacy space' (0-4.5cm) and always having others present with such students. The 'Miss Muffet' *game* player uses parents to attempt to get a teacher into trouble. The 'Miss Muffet' *game* player is passive, and lets his/her parents 'do the work'. Ernst thought teachers need to know their job descriptions thoroughly, and their limits. When being attacked verbally by a parent in their *Controlling Parent*, he suggested letting them '*Parent*' for a while, then giving them an *Adult* assessment of what they have said. Reflection could be useful, e.g. "Let me check this out. What you're saying is------", followed by an assessment.

Ernst also outlined *games* that teachers play. For most, the teacher's antithesis is to stay with *Adult* awareness. He repeatedly suggested that teachers need to keep their limits in mind, i.e. their role as teacher, their job description, and the objectives of the course.

Ernst thought that most teacher-student games were *Parent-Child* transactions. He thought that the teacher didn't need to know the name of the *game*, but that something was going on besides the obvious transaction.

Freed and Freed (1971), explained the basic concepts of TA in a simple way that is a good introduction for a teacher wanting to get started in using TA in the classroom. These basic concepts include *Parent*, *Adult*, *Child*; *Strokes*, *Stroking* and *Stamps*; and *Games*.

Of *Parent*, Freed said "the *Parent* is very much like Father and Mother. The *Parent* in me is a very bossy but a very kind person. He tells me and others what to do (and) *Parent* loves to do things for other people" (p. 1). *Adult* "is the fellow inside me that figures things out. He can study and learn" (p. 4). *Child*, Freed said "is the part of me that is very much like I was when I was a little boy. I had feelings and ways of acting

like a little boy because I was a little boy. I liked to have fun when I was little and I still do. Inside my *Child*, along with good feelings there are some angry or hurt feelings" (p. 4).

Freed explained how the three *ego-states* (P.A.C.) interacted. He said that the *Parent* told the *Child* what to do when the *Child* was puzzled. Another example of the interaction was that while at one time *Parent* might be in charge, and at another time *Child*.

> (*Child*) means the part of us which feels --- sometimes we let it do what it wants, like eat sour apples (get sick), stay up too late (get tired) or get hurt (be sad). In these cases we're not letting *Adult* or *Parent* protect *Child*. (p. 15)

Child is a powerful *ego-state*, and given encouragement and opportunity to flow is a vital *ego-state* in the promotion of educational objectives. Freed said that *Child* enables us to use our imagination, and that if it wasn't for daydreaming there wouldn't be any inventions. He believed that "Fun is *Child* at work" (p. 15). *Child* needs to be kept in some kind of check, when *Child* gets too angry or 'strong' it interferes with *Adult* and shuts off *Parent*. When *Child* has contaminated *Adult*, *Adult* cannot think. It is the job of *Adult* to collect and review facts and to speak and make sense.

There are ways of knowing which *ego-state* is in control. Freed suggested that if a person knows how they feel, *Child* is in charge. He said that the kinds of words used give indications of *ego-states*, e.g. "wow, yippee" (*Child*), "stop that, you're nasty" (*Parent*), "better, more desirable, easier" (*Adult*) (p. 25). Further, one gets clues as to which *ego-state* is in charge by how other people react to you.

Freed suggested some exercises in *stroking*, which demonstrated *ego-states*:

1. Tell someone something nice about himself and watch him smile. (*Stroking Child*)
2. Listen to what you say when you are bossy. (In *Parent*)
3. Call people by name. (*Adult* with *Natural Child* – satisfies person's *recognition hunger*)
4. Ask "when will dinner be ready?" (*Adult*) and see if you get an *Adult* reply. (p. 28)

A lot of classroom behaviour, both good and bad is to do with '*strokes*'. Freed explained *strokes*:

> when we were little we were petted, touched, talked to and played with by Mum and Dad and these actions felt good. I call these actions *strokes*. Sometimes someone does something to me which is unpleasant --- that can be a *stroke* too. An unpleasant *stroke*. But all *strokes* stir you up. If you don't get them, you'll get sick. Sometimes, when we think we can't get a 'warm-fuzzy', we will work to get a 'cold prickly'. Any *stroke* is better than no *stroke*. (p. 32)

Freed went on to explain how the early experience of receiving *strokes* develops:

> Later we learn to like smiles, kind looks and words e.g. 'good'. They're *strokes* too.
> *Stroking* is best when its for 'being'. Most often parents (and teachers) give us *strokes* for 'doing'. (p. 34)

He explained how '*stroke* theory' accounts for much of the behaviour that goes on in a classroom. When a person receives *strokes* simply because others like him or her, these *strokes* are known as *free strokes*. When *strokes* are not free, Freed believes that they usually stem from *Adapted Child* behaviour, e.g. helping someone, annoying someone.

Freed explained the TA concept of '*Stamps*'.

> '*Child*' collects *stamps*. Whenever I get my feelings hurt, get afraid or get mad and I keep these mean feelings inside, I am saving '*brown stamps*'.
> Saving '*brown stamps*' is saving up feelings to trade in for *strokes* that I feel I've got coming to me.
> If I save enough anger, sometime I'm going to have a temper tantrum or a fight. (p. 37)

A person does not have to collect *stamps*. If a person's *Parent* agrees with (e.g.) a person who's annoying them, they'll collect *stamps*. But if their *Adult* intervenes, it is possible for a person to reject *brown stamps*. Freed explained this:

'*Child*' can do three things with '*brown stamps*' -
1) keep them and save them up
2) throw them away
3) not print them at all. (p. 38)

The final major TA concept that Freed simplified was *games*. He said of TA *games*, that they are "designed to get *strokes* or make other people give *strokes*, which they don't feel they can get any other way". This was because "*Child* is hurt, angry or scared. *Child* doesn't feel *O.K.*" (p. 38). Teachers need to be aware of one aspect of TA *games*. According to Freed one thing about a *game* that makes it a *game* is that it is outside of awareness. Students in a class engaged in *game* playing would be doing so without *Adult* awareness.

In TA, *Parent* messages are orders about what to do and what not to do. They originate from our parents and parent figures e.g. teachers, coaches, youth leaders etc. Freed outlines some of these:

Don't show your anger
Don't give me your backchat
Don't feel
Don't think
Don't grow up
Be stupid
Be a loser
Be stubborn
Be afraid (p. 52)

Stewart and Joines (1987) thought there were five commands in particular which play a special role in the *counterscript*. They are:

Be Perfect
Be Strong
Try Hard
Please (people)
Hurry Up (p. 131)

Freed thought that being aware of *Parent* messages was an *Adult* activity. Being in *Adult* would enable a person to alert *Child* to reject the message. "Give three straight

strokes to the *Parent*'s *Child* and watch *Parent* fade into smiles" (p. 53). As teachers are likely to have strong *Parent*, it is important to give positive messages that will build self esteem and encourage learning, personal growth and positive attitudes and relationships.

Contracts are an important part of TA and can be used in the classroom. Freed believed that promises were important. He thought that if people were not able to trust each other then people get confused and disappointed and no one knows what to do. His other suggestions about contracts could also have classroom applications:

> (Students) have a part in deciding how it is going to work and feeling it's fair and agreeing to it
>
> You can rework it (if it goes wrong)
>
> Try to make contracts very very clear (p. 59)

Freed's summary gave some simple ways in which teachers could use TA concepts to model appropriate ways of interacting and promote a positive learning environment. They included:

1) It's OK to feel. Freed said "to be mad, sad or afraid (is) an OK way to feel" (p. 75).
2) People are often unhappy unless they come on straight with each other.
3) Give *strokes*. Freed said "practice in a group (class) makes it easier outside", e.g.
   tell others what you like about them
   tell others the good things they do (p. 79)
4) Both teacher and student could "become more aware of the *games* that you get involved in" (p. 78). Freed suggests exploring
   a) Do you start them or does someone else?.
   b) Know how to get out of them e.g. cross the transaction. This is especially effective from *Adult*.

Learning to avoid *games* is not only important to lessen classroom disruption, but as a skill for life. Freed thought that when people play *games* they waste time and lose friends.

Writers and researchers from outside the TA area often back up what the TA theorists advocate. Deci, Nezlek and Sheinman (In Wubbels & Levy, 1993) said that students' curiosity about subject matter was aroused when teachers were willing to assist and encourage them, i.e. to use *Nurturing Parent* to bring out the students' *Natural Child*.

Créton, Wubbels, and Hooymayers (1993), spoke of the 'report' and 'command' levels of communication in the classroom. By 'report level' they referred to 'the what' of communication. By 'command level' they referred to 'the how' of communication. Créton et.al. (1993), believed that teachers who had difficulty with class management often sent mixed messages which delivered conflicting impressions at the report and command levels.

An example of a mixed message is given:

"You just do as you like. I don't care whether you pay attention or not" (p. 5).

Here the verbal message give the students' permission while the non-verbal message does not. This can be diagrammed in TA terms:

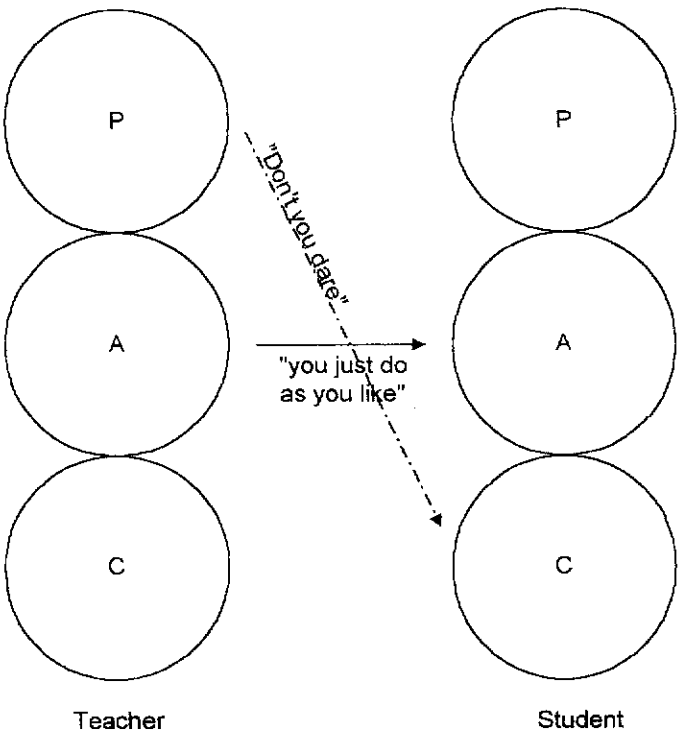

Figure 3.6. A Mixed Message (Ulterior Transaction) with the Overt Message Spoken, the Covert Message Implied.

Créton et.al. (1993) said that when control is a problem in the classroom, there is a constant struggle over the meaning of the command–level messages, the 'how', as the content aspect, the 'what', becomes less important. This implied that teachers who are having problems managing their classes need to be clear about the behaviour they expect, and need to focus on how they get this across. Thus it may be seen that non-verbal behaviours tend to carry stronger messages than the verbal. This raises again the importance of the teacher as a model of appropriate behaviour. It is not enough to say the right things. The teacher needs to be seen to be in control, both at the emotional level and the physical level. Successful teachers have effective management. Créton et.al. (1993) noted that successful teachers assure order and learning by having clear goals and objectives, by choosing motivational activities, by anticipating potential misbehavior and diverting it. They concluded by saying "the more the teacher turns a blind eye to the disorder, the greater that disorder becomes" (p. 9). "Blindness" allows teachers to avoid confrontation, but often leads to feelings of helplessness.

TA gives a way of being flexible, and enables a teacher to be either co-operative (*Nurturing Parent*, *Positive Controlling Parent*) as the situation dictates. TA methods give teachers a method that both enables them to learn ways of managing class behaviour and of getting alongside individual students. Eisenberg (1992) noted that the current emphasis on non-routine problem-solving techniques causes mathematics teachers to confront anxiety in their students more than ever. It was suggested that TA can give teachers ways of helping students overcome anxiety about mathematics and can give teachers ways of helping students get past their resentments and limiting beliefs about themselves in relation to mathematics.

3.8 Conclusion

This chapter has been a review of some of the literature relevant to this study. It started by considering literature related to teachers and classrooms. Here studies maintained that effective management skills can be learned, that pupil behaviour is to some extent effected by teacher behaviour and that interpersonal skills ought to be a part of teacher training. Many of the studies here supported the view that the person of the teacher makes a difference in the learning process in the classroom. Praise and positives were

thought to be important; what in TA is known as *positive strokes*. Studies showed that teacher types can be identified, and that good teachers have sound management and interpersonal skills as well as subject knowledge. Since there is such a weight of evidence suggesting which types of people make good teachers, it is thought to be unfortunate that more is not made of this information at the selection stages of a teacher's career.

Literature relating to interpersonal behaviour has been reviewed. Interpersonal behaviour is a crucial ingredient in the production of positive classroom outcomes, and numerous studies reinforced this view. The QTI was developed to examine interpersonal behaviour.

Despite the fact that teacher interpersonal behaviour can be categorized and examined, there is still the problem of troublesome students. It was thought at the outset of this study that TA might be of value in enhancing the various aspects of schools and that its potential to help teachers with difficult students would be a particular benefit. It was realized that the teacher interpersonal behaviour types identified by the QTI correspond to the TA *ego-states*. This connection is developed further in Chapter 7, Survey Findings (pp. 230-231).

The remainder of this literature review has summarized studies that involved the use of TA. These included the use of TA in schools, its use as a positive behaviour strategy, its use with at-risk young people, and a summary of studies of a practical nature that might be a useful guide to the teacher in science and mathematics classrooms.

While this chapter has been a review of literature relevant to this study, the next chapter is a review of some of the experiments and projects that have used TA in relation to young people, education and learning.

CHAPTER 4

PREVIOUS RESEARCH AND STUDIES USING TRANSACTIONAL ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

The basic concepts of TA have been outlined in Chapter Two in order to facilitate understanding of the literature referred to in the previous chapter, and the research and studies referred to in this chapter. In the previous chapter a range of literature was reviewed, some having been written by Transactional Analysts. This chapter reviews research projects using TA in educational settings relevant to this study. They have been categorised into Students and Self-Esteem, Teacher Classroom Behaviour, Teacher-Student Interaction, Teacher Training and Other Projects.

4.2 Students and Self Esteem

Crouse (1981) found that students' self concepts can be improved through a number of self-development techniques including TA. He believed that it was worthwhile to employ self-development methods to assist students because adolescence is the most tumultuous of all the stages of development. It is crucial that teachers are equipped to assist in the process.

Leamon (1982) found that low self-esteem was significantly improved for College Students in a TA group. A significant improvement was also noted in achievement leading Leamon to observe that it appears that achievement was related to affective variables and psychological and educational growth of the students are interdependent.

Studies of *ego-states* also relate TA to students' development. Werdman and Thomas (1980), found that schools attempted to have students acting consistently in the *Adult* state. They contrasted this with their belief that students' enthusiasm for learning is directly related to the health of their *Child ego-state*.

Amundson (1975) carried out a preliminary research project to investigate the possibility of using TA with children from grades three to six. He hypothosised that participation in a transactional analysis programme results in an increase in self-esteem. The project leant support to this hypothesis and he was able to conclude that *transactional analysis* can be effectively used in the elementary school setting.

Amundson and Sawatzky (1976) set out to test students' degrees of internality, self esteem, and peer acceptance. The results indicated that the TA with children programme played a significant part in enhancing a student's self-esteem and in increasing peer acceptance. They did not find a significant increase in the level of internal locus of control. They thought that the TAC programme could be a useful addition to any school curriculum.

Golub and Guerriero (1981) carried out a TA programme with ten learning-disabled boys. Data collected from this programme suggested that learning-disabled children could learn and utilize some basic TA concepts thus enhancing their self-esteem and peer relationships.

4.3 Teacher Classroom Behaviour

Ford (1984), explored Discipline Strategies for Teachers of Problem Students. He reviewed TA as one of four intervention and management techniques that may be used in classroom discipline. Ford found that the use of TA methods led to effective classroom discipline, and showed the importance of straight forward and complementary communication. TA methods led to a reduction of manipulatory responses from students, who benefited from honesty and positive recognition (*strokes*). The use of TA led to a positive change in student attitude which led to a

positive change in behaviour. Ford isolated and presented elements of TA that seemed relevant for teachers. Once *ego-states* were understood, teachers were equipped with a model to get a feel for what happens between teacher and student as actors and reactors in the classroom.

Ford used PAC *ego-state* diagrams, with percentage of time spent in each *ego-state*, as a way of showing teacher and student types. A slightly modified version of Ford's diagrams are given:

TEACHER

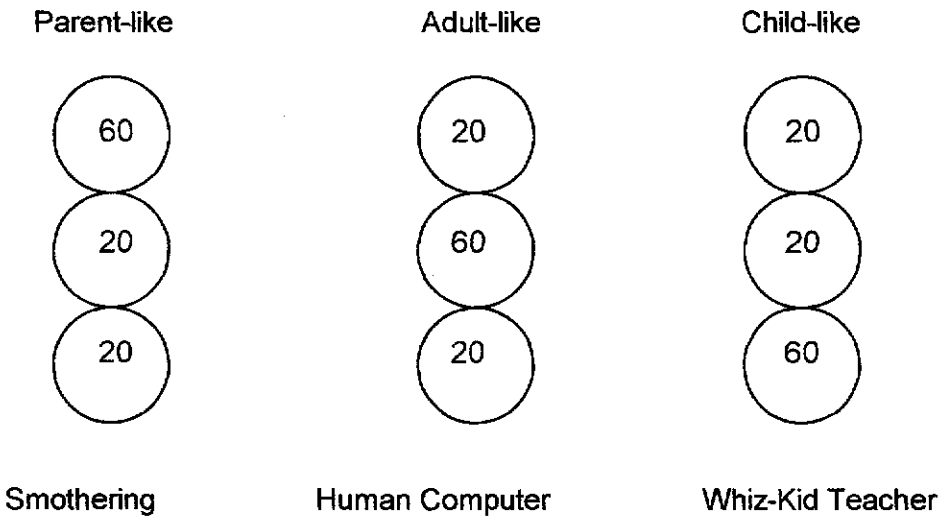

Figure 4.1. PAC Ego-state diagrams showing teacher types.

STUDENT

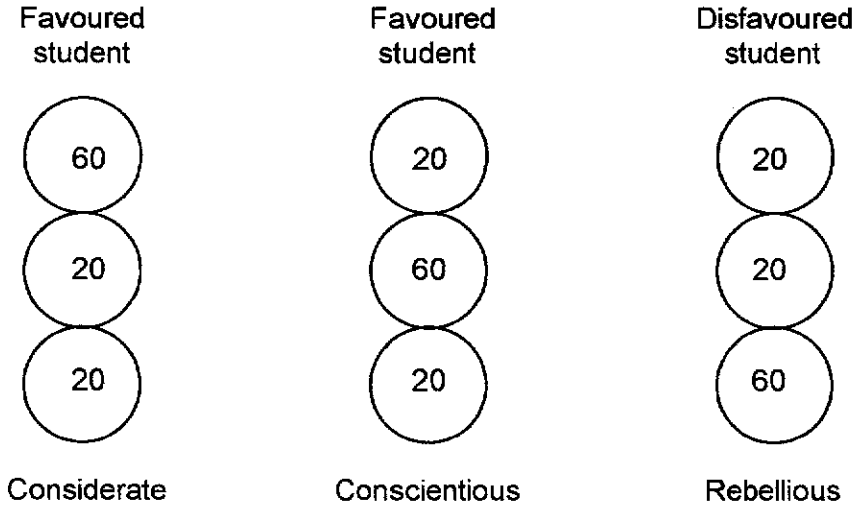

Figure 4.2. Ego-state diagrams showing student types.

Identifying certain students with whom she had constructive and co-operative relations, and developing an awareness of 'hooks' that snare rebellious students can be done through the use of PAC diagrams. The teacher can then consider another form of communication less likely to lead to conflict, e.g.

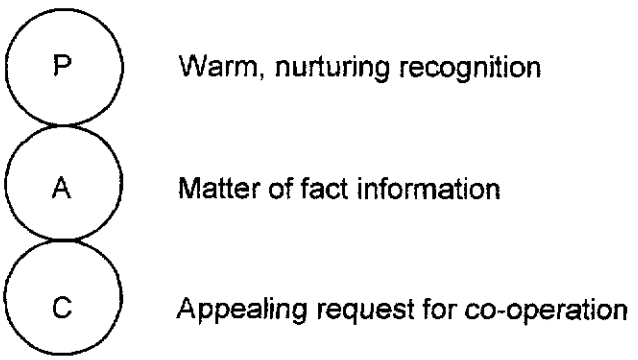

Figure 4.3. Ego-state diagram showing desired Teacher and Student use of PAC, after Ford.

Ford discussed *games* and the *game triangle*, acknowledging James and Jongeward (1971) as his source. He quoted Jongeward's assertion (in film guide) that as '*Games* always involve the manipulative roles of *Victim*, *Persecutor* and *Rescuer*', they can be stopped if the teacher refuses to play any of these roles. Ford outlined the features of the *Persecutor*, *Rescuer* and *Victim* roles, and said that "Any student --- could figure out several ways to use these roles to manipulate teachers" (p. 21). He stated that

"Stopping verbal *game*-playing in the classroom (is) the primary power of TA as a discipline technique" (p. 22). A summary is given of teacher perceptions of the major advantages and disadvantages of using TA as a discipline technique in the classroom. He wrote that "Major disadvantages to using TA were generalised into two categories - time consumption, and complexity --- teachers reported feeling limited by the amount of time needed to stop verbal *game*-playing in the classroom (and) difficulty (with) the complexity" (p. 24). Some teachers lacked the confidence needed for an effective use of TA. The major advantage of TA was seen by teachers as its potency. "Virtually all teachers were impressed with the power of TA as a verbally confrontive tool." (p. 24).

Wolfgang and Glickman (1986) outlined a number of approaches to classroom discipline, including TA. They believed "teachers need to realise that they are the true professionals holding the real power for taking discipline actions in the classroom" (abstract, p. 1). It does seem that if the teacher can manage discipline problems him/herself, and solve them without the need to refer on the effects of his/her actions are more long lasting. He/she had dealt with his/her relationship with the student, and modelled appropriate relationship and problem-solving behaviour to the particular student, and often to the rest of the class.

Mukhopadhyay and Saxena (1981) also focussed on teacher classroom behaviour. They believed that TA could provide a scientific basis for modifying teacher behaviour. They explained the theory of TA and suggested teachers could relate to and improve their teaching if they adopted an appropriate *ego-state* at any given *transaction*. They suggested that TA could be used as part of teacher training, citing a need to use behaviour modification methods that attempt to bring about long term and positive change. They thought that TA provided an opportunity for teachers to discover aspects of their own psychological make up so that they could then decide to modify aspects of their own behaviour. Mukhopadhyay and Saxena (1981) gave an outline of *ego-states* and *transactions* as a prelude to a detailed examination of teacher-student interaction in the classroom. They maintained that not only do teacher *ego-states* affect student *ego-states*, but where a teacher, for example, persistently puts a student in the *Adapted Child* state in the class, the student when he/she grows up is likely to have an *Adapted Child* fixture.

This study (Mukhopadhyay and Saxena) identified which *ego-state* is likely to be employed in the achievement of certain educational objectives. The following is an adaption of their 'Table 1' (p. 9).

OBJECTIVE	Appropriate student ego-state	Complimentary teacher ego-state
Identifies, collects and classifies information	Adult	Adult
Thinks analytically	Adult	Adult
Solves problems	Adult	Adult
Draws conclusions	Adult	Adult
Makes decisions in social situations	Adult	Adult

Figure 4.4. Educational objectives and related ego-states (after Mukhopadhyay & Saxena; 1981).

It is likely that the teacher's *Adult* in the above table is supplemented by *Nurturing Parent*. Mukhopadhyay and Saxena pointed out that to achieve the above objectives, a student may need two types of help: more detail (*Adult*) and encouragement or *strokes* (*Nurturing Parent*).

Ego-states other than *Adult* are also used frequently in the classroom, e.g.:

OBJECTIVE	Appropriate student ego-state	Complimentary teacher ego-state
Thinks creatively	Natural Child	Natural Child/Nurturing Parent
Appreciates others working e.g. science discovery, maths project	Natural Child	Natural Child/Nurturing Parent
Expresses feelings e.g. joy, sorrow	Natural Child	Natural Child/Adult
Develops inquisitiveness	Little Professor *	Adult/Nurturing Parent

Figure 4.5. Other ego-states used in the classroom.

* 'Little Professor' is the Adult in the Child, referred to in the Structural Ego-state Model. (see Chapter 2.8)

A number of cases were examined by Mukhopadhyay and Saxena, showing the Teacher-Student transactions. An example is given from their study:

EXAMPLE: Casel, science lesson.
The teacher is teaching the formation of day and night.
STUDENT: "Why do we see a longer shadow in the morning and a shorter one in the noon?"
TEACHER: "We are discussing the formation of day and night. Concentrate on this otherwise you will not understand this. Don't think all wild things!" (p. 10)

In this example, the teacher is concerned with following the lesson plan, and maintaining order. In terms of *ego-states* the teacher is using *Adult*, influenced by *Controlling Parent*. The likely effect will be to stifle the curiosity of the student, i.e. *Little Professor (Structural Model)*. *Controlling Parent* may also solicit a reply from the student's *Adapted Child*, and lead to a discipline problem. The use of proper complimentary *ego-states* by the teacher can lead to a proactive and creative learning environment in the classroom (Mukhopadhyay & Saxena, 1981).

Using ego-state diagrams (Functional Model) the case example (above) may be shown.

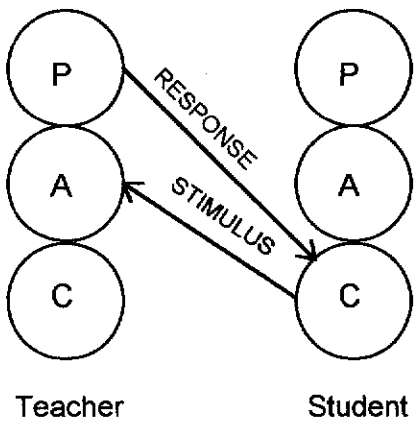

Figure 4.6. Ego-state diagram of Casel example.

Mukhopadhyay and Saxena suggested an alternative response:

STUDENT: "Why do we see a longer shadow in the morning and a shorter one in the noon?"
TEACHER: "We can understand that provided we know formation of day and night. Let us first examine the formation of day and night and then discuss the size of the shadow."

This may be shown diagrammatically.

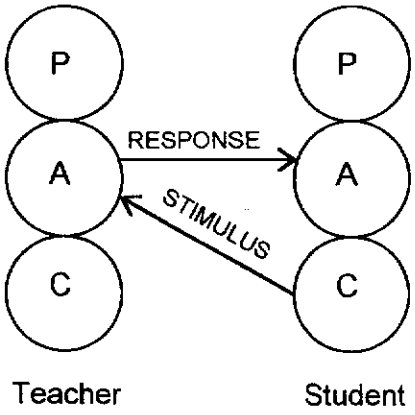

Figure 4.7. Ego-state diagram of alternative response in the Casel example.

The alternative described (above) provided an opportunity for the continuation of the *transaction.* It is encouraging for the student, and is likely to activate *Adult*, *Natural Child* and *'Little Professor'* (*Adult in the Child: Structural Model*). A win-win, *I'm OK, You're OK* situation is thus promoted.

Mukhopadhyay and Saxena advocate the teaching of TA as part of teacher training. They maintain that many of the methods used to train teachers are forms of behaviour modification, whereas TA aims to bring about long term changes. The reason they gave was that behaviours originate from a deeper level of the psyche. TA thus promotes positive classroom relationships as well as positive behaviour in both teacher and student.

Kenney and Lyons (1979) attempted to record Teacher *ego-states*, with inconclusive results. They were unable to establish a dominant *ego-state*, and thought that teacher *ego-state* behaviours seemed to be more a response to situations than a controlling factor.

4.4 Teacher-Student Interaction

Interpersonal relationships in the classroom can be described in terms of what TA calls *OK-ness*. Fine, Giese, and Elliot (1979) described a Personal Orientation Scale for

Teachers. This self-rating scale was designed by Fine (1975), and results in one of four possible scores. Each score represents a *life position* or state of *OK-ness.*

When 38 teachers were given Fine's self-rating scale, it was found that:

i) the greater the *I'm OK, You're OK* score, the more probable it was that the teacher would discuss with difficult students, get on with teacher peers, and feel satisfied with teaching.

ii) the greater the *I'm not- OK, You're OK* score, the less probable the teacher would feel satisfied.

iii) the greater the *I'm not-OK, You're not-OK* score, the less probable it was that the teacher would discuss with students, relate openly and feel satisfied.

Correlation was not found in this study between *I'm OK, You're not-OK.* Elliot, (1976) however, found a low trust level with such teachers.

Santa Rita (1993) has produced a guidebook recommending methods for teachers to use to improve teacher-student interaction in the classroom, as a means of increasing student understanding and retentiveness. The section on TA was quite comprehensive, and included examples, an outline of *games*, and ways to stop *games*. Santa Rita confirmed that the primary purpose of TA is to assist teachers to understand that each person, teacher or student, is actually a composite of at least three people. Thus, there are at least three states of being, or *ego-states* (*Parent, Adult, Child*), that control a person's behaviour and their style of interacting with others.

Santa Rita described the *Parent, Adult* and *Child ego-states* using what in TA terms is the *Functional Model.* Stewart and Joines defined the Functional Model as "an *ego-state* model which divides the *ego-states* to show us how we use them, their process" (p. 329). From this model it can be seen that each of the *ego-states* can produce either a functional (positive) or a dysfunctional (negative, oppositional) response to classroom interactions.

Santa Rita said that

> The *Parent* part of us records all the admonitions, rules, laws, and 'how-to's of authority --- as well as the nurturing behaviours. Both aspects include both verbal and non-verbal messages.
> The *Adult* state is the capacity to reason and think, to gather and store objective data and process that data.
> The *Child* is the vast collection of all the internal experiences - feelings, impulses and responses - of our early years. (p. 19)

Santa Rita gave the following examples of student responses;

FUNCTIONAL RESPONSES

PARENT: "The way I see it, if your teacher tells you to do this homework, then you should do it."
ADULT: "I think I can do this homework in about half an hour if I hurry."
CHILD: "This is going to be interesting - I like decimals."

DYSFUNCTIONAL RESPONSES

PARENT: "Even though we didn't do any homework the last two nights, this is going to take two hours, and the school policy is one hour of homework per night."
ADULT: "This homework won't count on my grade, so why should I do it?"
CHILD: "Blah - I hate decimals!" (p. 19)

With the knowledge of TA a teacher can work towards functional rather than disfunctional responses. Santa Rita raised a key point in the promotion of positive classroom behaviour in stating that "when the teacher speaks from his or her own *Critical Parent*, he or she is more likely to elicit a *not-OK Child* (i.e. *Adapted Child*) response from the student" (p. 19).

EXAMPLE

TEACHER: (From *Controlling Parent*) "I've told you what to do so stop fooling around. What's wrong with

you?"

STUDENT: (From *Adapted Child*) "This stinks. You're only picking on me because I'm --"

Teachers can encourage students to be more self-controlling in classroom activities. One way to do this is to target an aspect of the student's *ego-state* other than *Adapted (not-OK) Child.* The teacher's aim is to *stroke* or comfort the *not-OK* feelings, and attempt to engage the thinking *Adult ego-state* of the student.

EXAMPLE

TEACHER: (From *Nurturing Parent* with *Adult* awareness) "I know this is difficult for you, but its OK to make mistakes when you're learning something. It will be fun when you learn how to do it so have a go. Ask me if you get stuck."

Santa Rita reminded the reader that TA can also be used to control student *games.* Students, as people need attention and recognition and if the student cannot get *positive strokes* (praise, encouragement, rewards), he or she will go after *negative strokes* (reprimands, punishment). Both *positive* and *negative strokes* represent teacher time and attention. Santa Rita believed that classroom *games* are inevitable, and he stressed the importance of recognising the behaviour as a *game*, and of waiting until the *game* is obvious before intervening. Santa Rita outlined 11 *games*, drawing attention to 'Key Words', 'The Functional Routine', 'The Dysfunctional Game' and 'How to Stop The Game'. As an example of Santa Rita's treatment of *games*, the common student *game* 'Helpless' will be examined:

GAME: 'Helpless'

KEY WORDS: 'I can't', 'I don't know how', 'I'm too dumb'

FUNCTIONAL ROUTINE: The teacher aims to show students how to seek help actively rather than passively. It is useful to fully understand the student's problem

before rushing in with a solution. Some people take up Teaching as a career because they like helping. If this desire to help is part of their own *games*, it can be counter productive.

Here, a student's complaint is legitimate and the teacher responds with assistance:

STUDENT: "I can't do this."
TEACHER: "Well, try again."
STUDENT: "But I can't do it."
TEACHER: "Why can't you do it?"
STUDENT: "I don't know. I just can't."

The problem here is that the teacher is asking the student to do precisely what he/she says he/she can't do. Santa Rita stated that skilled teachers often ask diagnostic questions that clarify the difficulty and sometimes simultaneously solve the problem.

STUDENT: "I can't do this"
TEACHER: "Well, let's go back a step or two. Do you remember --- and can you --- so now can you do it?"
STUDENT: "OK. I see it now."

'I can't' and 'I'm too dumb' come from *Adapted Child*. The teacher can respond from *Adult* in an attempt to 'cross' the *transaction*, i.e. engage the student's *Adult* and/or *Natural Child*. Teacher statements which could do this include:

TEACHER (A): "It's true that this is not easy. Let's try it a different way."
TEACHER (B): "I don't think you're dumb, but you do look tired. Have a drink of water and we'll try this later."

THE DYSFUNCTIONAL GAME: As part of a dysfunctional *game*, 'I can't' is often a cop-out. Santa Rita called this 'low level thinking' (p. 49). He said that teachers who respond at this level may become part of a game, e.g. 'Why Can't You / Yes, But'. Another possible game is 'Helpless'. The teacher joins the game if he/she plays

'Helper'. When 'Helper' gives up, 'Helpless' wins the *game*. By engaging in 'high-level thinking' Santa Rita sees an opportunity for the teacher to jolt the student out of the *game*. He gave as an example of a higher level student reaction:

> "I can't understand this part. I see how these two things go together, but I can't see what to do next."

Diagnostic questioning by the teacher (*Adult*) will help the student come up with such higher-level thinking.

HOW TO STOP THE GAME: Santa Rita suggested several teacher options

A. When the key words are 'I can't'
   i) Rather than responding as 'Helper' respond from *Adult* with 'incisive diagnostic questions'
   ii) Give a deliberate ulterior transaction where the covert or psychological message is 'I know that old game', perhaps indicated by a knowing smile. The *Adult-Adult* spoken message could be "I think I've helped enough now, now you do your bit".
   iii) Expose the con directly, e.g. "I think you are playing a 'helpless', *game*. Let's see you have a go now."

B. When the key words are 'I'm too dumb'
   i) Respond as in i) (above)
   ii) Respond with a similar psychological message to ii) (above), followed by content oriented questions or directions, e.g. "You need to refer to the definition of a triangle here. Do the first part, then get back to me."
   iii) Follow up with a conference out of class time. (p.50)

In his article, Santa Rita used a routine similar to the one outlined here for 'Helpless' for the following classroom games:

'Shocking Behaviour'

'Why do we have to?'

'Why don't we ever have any fun?'

'It's your fault'

'Teach me if you can'

'You can't make me'

'I have an excuse'

'Irrelevant'

'I gotta go'

'Isn't it time yet?'

A number of writers on Teacher Classroom Behaviour (4.3) and Teacher-Student Interaction (4.4) discuss the *ego-state* of the teacher, suggesting that the teacher may be a major player in instances of classroom behaviour problems involving students. Some of the writers, e.g. Ford (1984); Mukhopadyay and Saxena (1981); Fine, Giese, and Elliot (1979) and Santa Rita (1993) lend weight to the suggestion that certain traits in teachers will bring about certain behavioural outcomes in students. This seems to correlate with the idea indicated by the QTI that teachers have different personality types that encourage different student behaviours. The co-operative teacher behaviours of QTI, with a measure of dominant teacher behaviours appear to bring out the best in students. The *Adult ego-state* in teachers, with a measure of *Nurturing Parent* and *Natural Child ego-state* behaviours seems to be similar to the QTI ideal. Evidence for the QTI and the *ego-state* theory views seems to be mutually supportive. This connection is discussed further in 7.3, 7.4. A comparative diagram (fig. 7.14) also shows the connection.

In the next section, findings relating to the training of teachers are presented.

4.5 Teacher Training

Robinson and Hyman (1984) reported their summary of the findings of some 14 studies on the effectiveness of human relations training programmes for teachers, including the use of TA. They concluded that positive effects were noted in the majority of programs analysed. They found that more effective human relations programs examined trained student teachers from 20 to 30 hours, and used programs based on modifications of

published programs. The introductory programme for Transactional Analysis, known as TA101 requires about 20 hours of teaching.

Historically, teacher training has focussed on cognitive development and on Behaviourism. Myrow (1977) believed that though learning theory can help teachers organise and deliver formal instruction, it fails to deal directly with interpersonal, emotional and motivational issues. Myrow found that pre-service teachers benefited from training in such methods as TA because it increased self-understanding and professional effectiveness.

In the course offered by Myrow, a major topic was *strokes* (i.e. positive reinforcement, nurturing, encouragement, recognition). Participants studied "how people *stroke* each other physically, verbally and non-verbally, the origin of *stroking* styles in early family interactions, the ways people manipulate each other to get *strokes*, (and) research of the impact of kinds of *stroking* on development" (p. 9). Other topics that Myrow thinks ought to be included in Teacher Training Programmes came from Berne's theory of personality development and include

a) The role and function of the *Parent*, *Adult* and *Child ego-state*s. Practical work included 'homework' exercises of identifying *ego-state*s through observation of peers and students in classes.

b) Psychological *games* and their functions.

c) *Life Positions*; i.e. 'I'm OK - You're OK' world views and what leads people to adopt these *Life Positions*.

d) *Life Scripts*

Myrow encouraged teacher trainees to read 'Born to Win': (James & Jongeward, 1978) to further their understanding of TA, and to compare TA with other systems. He

concluded by outlining a number of benefits for teachers in undergoing self-development courses such as TA. These included;

a) understanding what led to teaching being a career choice
b) trying less often to win students' affection
c) increased confidence when dealing with students
d) being aware of being either condescending or controlling with students
e) increased awareness of how students may trigger emotional responses in teachers
f) understanding how teachers may come from a parental advice giving stance
g) increased understanding of students

Myrow believed that an extra benefit to teachers of studying such self-development methods as TA was improved relationships with family and friends. He did warn, however, that undergoing personal development courses may trigger the re-experiencing of negative feelings towards one's family of origin, as well as positive feelings towards them. Thus, people may recall painful memories as well as pleasurable ones.

Myrow (1978) reported on a TA workshop run for teachers. Teachers were found to be able to readily apply the theory of TA to their classroom experiences, and to relate it to their own personal development. The teachers believed that they had made significant gains on the course objectives. One of the most important gains was a reduction in the use of *Controlling Parent ego-state* in their relationships with students. The teachers concluded that learning about theory and doing experiential personal development could go together; they could apply what they had learned to their work with students and with fellow teachers. As with the 1977 study, this (1978) study supported the view that such courses improve interpersonal relationships both in the classroom and in the private lives of the participants.

Fine, Covell, and Tracy (1978) studied two groups of teachers. One group did a university credit course in TA, while the other group, the control, did not. The TA

group were found to have increased their *OK-ness*, decreased their *not-OKness* and increased their self-awareness and job satisfaction to a greater extent than the control group.

One of the greatest gains teachers can hope for through studying TA is an improvement in communication skills. Clark, (1982) in assessing the influence of TA Training on Communication Skills, found a significant difference in ICI change scores between (educational) administrators who attended a TA group training programme and comparable people who received no TA training.

4.6 Other Projects and Studies Using TA

Garrison and Fischer (1978) reported that TA concepts were successfully introduced into third and sixth grade classrooms to improve communication between students. Behavioural changes were observed by the researchers and also by teachers and some parents. It was noticed that students increased the use of all of their *ego-states* in order to solve conflicts within themselves and to relate to others. This project clearly indicated that TA may be used in the primary school. Garrison and Fischer concluded that new ways to handle conflicts with self, others and the situation can contribute to a preventative approach to improve classroom atmosphere.

Henderson (1978) carried out a project whereby learning disabilities and their remediation were viewed from a TA framework. In particular, the researcher used TA interventions to confront the *Racket* feelings and decontaminate the student's *Adult*. It was thought that TA was a useful alternative to behaviour modification in teaching learning disabled children. Henderson discovered the learning disabled students learn to obscure their needs from themselves and others. They appear to have a favourite *Racket* feeling related to learning. This is used to substitute for the pleasurable feelings possible in *Natural Child*. The *Racket* was frequently used to manipulate others into giving him/her negative *strokes*. The implication of this study was, for teachers of the learning disabled, that such students needed to have opportunities to develop their *Natural Child*, so that feelings were natural feelings and *Games* and *Rackets* were

avoided. Henderson's findings seem to apply to mainstream classes as well, and ought to be tested.

4.7 Summary

This review of TA studies has added evidence to the conjecture in Chapter 1, Section 2, that TA might be a theory that could be applied to personal growth as well as classroom interaction and learning. It also addresses the first three research questions (1.7) which ask about the various ways TA might be of use to schools. The projects and studies presented here show that TA does have a useful contribution to make to education.

A number of studies showed that TA was an effective method to use to raise the self-esteem of students. Students with high self-esteem are likely to learn better and be positive about themselves, others and school. Writings about *ego-states* point to the idea that it is the *Child ego-state* that is the source of enthusiasm for learning and for creativity. Interestingly, many teachers try to keep students in *Adult*. Some *Adult* is of course needed, but this idea of encouraging *Child* is important.

Studies showed a number of desirable behavioural changes brought about by TA methods. Students were found to be less manipulative, had more positive attitudes and improved behaviour. Teachers found that they had more control e.g. in confrontational exchanges with students. Teachers also found classrooms were more creative. They were also able to diminish the disruptive effects of the inevitable *games*.

Teacher training using TA had positive outcomes, and it is with pre-service teachers that learning TA may be most useful. Practicing teachers thought, in one study, that learning TA was too time consuming.

Teachers were seen to be reactive i.e. to adopt an *ego-state* once a situation had developed, usually *Controlling Parent*. Some of the studies suggest that TA can help teachers to be pro-active through the modification of their own behaviour. This will

also affect students, who see the teacher modelling, e.g. conflict resolution and problem solving, in a positive and fair way. TA can give teachers confidence and help them raise their own self-esteem as they work towards functional rather that dysfunctional responses from students, as they promote positive classroom behaviour, promote a creative learning environment, and control *games*.

As the *OK-ness* of teachers increases, communication skills with students, peers and family improve. Studies also showed that the greater the *I'm OK - You're OK* position in teachers, the more likely they were to resolve conflicts with difficult students, get on with other staff and feel satisfied with teaching. TA also enhanced the self-understanding of teachers.

Studies showed that TA was effective with primary age children as well as with the learning disabled. With both groups, studies showed that self-esteem was raised, relationships improved and that there was a better classroom atmosphere with fewer *games*.

TA has been shown to have clear benefits to schools. Compared with other behaviour modification methods, TA deals with the current here-and-now relationship and has more chance of keeping teacher-student relationships positive than more traditional methods. TA deals directly with the interpersonal, emotional and motivational issues that are part of everyday life in the classroom. In addition to being a method of promoting positive behaviour, TA promotes learning.

It is hard to imagine why a method that has enormous benefits to improved relationships, positive behaviour and learning is not used more widely in schools. One likely reason is that those involved in teacher training have been raised on the more traditional psychological theories. TA is relatively new, and the generation that first promoted TA used it mainly in clinical settings. It is hoped that this study will play a part in bringing TA to a wider audience especially within education.

In the next chapter the study undertaken for this thesis is outlined. This study tests some of the findings already outlined and explores issues arising from the use of TA with young people in schools.

CHAPTER 5

OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, a description of how the research was conducted is given. Firstly, the objectives for the study are stated, followed by the context as it related to the sample. Secondly, the method used to collect information is described. The work with students and teachers is outlined and the mentoring programme, a major part of the work with students, is described. There is a section on how the sample and control groups were selected followed by an explanation of the evaluation instruments. The conclusion provides an overview of the chapter.

5.2 Objectives

The overall aims of the study were to assess the usefulness of TA theory and practice to schools and to see whether TA methods could add to the body of knowledge on interpersonal behaviour in the classroom. In order to achieve these aims, a number of more specific objectives were set. These objectives were:

i) to investigate the extent to which the theory and practice of TA was useful to schools;

ii) to determine whether TA could be used as part of a school's strategy to promote positive behaviour;

iii) to determine whether TA methods could have a significant effect in changing the attitudes of 'at- risk' young people;

iv) to discover whether changing the attitudes of 'at-risk' young people has a bearing on their progress in science and mathematics, their behaviour, and their self image; and

v) to discover what effect teacher interpersonal behaviour has on student outcomes in science and mathematics.

5.3 The Context

The school in which this study was conducted is a New Zealand Registered State Secondary School for young men. The school is located in an inner city area and the students are drawn from this area and from the surrounding suburbs. The school population is approximately 1260 students who come from a traditional geographic multi-ethnic and widely diverse socio-economic community. The age range of the students at the school is from 12 to 18 years, that is from Form 3 (Year 9) to Form 7 (Year 13). The main ethnic group at the school is European (80%). The minority ethnic groups include Asian (7%), Polynesian (6%), Maori (4%), and Indian (3%).

The students in this study were drawn from Form 5 (Year 11). In this Form 5 year, students are required to sit their first external examination known as the New Zealand School Certificate. The compulsory subjects for students at this school are English, science, mathematics, and Physical Education. In mathematics, there is a less academic option offered to selected students which is a local certificate course named Applied mathematics.

5.4 Method

The data collection for this study took place in one academic year. Some of the students in the sample had previously been involved in support groups and counselling, having been referred by staff, parents, or self-referred. Support groups are run in the school for small groups of students at the same year level with a common need. Such needs include improving communication skills, enhancing relationships at home,

improving classroom behaviour and learning study skills. The support group programme that the sample group of students took part in included an introduction to *Transactional Analysis*.

The sample group was selected from a list that was compiled of those students in Form 4 who had received the most school detentions. Many also had poor attendance records. That they were 'at-risk' was confirmed through consultation with senior staff. Of the 17 students invited to be part of the sample group, 11 agreed to take part.

The control group consisted of the next student on the class roll to the student in the sample group. Where a student declined to take part the next student to him on the roll was then selected, however, very few students did decline. All students in the study were informed of the nature of the study, as were the parent/s and caregiver/s of those in the sample group. They were all informed that they would receive some interesting information based on the test results.

Teachers were also invited to take part in a *Transactional Analysis* course, known as TA101 presented by a qualified trainer. Eighteen teachers, representing 25% of the total teaching staff, took part in the TA101 programme. The plan was that, when they had a basic understanding of *Transactional Analysis*, they would begin to use TA methods in their dealings with students. The course was run for two hours one day a week, after school, for six weeks. This was a big commitment on the part of the teachers, yet only one dropped out. Seven of these teachers were mathematics or science teachers. This 7/18 ratio is similar to the overall ratio of mathematics and science teachers to the total staff number.

5.5 Teacher Education

The course for teachers, known as TA101, is a specific introductory programme to TA designed by the ITAA (International Transactional Analysis Association). The ITAA is a non profit scientific organisation established to investigate and promote the use of TA in psychotherapy, education, business, and other fields of human interaction.

Of the 17 teachers who completed the course, nine rated it four on a five point satisfaction scale and the remaining eight teachers rated it five or highly satisfactory. All of the teachers who completed the course rated it as useful and appeared to enjoy it. The most useful aspects were seen to be the sessions on *Games* and *Rackets*, *Script Theory*, Classroom Applications and Personal Applications. Information on *Ego-states* (*Parent*, *Adult*, *Child*) and *stroking* were also seen as being of value to teachers. In their evaluations, participants requested more information on TA in the classroom and a one day follow-up session was run by the original trainer.

Given the difficulties, i.e. time and financial restraints and the fact that the course was tacked onto the end of a working day when the teachers were tired, it was satisfying that the teachers were positive about it. The course gave the teachers opportunity to focus on the classroom difficulties they faced. TA gave them a fresh perspective to these difficulties. Further, TA appealed to many of the teachers at both professional and personal levels. Teachers from this group continued to use TA analogy when describing classroom interaction and in discussing problem behaviour.

5.6 Student Support groups

Student support groups were part of the guidance function in the school. In these support groups, apart from the teaching about TA, a number of other activities took place. The support group provided a safe place for the expression of strong feelings, for the support of students in crisis, for role play, communication skills practice, and for counselling. Useful activities evolved during the course of the support group and some that were particularly successful are included in Appendix 6.

Continuity was a problem in the running of the support group as absenteeism was one of the factors used in identifying students as being at-risk. Group membership, therefore, tended to differ from week to week. It was unlikely that these students would attend in their own time, even though they expressed positive feelings about being in the group and wanted it to continue. Therefore, a further problem was that teachers began to express concern that their students were missing classes to attend the group.

While group activities are a good medium for teenagers, a decision was made to switch to a case study approach for the purposes of this study. In such a programme students would receive monitoring, counselling and guidance regularly throughout the year on an individual basis. It was decided to call this the Mentoring Programme.

5.7 The Mentoring Programme

Students identified as being 'at-risk' were invited to become part of the sample group. Possible candidates were selected (see 5.8) and were provided with more information. If the student still wanted to become part of the programme, written information was sent to the parent/s or caregiver/s (see Appendix 8 for letter used). Students who took part in the study, met regularly with the writer on a one-to-one basis. These meetings were designed to keep the students focussed on their academic programme, especially in mathematics and science and to provide an opportunity for associated educational guidance or for counselling on any personal matters. Counselling and educational guidance sought to develop the students' *Adult ego-state*. Thus TA was the preferred model. Some general comments on how counselling was used in the Mentoring Programme with the sample group, and on how TA was applied, are made in the sub-sections that follow.

5.7.1 *The Mentoring Programme and Counselling*

The nature of a counselling relationship was explained to each member of the sample group at the outset. This was thought to be necessary as some students had not had counselling prior to this. A distinguishing feature of counselling, that of confidentiality, may have been something new to them. Confidentiality was explained, as was the complaint procedure the student could use if it was thought that confidentiality had been broken, or for any other complaint about the writer or the process. The boundaries of counselling and the nature of counselling were explained as follows:

i) What is counselling? Counselling is a special way of thinking over the difficulties we face. It is a relationship in which we can explore these difficulties, work out how you want to change and put these changes in place.

ii) What happens in counselling? In counselling you are helped to explore your difficulties and concerns, and to develop more satisfying and more resourceful ways of living.

iii) A Counsellor can help you to:

- explore your emotions, thoughts and behaviour
- become more aware of yourself, your values and what motivates you
- plan and set goals
- improve your relationships
- reduce your stress
- develop your sense of well being
- do things differently

iv) A Counsellor may:

- see you on your own or with support people
- give you information
- discuss with you who could talk to you about your difficulties
- act on your behalf with your consent

v) A Counsellor is expected to:

- be trustworthy
- respect your confidentiality
- listen to you carefully and sensitively
- help you sort out how you would like things to be different
- support you in making the changes you choose to make

Regular meetings enabled rapport to be established between the students and the counsellor/mentor. TA was used as the main counselling method and an explanation of how TA was used is given in the following sub-section.

5.7.2 *The Mentoring Programme and TA*

The basics of *Transactional Analysis* were explained to each student. Emphasis was put on explaining *ego-states* i.e. *Parent, Adult, Child.* Some members of the sample group already knew something about TA as they had been in the support group the previous year. TA terminology was then used in subsequent monitoring and counselling sessions. The use of *Adult ego-state* was encouraged as it was thought that *Adult* was the kind of thinking needed to lessen the behavioural problems that had led to the sample group being considered 'at-risk'. It was thought that *Adapted Child* behaviour in particular had worked against them. Furthermore, *Adult* thinking was thought to be the kind of thinking that would help the students most in mathematics and science.

Adult ego-state encourages clear thinking, and emphasises responding to others in the present, i.e. using behaviour, thoughts, and feelings which are direct responses to the here and now. Students were encouraged to use the information that they had available to them to test reality and solve problems for themselves. Frequent questions asked were 'how', 'what', 'when', and 'where' questions.

> How will you be able to tell that you understand this work?
> What is your evidence for saying that?
> What do you mean?
> When will this assignment be completed?
> Is that a realistic goal?

'Why' questions were thought to encourage *Child ego-state*s, and were rarely used. The emphasis was on thinking, so words based on thinking were used.

'What do you think?' encourages the process that was wanted.
'Do you think this is a good plan?' encourages evaluation.

Both of these questions require the person being asked the question to do the work.

Feelings were also thought to be helpful in problem solving. When the feeling was known, and was the real 'here and now feeling', a person was thought to be in a better position to communicate clearly. Time was spent in the support groups and in counselling and monitoring in order to help students to identify their feelings, to expand their emotional vocabulary, and to express their feelings in a safe environment.

Conflicts had been frequent for several members of the sample group prior to the study. By practising the skills needed for emotional literacy, it was hoped that conflicts at home, at school, and with their peers would be more easily resolved. It was not the aim to eliminate conflict, as conflict was seen as a part of life and necessary to resolve issues.

Students were taught to make simple statements at first, then to expand them. For example:

I feel ---
I feel --- when you ---
I feel --- when you --- because ---

This work with feelings and with emotional literacy had the objective of developing the *Natural (Free) Child ego-state.*

There were clues to a person's *ego-state.* When a student seemed to be using an *ego-state* that was inappropriate to the task at hand, observations were fed back to the student. As they learnt more about *Transactional Analysis*, this feed-back made more sense to them.

Observation was a valuable source of information about the students in the study. By observing a person's behaviour, it is possible to gain clues as to their *ego-state.* These clues include words, tones, gestures, postures, and facial expressions. More than one type of clue would need to be present for one to be able to judge the *ego-state* of the person observed.

As an example, clues to the *Adult ego-state* could include:

sitting upright
body balanced round a vertical mid line
both feet flat on the floor
relaxed facial muscles
even gaze
level voice tone
mature, thinking vocabulary
logical argument

A person using the *Adult ego-state* for a major proportion of the time may tend to be rather monotonous, unemotional, restrained, or uninteresting. The ideal was thought to be the integrated *Adult* who is able to consciously move to *Parent* or *Child* when appropriate. '*Child*' may be when playing a game, or in a situation where humour is used.

The use of a contract is common practice in *Transactional Analysis*. All of the students in the sample group worked out a contract in their first mentoring session and this was referred to in each subsequent session. The contract used in this study was the same for all with spaces for the student and the writer to put the student's response. Opportunity was always available to alter or re-write the contract as the project proceeded.

The contract read as follows:

i) What do you want to change?
ii) How will you act differently?
iii) Who will you be different with?
iv) Where will this happen?
v) How will you know when you've reached your goal:
   - what will you be doing differently?
   - how will other people know you have changed?

vi) What might you do to sabotage this plan?

vii) What will you do to reward yourself when you reach your goal?

In the mentoring interviews, an awareness of the need to model integrated *Adult* was present. Humour, creativity, and caring were all part of the mentor-student relationship.

5.8 Selection of Sample and Control

School records were used to draw up a list of students who had received the most detentions in the previous year. Added to this list were students with a high number of unexplained absences. This list was then shown to senior staff in the guidance and discipline networks, in order to establish which of these students were perceived as being the most at-risk. This process of consultation led to the confirmation that the list was a quite accurate collection of the students of most concern.

These students were invited to a meeting where the nature of the project was explained to them. They were told how they had come to be selected. They were also told that if they became part of the project they would be taught the theory of TA and that counselling and mentoring would use TA. That their academic progress would be monitored throughout the year was also explained.

The control group consisted of students who were alphabetically next on the class roll to each of the sample group. Where a control group person declined to be part of the study, the next on the roll was invited. Written invitations were again given out to take part in the project. These were now given to both the sample group and the control. In both the support group phase and the mentoring phase, letters were sent to the parent/s and caregiver/s of the student. A signed 'permission to participate' section was returned by those in the sample group (see Appendix 8).

5.9 Evaluation Instruments

School data were used to gather on-going information on attendance and behaviour. Academic progress was also acquired from school records.

Students who entered counselling at some point in their schooling, whether they were in the sample group or the control group, had confidential notes kept on them. Where these were relevant to the study, they were included in the Case Study section of the project, with identifying features changed to preserve anonymity.

Before and after tests were administered to the sample group and to the control group. These tests were selected for their ability to measure self-esteem, the perceived problems each student saw himself as having, and student perception of teachers. An informal survey of the students' dominant *ego-state* was also given. The formal tests and the informal *ego-states* questionnaire were administered in May-June and again in December in the year the mentoring programme took place.

The tests were:

i) The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory - School Form

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (see Appendix 1) is a brief, self-report questionnaire measuring attitudes towards self in social, academic and personal contexts. There are four sections in the inventory: general, social, home and school. Items from these sections appear at random intervals in the questionnaire. The sub-scores are added to give a total self-esteem rating. The school form consisted of some 58 items, fifty of which are self-esteem items, with the remaining eight items making up what is called a lie scale, measuring a student's defensiveness or 'test-wiseness', giving an indication of the validity of an individual's score. Used with a group, the test took 10 to 15 minutes to administer. This test was used to measure the students' self-esteem. It was easy to administer to a group, and had straightforward instructions.

ii) The Mooney Problem Check List

The Mooney Problem Check List (see Appendix 2) was used to give an indication of the number of perceived problems a student had. While the test is somewhat dated, the latest revision being in 1950, it was considered to be the best instrument available for the stated purpose. The Mooney Problem Check List comes in a Junior and Senior form. The Junior form was the version used in the study since it was designed at the junior high school level.

Directions given in the test were easy for the students to follow and students had an opportunity in the concluding section to indicate whether they wanted to talk further about any of the problems they saw themselves as having. This was thought to be a good safety feature.

There are 210 items in the check list which may be put into categories. This allowed the test administrator to see at a glance whether perceived problems were falling into certain categories. The categories were Health and Personal Development, School, Home and Family, Money Work and the Future, Boy-Girl Relationships, Personal Growth, and Self-control. So, there were eight sub-totals which could be added up to a total score. This test took 15 minutes to administer to a group.

iii) The Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction

The Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction (QTI, see Appendix 3) was used to gather students' perceptions of their interactions with their mathematics and science teachers. The students also completed the QTI in relation to the teacher they saw as their Ideal teacher.

The inclusion of the QTI as one of the measurement instruments meant that information could be obtained on the students' perceptions of their interactions with teachers both before and after the students took part in activities such as support groups or the mentoring programme. Differences could be detected in the way the students perceived their interactions with teachers and these differences might be able to be

attributed to different ways of relating that the students learned after being taught *Transactional Analysis*.

The QTI maps interpersonal behaviour with the aid of an influence dimension (Dominance, D - Submission, S) and a proximity dimension (Cooperation, C - Opposition, O). The QTI has 48 items and these are divided into eight scales with six items in each scale. The eight scales relate to teacher interpersonal behaviour. There are two teacher interpersonal behaviours in each four quadrants making up the eight scales.

The 'Dominance' quadrant contains the teacher interpersonal behaviours named 'strict' and 'leadership' teacher interpersonal behaviours. The 'Submission' quadrant contains the teacher interpersonal behaviours named 'student responsibility/freedom' and 'uncertain' teacher interpersonal behaviours. In the 'Cooperation' quadrant are the teacher interpersonal behaviours named 'helping/friendly' and 'understanding' teacher interpersonal behaviours. The 'Opposition' quadrant contains the teacher interpersonal behaviours named 'admonishing' and 'dissatisfied' teacher interpersonal behaviours. Every instance of teacher interpersonal behaviour can be placed within this system of axes (figure 5.1).

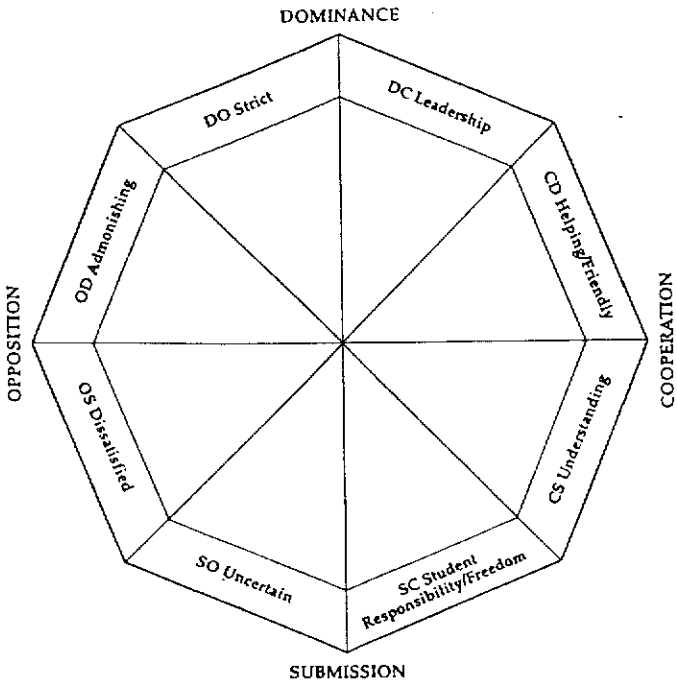

Figure 5.1. The model for interpersonal teacher behaviour.

The QTI was found to be easy to administer to a group. It took about ten minutes for a student to complete a questionnaire for each teacher. The QTI was well set out and straightforward to score.

iv) The *Ego-State* Questionnaire

The *Ego-State* Questionnaire (see Appendix 4) is an informal questionnaire devised by the writer. It was designed to given an indication of which of the *Transactional Analysis ego-states* are dominant in the person completing the questionnaire.

The questionnaire contains 20 items each with five possible responses to the item. The subject rated the response in order of preference, choice, importance or the most likely thing that he/she might do. Each of the five responses to each item represented an *ego-state* from the (TA) *structural model.* These were *Nurturing Parent, controlling Parent, Adult, Natural* or *Free Child* and *Adapted Child.* Students had little difficulty following the instructions. The questionnaire was easily administered to a group and took five to ten minutes to complete.

5.10 Conclusion

This chapter has explained how objectives were set for the study to test the usefulness of *Transactional Analysis* theory and practice for teachers. It also outlined what has been concentrated on for student improvement in mathematics and science, change in inner qualities including attitude and self-esteem, and the student's regard for their teachers.

It was thought that when positive changes took place in the students' ideas about themselves and others, they would be better able to bring about the behavioural changes necessary for academic success. When students are failing, it is time to try something new. Students these days are staying in secondary education longer and there are more 'at-risk' students in the student population. It was explained that this study sought to give teachers and students techniques to help them make classroom interaction positive.

The support group for students run prior to the year of the study has been described. This group gave students an opportunity to talk over some of the problems they faced. The group was governed by usual counselling ethics, or ground rules, such as confidentiality within the group. Thus, the support group gave students a safe place to talk, as well as an environment where they could learn and practice skills and acquire knowledge of TA. The support group was a useful precursor for the mentoring programme.

The physical setting for the study has been described, the selection of the sample and control groups explained and some early difficulties have been outlined. A description was given of work done with teachers and students, leading up to the idea of setting up a mentoring programme. Explanations have been given of new concepts as they arose, especially of *Transactional Analysis* concepts. The chapter ended with descriptions of the measurement instruments used.

CHAPTER 6

CASE STUDIES

6.1 Introduction

This chapter contains the case studies of the ten students in the sample group. These students took part in the mentoring programme described in the previous chapter (5.9). The students were all male with an age range of 15.2 to 16.1 years. All of the students were in their 5th Form (Year 11) year, and had been identified as being 'at-risk'.

Each case study contains seven sections;

Section 1: Personal Data. These are factual information on the student including age, family background, social relationships, any health problems, physical descriptions, and personal interests.

Section 2: Presenting Behaviours. This section describes some of the behaviours that led to the student being included in the sample group and therefore the mentoring programme.

Section 3: History. Here early records are referred to including those from primary school. Further family information may be given as well as developmental, cultural, and counselling/psychological information.

Section 4: The Contract. This section consists of a record of the responses of the students to the questions in the initial contract that was part of the mentoring programme.

Section 5: The Process. A number of different factors are described in this section including interventions, how TA was used, the connection between mentoring and the contract goal, the connection between mentoring and the problem as perceived by the mentor, changes in plan, and difficulties. The section gives an account of what actually happened in the mentoring sessions and reports the significant events between sessions.

Section 6: Results. This section contains the results obtained from the measuring instruments, school records, and academic results.

Section 7: Conclusions. Here the extent to which the contract goals were reached is discussed, comments are made and findings are evaluated. The students who attended the final group session for the year completed an evaluation form. The comments of these students are also included.

The majority of the students were studying for the external New Zealand School Certificate examination. Mathematics and science are compulsory subjects at the College and science covers biology, chemistry, earth science, and physics. Some students do an alternate mathematics course known as Applied Mathematics, which is mainly arithmetic. This distinction is made in the case studies.

Students' names have been changed and the case studies are not presented in any particular order.

6.2 Case Study: Arran

6.2.1 *Personal Data*

Arran was 15.9 years old at the start of the mentoring programme, 16.3 years old at its conclusion. He is European, and lives with both of his parents in an upper-middle class suburb close to the city. Both of his parents are professionals. Arran is big for his age, and has no health problems. He is not involved in any team sports or cultural activities. His main interests are listening to music and skateboarding. While social relationships

are not difficult for Arran, he does not have a large social group. He has one or two older friends at the school.

6.2.2 *Presenting Behaviours*

Arran was included in the study as his poor attendance in the previous year was noted. He was absent for some 60 half days in 1997, several of which were 'unexplained'. He received four detentions, just average for the sample group but higher than the school average.

6.2.3 *History*

Arran came to the school showing a lot of promise. He scored in the 99th percentile in the pre-entry Test of Scholastic Abilities (TOSCA) test of thinking abilities and was rated '2' in both mathematics and science. This '2' indicates 'above average' and is the second ranking on a five point scale, '1' being the highest. Arran was placed in the advanced programme when he first entered the school. However, he did not meet the course requirements, and was withdrawn from the programme at the end of his third form year, 1996, and was returned to mainstream schooling. It is unusual that a person with a TOSCA percentile of 99 should fail in the advanced programme. On first meeting Arran when the mentoring programme was set up, I had the impression that he was disinterested in school. There was general apathy about him.

My hunch about Arran was that he was an addicted person. He had attended several counselling sessions and other programmes in an attempt to quit smoking. Judging from the company he kept it seemed likely that he was using other substances. It seemed that substance abuse and social life were having a negative influence on Arran's motivation. He came across as an intelligent and interesting young man, yet his school records did not support this.

6.2.4 *The Contract*

In a meeting with Arran, the mentoring programme and this study was outlined. Arran agreed to be a part of the study and at our next session the following contract was drawn up:

i) What do you want to change?

Quit smoking. Start to do better with school work.

Academic goals were to get 80% in both mathematics and science, i.e. 'A' passes, and to pass chemistry with 60%.

ii) How will you act differently?

By paying attention.

iii) Who will you be different with?

Mr _____ (chemistry teacher)

iv) Where will this happen?

In chemistry.

v) How will you know when you've reached your goal?

a) What will you be doing differently?

I'll be listening. I'll be on task.

b) How will other people know you've changed?

When the exam results come out they'll see them.

vi) What might you do to sabotage this plan?

Go back to my previous behaviour. (i.e. poor attendance, listening to music in class)

vii) What will you do to reward yourself when you have reached your goal?

I'll have a feeling of achievement.

6.2.5 *The Process*

Arran was firstly referred to a specialist addictions counsellor as a result of his stated desire to quit smoking. He had several sessions with this counsellor over the remainder of the year.

TA was used to help explain to Arran how he might sabotage his plan. His two main difficulties seemed to be his addictive behaviours and his relationship with his chemistry teacher. In both cases, he seemed to get hooked into his *Adapted Child ego-state*. The TA *ego-state*s were explained to Arran and he was shown how he could use the *Adult ego-state* to make sound decisions. The positive side of his *Controlling Parent* was telling him what he 'ought' to do. He was encouraged to make use of this information and his strengths of strong *Adult* and *Positive Controlling Parent*.

Arran developed glandular fever in August, just two months into the mentoring programme. He missed his mentoring interviews during this time, and some of his addictions counselling.

It was agreed to focus Arran's final two interviews for the year on preparation for the School Certificate examination. Arran had missed quite a lot of school and had periods of tiredness when back at school. A study timetable was discussed. Arran had good ideas of how to make this work, and suggestions were given on how to study. A separate session was spent on looking at how to prepare for the mathematics exam.

Arran reported continued difficulties with his chemistry teacher. This, coupled with the time he had missed with glandular fever, led him to decide to concentrate on mathematics and science and not to study chemistry.

6.2.6 *Results*

Arran's attendance was worse in the year of the study than in the previous year. He had 77 half days away, compared with 60 the year before. However, 37 of these absences were during his glandular fever period. If his absences were averaged using the other

three terms as the norm, his absences for the year would have been 53, i.e. a slight improvement. Also, Arran had one less detention than in the previous year.

Arran's mathematics and science marks improved from the start of the study, however, his chemistry mark stayed about the same. These results are shown in figure 6.1.

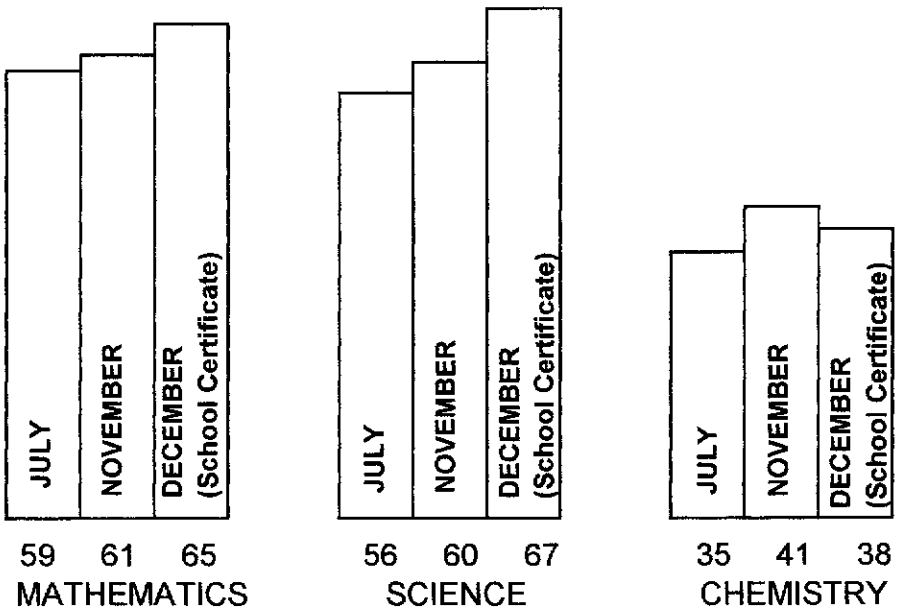

Figure 6.1. Academic results for Arran given in percentages.

Arran reported that his smoking was considerably reduced from fifteen a day to five at the conclusion of the study period. He had earlier been a heavy smoker for a 15 year old.

Arran had had four referrals for lack of effort in class to the Dean of his year group in the five months prior to the start of the mentoring programme. He had one referral during the five months of the programme.

Using the Questionnaire of Teacher Interaction (QTI) Arran rated both his mathematics and his science teachers highest on Leadership, Understanding and Helping-Friendly behaviours. These were similar ratings to what he gave his 'Ideal' teacher. He rated all three low on Uncertain and Dissatisfied behaviours. There was little change in his ratings in November.

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory revealed a reasonably high self esteem score (72%), which didn't change over the course of the study. His General, Social, and Home scores were average, whereas his School score was below average at the mid-year and at the end of the year.

Arran's perceived problems increased over the course of the study according to his results from the Mooney Problem Checklist. His problem totals increased from 22 perceived problems in June to 44 in November. There were notable increases in School (6-14); Money, Work and the Future (0-6); and Self-Control (3-10).

The results from an informal questionnaire given to Arran to assess his TA *ego-states* are shown in figure 6.2.

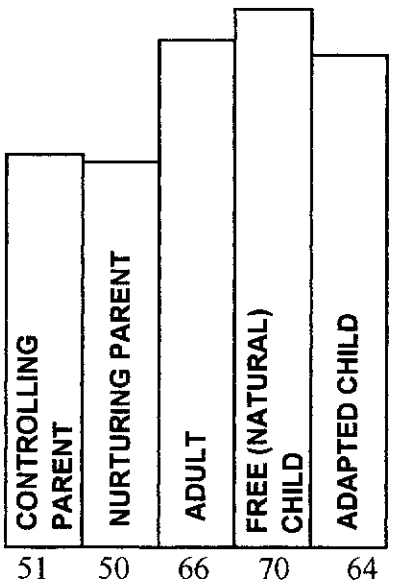

Figure 6.2. Ego-state scores for Arran in November 1998.

6.2.7 *Conclusions*

While the objectives set by Arran in his contract were not fully reached, he moved towards achieving them. Without the focus and goals that the mentoring programme established, he may well have continued with behaviours that were hampering his education. He did not quit smoking, but he did reduce his intake from fifteen a day to

five. He did not get 'A's in mathematics and science, or a pass in chemistry, but his two 'B' passes in mathematics and science were possibly more than could have been expected. mathematics and science turned out to be Arran's best subjects. He passed just one other subject gaining a 'C' in History. Glandular fever was a major setback for Arran. It is not possible to predict how much better he may have done without it.

Arran was not achieving anywhere near his potential and seemed to be disillusioned with school. There appeared to be a close correlation between how he interacts with his teachers and his academic progress. He disliked the two teachers in whose subject he had his worst results. His best marks were in the subjects of two teachers he rated highly.

As part of helping Arran plan his study programme for the final examinations, he completed a questionnaire on learning styles. This showed him to be a mainly auditory learner. Ways of using this information were used in planning his study. It is interesting to note that in his contract, made at the start of the mentoring programme, his answer to 'What will you be doing differently (when you've reached your goal)?' was 'I'll be listening. I'll be on task'. It would seem that when Arran is encouraged to think about the way in which his difficulties can be solved, he has good *Adult ego-state* available which he is able to use to come up with perceptive ideas that will work for him.

Arran's poor chemistry result can also be explained in TA terms. The teacher had high *Controlling Parent*. This is known through classroom observations, and some counselling sessions with this teacher. His behavioural interventions included frequently admonishing the students. With Arran having high *Adapted Child*, these two were never going to get on as one *ego-state* hooks the other. It was not that Arran didn't understand the work as science proved to be his best subject. He reacted in a rebellious way to the criticisms of the teacher by making a decision to shut off and do nothing.

Adapted Child can be used in a positive way. Arran's *Adapted Child* was hooked when examination preparation was being planned. Students with high *Adapted Child* can be

good to work with as they can be compliant and eager to please. By adopting a *Nurturing Parent ego-state*, controlled by *Adult*, I was able to help Arran plan his end of year study, and get him involved in some useful final preparation.

That mathematics and science proved to be Arran's best subjects was not surprising. His mathematics and science teachers were his favourite teachers. He rated them highly on the QTI in behaviours that are similar to the TA *Nurturing Parent*. His teachers' *Nurturing Parent* would have encouraged his creative side, the *Natural Child*. It is also likely that he would have felt emotionally secure in these classes. Without the baggage created by conflict, he was able to concentrate and listen in class.

Arran would have been well aware that he was not achieving as well as he could. This was shown by the marked increase of School problems in the Mooney Problem Checklist. He may also have felt that he did not have much control over what was happening, as the problems of Self-Control also increased.

Arran's *ego-gram*, compiled after he completed the *ego-state* questionnaire confirms some of these conclusions. There is an imbalance between *Parent* (101 total) and *Child* (134 total). Further work is needed with Arran to raise his own *Nurturing Parent* and lessen his *Controlling Parent*. This could be done by focussing on ways in which Arran can take care of himself, of his own *Child*. He has good *Adult* and *Natural Child*. These two together could lead to high academic achievement as they represent the thinking and the creative parts of a person..

Arran thought that being part of this project helped him to see into himself. He felt that he had done well in science, and acknowledged that a difficulty this year had been chemistry.

Involvement with Arran has reinforced the following conclusions:

i) Student perception of teacher is an important factor, leading in this case study to success in mathematics and science and to failure in chemistry.

ii) High *Negative Adapted Child* (see Chapter 2.7) can lead to types of classroom behaviour that will lead to academic failure. While this AC behaviour is often rebellious, in Arran's case it was manifest in withdrawal.

iii) Low *Nurturing Parent* can lead to behaviours and attitudes that don't respect the self, e.g., addictions.

6.3 Case Study: Barry

6.3.1 *Personal Data*

Barry was 15.2 years old at the start of the mentoring programme and 15.8 at its conclusion. He lives in a middle class suburb close to the city, with both of his parents, an older sister and younger brother. His parents, one Samoan, the other European, are both professional people and his sister attends university. Barry is big for his age, and wears glasses for shortsightedness. He is interested in, but not involved in organised sport. He enjoys outdoor activities such as tramping and mountain biking. Barry has a small group of friends, and the relationship with one of these friends goes back to primary school. He relates well to adults on a one-to-one basis.

6.3.2 *Presenting Behaviours*

In the year prior to the study, Barry had been of considerable concern to the school, and to his parents. He became a school refuser and was absent for 125 half days. This was the worst attendance record for the sample group. Barry had become violent towards both of his parents when they tried to get him to come to school and the Attendance Officer and the Police had been involved on a number of occasions. Restless and unfocussed in class, Barry had received nine detentions in the year prior to the study. The absences would have contributed to his being behind and made it difficult for him to follow what was going on in class.

Barry had been referred by staff for counselling. Work had been done on goal setting and organisation in which he set high standards for himself, which he failed to meet. Barry was referred to an Educational Psychologist at the time of his school refusal. It was thought that Barry may have had Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder, however the Psychologist did not refer to this in her conclusions. Tutoring was recommended and his parents arranged for him to have an English tutor. Towards the end of the year prior to the study, Barry was referred on to another Educational Psychologist. This Psychologist focussed on homework contracts and met several times with Barry and his father. Again, Barry failed to carry out any of the contracts. During the time of Barry's school refusal he became a smoker and then gave smoking as one of the reasons why it was difficult for him to attend school.

6.3.3 *History*

Culturally, Barry identifies with the European side of his family. Samoan is not spoken at home, and his mother's family live in another city.

His primary school noted a lack of concentration in class which meant that he sometimes missed instructions. He did not always complete tasks and his presentation lacked care. He was good at tasks that did not require written work, e.g., science experiments, group discussion, art, and physical education. Testing at the end of 1995, the year prior to Barry's entry into Secondary School, indicated that he was below average academically. He had a 36 percentile in the TOSCA test, putting him just above the bottom third of students his age. His mathematics score was '4', which is below average while in science he was rated '5', or 'limited'.

An attempt was made to get Barry involved in a counselling and a support group in the year prior to the study. He agreed to be part of the group but failed to attend any sessions. From the middle of that year, Barry was becoming out of control. Physically bigger than both of his parents, Barry began to ignore family rules. He sometimes stayed out all night and slept in the bush surrounding his suburb. It was believed that he was responsible for incidents of throwing stones onto peoples' roofs during the

night. At school, Barry was being referred to his year level Dean quite frequently for disruptive behaviour and he was excluded from two classes for the third term.

Barry entered the year of this project with a most unsettled year behind him, and a history of limited academic success. He came to counselling several times before the project actually started. In February, Barry talked through a plan to quit smoking. He expressed a desire to get on better with his father and to get back into mountain biking. Barry said that he aimed to pass School Certificate English and science, and to pass mathematics with a B. He said that he planned to achieve these academic goals by doing regular homework and having revision books.

The following month, Barry came back for another session on homework. We established through testing that he is a mainly visual person and decided on ways of revising and remembering that are visual. Barry had a further session on study in the second term. Here, he decided to use his homework diary more and to get some homework done before tea each night. He also mentioned that he was now permanently off smoking and had not smoked for four months. Barry and his father had gone on an overnight tramp in the last school holidays which Barry greatly enjoyed. Barry had also been spending more time with his father by helping him build a 'sleepout' for his sister. He was biking to and from school most days.

6.3.4 *The Contract*

By the time Barry came to make his contract at the start of the mentoring programme, quite a lot of contact had been had with him. His contract was as follows:

i) What do you want to change?
I want to be up to date with school work.
Academic goals were to get an 'A' pass in mathematics, and to pass English, physics and science.

ii) How will you act differently?

I'll be studying. I'll be working in class, I'll be getting involved in class. I'll ask and answer questions.

iii) Who will you be different with?

I'll be different with my teachers, also with my Dad and my sister.

iv) Where will this happen?

At school, at home, at my sister's flat.

v) How will you know when you've reached your goal?

I'll be respected more. My marks will be higher than last year.

vi) What might you do to sabotage this plan?

I don't think I will.

vii) What will you do to reward yourself when you reach your goal?

I'll have the feeling of respect. I'll get entry to university.

6.3.5 *The Process*

During the mentoring programme Barry became remarkably focussed on his school work and on mathematics in particular. His contract specified that change was wanted at school and in his relationships at home, so these aspects were what were followed up. Four weeks into the programme, when Barry's contract was reviewed, he reported that he had borrowed notes and caught up in physics. He was up to date in English, and thought that he could get more involved in science. He thought that he was doing well in mathematics, though some of the concepts were difficult for him to grasp because of time missed last year. At home, Barry said that he was talking more with his sister and that his father was listening to him better. It seemed that Barry's new focus on his school work was giving him a feeling of being more in control with the resultant spin off of being seen as more of an equal at home.

At his next interview, Barry expressed frustration at wanting to do well in mathematics but not fully understanding the work. It was arranged that a retired mathematics teacher would tutor Barry, provided the tutoring was in Barry's own time. Barry agreed to stay behind on two afternoons a week for one hour for the remainder of term four. Further, with examinations coming up, Barry was given ideas on how to set up a study programme, and told of methods of studying best suited to him.

TA was explained to Barry. *Parent-Adult-Child* diagrams were used to show what happened when he got into arguments, in particular with his parents and teachers. Barry was inclined to become belligerent when confronted or cornered and in so doing let his *Adapted Child ego-state* take control. He was encouraged to stay calm and let his *Adult ego-state* into play. Barry seemed to understand the theory of TA and how it could be used to help him cope with criticism. He appeared to be getting into far less trouble at school.

Barry was becoming more reliable and he kept to his agreement to meet with his tutor after school. In eight weeks, he only forgot once or twice.

6.3.6 *Results*

Barry's attendance improved considerably in the year of the study. His absences were still higher than average at 59 half days away, but this was a lot better than the 125 half days away the year before. Most of his absences in the year of the study were legitimate, with bouts of winter illness, whereas his poor attendance in the previous year was mostly truancy. There was an improvement in the number of detentions Barry received in the year of the study. He received four detentions, which is high, but a lot better than the nine he received in the previous year.

Barry's mathematics and science marks improved from the time of the start of the mentoring programme to the end of the year. His marks are shown in figure 6.3.

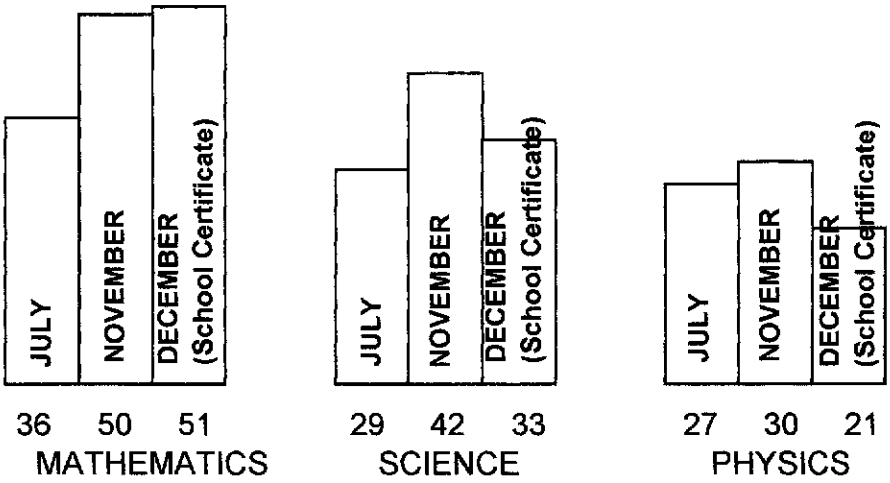

Figure 6.3. Academic results for Barry given in percentages.

Barry was referred to the Dean of his year group four times in the five months prior to the mentoring programme, and twice after the programme had started. All six of these referrals were for behaviour problems in science.

Using the QTI, Barry rated his 'Ideal' teacher highly on Leadership, Understanding and Helping-Friendly Behaviours. These ratings did not change between July and November. He rated his 'Ideal' teacher lowest in Uncertain and Dissatisfied Behaviours, with little change between the beginning and the end of the mentoring programme. Barry downgraded his science teacher on the positive behaviours on the QTI and felt that this teacher's use of negative behaviours increased during the same period. At the start of the study, Barry rated his science teacher highest on Leadership, Understanding and Helping-Friendly Behaviour, but at the end of the study he rated this teacher highest on Admonishing Behaviour, although the three previously mentioned behaviours were rated second equal. At the start of the mentoring programme Barry rated his science teacher low on Uncertain and on Dissatisfied Behaviours. At the end of the study Barry thought this teacher's behaviours in the former category had doubled and in the latter category trebled. Barry rated his mathematics teacher highest on Leadership, Understanding and Helping-Friendly Behaviours and lowest on Uncertain

and Admonishing Behaviours. There was little change to Barry's scoring of this teacher between the start and the end of the study.

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory showed that Barry's self esteem was high, being 78% at the start of the mentoring programme and 76% at the end. His Social, Home and School scores were slightly higher than the averages of both the sample and the control groups, and changed little throughout the course of the study.

The Mooney Problem Checklist indicated that Barry's perceived problems dropped dramatically over the course of the mentoring programme, from 76 perceived problems in June to 45 in November. The most significant drop was in perceived problems relating to Home and Family. In June, Barry saw himself as having 12 problems relating to Home and Family, while at the end of the programme he indicated just three problems in this area. Other notable drops in perceived problems were School, from 17 problems in June to 12 in November, and in Personal Growth from eight problem areas in June to none at the end of the study. Between June and November, perceived problems in Money, Work and The Future fell from 13 to eight and in the area of Self Control perceived problems fell from 14 to 11.

An assessment was made of Barry's TA *ego-state*s using the informal questionnaire. The results of this test are shown below in figure 6.4.

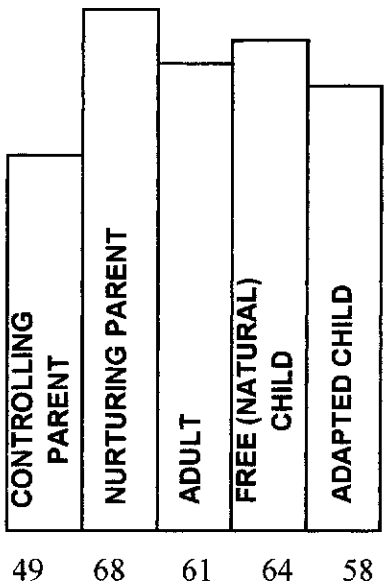

Figure 6.4. Ego-state scores for Barry in November 1998.

6.3.7 *Conclusions*

The objectives Barry set for himself in his contract at the start of the mentoring programme were rather unrealistic, given the amount of school he had missed the previous year through truancy. However, setting high goals did not make him become dejected, and he was delighted to pass mathematics.

It is thought that the mentoring programme enabled Barry to maintain an academic focus. It also contributed to improved home relationships as he was attending school and had a purpose. By encouraging Barry to use his *Adult ego-state* in seeking solutions to his problems, he was able to be specific about the kind of behaviours needed to reach his goals. It was surprising that Barry kept to the arrangement to stay behind after school for extra mathematics, considering his earlier negative attitude and his truancy. The decrease in behaviour problems with Barry can be put down to an increased *Adult* awareness of what he actually did in class.

Barry's QTI results are also revealing. His perception of his science teacher's behaviour becoming more negative corresponded with a School Certificate mark (33%) not much better than his mid-year mark (29%). He saw his mathematics teacher as a consistently positive person, and his marks improved from 36% to 51%.

The drop in perceived problems shown by the Mooney Problem Checklist coincided with Barry's consistently high self esteem throughout the programme. He responded well to the personal contact of the mentoring and the way it connected his behaviour to how others, i.e. teachers and family, behaved towards him.

Before the programme started, Barry was setting himself up to be a school drop-out. At the end of the programme it was shown that he was capable of improving interpersonal relationships, having some control over his behaviour, and having a measure of academic success. He decided to return to school to repeat the subjects he failed. Barry responded in a positive way to the encouragement he got from the mentoring programme and said that while it had been a difficult year for him, he could see how helpful some of his teachers had been.

Some inferences may be made:

i) Barry's high *Nurturing Parent* makes him a considerate and caring person. His own career preference of Social Work is consistent with his *ego-state* profile.

ii) Both of his *Child ego-state*s are high. His *Natural Child* can help him be creative, and his *Positive Adapted Child* has developed making him (e.g.) reliable in keeping appointments. The *Negative Adapted Child* in him needs to be kept in check as it leads to the kind of behaviour that gets him into trouble.

iii) Development of Barry's *Adult ego-state* is needed. Ideally *Adult* should be in charge and with Barry both his *Nurturing Parent* and *Natural Child* are higher than *Adult*. *Adult* thinking would help Barry to greater success. It is required for the kind of analytical thinking needed in his favoured subjects of mathematics and science. *Adult* thinking will also help Barry in a more general way. Specific areas where this could be developed are in problem solving, time planning, future planning and in predicting consequences. Barry needs some simple methods where he can learn a process and apply it to life situations.

6.4 Case Study: Chris

6.4.1 *Personal Data*

Chris is European, and was 15.10 years old at the start of the mentoring programme and 16.2 at its conclusion. He is an only child and lives with both of his parents, both professionals, in a middle class area close to the city centre. Socially, Chris is not outgoing but he has a quiet sincerity. He has one or two close friends and a small social group. Chris plays soccer for the school and has some ability at this sport. He likes music, has been taking drum lessons, and enjoys computers.

6.4.2 *Presenting Behaviours*

Chris was considered for this study because of his high number of absences, 52 half days in the year prior to the study. While this was one of the better attendance records for the sample group, it is well above the school average for absences.

Behaviour-wise, Chris was not considered a problem at school. He received just one school detention in the year prior to the study. Chris had sought counselling on a number of occasions in the year prior to the study. His mother was concerned about him and he presented initially as being mildly depressed. There were signs that Chris needed help and support and thus he was included in the sample group.

6.4.3 *History*

Initial contact was made with Chris after his mother reported him to be suicidal. At the first counselling interview it was established that he had indeed had such thoughts. In his favour, Chris was able to clearly describe events leading to his then depressed state and to express his feelings clearly.

Chris had a number of individual counselling sessions that dealt with the various issues. These issues included friendships, relationship with parents, violence in the home, and smoking. He was given advice on where to seek help if it was needed urgently, was referred to a 'Quit' group for smokers within the school, and he joined a support group for the remainder of the year. He seemed to be out of the category of being at-risk of suicide, but an agreement or contract was entered into nevertheless.

Chris was a good group member of the support group. He attended well, missing just one session out of 12. His contract for change was to feel more supported, and at the end of the year felt that he was less argumentative. Chris was certainly well supported by the members of the group, but he developed confidence in being able to support others as well. Chris was named, in confidence, by another member of the group, as being a good person to talk to about personal matters.

Prior to entry to the school, Chris was rated as having a 25 percentile on the TOSCA test, which is below average. He was rated '3', or average, at mathematics and science.

Just before the start of the mentoring programme, after about a year's work in individual counselling and group activity, Chris was beginning to gain confidence. Academically, he was passing his subjects, and had gained 52% in science, 57% in mathematics, and 68% in physics. The challenge was going to be to retain the growing feeling of self-confidence for the end of year external examinations.

6.4.4 *The Contract*

When Chris came into the mentoring programme, and entered into its contract, he had been involved with counselling and guidance for about a year. His participation was seen as being a means to continue this support.

The following contract was drawn up:

i) What do you want to change?

I want to do more work in mathematics and science. I want to quit smoking by the end of this term. (10 weeks away)

ii) How will you act differently?

I will tighten up and do some study. So I'll budget my time - I'll do an afterschool plan and stick to it for the rest of this term. Also, I'll focus more in class.

iii) Who will you be different with?

I'll separate from the people I talk to in class.

iv) Where will this happen?

In class and at home.

v) How will you know when you've reached your goal?

a) What will you be doing differently?

I'll be listening, concentrating and being quiet. I'll be focussing on maths and science.

b) How will other people know you've changed?

My marks will improve. I'll be working instead of socializing.

vi) What might you do to sabotage this plan?

Get on the phone. Turn on T.V. Break out and smoke more.

vii) What will you do to reward yourself when you reach your goal?

I'll have better health, qualifications and job prospects. I'll feel good about myself.

6.4.5 *The Process*

Chris had been referred to an addictions counsellor prior to the start of the mentoring programme. This counselling continued throughout the programme.

The P.A.C. model from TA had been shown and explained to Chris. This was used to show how he sometimes got into arguments at home. Chris has good thinking skills, and he was continually challenged to think out his own solutions to difficulties.

Chris talked about some of his problems before the start of the mentoring programme. He had self doubts and was easily hurt by the criticism of others. He was strongly encouraged to stay in *Adult ego-state* when he was being criticised and a specific technique was taught to him. Further, he was *stroked* for his positive attributes and his academic progress at every opportunity. By developing *Adult* and *Nurturing Parent* in Chris, it was thought that he would be given the skills needed to solve problems, and that the development of his caring side would include caring for himself. Thus, the counselling process was able to assist the mentoring programme. Working towards the stated goals of the mentoring programme, to improve academically, meant that Chris

was also increasing his self esteem and his thinking and decreasing the chances of a suicide attempt.

Chris looked at smoking from a TA perspective during one of his mentoring sessions. Two *ego-state* voices were identified:

ADULT - It costs too much
It's no good for my health

NEGATIVE ADAPTED CHILD - It's too much hassle to quit
It gets me stressed

Two months into the programme, Chris reported that he was getting more work completed than before in both mathematics and science. He was also understanding his mathematics better, but had some difficulties with science. We problem-solved this last dilemma, and Chris chose to go over his notes again.

Towards the end of the mentoring programme, Chris was given assistance to prepare for the external examinations. As part of this study skills teaching, he was given an informal test that revealed a strong auditory preference. Ways of using auditory activities in studying were discussed. As the examination approached, Chris showed signs of increased confidence. His body position was more upright, he had better eye contact and smiled more.

6.4.6 *Results*

Chris did not quit smoking at the end of the third term and was still smoking at the end of the fourth term when the mentoring programme finished. Attendance was slightly better in the year of the study, with 50 half days absent compared with 52 the year before. Chris had one more detention in the year of the study. He had two detentions in all, compared with one the year before.

Chris improved his mathematics and science marks from the start of the mentoring programme to the end of year external examination. His physics mark dropped, although he still passed physics comfortably. These results are summarised in figure 6.5.

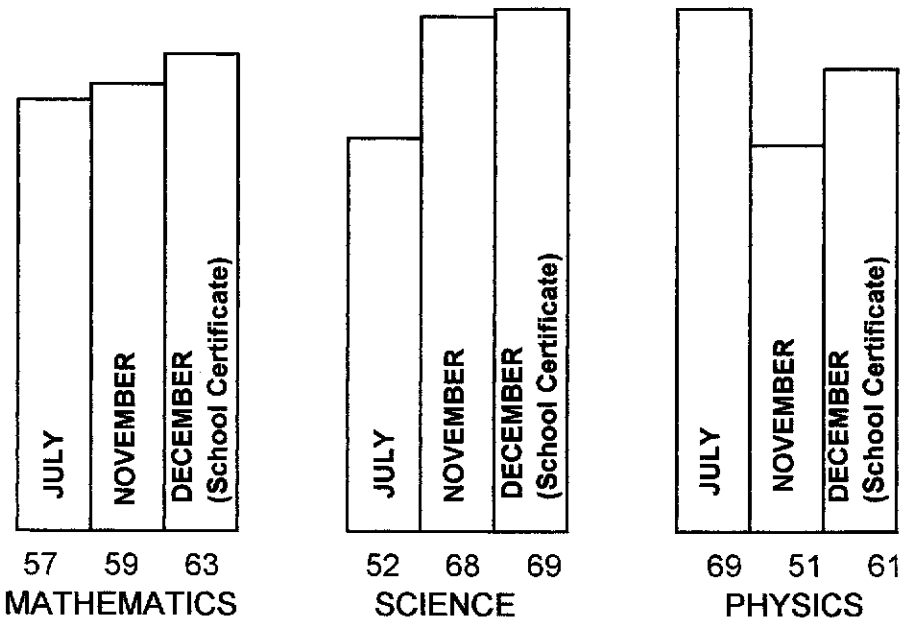

Figure 6.5. Academic results for Chris, given in percentages.

Chris passed all six of his School Certificate subjects with marks in the 60's. science was his best result.

Chris was referred to the Dean of his year group twice during the year of the study, once before the mentoring programme and once during the programme. Both referrals were for talking in class.

Using the QTI, Chris showed little variation in the way he rated his 'Ideal' teacher. This teacher he regarded highly in Leadership, Understanding, and Helping-Friendly behaviours in June and November, and low in Uncertain, Admonishing, and Dissatisfied behaviours. Chris varied just a little in the way he rated his science teacher. He rated this teacher highest in Admonishing behaviour, scoring the teacher 16 in June and increasing the rating to 21 in November. He considered that this

teacher's Uncertain behaviour increased from a rating of nine in June to 16 in November, while Dissatisfied behaviour was seen to decrease from 17 in June to 13 in November. He scored his science teacher low in Leadership, Understanding, and Helping-Friendly behaviours. There was considerable difference in the way Chris rated his mathematics teacher. At the start of the mentoring programme, in June, he saw this teacher as being high in Leadership, Understanding, and Helping-Friendly behaviours, and low in Uncertain, Admonishing, and Dissatisfied behaviours. By the end of the programme, Chris thought that this teacher was about average in all of these behaviours, rating the teacher from 9-13 in all of the behaviours considered by the questionnaire.

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory revealed little change in self esteem for Chris between the start of the project and its conclusion. His overall self esteem rating as a percentage was 86 in June and 88 in November. In August of the previous year, Chris had been given the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory to complete when he was involved in the support group using TA. At this time his overall percentage rating was 68. Over the 15 months that followed, his Social, Home and School scores all rose. His School rating rose the most, from four percentage points to ten, accounting for half of the overall increase in score.

The Mooney Problem Checklist revealed that Chris thought he had slightly fewer problems at the end of the mentoring programme than at the beginning. In June he had 65 perceived problems while in November he had 59. He thought he had the same or fewer problems in all categories of the Checklist except for two. Interestingly, compared with the Coopersmith result, his perceived School related problems rose from 15 in June to 20 in November. Perceived problems in the area of Health and Personal Development rose by two. Chris indicated that he had few problems at the end of the project in the areas of Boy-Girl relationships (2-0), Personal Growth (3-0) and Self-Control (15-11). In the Home and Family category, perceived problems also fell (7-3).

An informal questionnaire was given to Chris to assess his TA *ego-states*. His results are shown in figure 6.6.

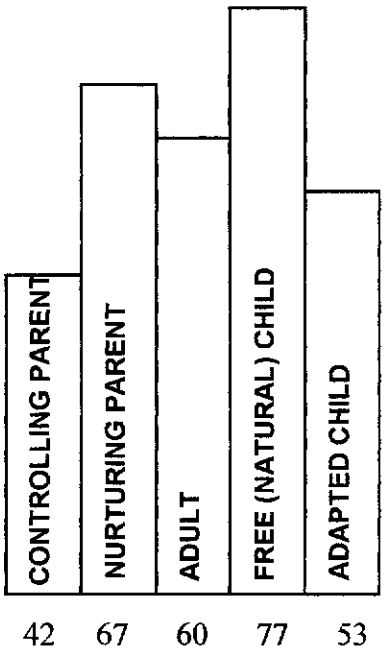

Figure 6.6. Ego-state scores for Chris, in November 1998.

6.4.7 *Conclusions*

Chris presents as a person who feels things deeply, which is possibly why he had suicidal thoughts at first contact. This is supported by his high *Natural Child.* The development of his *Adult* (thinking) and his *Nurturing Parent* (caring) during the overall contact with him has lessened suicidal thoughts and his previous feelings of depression.

Being involved with Chris during the mentoring programme gave him an opportunity to talk about the difficulties he faced. Putting emphasis on his own responsibility for his feelings developed his own inner resources.

Chris developed confidence in his academic ability. This meant that he was able to maintain a 'pass' standard throughout. Without this support it is possible that he may have become down, which would have effected his ability to concentrate. That Chris passed all of his subjects is a real achievement for a young man, initially thought to be 'at-risk'.

The increased self esteem result for Chris in relation to school shows the confidence he developed in his academic ability. It is likely that the low score in his pre-entry thinking abilities test is more a reflection of his own feelings of inadequacy at that time. The increase in school problems indicated in the Mooney Problem Checklist is likely to be due to an increased awareness of what the problems actually were. This assumption is backed up by the facts that his self esteem related to school and his marks on average, went up. That his *Adult* (thinking) improved is further supported by his science and mathematics results for which thinking ability is a major indicator of likely success.

It was unfortunate that Chris saw both his science and his mathematics teachers as being unlike his 'Ideal'. The science teacher was rated consistently low in positive aspects, yet Chris was able to improve his marks. His improvement was most likely due to his own positive attitude, and to focussing in his contract on the kind of behaviours needed for success i.e. 'listening', 'concentrating', 'focussing' and 'being quiet'. His science mark rose from 52 at the start of the project to 69, an increase of 17 percent.

In mathematics, Chris increased his score by six marks over the course of the mentoring programme. His mathematics teacher was the one he rated quite differently in the QTI from the start of the programme to the end, with a marked down-grading of the teacher's positive aspects. It is possible that students respond better to consistency rather than change, even if the teacher is consistently not liked.

It is thought that this project contributed to Chris being successful in his external examination. It helped him to express his troubled feelings, to focus on his school work as a result, and to develop clear goals for study. He ended the year looking more confident and relaxed. He seemed to walk more upright, smiled more, seemed to be mixing better with his peers, and invariably greeted the writer cheerfully around the school. His own comments at the end of the year were that he saw himself change over the year and that he had done most of my work and had fun at the same time.

6.5 Case Study: Danny

6.5.1 *Personal Data*

Danny was 15.3 years old at the start of the mentoring programme and 15.9 years old at its conclusion. He is part-Maori, adopted, and lives with his European, professional parents, and an older sister, in an upper-middle class suburb close to the city. Danny has a few close friends and a wider circle which forms his social group. This social group consists of a number of young people who frequent the malls of the inner city. Danny's social group are of concern to his parents.

Danny's physical health seems to be good, although he attends the school sick bay regularly with minor complaints. He is of average build for his age. Sport has been a major interest to Danny in his years at Secondary School. He has played soccer, rugby, and cricket. He has some ability in all three, especially cricket.

6.5.2 *Presenting Behaviours*

Danny's presenting behaviour was characterised by mood swings, from quite elated and excitable to depressed. He self-referred for counselling during one of his depressed episodes one year prior to the start of the mentoring programme. During that year, Danny raised a number of issues in counselling, and attended some 12 individual and two family sessions. Danny received counselling for depression, anxiety, sleep problems, binge eating, suicidal thoughts, anger, headaches, and 'feeling odd'. This collection of problems prompted referral to specialists as well as intensive counselling at school.

Specialist help was obtained from the Public Health Nurse, Danny's G.P., a Child Psychologist and a family counselling centre which had a resident Psychologist. Going against recommendations, Danny's mother refused to have a psychiatric assessment done on Danny and refused permission for him to go on to medication. Close monitoring of Danny was carried out by his teachers at the counsellor's request. He

was also invited to and attended student support groups for most of the year prior to this study.

Danny became anxious prior to school examinations and attended two study skills courses which included techniques to counter examination anxiety.

In one of the support groups, Danny completed a (TA) 'Corralogram'. The idea of the Corralogram came from Freed (1992) and is described in his book *TA For Teens* (p. 67). Danny's Corralogram is reproduced below:

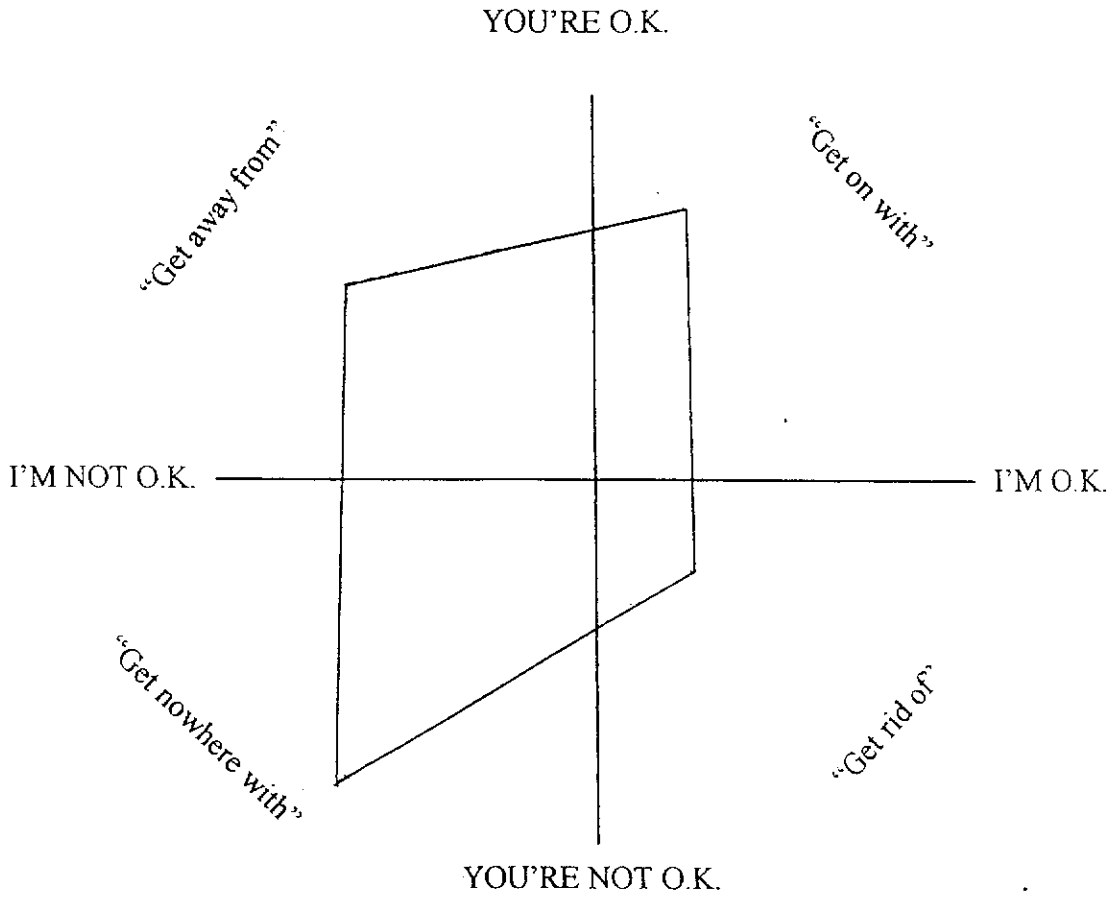

Figure 6.7. Danny's Corralogram 22.8.97.

The Corralogram is an informal measuring instrument, and is based on the client's own assessment of him/herself. What Danny's Corralogram shows is that he sees himself as having little 'I'm OK', with 'I'm OK - You're Not-OK' being what he sees as his least 'lived-in' area. 'I'm OK - You're OK', the healthiest state to be in in TA terms is seen

as a small area for Danny, the second to least 'lived-in' area. Both of the 'I'm Not-OK' areas are large. 'I'm Not-OK - You're Not-OK' is seen by Freed to represent 'get nowhere with' in terms of relationships. 'I'm Not-OK-You're OK' is seen to represent 'get away from' in terms of relationships. Danny's opinion of himself seemed low. At the time of doing this Corralogram he did not appear to think much of other people either.

Danny was withdrawn in the support group, but he was accepted by the other students. He volunteered to continue in a support group when the first one ended and a new one was set up. Although he didn't respond much to group interaction, he attended well and ended up relating well socially to the other group members. Danny began to become familiar with TA as it was used in counselling and in the support group.

Danny's attendance was poor in the year before the mentoring group was set up. He was absent for 61 half days.

My initial guess about what was going on for Danny was that there were unresolved feelings of anger, that his self image was poor, that there was a degree of clinical depression present, and that he could be manipulative and use his depressed feelings to gain attention, i.e. he played '*Games*'.

6.5.3 *History*

Danny scored below average marks on the TOSCA pre-entry test before he started at the school. He was rated as being on stanine 4, with a percentile ranking of 29. His primary school rated him below average in both mathematics and science, giving him a '4', or 'fair' in both of these subjects.

Danny had a history of not getting on at home. His parents reported frequent angry outbursts. He argued with his sister and became moody with his parents and isolated himself. Culturally, Danny had been brought up in a European way. He studies Maori language at school, encouraged by his parents to learn something of his cultural background.

As discussed under Presenting Behaviours, Danny came into this study with a lengthy history of problems, and he had been receiving professional help, counselling and support for some time.

6.5.4 *The Contract*

Danny had been coming for counselling since his first year at the school, two and a half years ago, so by the time his contract was made he was well known. The support he had been getting to date had been at the emotional level. The purpose of the mentoring programme was explained to Danny as being a way of continuing the support he had been getting, but with a sharper focus on his academic progress. The following contract was drawn up.

i) What do you want to change?

I want to change my attitude to school work. I want a positive attitude to school work.

ii) How will you act differently?

I will enjoy school more. I will do the work.

iii) Who will you be different with?

Mathematics and design studies teachers named.

iv) Where will this happen?

In the classroom. Also at home, and sometimes with my friends.

v) How will you know when you've reached your goal?

a) What will you be doing differently?

I'll be more confident about my work. I'll be neater.

b) How will other people know you have changed?

I won't talk as much in class and I'll complete classwork and do my homework.

vi) What might you do to sabotage this plan?

Say 'flag it, it's a waste of time.' I'd slack off.

vii) What will you do to reward yourself when you reach your goal?

Buy myself a car.

6.5.5 *The Process*

By the time Danny entered the mentoring programme, he was familiar with TA. This was seen as a good method of dealing with Danny as it made him accept some responsibility for his part in his relationships with others. A difficulty with the TA approach with Danny was his background and history which suggested that he had been able to be manipulative with others. There is little room to behave in this way with TA therapy and there were times throughout the programme when he was unco-operative e.g., his body language would suggest he was withdrawing: eyes lowered, mumbled responses and the adoption of his 'depressed look'. The reason for this withdrawal was seen to be a struggle to adopt the new behaviour being suggested which was for him to be personally responsible for the outcomes of his behaviour. The hope was that even if the mentoring programme did not work for Danny in terms of improved academic performance, there might be personal gains at some later stage.

From the outset, mentoring interviews with Danny focussed on behaviour rather than on feelings. 'Thinking' was also encouraged, to develop Danny's *Adult*. Previous experience indicated that Danny became 'stuck' when working at the 'feeling' level. (For example of previous work on feelings, see Appendix 5.)

The first interview after Danny had completed his contract focussed on the meaning behind his stated goal of changing his attitude to school work to one where he had a positive attitude. Danny was asked what a change of attitude would mean. He thought it would mean that he would try harder and put in more effort. Danny was encouraged to develop the habit of thinking positively and doing things that were positive. In terms of thinking positive he thought he would tell himself 'I can do this'. In terms of doing things positively he thought he would tell himself 'do classwork' and 'do homework'. It was thought to be important that Danny developed such positive self-talk.

Danny expressed anxiety about the end-of-year examinations, in spite of the fact that they were three months away. Working on the premise that, 'knowledge is the antidote to fear', what action he was going to take was looked at in preference to reflecting on his feeling. He thought that what he needed to do was to plan and begin assignments early, and said that he was doing this with his English research assignment.

Danny reported that he was getting on better with his workshop technology teacher following a meeting where this teacher called in Danny's parents. He was putting into practice his resolve to actively do work in class and said he was talking less and working more. Danny thought that he was getting more done in other classes. He also thought that relationships had improved in the home now that he was doing some homework, though he was annoyed that his parents sometimes tried to get him to do more than two hours work.

At his next interview a few weeks later, Danny reported that he had had some time in hospital as a result of a reaction to medication he had been using. I was unable to establish what the medication was for. He considered that he was up-to-date with mathematics and had a private tutor. In science, he said that work was 'O.K.' He seemed to be working well in English, but in his other subjects, Maori and workshop technology, he reported that he was not paying attention.

The following week Danny presented two contradictory moods. On the one hand, he was unusually positive about his school work. He said that 'Science, maths, and English will be difficult, but I can get there'. On the other hand, he reported arguments at home and 'a big sad feeling like a hollow'. Danny was crying during this interview, but was unable to get in touch with what his sadness was about. Given that the external examinations were close, I suggested that Danny spend two sessions of study each evening and have one session feeling sad. The reason for suggesting this was to keep Danny occupied and on track for the examinations. Giving him 'permission' to feel sad was thought to be better than suggesting that he ought to be just focussing on study. Three days after the previous interview, Danny called by to say that he was going back to see the Child Psychiatrist. He was taking a naturopathic sleep remedy and was

looking a lot better than three days ago of which I informed him. Danny reported that he was still studying and that he was up to date in all subjects.

Danny's final session for the year was spent in looking at study skills and how to revise. Particular attention was paid to bringing 'doing' and active methods into play as Danny appeared to be strongly 'kinethetic'.

6.5.6 *Results*

Danny's attendance improved slightly in the year of the study with 58 half days away compared with the 61 of the previous year. His school detentions, however, increased from one to three. Two of these detentions were from his mathematics teacher, the other from his workshop technology teacher.

Danny's mathematics marks stayed about the same throughout the year. His science mark was also constant, but rose sharply in the external examination. These results are tabulated in figure 6.8.

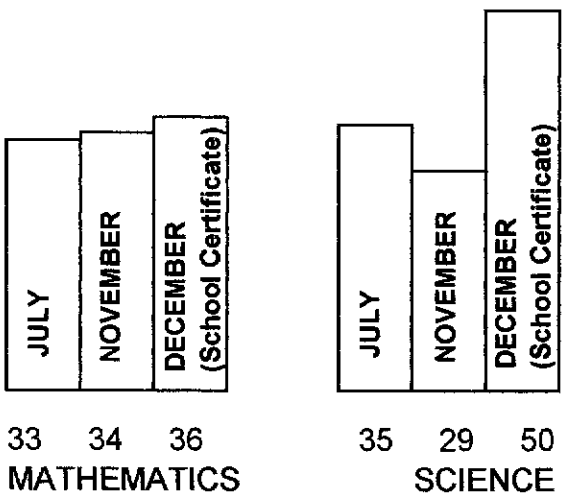

Figure 6.8. Academic results for Danny given in percentages.

Using the QTI, Danny rated his Ideal teacher highest on Leadership, Understanding and Helping-Friendly behaviours in June, at the start of the project. At this time, he saw his Ideal teacher to be low on Dissatisfied and Admonishing behaviours. These ratings were identical for this teacher at the conclusion of the project. Danny rated his science teacher similarly to his Ideal teacher i.e. high in Leadership, Understanding, and Helping-Friendly behaviour, low in Admonishing and Dissatisfied behaviour. He also rated this teacher low in Uncertain behaviour. The difference between June and December was that Danny rated his science teacher higher in positive aspects and lower in negative aspects at the end of the project. Danny rated his mathematics teacher highest on Admonishing behaviour at the start of the project, with Strict behaviour second. At the end of the project, he rated this teacher highest in Dissatisfied behaviour, with Admonishing behaviour second, with an increased score from the half year. He rated this teacher low in Leadership at the start of the project, and at the end rated him zero in Leadership, Understanding, and Helping-Friendly behaviours.

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory showed that Danny had one of the lower self esteem ratings at the start of the project for the sample group with an overall score of 58. This had dropped to 56 at the end of the project. Although his General score increased, the overall decrease in score was accounted for by decreases in his Home and School scores. He remained on one of the lower self esteem ratings at the end of the project.

Using the Mooney Problem Checklist, Danny's own perception of the difficulties he faced changed dramatically over the course of the study. At the start of the study, Danny saw himself as having a total of 131 problems, whereas at the end of the study this number had dropped to 41. School based problems dropped the least, from 22 to 15. In all of the areas relating to himself and others the drops were marked e.g., Home and Family dropped from 20 to 3, Boy-Girl relationships from 11 to 2, and in Personal Growth from 16 to 2.

Using an informal questionnaire, an assessment was made of Danny's TA *ego-states*. The results of this questionnaire are given in figure 6.9.

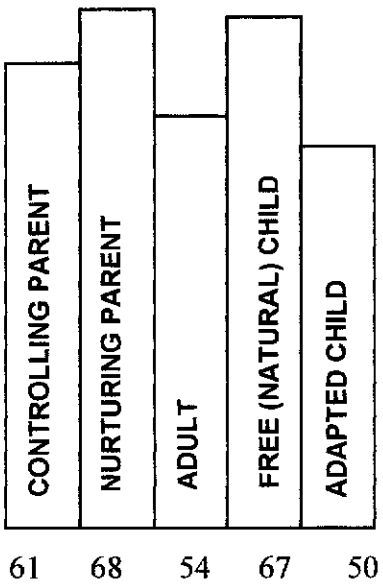

Figure 6.9. Ego-state scores for Danny, in November 1998.

6.5.7 *Conclusions*

Danny met the goal of his contract in part, in that his attitude to school work was more positive in the latter stages of the project. He was able to do some valuable revision in some of his subjects, notably science and English. He did not develop more positive relationships with two teachers as he had wanted, i.e. his mathematics and Maori Technology teachers.

He had hoped that a positive attitude would improve how he got on in the classroom, and this happened to some extent. He had also hoped that being more positive would improve how he got on at home and how he related to his peers and the results of the Mooney Problem Checklist indicate that Danny was most successful with these areas.

The results of Danny's Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory tests contradict the results on his Mooney Problem Checklist. The former suggest that his self esteem in relation to Home and School had not improved, yet he perceived himself as having far fewer problems in these areas in the Mooney Problem Checklist. It is possible that both happened. Danny clearly struggled to resolve some inner conflicts during this project and it could be that his perception remained low in spite of his seeing himself with

fewer problems. My guess is that Danny has improved his attitude a lot, based on how he looked physically at the end of the year - bright eyed, more upright, more inclined to smile.

Danny's self-doubts were probably a contributing factor to his lack of academic success. However, passing science was quite an achievement for him considering what has been going on over a period of time. The project has contributed to his self-understanding and made him more positive.

Danny's case study is a good example of how the *Nurturing Parent* aspects of a teacher, demonstrated in Leadership, Helping-Friendly, and in Understanding behaviours bring out the best in a student, especially one like Danny, with low self esteem. He did best in science, where he saw his teacher as having these positive traits. He did poorly in subjects where the teachers were Admonishing, Dissatisfied, and Uncertain. These negative aspects are similar to the way a *Controlling Parent ego-state* might operate. They would hook the rebellious part of someone like Danny's *Adapted Child ego-state* inducing *Games* such as 'Make Me'. Not only was Danny's science teacher high on positive behaviours, he was also low on negative behaviours. Danny was thus encouraged to use his *Adult* and *Natural Child*, and passed.

Danny needs considerably more work to raise his self esteem. Further development of his *Adult ego-state* is also needed, as at the present he is more likely to be influenced by the whims of *Child*, or to be harsh on himself, from *Controlling Parent*. His *Nurturing Parent* is good. He is a great support person for others in need, and needs to learn to also care for and be gentle with himself.

Danny made notable movement towards his contract goal, with a change in attitude leading to a pass in science. The QTI was shown to be a good predictor of outcome as Danny rated his science teacher as being close to his Ideal teacher. Further he rated his mathematics teacher negatively and did not improve in that subject. The negative teacher qualities on QTI are similar to the characteristics of a *Controlling Parent ego-state*. It is likely that his mathematics teacher brought out Danny's *Adapted (Rebellious) Child*.

Including Danny in this study has led to a verification of QTI, a realization that QTI traits can be compared with TA *ego-state*s and a reminder of the importance of sound self esteem in academic success.

6.6 Case Study: Eugene

6.6.1 *Personal Data*

Eugene was 15.8 years old at the start of the mentoring programme, 16.2 years old when it finished. He has an older brother and sister, both his senior by ten and more years. His parents are separated, and he lives with his mother, a cousin, and a boarder who is a family friend. Eugene has weekend access with his father who lives nearby. Eugene's mother, who has a senior position in a city office, shows a keen interest in his education and personal development. Eugene's father is unemployed, and has some addiction problems. Both of his parents are Chinese.

Eugene is big for his age, being over 1.8m. tall. He has been an outstanding golfer, but was not playing at the time of the study due to back problems. Otherwise he enjoys good health. Eugene has good social relationships and a number of friends. Socialising seems to be his major out of school activity.

6.6.2 *Presenting Behaviours*

Eugene was included in the sample because of frequent referrals to the guidance system for his disruptive classroom behaviour and for the high number of detentions he received in the year prior to the study. With eight school detentions, Eugene had the second highest number of detentions in the survey sample group. He had the best attendance record of the sample group, with 25 half days absent in the year prior to the study, but this was slightly higher than the 21 half days absent average of the control group.

Eugene had seen the School Counsellor five times prior to the study. Both Eugene and his mother had also been interviewed by the year group Dean prior to the study regarding continued failure to complete homework. Two of the counselling sessions were about addiction problems. Eugene had been a regular smoker since the age of 10 and had been involved in the use of and sale of marijuana. He was referred to an addictions counsellor used by the school for these latter difficulties. It seemed that a number of factors impinged on Eugene from outside of school making it difficult for him to achieve at school. It was thought that lessening the effects of the outside factors on Eugene was a priority.

6.6.3 *History*

Eugene's pre-entry tests indicated that he was academically below average. He was on the 11th percentile in the TOSCA test of thinking ability and was ranked '5' in both mathematics and science. This bottom ranking was consistent with his TOSCA score and indicates 'limited' ability. In addition to the addiction problems mentioned under 'Presenting Behaviour', Eugene was seen by the Counsellor during his first year at the school for learning problems. These included concentration difficulties and time management. In a one-on-one situation Eugene came across as motivated to want to do better. It was also noted that problems of concentration mentioned by classroom teachers were not apparent in individual interviews.

Eugene entered a counselling group in the year prior to the study, a support group for students seen by staff to be at risk. He attended twice out of a possible ten sessions. In his second session he occupied a lot of time with attention-seeking behaviour, after which it was decided to exclude him from the remaining sessions. Developmentally, Eugene seemed quite immature in a group or class situation, yet at a one-on-one level he was able to carry on an intelligent conversation. In TA terms, it seemed that Eugene easily fell into an *Adapted Child ego-state* when with his peers, and played a 'Class Clown' kind of *game*. My early guess about Eugene was that he was more academically able than tests indicated, but had missed a lot of early conceptual development due to behavioural difficulties. Playing the class clown had become a way of coping.

6.6.4 *The Contract*

i) What do you want to change?

Maintain working hard so I pass School Certificate. Pass certificate maths and get at least a C in science. Concentrate more in English.

ii) How will you act differently?

Try to focus on the line of the lesson.

iii) Who will you be different with?

My English teacher in particular.

iv) Where will this happen?

In class.

v) How will you know when you've reached your goal?

a) What will you be doing differently?

I'll be working harder and learning more.

b) How will other people know you've changed?

I'll pass School Certificate.

vi) What might you do to sabotage this plan?

Stop doing my homework and stop working in class.

vii) What will you do to reward yourself when you reach your goal?

I'll pass School Certificate.

6.6.5 *The Process*

In the month prior to the start of this study, Eugene appeared before the College's Board for disruptive classroom behaviour and continued defiance of school rules. He was instructed to go a month without breaking any rules then to appear before the Board again. As Counsellor, I thought that part of the problem was that Eugene

displayed a number of symptoms of Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder. I suggested this to his mother, and that he see a paediatrician. This was done promptly and Eugene was put on retalin after which his behaviour settled down quite quickly. He was able to concentrate in class so was able to go back to the Board with a good report. Eugene remarked to one of his teachers that he was frustrated that now he was concentrating in class he realized how much work he had missed over the years. It seemed a hopeless task to try to catch up.

Eugene had five mentoring sessions during the course of the study. These sessions focussed on his school work, as his contract was to maintain a rate of work that would lead to academic success. The first session, after the contract had been set, was spent in helping Eugene prepare for an English speech. It was noticable that Eugene worked well when there was a practical and active task. The next session was an intensive review of all of Eugene's subjects. He thought he had a 50/50 chance of examination success, and came up with study ideas that would be suitable for him. These involved doing things like writing down ideas as they were thought of, writing down blackboard work in class, and building up notes in his science subjects. Eugene was seen ten days after this session as one of his teachers thought he was again starting to play up in class. He was indeed under stress, as he had delayed starting on assignments and now had four all due about the same time. This session was spent in looking at how he could overcome this problem. He decided to complete each assignment in a minimal way rather than leave out any. In his penultimate session, it seemed that Eugene was focussed and he said he was doing regular study and revision. Examination techniques were discussed. The final session with Eugene was about one week before the external examination. He was clearly agitated so ways of reducing anxiety in exams were discussed. The bulk of time in this session was spent on making summaries for the physics section of science. A tutoring session was arranged for the following day, where a science teacher was to go over these physics summaries.

Thus, mentoring for Eugene consisted in attempting to keep him on task with his study plan. In an endeavour to foster the use of his *Adult ego-state*, the sessions were used to encourage him to think about and solve his own difficulties. The difficulty of working with Eugene was that he had become more settled in class too far on in his school life

for it to make a difference in his School Certificate year. Ideally, it would have been better to concentrate on catching up on previous work missed and to leave external examinations another year. It was felt that the continual stress of examinations in the background actually worked against Eugene, however, without the mentoring programme it is possible that he would have withdrawn from school altogether.

6.6.6 *Results*

Eugene was the best school attender of the study group, though his attendance was below the school average. In the year of the study, his attendance was slightly worse than the previous year, with 31 half days absent compared to 25 in the year before.

His behaviour improved and he had six school detentions in the year of the study compared with eight in the previous year.

Eugene passed his Applied Mathematics Certificate course. His science marks improved slightly over the year, but he was clearly below the standard. His results included a 'C' pass in the internally assessed Applied Mathematics. His other results are shown in figure 6.10.

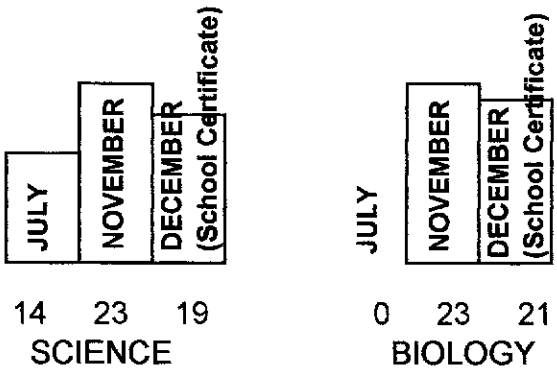

Figure 6.10. Academic results for Eugene given in percentages.

Eugene was referred to the Dean of his year group three times in the six months prior to the mentoring programme and twice during the course of the programme. All of these referrals were for fairly minor matters.

Using the QTI, Eugene rated his 'Ideal' teacher as high in Leadership, Understanding, and Helping-Friendly behaviours, and low in Uncertain, Admonishing, and Dissatisfied behaviours. These ratings remained constant over the course of the study. This rating given to the 'Ideal' teacher was identical to the rating Eugene gave his mathematics teacher. This latter rating also remained constant over the course of the study. Eugene rated his science teacher as highest in Leadership, Understanding, and Helping-Friendly behaviours at the start of the study and lowest in Admonishing and Dissatisfied behaviours. At the conclusion of the study, this rating had changed slightly. Eugene still saw this teacher as high in Leadership and Helping-Friendly behaviours but thought that this teacher was now high in Student Responsibility-Freedom behaviour rather than in Understanding behaviour. Eugene rated his science teacher as low in Admonishing and Dissatisfied behaviours both at the beginning and at the end of the survey.

Using the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory, an assessment of Eugene's self esteem was possible. At the start of the programme, Eugene's survey results revealed that his General self esteem was slightly above the average of the sample group at 19 (average 18.5) and slightly lower than the average for the control group (average 20). By the end of the mentoring programme, Eugene's General score was 22, higher than both the sample group average (19) and the control group average (20.5). His Social score rose over the course of the programme from 7 to 8, and his School score rose from 2 to 5. His Home score stayed the same. Overall, Eugene's score changed from 70% at the start of the programme, which was average, to 84% at the end of the programme. The average for the sample group was 70.4% at the start of the programme and 71% at the end of the programme. The average for the control group was 68.8% at the start of the programme and 74% at the end of the programme. Eugene made notable increase in his General and School scores.

The Mooney Problem Checklist gives an insight into the student's perception of his/her problems. Eugene saw himself as having 52 of the problems on the checklist at the start of the mentoring programme, whereas he saw himself as having 34 at the end.

Notable decreases were recorded in the sub-sections on School, where there was a drop of 3, from 15 to 12, in the Home and Family sub-section where perceived problems dropped from 7 to 2 and in Self-Control, problems dropped from 9 to 5. In the sub-section on Money, Work and the Future, perceived problems dropped from 10 to 6.

An informal questionnaire was given to Eugene at the end of the programme period. It was designed to assess his TA *ego-states*. Eugene's results are diagrammed in figure 6.11.

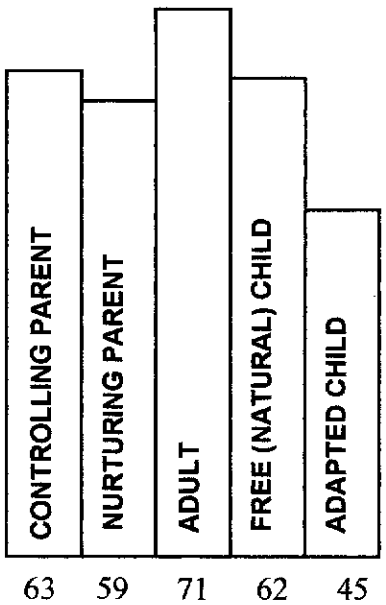

Figure 6.11. Ego-state scores for Eugene, in November 1998.

6.6.7 *Conclusions*

Lessening the effects of outside influences proved difficult to monitor and Eugene was not motivated to cut down his addictive behaviours. However, Eugene became quite motivated to do his best with school work during the mentoring programme. This was

partly due to the one-on-one attention provided by the programme, but also as a result of being prescribed retalin.

The contracted goal of passing School Certificate was too high a goal to achieve. In retrospect, it may have been wiser to narrow this goal down. It is possible for Eugene to pass School Certificate but it will probably take him another year. Eugene benefitted from looking at what he would need to succeed academically and his ideas of 'focussing on the line of a lesson' and of doing regular homework were good ones.

Eugene was much less of a problem in class during the mentoring programme and enthusiasm about studying was evident in his interviews. He has a sound *Adult ego-state* and encouraging his use of this was vital. Examination anxiety was a problem, but understandable given his past academic record. Eugene benefitted from the programme in that it kept him in school. He had good attendance and improved classroom behaviour. He also developed a feel for study and his concentration span increased.

Passing Applied Mathematics was the main academic achievement for Eugene. This course was pitched at his academic level and the teacher was, to Eugene, close to his QTI ideal. He also rated his science teacher well on the QTI yet did not do well in the external examination. However, he did stick at the course and study for it. This is further evidence that the positive teacher behaviours of Leadership, Understanding, and Helping-Friendly are vital. They are the behaviours of the (TA) *Nurturing Parent* and *Adult ego-state*s and it is important that these behaviours are developed in teachers.

A major gain for Eugene during the programme was his rise in self esteem. His increased score was due in no small part to his renewed belief in himself as a student. His School score rose and it is likely that this may have triggered the rise in his General score. So while Eugene didn't have great academic success in terms of results, it is likely that he now sees that he can study and learn and has had an experience of focussing on school work.

The Mooney Problem Checklist result affirms that things are beginning to improve for Eugene, that he is developing a more positive view. These changes came a little late for academic success in the year of the study but if maintained some success may follow later. The Mooney Problem Checklist suggests more positive attitudes and fewer perceived problems at school and at home. He was more in control of his behaviour and had developed a problem-solving ability.

The *ego-state* questionnaire indicates a need for Eugene to develop his *Nurturing Parent ego-state* i.e. an ability to nurture, care for and help himself, as well as others. He also needs to further develop his *Adult* so that his responses in the present are appropriate and won't lead to future difficulties.

It was frustrating working with Eugene, seeing that he was beginning to make the changes necessary to achieve at school, but knowing that it was all a little too late given the vast amounts of work he had missed in the past. It is hoped that he can remember the feeling of success he experienced during the programme and benefit in the future.

6.7 Case Study: Fred

6.7.1 *Personal Data*

Fred was 15.11 years old at the start of the mentoring programme and 16.5 years old at its conclusion. He is of average height and build for his age with no apparent health problems. Fred is of Greek descent and lives in a suburb out of the College zone but reasonably close to it. His parents are restauranters and he enjoys good social relationships with his friends and is outgoing and friendly with adults.

6.7.2 *Presenting Behaviours*

Fred was invited to join the mentoring programme because of the high number of school detentions he had received in the year prior to the study. In the year before the

study Fred had seven school detentions, higher than the average of the study sample (4.25) and higher than the average of the control group (0.5). Attendance was good for Fred. With 21 half days away in the year prior to the study, he had the best attendance record for the sample group and had the average attendance record for the control group. While Fred had not been referred for counselling in his time at the College, he was of concern to staff because of his classroom behaviour which could be disruptive. He was inclined to become argumentative when confronted by staff and had baited other class members on occasions. My initial hunch about Fred was that he got into conflict situations by getting into an inappropriate *ego-state* and that mentoring and some knowledge of TA would help him avoid this.

6.7.3 *History*

Little was known of Fred's background but it was likely that he had strong ties to the Greek community, many of whom lived in the same suburb as him. He had not taken part in any counselling thus far, and had not been involved in any of the Guidance Department groups. In the pre-entry tests, Fred was average in thinking abilities being on the 43rd percentile of the TOSCA. In science, he was considered to be 'fair' by his primary school and 'limited' in mathematics. While Fred was on the lower side of average in intelligence, he was performing well below average.

6.7.4 *The Contract*

Firstly the mentoring programme was explained to Fred, and in his second session the following contract was made:

i) What do you want to change?

I want to study more, especially for English. I also want to stop smoking.

ii) How will you act differently?

I won't go out so much, so I'll be at my table more. I'll do more reading.

iii) Who will you be different with?

With my parents, and with my English teacher.

iv) Where will this happen?

In class and at home, at my table.

v) How will you know when you've reached your goal?

a) What will you be doing differently?

I'll be working. I will be focussed when working.

(re. smoking) *I won't think about it any more.*

b) How will other people know you have changed?

My marks will be better.

I'll say 'I've quit!'

vi) What might you do to sabotage this plan?

I might talk on the phone too long and watch T.V.

(I might) stop smoking for a day or two then start again.

vii) What will you do to reward yourself when you reach your goal?

I'll make my parents and myself happy. I'll get good marks and I'll feel better.

6.7.5 *The Process*

Fred was referred to a specialist Addictions Counsellor as a result of the contract. While smoking and other addictions are not the subject of this study, it was thought best to deal with whatever was 'on top' for the students. Fred had a number of sessions with the Addictions Counsellor during the mentoring programme period.

Mentoring sessions with Fred were aimed at increasing his *Adult* thinking i.e. helping him to find the resources within himself to solve his own problems. The third session with Fred was spent in using this method to look at his goal to do well in English.

Thus, questions included (e.g.)

What will you do?

How will you do it?

When will you do it?

Where will you do it?

It was established that to improve in English, Fred would need to keep up to date by doing his homework and by paying attention in class. He was going to start this regime the following week, taking his folder home regularly to work there at his table. Fred was studying for the Certificate in Mathematics which is a lower level course to the (national) School Certificate. He was not particularly interested in it nor did he enjoy science. He did like the design technology course he was doing which was a 'hands on' course and did not have a lot of homework or study.

At his final mentoring session, Fred said that he had given up on science and was not going to study for it. He was only going to work in design technology and English. His parents had got him a tutor in English. With design technology internally assessed, he was thus preparing for the external examination in just one subject. Fred was invited to two final sessions on study skills and examination technique, but failed to attend either.

6.7.6 *Results*

Fred's attendance continued to be the best of the sample group in the year of the study. He had slightly more absences with 25 half days away compared to 21 half days away in the previous year which was around the school average. In the six months of the mentoring programme, his attendance was much better than in the previous six months. He had 19 half days absent in the first six months of the year with just six half days away while the mentoring programme operated. Fred's detentions decreased dramatically in the year of the mentoring programme having two school detentions compared with seven in the previous year. Referrals to his year level Dean also decreased during the mentoring programme from four in the previous six months to two. Fred completed a Quit Smoking course as part of the mentoring programme and had reduced his smoking when seen at his last mentoring session.

Fred completed the course requirements in mathematics and received the Certificate in Mathematics (Applied) with a 'D' grade. He improved in science during the mentoring programme but withdrew his effort towards the external examinations. He passed the New Zealand School Certificate workshop technology examination and came close to passing English obtaining a mark that gave him Sixth Form (Year 12) entry. His School Certificate results are given in figure 6.12.

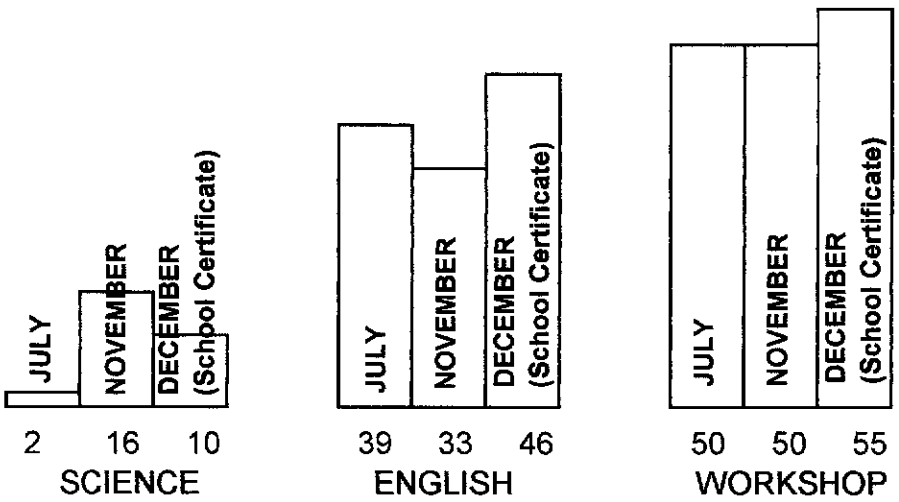

Figure 6.12. Academic results for Fred given in percentages.

The QTI was completed by Fred at the start and conclusion of the mentoring programme. His 'Ideal' teacher at the start of the programme was his physical education teacher, who he rated high on Helping-Friendly and Leadership behaviours. He also considered this teacher allowed Student Responsibility-Freedom and rated this highly. At the conclusion of the mentoring programme it was his English teacher that Fred thought was his Ideal teacher. He rated this teacher equally highly on Leadership, Understanding, and Helping-Friendly behaviours, low on Uncertain and Admonishing behaviours. At the start of the mentoring programme, Fred rated his mathematics teacher highest on Helping-Friendly, Understanding, and Leadership behaviours, low on Uncertain and Dissatisfied behaviours. At the end of the programme he still rated this teacher high on Helping-Friendly and Understanding behaviours but had included

Student Responsibility-Freedom behaviours on the high side in place of Leadership behaviours. He rated Strict and Leadership behaviours as low at the end of the programme. Fred saw his science teacher as having few of the qualities he preferred in an Ideal teacher. He rated this teacher as being high in Admonishing and Strict behaviours at the start and at the finish of the mentoring programme. At the end of the programme he also thought this teacher exhibited increased Dissatisfied behaviour. He rated this teacher low in Understanding and Leadership at the start of the programme. He continued to rate this teacher lowest in these two behavioural categories at the end of the programme by a much lower score.

According to Fred's responses to the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory, his self esteem was slightly above the average for the sample group and about the same as the end of study average for the control group. He remained unchanged at the end of the study.

Fred showed quite a change in the way he perceived the problems he faced from the start to the end of the mentoring programme. During this time period his perceived problems dropped in all categories, the total number of perceived problems dropping from an above average 63 to an average 36.

An informal questionnaire was completed by Fred at the conclusion of the programme to assess his TA *ego-states*. His results are shown diagrammatically in figure 6.13.

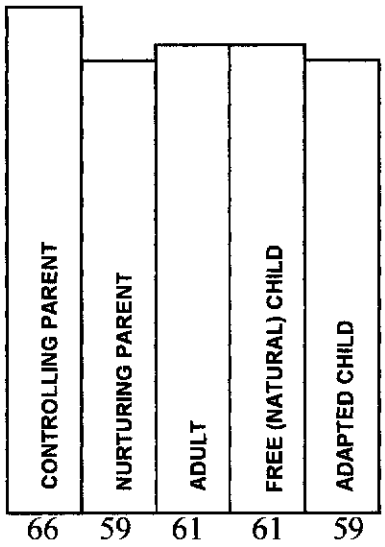

Figure 6.13. Ego-state scores for Fred, in November 1998.

6.7.7 *Conclusions*

It was most interesting having Fred included in this study. During the mentoring programme he was rather quiet and appeared disinterested, yet having gone through the programme with him it can be seen that he has benefitted from it and has followed through on some of the matters discussed.

Fred entered his School Certificate year without many of the basic concepts in mathematics and science, with a pattern of disruptive classroom behaviour and with little idea of study skills. His home background has had some disadvantages too. Being the younger son in a Greek family he seems to have been overindulged in some respects, e.g., material belongings, but it also seems that both of his parents are quite busy. He has probably never been monitored at home on any study regime.

Fred had an unusually high number of detentions in the year before the programme. Initially it was thought that he was a *game-playing* behaviour problem, however his detentions dropped dramatically in subjects where he related well to his teacher and was focussed on the work. While some of his classroom behaviour is no doubt due to the inattention and boredom resulting from a lack of comprehension, in the subjects

where he was experiencing a measure of success, these previous problem behaviours ceased.

The QTI was again a good indicator of how he was going to get along. He clearly disliked his science teacher, received most of his Dean's referrals and detentions from this teacher, and failed the exam.

Fred's perceptions of his science teacher were interesting. Other students in this study who had the same teacher also rated the teacher high in Admonishing and Strict behaviours. In TA, this teacher has a high *Controlling Parent*, which will bring out *Adapted Child* responses of rebellion e.g., by acting out or dropping out. Fred at first acted out but the *pay-off* was too many detentions so mentally and emotionally he withdrew. It was fascinating that Fred's rating of this teacher at the end of the mentoring programme changed to his seeing him as Dissatisfied. The teacher resigned from teaching one month later.

Fred did well with the teachers he rated highly on the QTI, i.e. mathematics, design technology, physical education, and English. While Fred did not pass English, the mark he got was very good for him.

The Mooney Problem Checklist indicated that Fred felt more in control at the end of the mentoring programme. The programme enabled him to sort through some of the problems in his mentoring sessions and also to activate his own problem solving (*Adult*) abilities.

The results of the *ego-state* questionnaire are unusual. They indicate that Fred is high on *Controlling Parent*. This makes it likely that he is hard on himself and may be self-critical. The other four *ego-state*s are all at about the same level. It is hoped that as Fred's *Adult* continues to develop, his *Controlling Parent* and *Adapted Child* will be less required.

Fred thought that the mentoring programme had taught him how to study on his own. He felt the best parts of the year for him were his success in English and his increased

study time at home. He was disappointed that he had not carried through all of his subjects but he did end the year with a sense of direction.

Working with Fred has taught me that one cannot solve all of the problems of a person but there is a great deal of satisfaction in unlocking a person's own inner resources. I feel optimistic about Fred who is going to take a more practical course next year well suited to his abilities. He is also going to continue his study of mathematics and attempt School Certificate in that subject.

He did not stop smoking but did cut it down and he still had 'Quitting' as a goal at the end of the year. It is possible that with his tendency to operate from a *Controlling Parent ego-state*, he admonishes himself for smoking, activates his *Adapted (Rebellious) Child* and continues the habit in a cyclic way. In retrospect, it would have been useful to apply *Adult* thinking to this area as well as to his academic life. Some *Nurturing Parent* development would also be helpful as it would focus on caring for oneself.

In conclusion, Fred benefitted from the programme and will continue to benefit in the future.

6.8 Case Study: Gary

6.8.1 *Personal Data*

Gary was 15.2 years old at the start of the mentoring programme, 15.8 years old at its conclusion. He is European, has an older brother and lives with his brother and mother in a middle class suburb close to the College. Gary's parents are both professionals and high achievers. They are separated, however, Gary sees his father regularly. Gary is social and popular and has a number of friends. He is of average height and build for his age and is keen on sport including being a regional representative in water polo. Gary is fit and enjoys good health.

6.8.2 *Presenting Behaviours*

Both Gary's attendance and behaviour records indicated that he may have been 'at-risk'. His attendance in the year prior to the study was poor, with 65 half days missed. Several of these absences were 'unexplained'. In the same year, he had received some nine school detentions, more than double the average of the sample group (4.25) and well above the average of the control group (0.5). Gary had been of concern to the counsellor in the year prior to the study, the year in which his parents separated. His older brother had been withdrawn from school in that year, to avoid being brought in front of the Board of Trustees. Gary was mixing with a group thought to be regular drug users. His attendance was erratic.

Gary spent the second half of the year prior to the study attending a support group at the College. The support group met on a weekly basis with two trained counsellors. Apart from the sharing of difficulties, the group were also taught TA and began to look at difficulties in TA terms. My initial hypothesis was that Gary had some unexpressed sadness and grief, and that he was not communicating his feelings to anyone. His 'at-risk' behaviour was a cover-up for what was going on inside. The TA support group seemed to be important for Gary as he attended every session in term three, and was one of the main instigators in calling for the group to continue into term four, which it did.

6.8.3 *History*

Gary entered the school with indications that he was above average in academic ability, yet when he was noted by the Guidance Department as being 'at-risk' his classwork was average to below-average. Prior to entry to the College, his TOSCA results indicated an 83 percentile, level seven, meaning that his thinking abilities were well within the top quartile of his age group. His primary school assessed him as being 'High' in mathematics and science. Gary was experiencing difficulties at home and personal difficulties which had led him to seek comfort in addictive behaviours and in socializing with a group that spent a lot of time independent of family. Socially he was quite mature, emotionally he seemed vulnerable.

6.8.4 *The Contract*

After one session when the mentoring programme was explained to Gary, a contract was made as follows.

i) What do you want to change?

I want to attend regularly, and focus in class. I want to pass in maths and science.

ii) How will you act differently?

I will be more attentive. I will be thinking and concentrating, and looking (at the teacher, whiteboard etc.).

iii) Who will you be different with?

With my maths teacher.

iv) Where will this happen?

At home and in class.

v) How will you know when you've reached your goal?

a) What will you be doing differently?

When I get my results letter, I'll feel different inside.

b) How will other people know you've changed?

My homework will be done.

vi) What might you do to sabotage this plan?

Give up. Get frustrated.

vii) What will you do to reward yourself when you reach your goal?

I'll have School Certificate. I'll have a holiday and celebrations.

6.8.5 *The Process*

Gary had attended a support group for two terms in the year prior to the study. In this group, he had learned about TA, and how, through TA and other communication skills, he could communicate better, especially with his parents. Gary became much more open as this group progressed, and was able to express his feelings about his parents' marriage break-up. When the mentoring programme began, Gary had already made some significant attitudinal changes, having attended about 12 support group sessions.

Gary revealed in his first mentoring session that he had truanted earlier in the year but that he was not doing that much now. Gary had good thinking abilities and these were encouraged so that he could think of his own solutions to the problems he faced. School work was the focus. He was doing regular homework in horticulture and geography as he realized he needed to pass these subjects which were internally assessed. He thought he needed to start doing more homework in mathematics. Gary expressed concern about science and physics. He did not think his teachers were very good.

Gary attended a further seven sessions and in each one his school work was looked at in terms of what needed to be done over the next week and what particular difficulties there were. Usually, questions relating to subject content were turned back to Gary and he solved them himself. He became good at questioning his teachers for solutions as well. Gary's final session was on study and examination skills. He seemed to be a visual learner. In setting his contract he had mentioned looking at the whiteboard. Therefore, study methods that involved visual ways of learning, and active methods, were discussed.

Gary was a pleasure to work with. He became quite focussed on achieving his stated goal, so school work was the subject of the mentoring programme for him. The most important intervention was allowing Gary to use his own *Adult* and to encourage the good ideas that resulted. The goals he set were achieved, i.e. to attend regularly and to focus in class.

6.8.6 *Results*

While Gary's attendance record was the same as in the previous year, 65 half days absent, he did have some illness which accounted for about 20 of these half days. Gary admitted to some truancy early in the year of the mentoring programme but kept to his plan to reduce this. The mentoring programme's aim was to encourage *Adult* thinking, so that when Gary had mentioned that he was still truanting, a non-judgemental response was used, inviting him to come up with a solution. This approach seemed to have worked. In the year of the study, Gary was away for 45 half days in the first two terms, then for 20 half days during the mentoring programme. Thus, during the time of the programme his attendance improved by over 50%.

Gary's detentions dropped during the year of the study as he received three school detentions compared with nine in the previous year. He was also in less trouble with his year group Dean, being referred three times during the first half of the year and not at all during the time of the mentoring programme.

Gary made considerable academic progress during the time of the mentoring programme. The results of his mathematics and science subjects are given in figure 6.14.

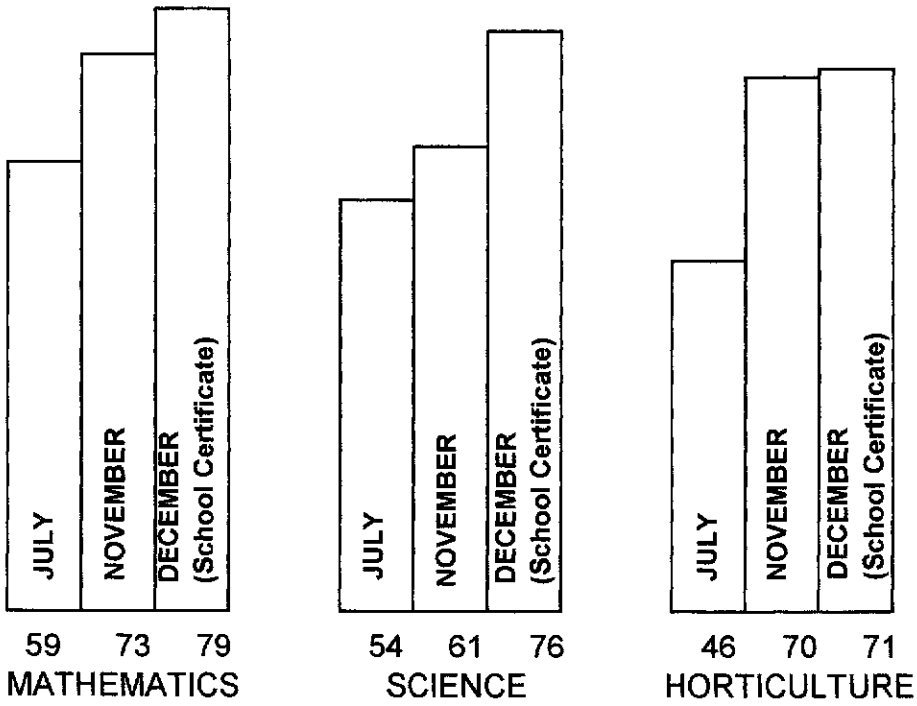

Figure 6.14. Academic results for Gary given in percentages.

Using the QTI, Gary showed that his Ideal teacher was someone who's behaviours showed Leadership, Understanding, and a Helping-Friendly manner. His Ideal teacher was low on Uncertain, Dissatisfied, and Admonishing behaviours. His QTI scoring showed that he held these views at the start and conclusion of the mentoring programme. Gary rated both his mathematics and his science teachers low on positive behaviours and high on negative behaviours at the start and end of the mentoring programme. At the start of the programme, Gary saw his mathematics teacher as being highest in Admonishing, Strict, Dissatisfied, and Uncertain behaviours. At the end of the mentoring programme, Gary thought this teacher had firmed up on some characteristics and was now highest on Admonishing and Strict behaviours and lowest on Leadership. The other behaviours in the QTI were rated about the same for this teacher. Gary also rated his science teacher low in negative behaviours but in different negative behaviours to his mathematics teacher. He saw his science teacher as being highest in Dissatisfied, Admonishing, and Uncertain behaviours, lowest in Helping-Friendly, Understanding, and Leadership behaviours both at the start and at the end of the mentoring programme period.

Using the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory, it is possible to look at Gary's progress over the mentoring programme and also to look at his responses to this inventory a year before as he completed it in the support group as part of a trialling of survey instruments. His responses to the inventory are tabulated below:

Table 6.1

Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory results for Gary.

	August 1997	June 1998	December 1998
General	14	15	16
Social	6	6	6
Home	3	2	3
School	5	4	5
Total as a %	56	54	60

Gary completed the Mooney Problem Checklist at the end of the mentoring programme only as he was absent when it was used at the start. He indicated an average number of concerns for a young person, most falling in the categories of Health and Personal Development, Home and Family and Money, Work and The Future. He felt good about the way he related to others and had no Personal Growth concerns. This is consistent with an informal 'Corralogram' that Gary had completed a year previously in the TA support group. Here he thought his most usual state to be in regarding himself and others was '*I'm OK - You're OK*'.

Gary completed an informal questionnaire designed to assess TA *ego-states*. His responses are summarised in figure 6.15.

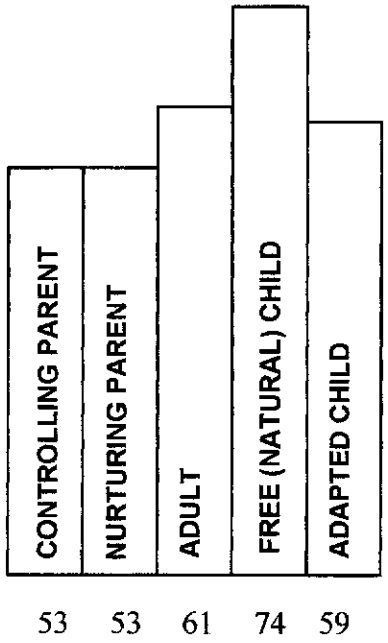

Figure 6.15. Ego-state scores for Gary, in November 1998.

6.8.7 *Conclusions*

Gary set clear objectives and kept them in his sights throughout the mentoring programme. He reached his objectives of attending regularly, focussing in class, and passing the School Certificate.

That Gary had been working with the counsellor for some 18 months when the mentoring programme concluded, having previously been in the TA support group the year before, suggests that for some young people support is needed over a medium term time frame. They need time to build up trust in their mentor, counsellor, or helper. Further, Gary's case suggests that group support is a good medium for some young people who may also develop their own ability to support others.

Gary's contract was simple and clear which made it easier for him to see what he had to do. While on the programme, Gary was seen quite regularly compared with some of the other mentoring programme members. This was aided by his social nature, which made it easy to talk to him and encourage him during informal meetings around the College. He was in far less trouble during the mentoring programme. He had no

Dean's referrals, fewer detentions and better attendance than before. His self esteem stayed fairly even and at a good level and the mentoring programme seemed to keep Gary focussed. Without it he may have gone back to old habits of truancy and disruptive behaviour as he clearly did not admire or respect either his mathematics or his science teachers.

Gary seemed to have high levels of *Child ego-states*, and the informal questionnaire confirmed that his *Natural Child* was his most developed *ego-state*. This would be why he responded so well to the encouragement (*Nurturing Parent*) of the mentoring situation. A reasonably high *Adapted Child* can also work well for people in counselling/mentoring situations as they tend to be compliant and want to please. This works when the mentor uses *Adult* and *Nurturing Parent* which was the case here. Gary's own *Adult* was also encouraged and in all likelihood grew during the programme.

It was very satisfying working with Gary as what was supposed to happen in theory happened in practice. Gary commented that the programme had helped him to communicate better with his parents (work started in the TA support group) and to behave better in class. He thought that he had concentrated more in class and had done the assignments and homework. He said that he had learned that when he puts in effort, he could succeed and expressed his gratitude for being invited onto the programme.

6.9 Case Study: Henry

6.9.1 *Personal Data*

Henry entered the mentoring programme at 15.10 years old and was 16.4 years old at its conclusion. He is European and lives with both of his parents in a middle class suburb close to the city and the College. Both of his parents are professionals. Henry is healthy, of solid build, and enjoys sports playing rugby for the College. He has no

significant health problems and has a quiet and pleasant personality relatuing well to adults and peers. He has several close friends.

6.9.2 *Presenting Behaviours*

Henry was included in the sample group as he had been referred to the Guidance Department in the previous year for his poor attendance. Some of Henry's peer group were truants and it seemed that Henry went along with them when they truanted. As a result of the referral, Henry had been part of a TA focussed support group. Prior to the start of the mentoring programme he was failing academically, yet he had shown promise when he first entered the College.

6.9.3 *History*

Henry entered the College with a good academic record. His primary school considered him to be above average in both mathematics and science and rated him 'High' in these subjects. In his entry tests, he was rated 7 on the TOSCA test of thinking abilities indicating an above average percentile of 86.

In the support group run in the previous year, Henry had indicated that arguments with his parents, especially with his father, were getting him down. His goal for that year was to learn some strategies to lessen this conflict. When that group finished, Henry thought that he had learned more about ways to communicate and that conflict in the home had lessened. He was a good group member, reliable in terms of attending, and supportive of others.

6.9.4 *The Contract*

A contract for change was made with Henry at the start of the mentoring programme. His contract was:

i) What do you want to change?

I want to concentrate during mathematics and science classes. Also, I want my team to win their rugby championship.

ii) How will you act differently?

In mathematics, I will set challenges for myself in class. In science, I want to sit at the front, get the notes down and study them later on my own. In rugby I will stay focussed throughout the season.

iii) Who will you be different with?

I will be assertive with my science teacher.

iv) Where will this happen?

In class, and at home where I will organise my notes.

v) How will you know when you've reached your goal?

a) What will you be doing differently?

I will be feeling on top of things. I'll know what the teacher is talking about.

b) How will other people know you have changed?

They will see a difference in my work habits.

vi) What might you do to sabotage this plan?

Not stick to what I want to do.

vii) What will you do to reward yourself when you reach your goal?

I'm getting a $20 reward for each subject passed. I'll feel personal satisfaction.

6.9.5 *The Process*

TA was used in mentoring sessions to explain Henry's interactions with teachers. He was familiar with TA from being in the TA support group in the previous year and this was used particularly in discussing how he got on with his science teacher. Henry described his relationship with his science teacher as strained.

In his second mentoring session, after the contract had been set, Henry reported that he had started sitting at the front in his science class. We had discussed the need to remain in *Adult* when he thought this teacher was picking on him. Extra notes were given to Henry on the physics section of his science course. He was going to study these at home and discuss them with a retired science teacher who did voluntary work at the College. A time for him to see this retired teacher was arranged. Henry said that he was doing well in his other subjects of geography, horticulture and physical education. English was also going well and mathematics was improving.

Henry was seen weekly for short periods of time when he was given more science notes to supplement his class notes. He was anxious that because of a classroom control problem his science teacher was not covering the course.

In the mentoring session after the internal end of year examinations, Henry was demonstrating good use of his *Adult ego-state*. He had a definite study plan which he produced. He had planned what topics to study in each subject and showed how he was going to cover them by studying three or four hours a night during the week. His marks had improved from the start of the mentoring programme and he felt in control.

Little intervention was needed with Henry as he had become strongly self-motivated. Much use was made of *Nurturing Parent* to encourage him and praise his efforts. The mentoring sessions went smoothly and planning was clearly *Adult-Adult*.

6.9.6 *Results*

Henry's attendance improved slightly in the year of the mentoring programme as he was away for 55 half days compared with 63 in the year before. When the year was broken down, it showed that of these 55 half days away, 32 were before the programme started and only 23 were during the mentoring programme. However, he was away for just one half day in term four when he had the external New Zealand School Certificate examinations coming up.

Henry had two school detentions in the mentoring programme year compared with three in the previous year. He was referred to his year group Dean once in the six months prior to the mentoring programme and not at all while it was in operation.

Henry's mathematics and science marks improved during the time of the mentoring programme though his horticulture mark went down but rose again sharply at the School Certificate examination. These results are shown in figure 6.16.

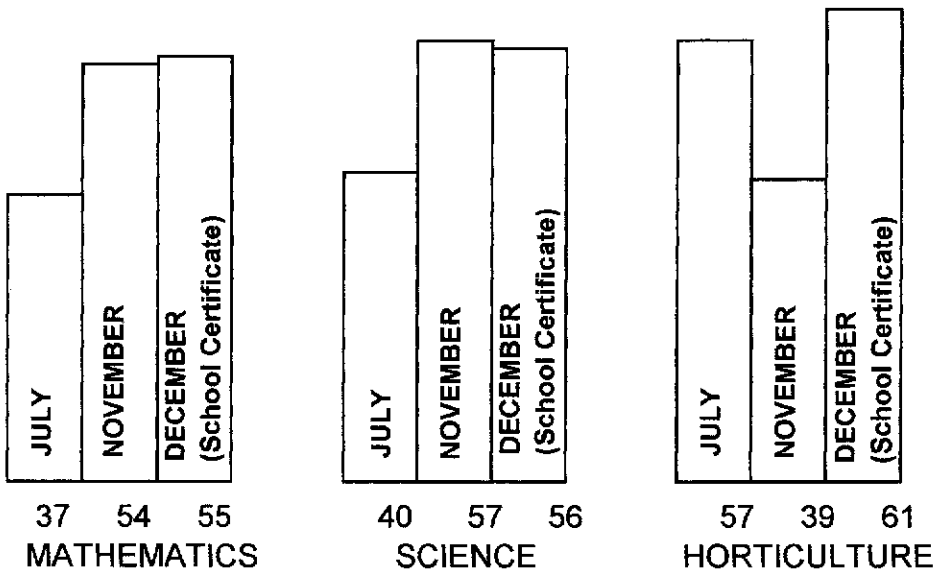

Figure 6.16. Academic results for Henry given in percentages.

Using the QTI, Henry showed that his Ideal teacher is someone high in Leadership, Understanding, and Helping-Friendly behaviours and low in Uncertain and Dissatisfied behaviours. He held this view at the beginning and end of the mentoring programme.

Henry had thought that the relationship with his science teacher was strained and he had expressed a lack of faith in this teacher's ability to cover the science course. It was not surprising to find that Henry had rated this teacher high on negative behaviours, and low on the kind of behaviours he would like in an Ideal teacher. Henry rated his science teacher highest in Student Responsibility-Freedom, Uncertain, and Admonishing behaviours at the start of the mentoring programme but also high in

Understanding behaviour. He thought this teacher was low in Leadership and Strict behaviours. At the conclusion of the mentoring programme, Henry rated this teacher differently. He now thought this teacher was equally high in Uncertain, Admonishing, and Dissatisfied behaviours, and low in Helping-Friendly, Leadership, and Understanding behaviours. Over the course of the mentoring programme, Henry believed that his science teacher had changed from being high in Student Responsibility-Freedom behaviour to being Dissatisfied. He also thought at the end of the mentoring programme that this teacher had changed from being low in Strict behaviour to being low in Helping-Friendly and Understanding behaviours.

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory showed that Henry had a positive view of himself and this remained constant throughout the mentoring programme. His percentage scores, both 88, are above average for his age. Going back a year to the TA support group, Henry had also completed the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory and his score had been 68%. The 20% gain was accounted for in a more positive view of himself in a general sense and a much more positive view of himself in relation to school.

The Mooney Problem Checklist showed that Henry thought that the problems he faced decreased during the time of the mentoring programme. At the start of the programme, Henry listed 25 items on the Checklist as problems while at the end of the programme he listed 18. The sub-sections on School, Home and Family, and Self-Control all decreased.

An informal questionnaire was given to Henry to assess his TA *ego-states*. Its results are shown in figure 6.17.

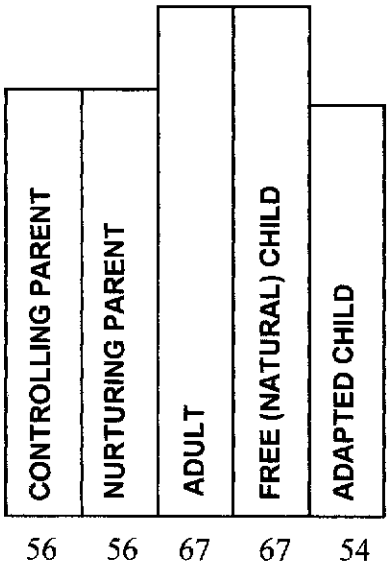

Figure 6.17. Ego-state scores for Henry, in November 1998.

6.9.7 *Conclusions*

Henry completed his contract as he concentrated well in his mathematics and science for a sustained time and passed both in the external examination. Henry's rugby team were runners up in their grade narrowly losing the final. The contract helped Henry to focus on more than his school work and being involved in sport may have been a contributing factor to his good self esteem and positive feelings towards school.

Increased self esteem seems to have been the key to Henry's success. This improved positive regard began in the TA support group, was boosted by sporting success and encouraged in the mentoring programme. Henry's best developed *ego-states* were *Adult* and *Natural Child*, which made him an ideal candidate for such a programme. He was able to think through problems and come up with good solutions (*Adult*). He responded well to encouragement, expressed feelings and wants, and developed an enjoyment of learning (*Natural Child*).

By using appropriate complementary *ego-states*, the mentor was able to keep Henry in the most helpful *ego-states* for him i.e. *Adult-Adult*, *Nurturing Parent-Natural Child*.

It was both fascinating and rewarding to see how Henry responded to the *positive strokes* offered by the mentoring programme.

Henry's is a story of success. He attended near-perfectly in the all-important fourth term. He learned about human relationships, improved his communication with his parents, and understood how to resist acting out in class and how to respond to negative remarks, e.g., from his science teacher. He found that he could negotiate with his parents and with teachers. That Henry followed his own programme planned during the mentoring programme, to supplement an unsatisfactory situation in science, was praiseworthy. That he passed this subject was a major achievement.

The QTI was seen to be a reliable indicator of how one's relationship with one's teacher can lead to academic success and/or failure. Henry responded well to the positive behaviours of his mathematics teacher and seemed to pass this subject reasonably easily, thus, concerns about mathematics did not come up in mentoring sessions. The QTI indicated difficulties with the science teacher which was the actual case.

Involvement with Henry has suggested these conclusions:

i) TA is a good model for mentoring, counselling, and teaching in educational settings.

ii) The QTI is a reliable indicator of student-teacher relationships.

iii) Improving self esteem leads to improved academic outcomes.

iv) For some teenagers, the process of making lasting positive change can take some time because it takes time to build trust between the carer and the young person.

Henry had experienced success and was no longer failing academically at the end of the mentoring programme. He finished the programme in a better position to continue his journey alone.

6.10 Case Study: Ian

6.10.1 *Personal Data*

Ian was 16.1 years old at the start of the mentoring programme and 16.7 years old when it ended. He was the second oldest student on the course and may have been kept back a year at primary school. Ian is European, the youngest son by some years of a professional mother and tradesman father with whom he lives. His older brother and sister are in their twenties. The family live in an area of mixed housing out of the school zone but easily reached by public transport.

Ian is well built, fit and healthy. He is a national representative in his sport and trains three to four days a week. Ian is a popular boy, easy to get along with, polite and forthright with a relaxed manner. He has a wide group of friends, some older and not at the same school as himself.

6.10.2 *Presenting Behaviours*

Ian was included in the study because of his poor attendance in the year prior to the study. He was not a behaviour problem in class but was failing academically. There was some concern amongst staff at the company he kept outside of school. Ian had been in the TA support group and the mentoring programme was seen as a way of keeping in touch with him and of keeping him on task.

6.10.3 *History*

Ian was seen as being below average academically by his primary school. He was classified as being 'limited' in both science and mathematics. In his pre-entry TOSCA test, Ian scored a stanine 4, which represents a percentile ranking of 24. Thus, according to this test, he is in the bottom quartile in terms of thinking ability.

Ian was placed on a special programme in the year of the mentoring programme which meant that he did one subject less than students in the mainstream and had extra help in

English and with his homework. Once a week he went out of the school on a confidence building course which focussed on helping with school work and looking at careers. It was thought that the School Certificate examinations were going to be too much for Ian. As part of the special programme, he was doing an alternate Certificate of English where he just had to complete the course to pass.

In the previous year, Ian had been part of the TA support group. In this group, he stated that he argued a lot with his mother and that what he wanted to learn in the group was some ways of communicating, and to lessen these 'fights'. Students in the group were taught the basics of TA and spent 13 weeks in the group. Other activities were generally counselling based and had to do with communication skills and sharing current difficulties. Ian attended this TA group well missing only three of the ten sessions. At its conclusion, he thought that he was not swearing as much at home and that he was able to stay in *Adult* more.

Ian entered the programme having had some experience of group counselling and having improved his home situation to some extent through the support group. He also had the benefit of the special programme in the year of the study.

6.10.4 *The Contract*

Ian set a contract in the second session of the mentoring programme, the first session having been spent in explaining the programme. Ian's contract is set out as follows.

i) What do you want to change?

I want to start doing homework, and attending school.

ii) How will you act differently?

I'll be happier as I won't have detentions. I'll organise my time better so I do homework. If I do my homework, I'll attend.

iii) Who will you be different with?

With all of my teachers.

iv) Where will this happen?

At school and at the kitchen table at home.

v) How will you know when you've reached your goal?

a) What will you be doing differently?

I'll write my homework down and I will do it between 4.30 - 5.30 and 7 - 8 or 9.

b) How will other people know you have changed?

I'll be handing in my work. My parents will see me doing it.

vi) What might you do to sabotage this plan?

Keep on the way I'm going at the moment - watching T.V., sleeping in then wagging.

vii) What will you do to reward yourself when you reach your goal?

My reward will be no detentions.

6.10.5 *The Process*

Prior to any further mentoring sessions, Ian was apprehended by the police during school time on a serious charge. Ian was seen the day after the offence and was given counselling. He was then referred on to a specialist. However, three days later he was suspended from the College for two months.

Ian returned to school five weeks before the external examinations having done no school work while suspended in spite of attempts to get him to do correspondence work. He decided at his final mentoring session to sit just two subjects, geography and English. Ian was confused about what he needed to know and do to prepare for his examinations. A study plan was drawn up which just had him covering the basics of his subjects. He was also encouraged to get as much of his English Certificate course work completed as possible. Ian missed most of the mentoring programme.

6.10.6 *Results*

Ian's attendance was about the same in the year of the mentoring programme to that of the year before. Not counting the time he was suspended, Ian was away 79 half days in the year of the programme compared with 80 half days the year before. There was a big improvement in his attendance when he returned to school after his suspension, however this was due to the daily monitoring by staff, so first half/second half comparisons are not given for the year of the mentoring programme as the figures are distorted.

Ian had three detentions in the year of the mentoring programme compared with one in the previous year. He had three referrals to his year group Dean prior to the start of the mentoring programme all related to incomplete work. He had no referrals after his return to school.

Academic results cannot be given showing difference before and after the mentoring programme, as Ian dropped out of science, after getting 9% in July, and he did not complete his mathematics course. He did complete his Certificate in English, but failed the two external examinations with 31% in English and 15% in geography. Furthermore, Ian did not complete all of the survey instruments because of absence.

The Mooney Problem Checklist indicated an increase in concerns over the time of the mentoring programme. Before the programme started, he indicated a total of 27 problems, most (11) being to do with school. At the conclusion of the programme he had 51 perceived problems. Those to do with school had risen to 20, the next highest area of concern being Self Control where he increased from one problem to ten.

Ian did not complete the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory before the mentoring programme, however he did do it at the end. He had also responded to this test in the previous year in connection with the TA support group. Between these two occasions, which were 15 months apart, there was a decline in self esteem from 68 to 58. The biggest single decrease over this period was how he felt about himself at home.

Ian completed an informal questionnaire to assess his TA *ego-states*. His profile is given in figure 6.18.

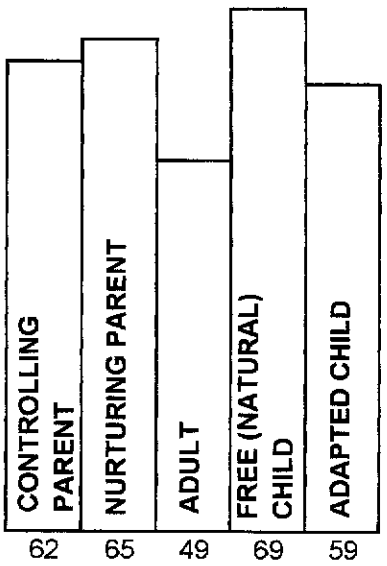

Figure 6.18. Ego-state scores for Ian, in November 1998.

6.10.7 *Conclusions*

It was unfortunate that Ian's exclusion from school during the time of the mentoring programme meant that he also missed about half of the programme at the time when he needed it most. Ian set an achievable contract but due to his suspension he did not meet its terms. Being easily influenced by others led to his poor attendance and to the circumstances surrounding his suspension.

Not only is Ian limited academically, he also lacked sufficient *Adult* to judge some of the situations into which he got himself. Being involved with Ian has reinforced the view that one of the best ways of helping at-risk youth is to increase the use of their *Adult ego-state*. This was beginning to happen for Ian in the TA support group. It was not surprising that Ian's perceived problems increased and that his self esteem dropped. It is impossible to say what Ian's year would have been like if he had stayed on the mentoring programme throughout its course. It is unlikely that he would have achieved all that well academically but the constant contact with a mentor would probably have kept him more on course. He could have made greater personal gains.

Ian's *ego-state* scores show a sportsman, in that he has a well developed *Natural Child.* The profile is also typical of a young person at-risk. With *Adult* being the lowest *ego-state*, he was not in full control of his other aspects. However, the benefit of having Ian involved with the mentoring programme has been to be reminded of the importance of the *Adult ego-state*. *Adult* is the behaviours, thoughts and feelings that are direct responses to the present situation. When a person is unable to respond from *Adult*, another *ego-state* will influence or contaminate the *Adult* leading to ill-judged or inappropriate responses to the here-and-now. It is quite possible that as Ian matures he will develop better thinking abilities which will in turn lead to more *Adult* in his *ego-state* profile. He has good support from his family, his friends and his coaches. Therefore, there is hope.

6.11 Case Study: Jack

6.11.1 *Personal Data*

Jack was the oldest participant in the mentoring programme at 16.5 years old at the start of the programme and 16.11 at its conclusion. Jack is European and lived with his mother in a suburb out of the school zone but within easy reach by public transport. He had recently moved to that address after his parents separated. His mother was a clerical worker and his father a tradesman was in prison at the start of the mentoring programme.

Jack was popular with his peers and had an outgoing personality. He got on well with some of his teachers but others found him disruptive. A good sportsman, Jack enjoyed a range of sports and was particularly good at soccer. He also enjoyed skateboarding and drama. He had good health, and was of medium build. Jack had two adult brothers both of whom had left home.

6.11.2 *Presenting Behaviours*

Jack was included in the sample group due to his poor attendance record in the year prior to the study. His absences that year totalled 63 half days. Also, he was of some concern behaviourally, having had four school detentions in the year prior to the study. This latter figure was average for the sample group but higher than the average for the College. Jack was of particular concern to his science teacher who had referred him to his year group Dean twice in the six months prior to the start of the mentoring programme. Both of these referrals were for disruptive behaviour in class.

6.11.3 *History*

On entry to the College, there were indications that Jack was experiencing learning difficulties as he was rated 'limited' in both mathematics and science. His pre-entry TOSCA test showed that he was close to the lowest quartile of students his age in thinking abilities. He had a percentile score of 27, which gave him a level 4. Jack was socially mature and good orally. He expressed himself clearly and was above average in speech and drama.

In the year prior to this study, Jack was in a support group for students seen by staff as 'at-risk'. He attended all six of his group meetings. He set a contract to become more motivated at school. When the group concluded he thought he was "not so worried about school" but said that he still did not like it. He also said that he did not truant as often as he had before. He was a good contributor to this group and supportive of others.

6.11.4 *The Contract*

Jack set a contract for change in his second mentoring session, the first session having been spent in explaining the project. His contract was:

i) What do you want to change?

I am wanting to further change my attitude. I want it to be positive.

ii) How will you act differently?

I will be concerned about what I want to happen. I will do homework and be focussed.

iii) Who will you be different with?

With my parents, friends and teachers.

iv) Where will this happen?

At school, and outside of school.

v) How will you know when you've reached your goal?

a) What will you be doing differently?

I'll be having early nights and my attitude will be different.

b) How will other people know you have changed?

My attitude will be positive. I'll be nice and caring.

vi) What might you do to sabotage this plan?

I would get depressed. I'd get pissed off with poor results.

vii) What will you do to reward yourself when you reach your goal?

I'll be rapt about myself.

6.11.5 *The Process*

During the first mentoring session, prior to making his contract, Jack revealed that he had difficulties. His father was about to be jailed and Jack thought that his mother was picking on him. This led to bouts of anger on both sides and 'blow ups'. Jack was missing his two older brothers who had left home and he thought his father was angry too. He said his father 'guilt trips me' and agreed that this meant his father was manipulative. In this first session, the elements of TA were revised. Jack already had

an understanding of TA from his experience from the TA support group in the previous year. As it seemed there was an element of *Gaming* going on in Jack's relationship with his parents, the *Parent-Adult-Child ego-state* diagrams were revisited. Jack was shown how, by staying in *Adult*, he could cross *transactions* and break the *Game*. By so doing he would also be far less likely to become angry himself. During this first session, Jack also said that he had no understanding of science at all, did not like the teacher, and had no intention of continuing with this subject. He had done very little work in science all year. Jack expressed a desire to quit smoking and was enrolled in the College's 'Quit' programme.

At his next mentoring session, it was clear that Jack was in difficulty at school and that home-life was also strained. He reported that he was getting into arguments with his mother, with his science teacher, and with the year group Dean. It seemed that Jack was allowing himself to be hooked into his *Adapted Child ego-state* in response to comments that appeared to be from the *Critical Parent ego-state*s of these significant adults. Using TA theory, a session was spent with Jack encouraging him to explore the use of *Adult* responses to criticism. Techniques in coping with criticism were explained, diagrammed, and practised. Because of his background of being in the TA support group, Jack understood the theory readily but would need to have the patience to be able to put it into practice.

Diagrams were used to explain what was happening, e.g.,

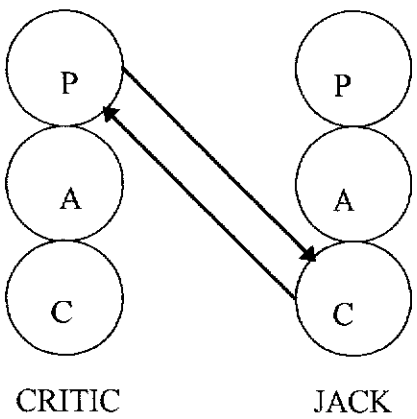

Figure 6.19. Ego-state diagram used with Jack.

The previous diagram was used to show Jack what was happening that led to argument. The dialogue could have been:

CRITIC - This work is a disgrace

JACK - I don't care.

In responding from *Adapted Child*, Jack was feeling the hurt, maybe even the hurt of earlier childhood times. With such responses the argument would just go on. Jack was shown how he could cross the *transaction* with an *Adult* response and in all likelihood get the critic into *Adult* so some meaningful dialogue could take place. A diagram showing the crossing of the *transaction* would look like this:

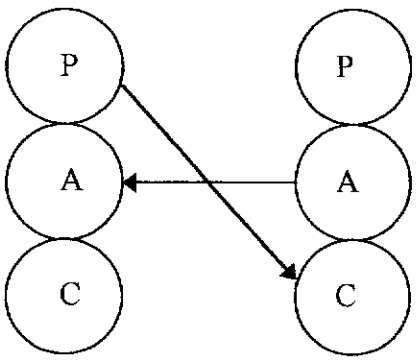

Figure 6.20. Ego-state diagram used with Jack.

The dialogue could be:

CRITIC - This work is a disgrace.

JACK - What is it about my way of doing this work that you don't like?

Jack also reported in this session that he was having problems in all subjects, except physical education. In mathematics, he said the class was noisy and there was little control at times and he had stopped working in science altogether. In history, he was having trouble remembering dates and had an overdue assignment. He was trying in English but had overdue work.

Jack's next mentoring session was a few weeks later following the mid-year examinations. He was feeling down about his results as he had not passed any subjects.

He was particularly upset about his English mark as he claimed his teacher had told him he was doing well. He was not enjoying school.

A mathematics tutor was arranged for Jack and he was formally withdrawn from science and put into an extra design technology class to enable him to catch up in that subject. He felt more positive with these arrangements.

The next time Jack was seen he was brighter. He was catching up in his design technology and was working hard in English again. He was still finding history uninteresting but was up to date in mathematics and got on well with the tutor. He also reported that he had quit smoking and had not smoked for over a month.

Two weeks later Jack reported a number of stress factors that were affecting him: his father had been out of jail but may be going to be returned; his mother and her partner were having relationship difficulties; his dog was going to be put down; his grandfather needed an operation; his cousin had injected a friend with drugs and killed her; he was worried about the external examinations; and he had started smoking again. These stressors were seen as top priority and an appointment was made for Jack to see an outside counsellor. Jack saw this counsellor weekly for the rest of the year. His school work became a secondary consideration.

Jack had two further mentoring sessions where preparation for the external examinations were made. He was given ideas on how best to study. He was, at this stage, only going to be able to prepare at a minimal level but it was considered important to keep him occupied and interested.

Jack's personal difficulties impacted negatively on his academic programme and the mentoring programme became a way of helping him manage these problems rather than focussing him on his school work. The impact of these outside influences meant that Jack did not achieve the changes he had wanted in the programme. However, being on the programme meant that he got appropriate help from what had emerged and the interventions made Jack's life manageable. He benefitted from the outside counselling, from the mathematics tutoring, and from the adjustments to his academic

workload. Mentoring gave him some control over what could have seemed a world out of control and it is hoped that the training in the use of *Adult* to cope with criticism and solve problems will be of lifelong benefit.

6.11.6 *Results*

Jack's attendance was better in the year of the mentoring programme than in the previous year, with 55 half days of absence compared with the previous year's 63. He had the same number of detentions, four, as in the previous year, and just one referral to his year group Dean during the mentoring programme, compared with two in the previous six months.

Academically Jack's results were below average, although he did improve during the time of the mentoring programme. He completed his Certificate in Applied Mathematics and gained a 'D' grading. He withdrew from (New Zealand) School Certificate science. His results for his remaining subjects are given in figure 6.22.

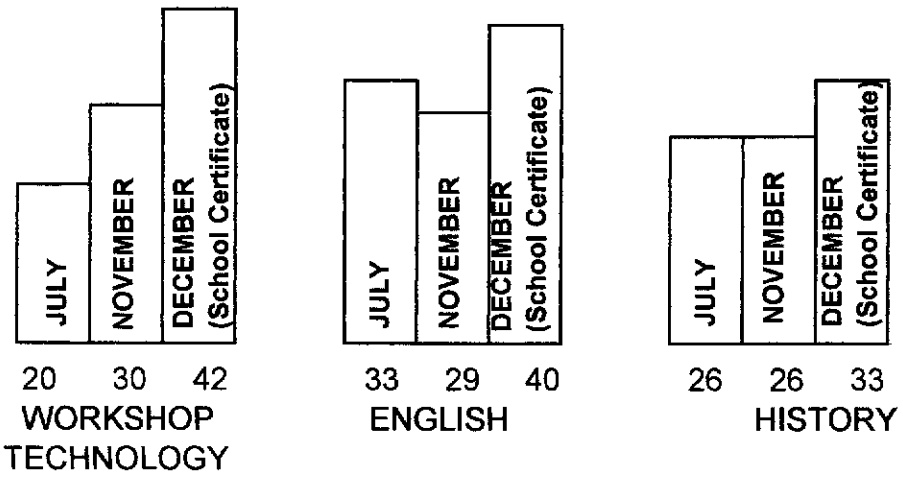

Figure 6.21. Academic results for Jack given in percentages.

Using the QTI, Jack portrayed his Ideal teacher as being strong in Leadership, Helping-Friendly, and Understanding behaviours with low Uncertain and Dissatisfied traits. These descriptions were the same for this teacher at the beginning and end of the mentoring programme. Just one questionnaire was completed by Jack for his science teacher, as he 'dropped' this subject before the mentoring programme was finished. At

the start of the programme, Jack saw his science teacher as being high in Uncertain, Admonishing, Dissatisfied, and Strict behaviours, and low in Leadership and Helping-Friendly behaviours. At the start of the mentoring programme Jack described his mathematics teacher as being high in Helping-Friendly, Understanding, and Student Responsibility-Freedom behaviours, with Admonishing behaviour being a close fourth. He saw this teacher as low in Dissatisfied behaviour. At the end of the mentoring programme his questionnaire for this teacher revealed a changed perception and he saw this teacher as high in Admonishing, Student Responsibility-Freedom, and Uncertain behaviours, and low in Strict and Leadership behaviours.

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory was completed by Jack at the beginning and end of the mentoring programme and also nine months prior to the start of the mentoring programme in the previous year when he was part of a TA support group. Results showed that Jack's self-image changed between the end of the TA support group with a drop in self esteem. During the time of the mentoring programme his self esteem remained constant at a level below the average for the students in the sample and the control groups. His sub-scores and total scores are given in table 6.2.

Table 6.2

Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory results for Jack

	August 1997	May 1998	November 1998
General	21	13	12
Social	7	8	8
Home	4	3	6
School	3	4	2
Total as a %	70	56	56

According to the Mooney Problem Checklist, Jack's perceived problems decreased greatly over the course of the mentoring programme. He saw himself as having a total of 64 problems at the start of the programme but only 34 at the end. The most significant drop was in the area of Personal Growth where perceived problems dropped from eight to two. School-based problems decreased from 19 to 11 while Self-Control problems decreased from 11 to 7, and Home and Family problems decreased sharply from eight to three.

An informal *ego-state* questionnaire was completed by Jack at the end of the mentoring programme. His results in this are shown diagrammatically in figure 6.22.

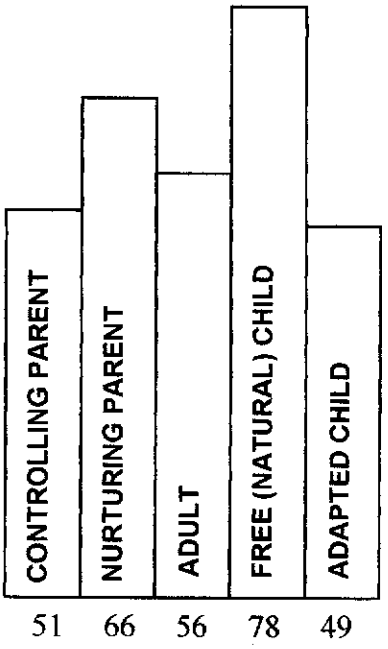

Figure 6.22. Ego-state scores for Jack, in November 1998.

6.11.7 *Conclusions*

Although Jack had a difficult year, his case is one in which it is claimed that without the mentoring programme he would not only have failed much more dramatically with his academic programme but also may have been much worse off in terms of mental health. In spite of enormous outside difficulties and personal doubt, Jack stayed in school, kept involved with his soccer and attended at a level no worse than in the previous year.

A social person, Jack was also supported by friends, many of whom were students he had known in the TA support group. Group support works well for teenagers who are at a stage when the peer group is important for them. Such groups must be ably led by adults, however, as Jack's group was, so that the teenagers are focussed and kept in touch with reality. Through contact with other students, mentoring, and counselling, Jack had an outlet for his frustrations. Without the mentoring programme it is possible that what Jack was going through would not have been known by those able to support

him. His brothers and parents were emotionally and physically unavailable to him for most of the year. Thus, a big contribution of the mentoring programme to Jack was it meant he was not alone with his difficulties.

Having Jack in the programme further supported the use of the QTI. The QTI showed that Jack rated his science teacher high in negative behaviours. This perception affected Jack's opinion of this teacher and his attitude to the subject resulting in his refusal to work and eventually withdrawing. His view of his mathematics teacher started out positively but changed. While he did get a Certificate in Mathematics, he probably could have done a lot better. The Admonishing and Strict behaviours indicated by the QTI, and seen by Jack as being in his science teacher, are similar to *Controlling Parent* behaviours. These probably activated Jack's *Adapted Child* and led him to rebel. *Nurturing Parent* was what was needed.

Knowledge of TA helped Jack to understand how his own reactions affected his interactions with significant adults e.g., his science teacher and his parents. TA was used to teach Jack the coping strategies that helped see him through. His strong *Free Child* enabled him to recognise and express his feelings, so he responded well to counselling. His *Adult* was low and it is hoped that as Jack develops more *Adult* thinking as he matures he will be more in control of himself and his situation.

While Jack's self esteem was lower than in the previous year, it did remain steady. The Mooney Problem Checklist results showed that, in spite of having a number of difficulties, Jack actually finished the year seeing himself as having far fewer problems than at the beginning of the mentoring programme. This is probably because Jack felt more in control of his situation and did not perceive some of the difficulties as problems.

Jack moved towards his contract goal of being positive in that he worked through periods of depression but finished the year on a positive note. He made a decision to attend a different school in the following year and this was seen as a good decision as his creative side will be able to develop more with the different courses offered in a less academic environment.

Jack thought that the mentoring programme had helped him set goals and that he had improved a lot in English. He said that his science teacher and one or two others who were 'on his case' had made the year difficult for him. However, he thought he was more positive about class and school work and planned to carry this positive attitude in to the next year both at home and at school.

6.12 Conclusion

An analysis of the sample group's results is given in the next chapter where comparisons with the control group are given. A number of conclusions can be drawn relating to the findings from the various test instruments and these too are made in the next chapter.

The mentoring process itself was found to be a most useful way of supporting 'at-risk' young people. It does depend on there being someone available for the time consuming one-on-one sessions on a regular basis. Mentoring worked best for those students who had been in contact with the mentor over a period of time, e.g., those who had been in the TA support group in the previous year. It takes time to build trust and it takes time to change the destructive behaviours of some young people. The behaviours themselves which have taken time to develop.

The programme provided an opportunity for the students in the sample to talk over the difficulties they faced as well as set goals and plan their study. An adult who is neutral and independent of the school and their parents seemed to be a great help. Given a trusting and secure relationship with an independent adult, built up over time, it was heartening to see how young people, including those facing extreme difficulties, can learn to solve their own problems. The most significant realization was that given such ideal conditions young people, including those 'at-risk', can take control of their own destinies in a responsible and *Adult* way.

CHAPTER 7

SURVEY FINDINGS

7.1 Introduction

This chapter contains a summary of the outcomes for each of the sample group members. Then the data from the survey are used collectively to compare the sample group's combined outcomes with the combined outcomes of the control group.

The sample group were at-risk students selected because of various indicators of at-risk behaviour, e.g., truancy, inappropriate behaviour. The control group consisted of those students whose names followed each of the sample group on their class roll. A small number of at-risk students declined to take part in the survey when given the opportunity. Some limited follow up of them was possible and this follow up is also detailed in this chapter.

7.2 Outcomes for the Sample Group

7.2.1 *Arran*

Arran moved towards his contract goals i.e. to obtain pass marks of 80 % or more (an A) in mathematics and science, and to pass chemistry. Arran did not pass chemistry, he achieved 38 %, however, he attained B passes in the National Examinations in both mathematics and science. There was a correlation between the examination results he achieved, and whether or not he rated the subject teacher in a positive way as indicated by the QTI (see 6.2.6). He did better when there was a positive relationship with the subject teacher. His poorest results were in subjects where he had rated the subject

teacher negatively. He had little or no conflict with teachers he rated as being like his Ideal teacher.

Encouragement to think worked for Arran during mentoring sessions. It helped him to focus clearly, and to find his own solutions to subject and personal difficulties. As well as this encouragement of *Adult*, it is believed that if Arran is able to develop more *Nurturing Parent* traits, he will be able to lessen incidents of the harmful behaviours that stop him reaching his full potential.

7.2.2 *Barry*

The mentoring programme helped Barry to maintain his focus on school work, rather than becoming distracted by avoidance behaviours. Like Arran, encouragement of *Adult* through an emphasis on thinking proved to be a useful way to develop problem solving skills (see 6.3.5). Barry passed in mathematics in the National Examination. He had rated his mathematics teacher positively on the QTI (see 6.3.6). Furthermore, there was a decrease in his perceived problems.

7.2.3 *Chris*

Chris passed all of his subjects in the end of year National Examinations. The mentoring programme had enabled him to talk about the troubles he faced and this meant they were less distracting for him. He completed the mentoring programme with a positive attitude to school. His self esteem had also increased (see 6.4.6).

7.2.4 *Danny*

Danny achieved his goal of being more positive towards his school work. He set up a study timetable towards the end of the academic year, whereas previously he had done little in the way of home study. In the National Examination he passed science. Using the QTI, Danny had rated his science teacher as having high levels of positive traits and low levels of negative traits. He rated this teacher in a similar way to his Ideal teacher

(see 6.5.6).

Danny was high in *Adapted Child* characteristics and was thus easily led into this *ego-state* when he perceived a teacher or parent figure as being critical of him, i.e. *Controlling Parent ego-state* characteristics or behaviours. Unfortunately, Danny's science teacher was the only teacher he perceived as being encouraging. He viewed his other teachers as being critical and having *Controlling Parent* traits, and failed all other subjects.

7.2.5 *Eugene*

Eugene completed the mentoring programme with a more positive attitude than he had at the start (see 6.6.6). He also saw himself as having fewer problems and his self esteem increased. Eugene passed the local mathematics course, the Certificate in Mathematics. His classroom behaviour improved, as did his attendance. An important achievement for this student was that he stayed in school and completed the academic year.

7.2.6 *Fred*

In subjects where Fred regarded his teacher in a positive light, as indicated by the QTI, he had fewer behavioural problems (see 6.7.6). He had a negative view of his science teacher according to his QTI rating of this teacher. He had behavioural problems in this class, and did not pass science in the National Examination.

Fred behaved well in the classes of teachers for whom he had positive regard, and passed the National Examinations in all of their subjects i.e. mathematics, workshop technology, English and physical education. Interviews and tests used in the mentoring programme indicated that Fred was more in control of himself and his behaviour at the end of the programme.

7.2.7 *Gary*

What worked well for Gary was that he set clear objectives at the start of the mentoring programme. His contract was simple in that he contracted to attend classes, to pay attention in class and to pass his School Certificate, the National Examination for Year 11 (see 6.8.4).

Gary had worked with the school counsellor for 18 months prior to the mentoring programme. Good rapport had been built up and he was used to setting goals. He had become self motivated by the end of the programme.

Gary passed all of his subjects in the National Examinations, including mathematics and science where he had rated his teachers negatively using the QTI (see 6.8.6). It seems that when the locus of control is internalised, a negative view of a teacher by a student is not so influential.

7.2.8 *Henry*

Like Gary, Henry had also worked with the school counsellor for 18 months prior to the start of the mentoring programme and he too set a clear contract which he completed. Henry's concentration in class improved during the course of the survey. He attended well, and his self esteem increased. Henry passed both his mathematics and his science examinations in the National Examination. He had classed his mathematics teacher as a favourite teacher and had had few behavioural problems in that class (see 6.9.6).

7.2.9 *Ian*

Ian was suspended from school near the start of the mentoring programme. He did not pass any National Examination subjects, and his self esteem was adversely affected (see 6.10.6).

7.2.10 *Jack*

Home circumstances had a calamitous effect on Jack (see 6.11.5) and he failed to pass any of the National Examinations. Jack did stay in school, however, and being part of the mentoring programme gave him an outlet through which he was able to talk through his difficulties and gain support. He made some good personal decisions, and believed that he had fewer problems at the end of the programme (see 6.11.6).

7.2.11 *Summary*

Personal gains in the areas of home relationships, school behaviour and academic results, and self understanding were made by all of the participants in the mentoring programme, with the exception of Ian, who became less involved because of his suspension. The academic results of the participants are believed to be much better than those that might otherwise have been expected from a group of at-risk students.

In the next section of this chapter, the results of the students are considered collectively, and the students in this sample group have their results compared with the results of the students in the control group.

7.3 Comparison of Results from the Sample Group and the Control Group

7.3.1 *Introduction*

The two groups in the study, the sample group of at-risk students, and the control group, are now compared in the following areas:

i) Background, including family, culture, age, academic data at entry to College, i.e. primary school records.
ii) Attendance.
iii) Behavioural records; detentions.

iv) Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory.

v) Mooney Problem Checklist.

vi) Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction.

vii) Ego-State Questionnaire.

viii) Examination Results.

7.3.2 *Background*

There were ten students in the sample group and 11 students in the control group. The average age of the sample group was 15.7 years at the start of the study, the average age of the control group was 15.6 years at the same time.

Regarding family background, seven of the sample group were from families with two parents, three were from families with one parent in the family home. In the control group, eight students were from two parent families, three families had one parent in the family home. Parents' occupations were similar for both groups. Eight students in the sample group had professional parents compared with seven students in the control group. Occupations for the parents of the remaining students in both groups were either in trades or were unknown. There was an even mix of occupations of parents of both groups of students.

The cultural backgrounds of the students in the study were in a similar proportion to the rest of the school. In the sample group, six students were European, one Samoan, one Maori, and one Greek student. In the control group, six students were European, and one each of Samoan, Chinese, Greek, Indian, and Arabian.

Little difference existed then between the two groups in terms of age, family circumstances and background or ethnic/cultural origin.

The average TOSCA percentile for the sample group was 43.6, and for the control group it was 64 at entry to the College.

The median mathematics rating from the students' primary school was '4' for the sample group which indicates 'Fair' or 'Below Average'. For the control group this mathematics rating was '3', which indicates 'Sound' or 'Average'. The median science rating from the students' primary school was '4', which indicates 'Fair' or 'Below Average' for both the sample group and the control group. There was then, some difference between the two groups at entry to the College, with the control group scoring better in the TOSCA test of thinking abilities. The control group were also rated better at mathematics than were the sample group.

7.3.3 *Attendance*

In the half year prior to the mentoring programme, the sample group missed on average 25 half days of school. In the six months of the mentoring programme this group missed on average 27 half days. The control group attended well throughout the year missing 11 half days on average in the six months leading up to the mentoring programme, and an average of seven half days during the mentoring programme. The attendance of the students in the sample group did improve in the weeks leading up to the National Examinations, but overall their attendance was not good.

7.3.4 *Behavioural Records*

The classroom behaviour of the sample group improved in the year of the study. They received an average of 2.9 detentions in the year of the study compared with 4.25 in the year before. The control group remained constant in their classroom behaviour as reflected by detentions received. The control group received an average 0.5 detentions both in the year of the study and in the previous year.

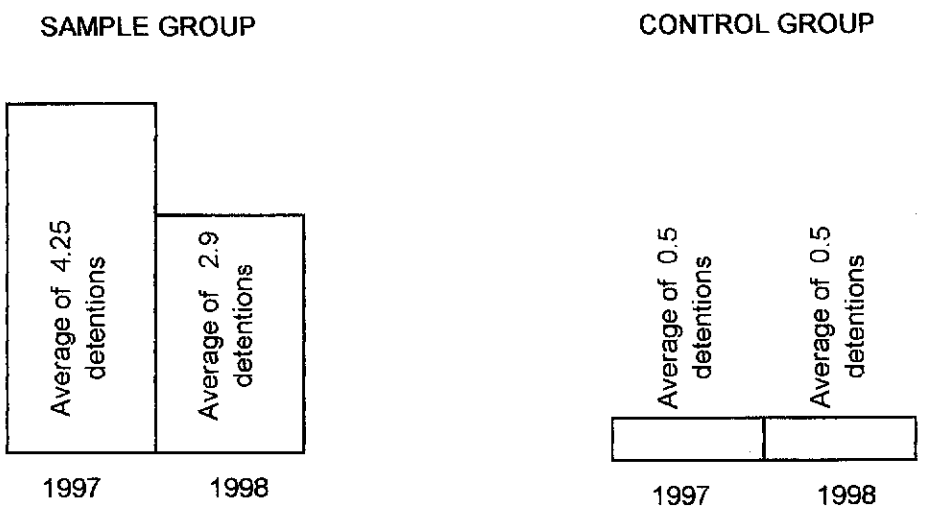

Figure 7.1. Behavioural records of the sample group and control group.

7.3.5 *The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory*

The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (see Appendix 1) gives four self esteem measurements. It gives a general score, and more specific scores relating to the self esteem of the subject regarding their social self, their home self, and the school self. These four subsections can then be added, and converted into a percentile. The results of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory are depicted in Table 7.1

Table 7.1

Results of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory given in July and December in the year of the study.

	Sample Group		Control Group	
	July	December	July	December
General	18.5	19.5	20.0	21.0
Social	6.8	7.1	5.9	6.9
Home	5.4	5.6	5.1	5.5
School	4.3	4.1	3.4	4.2
Percentile	70.4	72.8	68.8	75.2

A pictorial representation of the four areas of self esteem is given in figures 7.2 to 7.5.

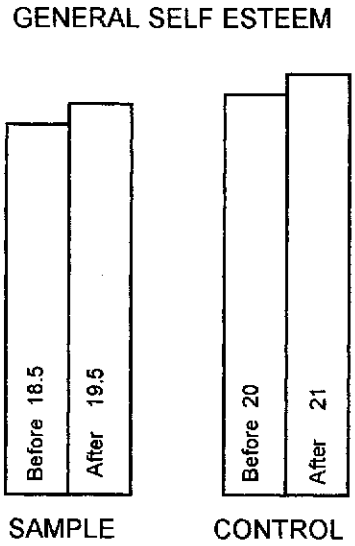

Figure 7.2. General Self Esteem measured by the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory for the sample and control groups before and after the mentoring programme.

Figure 7.3. Social Self Esteem measured by the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory for the sample and control groups before and after the mentoring programme.

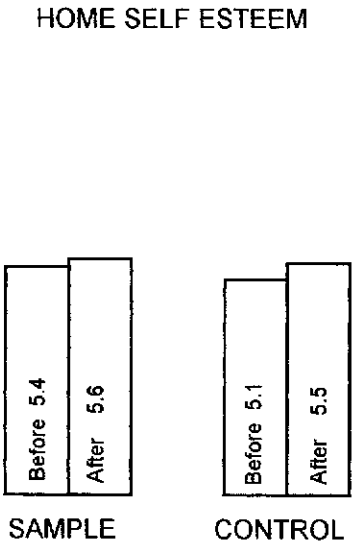

Figure 7.4. Home Self Esteem measured by the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory for the sample and control groups before and after the mentoring programme.

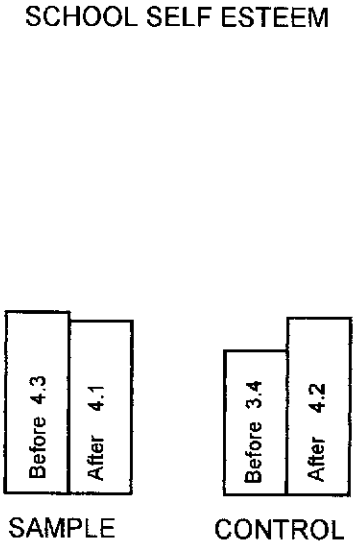

Figure 7.5. School Self Esteem measured by the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory for the sample and control groups before and after the mentoring programme.

The General self esteem of the control group was slightly higher than that of the sample group. This is what would be expected, given that the control group were chosen at random, whereas the sample group were a group of students seen to be at-risk.

Considering the differing nature of the two groups, it is noteworthy that the General self esteem rose by the same amount for each of the groups during the time of the mentoring programme. The mentoring programme, with its emphasis on considering relationships using TA, led to reported improvements in home interactions and improved classroom behaviour (7.3.4). Without the improvement in classroom and home behaviour, it is suggested that the General self esteem of the sample group may have fallen. Being in *Adult* would have also helped.

The Social score gives an indication of how a person perceives themselves in relation to others. In this area, the sample group scored higher than the control group both at the start of the mentoring programme and at its conclusion, indicating greater social confidence in the sample group. Both groups improved their scores during the time of the mentoring programme, however, the control group's score rose by a greater amount. The sample group, then, appear to have positive feelings about their social selves. It is likely that at-risk young people do have more social experience than the average young person. This group did seem to be confident amongst their peers at the social level, and reported a high level of social activity out of school.

The Home scores for both groups rose during the time of the study. The rise in self esteem in this category for the control group may be a natural rise due to maturation. The slight rise in self esteem in relation to Home for the sample group is likely to be due to the mentoring programme and to learning about relationships through the teaching of TA to this group. Home difficulties were frequently discussed by the sample group during mentoring sessions. Coping strategies were taught for specific relationship problem areas.

It is surprising that the self esteem score relating to School was lower for the control group, compared with the sample group, at the start of the study. It was not surprising that the control group's score rose by nearly one point. Even though the sample group's score actually fell slightly, it was still reasonably high at the end of the programme.

The self esteem percentiles rose for both groups during the time of the study. The sample group's average percentile rose by 2.4, the control group's percentile rose by 6.4. The latter rise was to be expected, while the fact that the sample group's percentile rose at all was gratifying.

7.3.5.1 Self Esteem and the TA Support Group in the Year Prior to the Study

Several of the students in the sample group took part in a support group using TA in the year prior to the study. The group were taught about TA and how it could be used to enhance their relationships with others. Time was also given at each meeting to discuss current problems, what was 'on top'.

The Coopersmith Self Esteem Inventory was completed by members of the TA Support Group. The results given below are for students who were in both this TA Support Group and the mentoring programme. The results therefore cover an 18 month period.

Table 7.2

Results of the Coopersmith Self Esteem Inventory for students in the sample group who were also in the previous year's TA Support Group.

	July 1997	December 1998
General	16.8	18.8
Social	6.1	7.1
Home	4.3	5.5
School	3.1	4.1
Percentile	58.6	71.3

Table 7.2 indicates that marked progress occurred, with the students' self esteem improving in all categories. This improvement came in spite of the fact that these were troubled and troublesome young people. This suggests that it takes time to build up a trusting relationship with 'at-risk' young people to the point where useful work can be done with them, however progress can be made over time.

While the conclusions drawn from the results of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory were predictable, further research is needed, particularly to determine whether some of the change was simply due to maturation.

7.3.6 *The Mooney Problem Checklist*

The Mooney Problem Checklist was used to measure both the number of difficulties that the students faced and to ascertain what type of difficulties they saw themselves as having. Seven different areas of difficulty are measured. The Mooney Problem Checklist was completed by the students in the survey in June in the year of the study and again in November of the same year at the end of the mentoring programme.

Table 7.3 shows the results of the Mooney Problem Checklist. The number of difficulties, or problems, were totalled and averaged separately for the sample group and for the control group.

Table 7.3
Mooney Problem Checklist Results for the Sample Group and the Control Group.

	Sample Group		Control Group	
	June	November	June	November
Health and Personal Development	8	6	3	3
School	14	13	10	10
Home and Family	7	2	4	3
Money, Work and The Future	10	7	4	5
Boy-Girl Relationships	2	1	3	4
Personal Growth	6	2	5	4
Self Control	10	7	7	6
Total	56	38	34	3

The results of the Mooney Problem Checklist have been transposed from table form (Table 7.3) to graphs, thus changes within each of the groups for particular items can

be considered. These graphs are presented in figures 7.6 to 7.13, and compare the sample group with the control group before the mentoring programme (June) and after the mentoring programme (November).

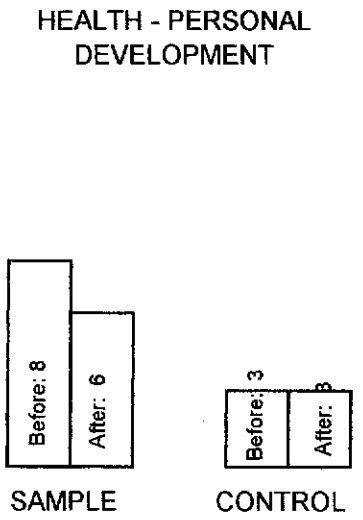

Figure 7.6. Results of the Mooney Problem Checklist Item of Health and Personal Development.

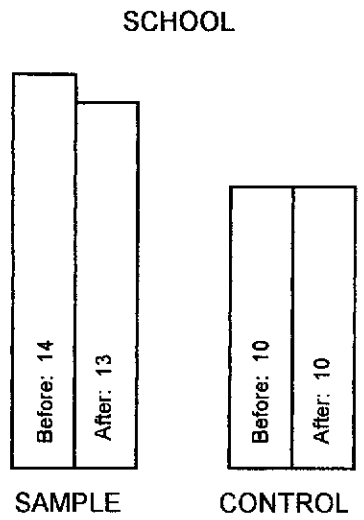

Figure 7.7. Results of the Mooney Problem Checklist Item of School.

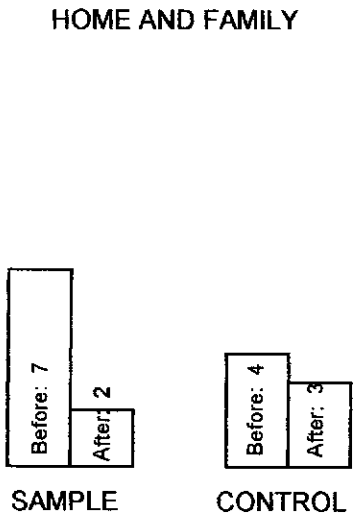

Figure 7.8. Results of the Mooney Problem Checklist Item of Home and Family.

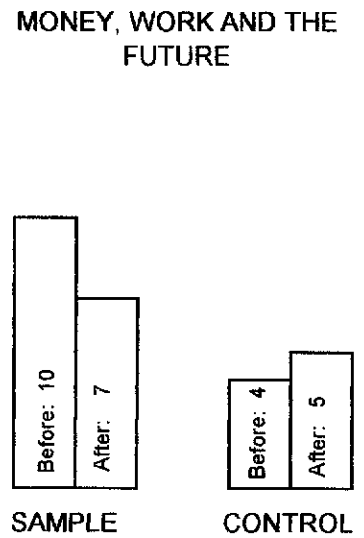

Figure 7.9. Results of the Mooney Problem Checklist Item of Money, Work and the Future.

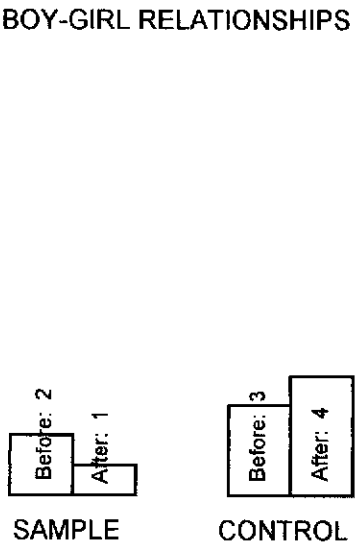

Figure 7.10. Results of the Mooney Problem Checklist Item of Boy-Girl Relationships.

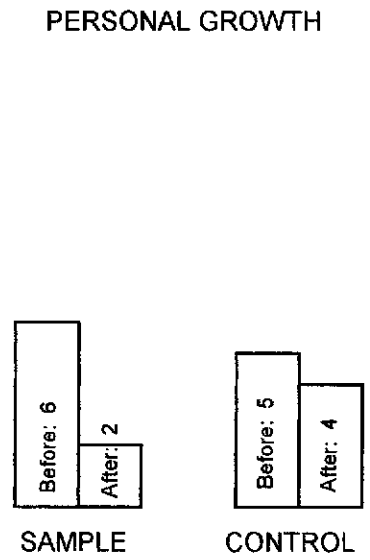

Figure 7.11. Results of the Mooney Problem Checklist Item of Personal Growth.

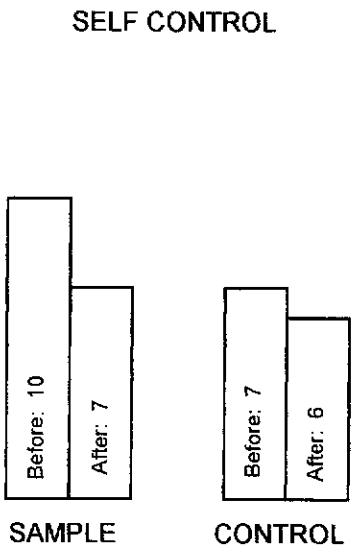

Figure 7.12. Results of the Mooney Problem Checklist Item of Self Control.

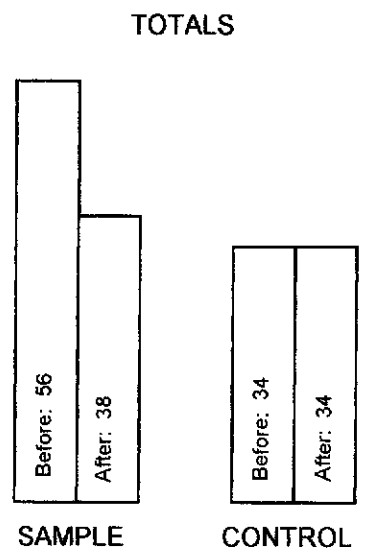

Figure 7.13. Results of the Mooney Problem Checklist with Items totalled.

The sample group entered the mentoring programme in June with a higher number of perceived problems (56) than the control group (34). By the time of the conclusion of the mentoring programme undertaken by the sample group, the number of perceived problems for this group had dropped by 31 percent, from 56 perceived problems to 38. The number of perceived problems for the control group, who had not taken part in the mentoring programme, remained the same at 34. Thus, in November the average number of perceived problems for the sample group was close to the average number of the control group.

The Mooney Problem Checklist scores for both groups were totalled and an average score was calculated. Using these data, it was calculated that 70 percent of the sample group had a total number of perceived problems higher than the average while just 25 percent of the control group had a total number of perceived problems higher than the average. These calculations were made in June in the year of the study.

At the conclusion of the mentoring programme in November, the number of students with perceived problems higher than the averaged score of both groups was identical for the sample group and the control group at 50 percent.

The sample group, who had been involved in the mentoring programme, had lowered their perceived problem count by 25 percent by the end of the programme. The control group, left to their own devices, had a 25 percent increase in perceived problems over the same time period.

In November, the sample group rated themselves as having fewer problems in every category of the Mooney Problem Checklist compared with how they had rated themselves in June. The control group's results were mixed. In November, the control group rated themselves as having fewer problems in three categories compared with their initial rating in June; Home and Family, Personal Growth and Self Control. The control group rated themselves the same in November as in June in the categories of Health and Personal Development, and School. The control group thought they had slightly more problems in November compared with their June assessment in the areas of Money, Work and the Future and in Boy-Girl Relationships.

For both the sample group and the control group, the area of highest concern was School. This was true in June and in November. The number of perceived problems to do with School was significantly higher than any other category of perceived problems.

7.3.6.1 Summary of Mooney Problem Checklist Results

The sample group had noteworthy decreases in certain problem categories of the Mooney Problem Checklist by the end of the mentoring programme compared with how they saw themselves at the beginning. The control group, who had not taken part in the mentoring programme, remained about the same. The areas of major reduction in perceived problems of the sample group were Home and Family, and Personal Growth.

7.3.7 *The Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction*

The Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction (QTI, see Appendix 3) was administered to both the sample group and the control group in June in the year of the study, and again in December after the completion of the mentoring programme. The QTI was completed by the students of both groups in relation to their mathematics and science teachers, and the teacher they considered to be their Ideal teacher. Scores for each of these teachers were then averaged for each of the groups.

When the QTI is completed by a student, that student indicates the level at which the teacher displays the behaviour given in the item. These levels range from 'zero' when the teacher behaviour is perceived by the student as being **never** shown, to 'four' when the teacher behaviour is perceived by the student as being **always** shown. With six items for each category of teacher behaviour, total scores can range from a low of zero to a high of 24. If 12 is seen as an average score, scores between 12 and 24 indicate frequent displays of the teacher behaviour in question, as perceived by the student. Scores below 12 could be interpreted as indicating that this teacher demonstrates low levels of the behaviour in question. The results of the QTI are given in Tables 7.4 to 7.7. Table 7.4 refers to the students' mathematics teachers, Table 7.5 refers to the students' science teachers and Table 7.6 refers to the students' Ideal teacher.

Table 7.4

Results of the QTI given in June and December in the year of the study with reference to the students' mathematics teachers.

	Sample Group		Control Group	
	June	Dec.	June	Dec.
DC Leadership Behaviour	16	13	13	13
CD Helping/Friendly Behaviour	18	16	14	14
CS Understanding Behaviour	18	14	13	14
SC Student Responsibility/ Freedom Behaviour	10	13	7	12
SO Uncertain Behaviour	6	9	7	9
OS Dissatisfied Behaviour	7	11	9	9
OD Admonishing Behaviour	9	12	10	10
DO Strict Behaviour	12	10	11	13

Table 7.5

Results of the QTI given in June and December in the year of the study with reference to the students' science teachers.

	Sample Group		Control Group	
	June	Dec.	June	Dec.
DC Leadership Behaviour	11	13	13	18
CD Helping/Friendly Behaviour	13	14	16	19
CS Understanding Behaviour	13	11	13	17
SC Student Responsibility/ Freedom Behaviour	12	15	9	10
SO Uncertain Behaviour	10	11	5	6
OS Dissatisfied Behaviour	10	12	8	6
OD Admonishing Behaviour	12	13	10	9
DO Strict Behaviour	12	12	10	12

Table 7.6

Results of the QTI given in June and December in the year of the study with reference to the students' Ideal teachers.

	Sample Group		Control Group	
	June	Dec.	June	Dec.
DC Leadership Behaviour	23	22	19	20
CD Helping/Friendly Behaviour	22	22	19	22
CS Understanding Behaviour	22	21	20	20
SC Student Responsibility/ Freedom Behaviour	11	11	12	14
SO Uncertain Behaviour	3	5	6	5
OS Dissatisfied Behaviour	2	6	5	5
OD Admonishing Behaviour	7	8	8	9
DO Strict Behaviour	11	11	9	10

For comparison, the results of the QTI were tabulated another way. The eight teacher behaviours were separated out for the students' mathematics, science and Ideal teachers. Each group's assessments can be viewed in relation to themselves at the start and end of the mentoring programme, and the assessments in each category can also be compared one group to the other. (see Table7.7)

Table 7.7

Results of the QTI given in June and December in the year of the study showing ratings for specific teacher behaviours.

		Sample Group		Control Group	
		June	Dec.	June	Dec.
LEADERSHIP	Mathematics	16	13	13	13
	Science	11	13	13	18
	Ideal	23	22	19	20
HELPING/FRIENDLY	Mathematics	18	16	14	14
	Science	13	14	16	19
	Ideal	22	22	19	22
UNDERSTANDING	Mathematics	18	14	13	14
	Science	13	11	13	17
	Ideal	22	21	20	20
STUDENT RESP./	Mathematics	10	13	7	12
FREEDOM	Science	12	15	9	10
	Ideal	11	11	12	14
UNCERTAIN	Mathematics	6	9	7	9
	Science	10	11	5	6
	Ideal	3	5	6	5
DISSATISFIED	Mathematics	7	11	9	9
	Science	10	12	8	6
	Ideal	2	6	5	5
ADMONISHING	Mathematics	9	12	10	10
	Science	12	13	10	9
	Ideal	7	8	8	9
STRICT	Mathematics	12	10	11	13
	Science	12	12	10	12
	Ideal	11	11	9	10

7.3.7.1 Students' Assessments of Their Mathematics Teachers Using the QTI

The sample group changed their assessments of their mathematics teachers in every category of the QTI between the beginning of the mentoring programme and the conclusion. Each changed assessment was by two or more points. The control group, on the other hand, remained almost constant with changes of assessment being made in just three categories of teacher behaviour.

The sample group scored their mathematics teachers quite differently at the end of the mentoring programme. They lowered their assessment of these teachers' behaviours in the areas of Leadership, Helping/Friendly behaviour, Understanding and in Strict behaviour. They increased their assessments of incidence of their mathematics teachers' Uncertain, Dissatisfied, Admonishing and Responsibility/Freedom behaviours at the end of the mentoring programme.

The control group recorded fewer changes of assessment of their mathematics teachers compared with the sample group. Noticeable changes were made to their assessments of their mathematics teachers regarding Student Responsibility/Freedom, Uncertain and Strict behaviours. The control group considered that incidences of all of these behaviours had increased over the course of the mentoring programme.

7.3.7.2 Students' Assessments of Their Science Teachers Using the QTI

Both the sample group and the control group thought that their teachers' classroom behaviour had changed in about half of the QTI's categories over the course of the mentoring programme. The sample group thought that the Leadership behaviour of their science teachers had increased at the end of the project, however they thought that Understanding behaviour had decreased. They perceived a marked increase in Student Responsibility/Freedom and also an increase in Dissatisfied behaviour. The control group's assessments of their science teachers indicated that they thought that the Leadership, Helping/Friendly, Understanding and Strict behaviours of these teachers had all increased noticeably. They also considered that their science teachers were

displaying less Dissatisfied behaviour at the conclusion of the project.

Both the control group and the sample group thought that there had been a slight increase in the Uncertain behaviour of their science teachers. A slight increase in Admonishing behaviour was noticed by the sample group, and recorded in their responses to the QTI, whereas the control group's responses indicated that they thought Admonishing behaviours had decreased.

7.3.7.3 Students' Assessments Of Their Ideal Teachers Using The QTI

In assessing their Ideal teacher, little change was recorded by either the sample group or the control group over the course of the mentoring programme and this project. The sample group considered that their Ideal teachers' Uncertain and Dissatisfied behaviours had increased, but that these behaviours were still at a low level. The control group thought that their Ideal teachers had increased incidence of Student Responsibility/Freedom and of Helping/Friendly behaviours.

7.3.7.4 The Model For Interpersonal Teacher Behaviour

Fisher, Fraser, Wubbels and Brekelmans (1993) adapted the Leary (1957) model for interpersonal behaviour of teachers in the classroom. They produced a diagram where teacher behaviour was mapped with a Proximity dimension (Cooperation-Opposition) and an Influence dimension (Dominance-Submission). This diagram is divided into eight sections, one section for each of eight possible teacher behaviours. This diagram is a development of figure 5.1 as a description of aspects of each of the behaviours is given in the diagram. This diagram is now reproduced to assist in the understanding of this section.

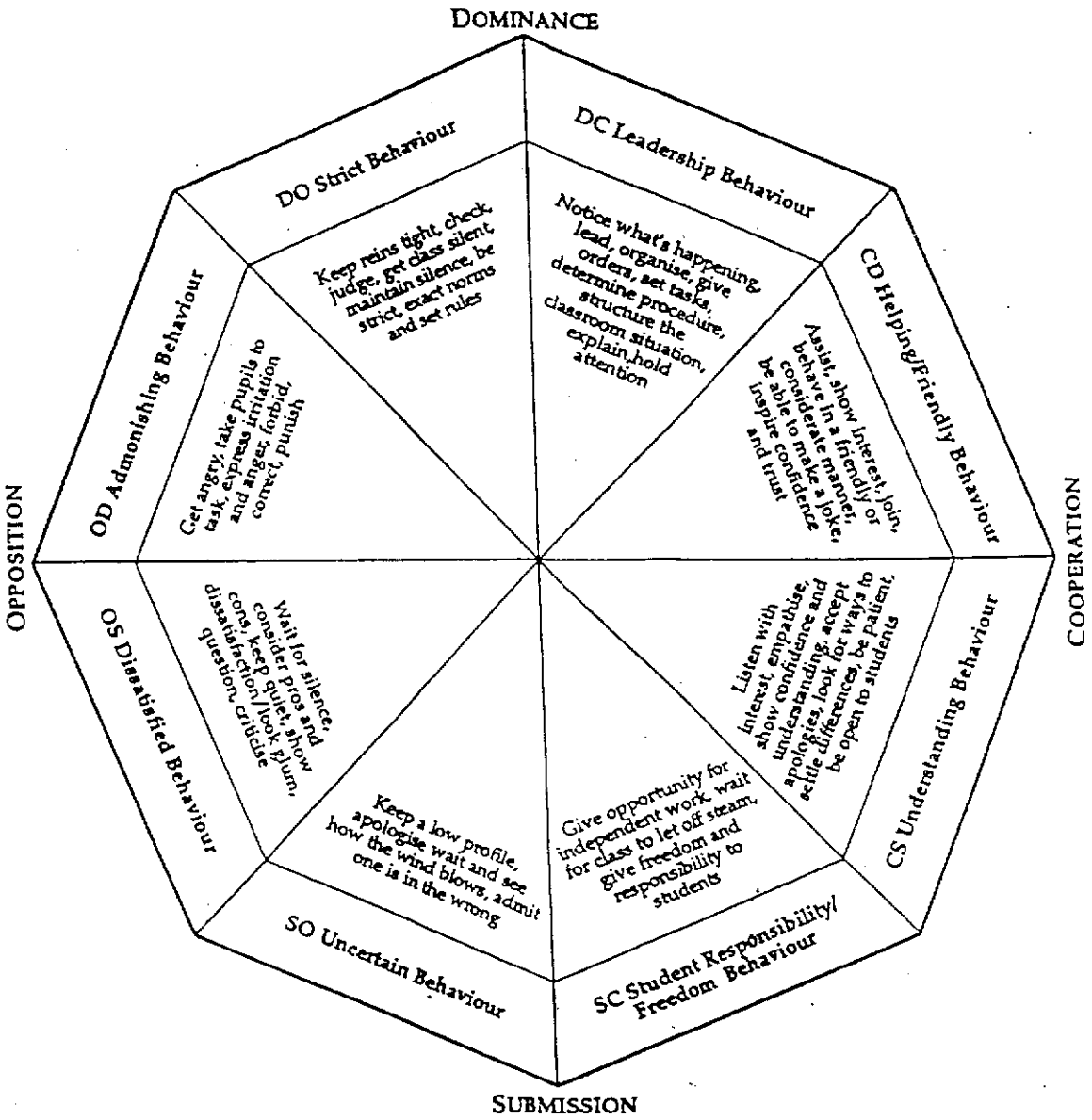

Figure 7.14. The model for interpersonal teacher behaviour.

After using the QTI in this study, and noting the descriptions of teacher behaviour given in the model for interpersonal teacher behaviour (Figures 5.1, 7.14), some similarities were seen between the behaviour categories of the QTI and the kind of behaviours one might expect of a teacher in a particular TA *ego-state*. To demonstrate this point, the model for interpersonal teacher behaviour is now reproduced, with the corresponding TA *ego-states* superimposed adjacent to the appropriate (QTI) teacher behaviour.

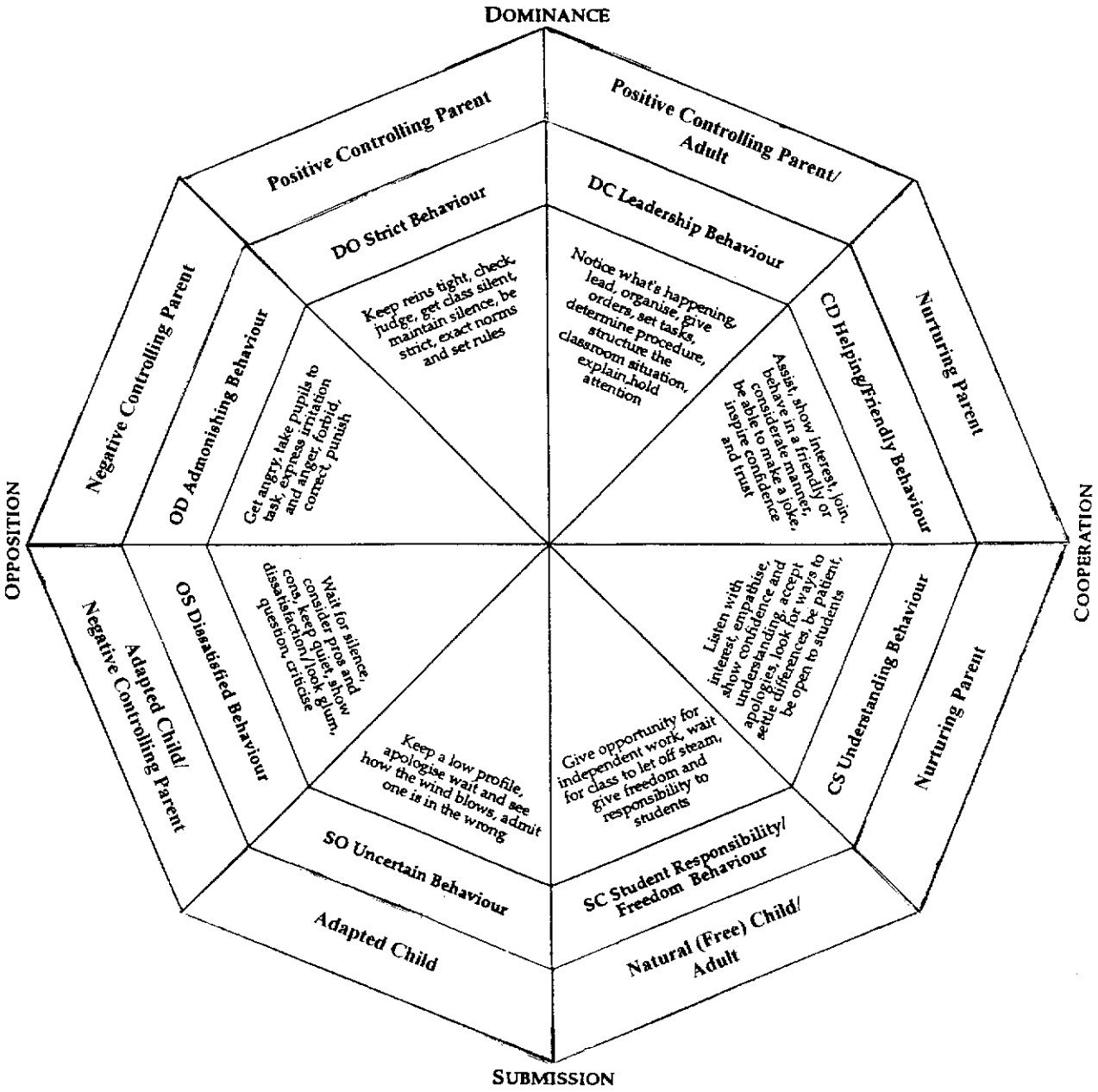

Figure 7.15. The model for interpersonal teacher behaviour with corresponding TA ego-states.

7.3.8 *The Ego-State Questionnaire*

7.3.8.1 Introduction

The Ego-State Questionnaire is an informal survey designed specifically for this study. It sought to give an indication of the dominant *ego-states* in the person completing the questionnaire. It was thought that if the *ego-state* dominance of a person was known,

the person's behaviour could be predicted, and explained.

7.3.8.2 Ego-States

The *ego-states* referred to are those used in TA, i.e. *Controlling Parent, Nurturing Parent, Adult, Natural Child* and *Adapted Child.* The characteristics of these *ego-states* are explained in Chapter 2 (2.3-2.9). A summary is given here:

- *Controlling Parent ego-state* is operating when a person is directing, criticizing or controlling. There are positive and negative aspects to this *ego-state.*

- *Nurturing Parent ego-state* is operating when a person is nurturing, caring or helping. A person in this *ego-state* is more likely to be positive than negative.

- The *Adult ego-state* of a person is the rational, thinking aspect. *Adult* seeks information and makes decisions based on this information. *Adult* operates in the present.

- *Natural (Free) Child ego-state* is operating when a person is showing spontaneous expression. It is a feeling state. While generally positive, *Natural Child* can sometimes be negative.

- *Adapted Child ego-state* is operating when a person is under *Parental* influence. Again, this *ego-state* can have a positive as well as a negative influence.

7.3.8.3 Results of the Ego-State Questionnaire

Figure 7.16 and 7.17 summarize the averaged results of the Ego-State Questionnaire for the sample group and the control group. The Ego-State Questionnaire was only administered to the groups in November as it had not been developed at the start of the mentoring programme. It is nevertheless included as it is thought that it provides useful information on the make up of each of the groups, and gives points of comparison.

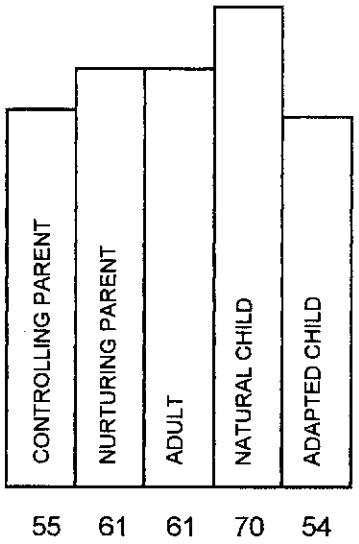

Figure 7.16. Ego-states for the sample group in November in the year of the study.

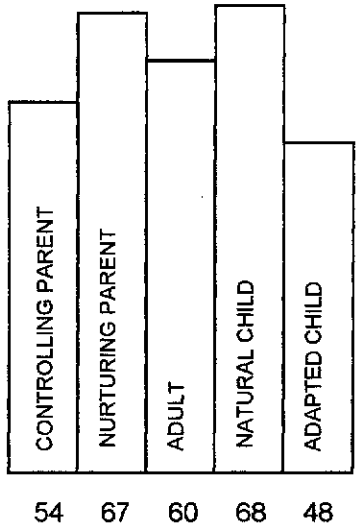

Figure 7.17. Ego-states for the control group in November in the year of the study.

The *ego-states* of *Adult, Natural Child* and *Nurturing Parent* tend to produce more positive behaviours. Sixty four percent of the control group had these *ego-states* in the three highest places as indicated by the Ego-State Questionnaire. Forty percent of the sample group had *Adult, Natural Child* or *Nurturing Parent* in the three highest places. The control group, then, were 60 % higher than the sample group in the more positive *ego-states* of *Adult, Natural Child* and *Nurturing Parent* according to the findings of the Ego-State Questionnaire.

All members of the control group, i.e. 100 %, had *Nurturing Parent* in one of the first two places compared with just 60 % of the sample group. The ranking of the *ego-states* was about the same for both groups.

Nurturing Parent ego-state is quite different for the two groups, with the sample group six points lower than the control group. The sample group also differs from the control group in *Adapted Child ego-state*, being six points lower. This suggests that the more at-risk students in the sample group had less *Nurturing Parent* and more *Adapted Child* than the control group.

Adult ego-state is not dominant in either the sample group or the control group. This is probably a manifestation of the stage of adolescence that these students are at. It is likely that a normal functioning adult would have an *Adult ego-state* in executive control of the other *ego-states*. Adults completing this questionnaire would therefore register higher in *Adult ego-state* than in other *ego-states*. *Adult ego-state* had been promoted for the duration of the mentoring programme with the sample group. It is possible that this is why the sample group registered an *Adult ego-state* at about the same level as the control group.

7.3.9 *Examination Results*

7.3.9.1 Explanatory Note

These examination results do not include all of the students of the two groups. Four of the students in the sample group studied a less academic local Certificate in Mathematics course, while four of the students in the control group were advanced in mathematics and studied a higher level course. In science, two less able students in the sample group withdrew from the Year 11 course. Three students from the control group are not included in the statistics as they studied an advanced course.

The statistics are biased in favour of the sample group to a slight degree, partly for the reasons given above but also because there were more advanced students in the control group that were not counted than there were below average students from the sample group, that were not included. Nevertheless, the comparison is left between the average ability students from both groups.

7.3.9.2 Results

The following sets of results are for two school examinations, and the New Zealand School Certificate (National) examination given at the end of the Year 11 academic year. The mid-year examination was held just prior to the start of the mentoring programme. The end-of-year (November) school examination and the National examination (December) were held at the end of the mentoring programme.

Table 7.8 gives the averaged mathematics results of the students in the study. These results are for seven members of the sample group and eight members of the control group.

Table 7.8
Averaged mathematics results.

	Sample Group	Control Group
Mid year School Examination	54%	45%
End of year School Examination	57%	52%
National Examination	62%	59%

Table 7.9 gives the averaged science results of the students in the study. These results are for eight students from the sample group and nine students from the control group.

Table 7.9
Averaged science results.

	Sample Group	Control Group
Mid year School Examination	41%	35%
End of year School Examination	51%	41%
National Examination	49%	46%

Over the time of the mentoring programme both the sample group and the control group improved in mathematics and science, according to the averaged results of the students taking the regular Year 11 courses. In mathematics, from mid year (July) to the external National examinations (December), the sample group improved their average by eight percent, the control group by 14 percent. Both groups achieved an average that was a pass mark. Six students from each of the groups achieved an actual pass i.e. a mark of 50 % or higher. In science, from mid year (July) to the external National examinations (December), the sample group improved their average by eight percent, the control group by 11 %. Neither of the groups had an average that was a pass mark. Six students in the sample group achieved an actual pass i.e. a mark of 50 % or higher, compared to three students in the control group. Thus, students in the sample group achieved slightly better results than the control group in the external National examination in mathematics and science.

7.4 Students Who Opted Out of the Study

Not all of the students offered a place in the mentoring programme accepted. Six students, who like those in the sample group were identified as being at-risk, declined to take part. These six students were identified in the same way as those in the sample group, and had similarly poor attendance and behaviour records.

The students who opted out of the study had similar family backgrounds to both the sample group and the control group. Their cultural background, however, was different as there were no Europeans in this group of six. There were two Samoans, two Maori, and two Asian students.

At the conclusion of the mentoring programme, two of the six students were no longer at school. One had been suspended and one had run away from home. The remaining four were experiencing difficulties in their relationships at home, and continued to be of concern to the school because of behavioural and attendance problems.

In the year prior to the study, the six students who opted out of the study had received an average number of four detentions. This dropped to an average of three in the year of the study. This number was similar to the average number of detentions for the sample group, but was probably assisted by the two students who were not at school. Academically, this group did nowhere near as well as either the sample group or the control group.

In mathematics, just two of the group were studying the National course, and in the external examination achieved an average of 53 %. The sample group's average was 62 % and the control group's average was 59 %. The rest of the students in this group that opted out of the study, were studying a less academic locally based mathematics course.

In science, five of the six students sat the National examination, the suspended student being allowed back to sit. Their averaged mark was 25 %, compared to 49 % for the sample group and 46 % for the control group. Just one of this group actually passed

science, compared with six in the sample group and three in the control group.

These results are shown in figures 7.18 and 7.19, with those who opted out of the study listed as 'refusers':

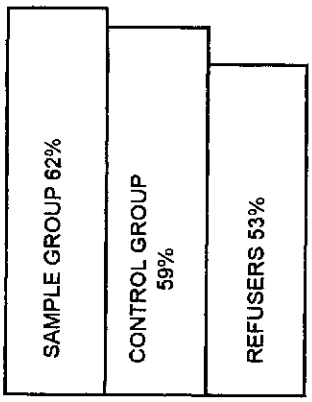

Figure 7.18. School Certificate (National) examination results in mathematics.

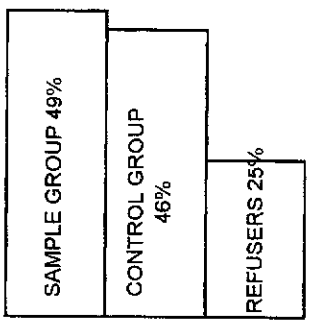

Figure 7.19. School Certificate (National) examination results in science.

7.5 Summary and Conclusions

7.5.1 *Students' Background Prior to Entry to Secondary School*

There was a difference between the sample group and the control group in percentile scores in the pre-entry TOSCA test of thinking abilities. The average score for the sample group was 43.6 compared with the control group's average of 64. According to

this result, the sample group could be classified as being below average in thinking ability and the control group above average. It is possible that the students in the sample group were less intellectually able than the students in the control group and perhaps then developed behaviour problems as a result of not understanding school work, boredom or the need for attention. It is also possible that factors leading to the sample groups' being identified as being at-risk, e.g., poor attendance, teacher-student conflict, family relationship difficulties involving the students and low self esteem, may have been affecting the academic outcomes of these students for some time.

7.5.2 *Attendance*

The survey has identified poor attendance as a factor indicating that a student might be at-risk. The attendance of the control group was much better than the attendance of the sample group both immediately prior to and during the study.

7.5.3 *Behaviour*

The behaviour records show that the classroom and school behaviour of the sample group was eight times worse than the control group at the start of the study and six times worse at the end. This demonstrates that the students selected for the sample group did have behaviour problems. It suggests that a mentoring programme using TA can have a positive effect on at-risk students since the behaviour of the sample group improved by 25 %.

7.5.4 *Self Esteem*

The mentoring programme appeared to be a factor in raising the self esteem of the sample group. While the self esteem of the sample group did not increase by the same amount as that of the control group, the fact that it did increase is important. It might have been expected that the self esteem of the sample group would fall as the academic year progressed. The rise in the 'Home' subsection of the Coopersmith Self Esteem Inventory for the sample group suggests that their skills in relating improved. It is likely that their knowledge of TA played a part in this improvement. The sub-group of

the sample group, who had taken part in the TA support group in the year prior to the study, made substantial progress in terms of raising their self esteem. This suggests that to make a substantial positive impact on the self esteem and behaviour of at-risk students, involvement with them may need at least two years.

7.5.5 *Student Problems*

The Mooney Problem Checklist was used to measure the number of problems the students saw themselves as having. The Mooney Problem Checklist was completed by the students of the sample group and the control group both before and after the mentoring programme. The sample group's number of perceived problems dropped by 18 from 56 to 38 perceived problems. The control group's number of perceived problems remained the same, on 34. It may be deduced then, that the mentoring programme, undertaken only by the sample group, had an effect on the way they comprehended their difficulties and/or on the way they were able to solve their problems. For students left to their own devices, i.e., the control group, perceived problems may remain the same. The sample group's perceived problems dropped to about the same level as that of the control group by the time the mentoring programme ended.

7.5.6 *QTI*

The QTI revealed that for both the sample group and the control group, ideas of what constituted an Ideal teacher were similar. Both groups rated their Ideal teacher highly on Leadership, Helping/Friendly and Understanding behaviour. Both groups rated their Ideal teacher as being low in Uncertain, Dissatisfied and Admonishing behaviour. In considering their mathematics and science teachers, the control group tended to rate their teachers in a similar way to their Ideal teacher, but with lower ratings. The sample group's assessments of their mathematics and science teachers over the eight teacher behaviours were closer together i.e. there was not much variation in the ratings of the behaviours whether they were positive or negative. The sample group rated the more negative behaviours of their mathematics and science teachers higher than the control group did. This may be because the classroom behaviour of the sample group

attracted more negative attention by teachers than did the classroom behaviour of the control group.

For both groups, Ideal teachers were rated in a similar way at both assessment times. Using a criterion of a change of three or more points as being significant, there were changes to the way in which both groups rated their mathematics and science teachers over the six month period of the study. The sample group changed their assessments of their mathematics teachers to a marked degree. They thought that Leadership and Understanding behaviour had decreased, and that Student Responsibility/Freedom, Uncertain, Dissatisfied and Admonishing behaviours had increased. The control group only changed their assessment of their mathematics teachers' Student Responsibility/Freedom behaviour, considering that it had increased.

The degree of change noticed in the assessment by students of their mathematics teachers was not so marked in the assessment of science teachers and Ideal teachers. Mathematics requires good *Adult ego-state* and tends to be abstract, whereas science is about the real world. It is possible that for the sample group their somewhat turbulent lives and their fluctuating emotions were reflected in changes in concentration, thinking and behaving, and that this in turn had an effect on their relationships with their mathematics teachers. Although the sample group did reasonably well in the external mathematics examination at the end of the year and had a higher average than the control group, (62 % compared with 59 %), it is thought that they were an intelligent group with the potential to do even better given more stable circumstances. The mentoring programme undoubtedly kept the sample group on track in spite of the group perceiving increasing negativity in their mathematics teachers.

Similarities between the teacher behaviours measured by the QTI and with behaviours one would expect from teachers in the various TA *ego-states* were noticed. This observation is shown diagrammatically (figure 7.15) in a modification of the Fisher, Fraser, Wubbels and Brekelmans (1993) model.

7.5.7 *Ego-States*

The Ego-State Questionnaire was specially developed for this study. It showed that there was a lower amount of *Nurturing Parent ego-state* qualities in the at-risk students in the sample group. If this finding can be more firmly established, educators and others working with at-risk young people need to find ways to address this imbalance (see Appendix 7 for a list of activities that could be used with High School students to raise *Positive Nurturing Parent ego-state*). Raising the *Nurturing Parent ego-state* qualities of at-risk young people could lead to them taking better care of themselves, as well as of other people. Ways of reducing the negative influence of *Adapted Child ego-state* behaviours such as rebelliousness and apathy also need to be found. If students, especially those at-risk, were analyzed for the *ego-state* balance, and programmes designed to address any imbalance, it is thought that both their academic and their social-emotional development could be enhanced. Classroom behaviour and student-teacher relationships would also be more positive.

7.5.8 *Examination Results*

The examination results of the sample group were very good, especially in the end-of-year National examinations. Normally, it could be reasonably expected that the performance of at-risk students would drop away as the end-of-year National examinations approached. The mentoring programme has played a part in keeping the sample group on task, encouraging them and leading to examination success for many of them.

7.5.9 *Conclusion*

TA was a most useful part of the mentoring programme, enabling the at-risk students in the sample group to both express their feelings (*Natural Child*) to consider ways of solving their problems (*Adult*) and to change their behaviours so that they were in less conflict (*Nurturing Parent*). TA was found to be simple to use and easy for the students to understand. Development of the *Adult ego-state* during the mentoring sessions was seen to help the students to focus on the here and now realities of their

lives. It is thought that this development of *Adult* was of particular benefit to the study of subjects such as mathematics and science where logical thinking is important. The school curriculum does not do enough to encourage *Natural Child* and it is recommended that more ways need to be found to make learning fun. That the students who opted out of the mentoring programme did not fare well academically could be seen as further evidence that the mentoring programme using TA worked for the sample group in a positive way.

Examining the results of a programme that used TA to foster positive outcomes in the classroom leads on to ways of using TA in other areas of the school. The next chapter considers other applications of TA in schools.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION

8.1 Introduction

This is the concluding chapter to the study. A summary of each of the chapters is given and the key points from each chapter are listed at the end of each summary. Next, a synthesis revisits the research questions and addresses them in light of the study. This is followed by an overview of the study, then a summary of the findings and results. Some limitations of the study are then given. Following this, a section on implications for action and research examines the questions 'Where does this study fit in?', 'What do educators need to do to take advantage of this study?' and 'What needs to be done next?' This last question enables implications for research to be detailed, followed by suggested guidelines for the use of TA in schools. The last word for the chapter, and the thesis, is given in the Denouement.

8.2 Chapter 1: Introduction

The first chapter outlined the idea that gave rise to this study, that the theory and methods of TA could be beneficial to educators. The vision was for a win-win situation, with gains for both students and teachers. In the short term, these gains would be that all of the students in the classroom would have a co-operative learning environment, and there would be less friction and improved academic and behavioural outcomes for the difficult and at-risk students. In the longer term, it was thought that the personal and academic gains made by both students and teachers would have a positive effect that would have future gains.

Chapter 1 suggested a need to change the way in which schools approached behaviour management (see 1.3). This study offers an alternative management method worth consideration, both for the majority of normal functioning students, and for those students who are troublesome in the classroom. In a world of increasing disenchantment for young people, it was thought that teachers with a knowledge of TA could provide the inspiration to change what might otherwise be a limited life into one in which people can be creative and curious; interested in learning; positive, spontaneous and aware.

Chapter 1 gave an introduction to some of the terms found in TA, and provided an overview of the thesis.

8.2.1 *Key points*

a) The benefits of TA seen in counselling may be of benefit in education.
b) If TA can be shown to benefit at-risk young people, it could be taught to teachers and used to make classrooms more positive.
c) When behavioural difficulties are overcome, academic gains may be more likely.

8.3 Chapter 2: Basic Concepts of Transactional Analysis

This second chapter explained what TA is and gave an outline of the basic concepts used in TA. An alphabetical list of these concepts is given at the end of the chapter (p. 28).

The opening section (2.2) gave a definition of TA followed by an outline of the history and development of TA. An outline was given of the various applications of TA and the main beliefs behind the theory were summarized. It was maintained that TA had not been greatly used in schools to date and that it has great potential in the educational area. The purpose of this chapter was to give the reader enough background of TA to facilitate an understanding of this study.

8.3.1 *Key point*

a) TA has not been greatly used in schools to date, yet has great potential in this area.

8.4 Chapter 3: Literature Review

The third chapter was the literature review. In its introduction (3.1), the view was expressed that a vital element in the education of young people is the personality of the teacher. TA offers teachers both a method to use to enhance classroom performance and interaction and a way to enhance teachers' personal lives. The literature demonstrates this and the chapter is divided into seven sections each with a different theme.

After the introduction, section 3.2 reviewed TA and Interpersonal Behaviour. The literature shows that interactional sequences can depend on input from both teachers and students, that students can act-out in an attempt to gain teachers' attention and that teachers are able to exert some control over interaction. Some of the literature reviewed showed the positive outcomes that can result from good teacher-student interaction and revealed that interaction is dependent on input from both teachers and students. Much of the literature reviewed in this section was most encouraging for teachers, and for those involved in teacher training. It showed that with knowledge and training teachers can influence classroom interaction in a positive way. Some literature supported the view that positive outcomes can result from classroom interactions, and highlighted the importance of teachers' interpersonal skills. While all parties influence classroom interaction, the literature supports the view that the teacher is a major player with great potential to make the interaction positive.

A section of Chapter 3 (3.3) was devoted to literature pertaining to student outcomes. Outcomes were in student and teacher behaviour, classroom climate, relating both to specific subjects and general outcomes.

Considering student behaviour, Wilson and Shulha (1995) found that students with conforming behaviour produced high academic results. Wubbels, Brekelmans, and Hooymayers (1991) studied teacher behaviour and found that 'strict', 'leadership', and 'friendly' behaviours were positively related to student cognitive outcomes. 'Uncertain', 'student responsibility and freedom' and 'dissatisfied' behaviours were negatively related to cognitive outcomes. These results were supported by the findings of this study with the results of several of the participants (see 7.2.1, 7.2.2, 7.2.4, 7.2.6, 7.2.8). It may be concluded that teacher behaviour has a significant effect on student behaviour and as a consequence on academic outcomes.

It seems that the more acknowledgment, recognition, affirmation and praise that students' received for being themselves, for their behaviour, their effort and their achievements the more likely it is that these aspects and behaviours will be repeated. There are often elaborate discipline systems within schools but they tend to note and punish negative behaviours while rewards are given out sparingly and only to a few.

A positive classroom climate is an outcome of both student and teacher behaviour. If it is accepted that teacher behaviour is a major determinant of student behaviour, then teacher behaviour may be seen as a key factor in the promotion of a positive classroom climate. Students paid attention more in co-operative classrooms and were more motivated to learn and achieve.

Some of the literature related to outcomes concerning school subjects. More attention needs to be given to students' subject selection, so that there is greater compatibility between students and the subjects they choose. Further, as students move through their education, they become more selective and specialized. While some career paths and future choices open, some close. Subject selection can, in the end, affect one's life path.

The teaching of particular subjects was the subject of some of the literature reviewed. Wolff (1992) found that science teaching deteriorated when teachers were influenced by a desire for peace and quiet. Wolfendale (1992) found that mathematics teaching was downgraded by teachers who picked out the more interesting areas to teach. It

seems that Heads of Departments need to be given sufficient time to be able to supervise and mentor staff, and to keep an eye on what is going on in the classroom both behaviour-wise and content-wise.

Other literature reviewed concerning outcomes was of a general nature. It implied that it is vital to retain adequate resourcing of guidance and counselling initiatives in the secondary school so that young people have the opportunity to resolve these psychological issues that might otherwise hinder their academic progress as well as outcomes in other areas. For many, adolescence is the last chance to make life-enhancing attitudinal changes. Further, it is important that teachers with personal difficulties that have an adverse effect on the outcomes of students are identified early. Such teachers could then be helped by the appropriate professional, and there is a real need for improved support for teachers. Some, in the end, would be better to seek another career.

The next section of Chapter 3 (3.4) reviewed literature relating to the use of TA in schools. The literature here showed the advantages to students and teachers of a knowledge of TA. There are implications here for teacher selection processes. It may be possible to decide which *ego-state* dominance was desirable in a teacher, construct a test to assess *ego-state* dominance and select teacher trainees accordingly.

Section 3.5 reviewed literature relating to TA as a positive behaviour strategy. Some literature suggested that people who receive an abundance of positive *strokes* sought positive activities and relationships, but it was disturbing to learn that more negative than positive *strokes* were observed in teacher-pupil transactions. Literature emphasised the importance of reinforcing positive behaviour and of maintaining it with rewards. More needs to be done, especially in secondary schools, to find ways to give positive *strokes* on a day-to-day basis. Literature suggested that the positive messages given to students in the classroom can have a spill-over effect, helping students to feel good about themselves outside of school.

The next section, 3.6, outlined studies of TA and at-risk youth. Schools need to promote the use of *Adult* and *Nurturing Parent ego-states* in teachers to be able to

bring out the best in at-risk, and indeed all, young people. TA is a way to enhance social and communication skills. Some writers believe that teachers may be the only mental health worker that many students will know, and in today's climate of economic cut-backs, this puts another burden on the education system. It emphasises the importance of all school staff to students, and to those at-risk in particular. As at-risk young people tend to collect negative *strokes* from teachers, this tendency in teachers needs to be further researched, and if it is verified it needs to be addressed. Studies showed that TA methods can improve the academic results of students who had previously been achieving below their potential, and when a teacher increased his/her use of *Nurturing Parent ego-state* and *Natural Child ego-state*, oppositional behaviour in disruptive students declined.

Section 3.7 was a summary of studies of TA that could be used by teachers of science and mathematics, the extent of its usefulness being dependent on the teachers' understanding of TA and TA *ego-states*. Mukhopadhyay and Saxena (1981) put forward the view that teachers could relate to and teach students better when the teachers adopted appropriate *ego-states*. Other studies suggested that the use of *Adult ego-state* by teachers could reduce stress by helping with the management of difficult students, that leading scientists had been encouraged in school by positive teachers, and that teachers with an *I'm OK - You're OK life position* were most likely to get on with students and with other teachers and to feel satisfied with teaching.

8.4.1 *Key points*

a) Both teacher and student input influence the outcomes of classroom interaction, with positive input leading to positive outcomes.

b) Teacher behaviour affects student behaviour, student behaviour affects teacher behaviour.

c) The teacher is a major player in the classroom and needs the interpersonal skills to use this position positively.

d) Students in co-operative classrooms pay attention and are motivated to learn.

e) There is a relationship between a student's personality type and subjects chosen.

f) Science and mathematics teaching suffer in disruptive classrooms. Teachers teach what they see as the interesting parts of the course and leave other parts out.

g) Positive behaviour should be *stroked* (rewarded). When positive *strokes* increase, on-task behaviour increases.

h) Positive messages to students have an effect beyond the classroom.

i) Teachers with an *I'm OK - You're OK life position* are likely to both teach and relate well.

j) At-risk youth need to learn social skills and communication skills.

k) Schools and teachers benefit when they operate from an appropriate *ego-state.*

l) For students to achieve to their potential, self esteem needs to be built.

m) Good teachers are friendly, co-operative, understanding and in charge.

n) Teachers may be the only mental health workers some students will ever know.

8.5 Chapter 4: Previous Research and Studies Using Transactional Analysis

Chapter 4 examined previous research and studies using TA that was relevant to this study. The chapter separated out the research into five sections.

In the first section (4.2), research projects were outlined that related to students and self esteem. Projects reviewed showed that self esteem can be enhanced when TA methods are used. The projects involved a range of students from primary school students through to tertiary students. Mainstream and learning-disabled students were investigated. A direct relationship was found between students' eagerness to learn and those students having a healthy *Child ego-state.*

The next section, 4.3, contained summaries of projects concerning teacher classroom behaviour. Studies found that TA methods led to effective classroom discipline.

The third section, 4.4, was a summary of projects studying teacher-student interaction. It was concluded that teachers with an *I'm OK, You're OK life position* were most likely to get on with students and with other teachers. Further, teachers with a knowledge of TA were thought to be likely to promote positive behaviour in students.

In section 4.5 teacher training was considered. Myrow (1977) thought that the addition of interpersonal development methods such as TA would add depth to teacher training. He highlighted the concern that is still true today that much of the training given to teachers concentrates on programme delivery and classroom management. More needs to be done to develop interpersonal skills, and TA would be ideal.

The final section, 4.6, presented other projects and studies that used TA. It was found that TA had positive benefits for primary school students and learning-disabled students.

The summary to Chapter 4 ties these five sections together and concludes that compared with other behaviour modification methods, TA has the advantage of working with classroom conflicts and relationships in the present. Teachers with knowledge of TA have the potential to be powerful role models in the promotion of positive behaviour, of how to resolve conflicts, and how to foster a harmonious working environment. Such positive role modelling may influence students both in the classroom and beyond.

8.5.1 *Key points*

a) Students' self esteem can be enhanced when TA methods are used by the teacher.
b) The *Child ego-state* encourages an eagerness to learn.
c) Teachers using TA methods can minimise classroom disruption, promote positive behaviour and relate to and teach students more effectively.
d) TA empowers teachers, enabling them to handle discipline matters themselves.
e) There is a causal relationship between teacher behaviour and student behaviour.
f) Teachers with an *I'm OK, You're OK life position* are most likely to get on with students and colleagues.
g) Trainee teachers can benefit from learning TA.
h) Teachers using TA methods can be powerful role models.

8.6 Chapter 5: Outline of the Study

Chapter 5 gave an outline of this study. It set out the objectives and context of the study, and described the method used. A summary was given of the TA101 course that was run for teachers and an outline was given of the TA support groups that were run for students. The mentoring programme, the basis of this study, was then described followed by a section on the selection of the sample and control groups. Next was a description of the evaluative instruments. The mentoring programme became the source of data for this study, however it is thought that further research could be done on the use of support groups for at-risk students, using TA. Members of the original support groups benefitted from them. They formed lasting friendships with other group members and maintained positive relationships with the group leaders for their remaining years at school.

8.6.1 *Key point*

a) There is scope for further research into group work with at-risk young people, using TA.

8.7 Chapter 6: Case Studies

This chapter contained the Case Studies of the ten students who took part in the mentoring programme. The progress of each of these students in the mentoring programme was summarized.

That the mentoring programme worked especially well for students who had been in the previous year's TA oriented support groups indicated that it can take time to build up the trust needed with at-risk youth to enable constructive work to be done. It seems that about 18 months is needed. The mentoring programme itself showed that at-risk young people can change, and that positive change such as increased self esteem can lead to academic success. TA was found to be an effective method to carry out this work.

8.7.1 *Key points*

a) The use of TA during mentoring led to an increase in the use of *Adult ego-state* by the participants.

b) Improved *Adult ego-state* led to improved classroom behaviour and to academic success especially in science and mathematics.

c) The worst behavioural incident, leading to suspension from school, involved a student with low *Adult ego-state*.

d) Learning about TA helped the students at a personal level in such areas as improved relationships at home.

e) The mentoring programme using TA led to improved behavioural and attendance records, and to a drop in perceived problems for most of the participants.

f) There was a correlation between academic success of a student and that student rating the teacher positively on the QTI.

g) Clear, simple and realistic contracts worked best.

8.8 Chapter 7: Survey Findings

Chapter 7 gave a summary of the outcomes for each of the sample group. This was followed by a comparison of the outcomes of the sample group with the outcomes of the control group with the data combined for each group. The results of the two groups were averaged for comparison purposes.

There was little difference between the two groups in age, or in family, cultural or ethnic background. There were, however, differences in educational background, with the control group being superior to the sample group in academic results at entry to secondary school. The control group had superior ratings in mathematics and science and a higher average TOSCA rating.

In terms of attendance, the control group had a better record than the sample group. During the time of the mentoring programme, the attendance of the sample group did

improve, but so did the attendance of the control group. The control group had one quarter of the absences that the sample group had during the mentoring programme.

Behavioural records showed a trend similar to that of attendance. While the behavioural records did improve for the sample group in the year of the mentoring programme, on average they had five times the number of detentions of the control group.

Self esteem rose for both the sample group and the control group. Both groups had similar percentile scores at the end of the mentoring programme. It could have been expected that the control group's self esteem would improve and it was satisfying that the sample group improved also.

The Mooney Problem Checklist indicated a higher level of perceived problems amongst members of the sample group at the start of the mentoring programme compared with the control group. The control group remained constant in their perceived problem total throughout the mentoring programme, while the sample group started the programme with a perceived problem total about 50% higher than the control group. Both groups were about the same at the end of the programme. The main areas of reduction of problems for the sample group were 'Home and Family' and 'Personal Growth', which indicated that they had learnt better ways to relate during the course of the mentoring programme. It seems that TA methods were a significant factor in the sample group members' developed ability to both relate better to others and to understand themselves.

The QTI was used to assess the students' mathematics, science, and Ideal teachers. First, considering teachers of mathematics, the sample group indicated a perception that their teachers' positive behaviours lessened and that the negative behaviours of these teachers increased over the course of the mentoring programme. The control group indicated that they perceived little change in the behaviour of their mathematics teachers between the start and the end of the mentoring programme.

Secondly, in assessing the behaviour of their science teachers using the QTI, a noticeable difference of opinion was found between the sample group and the control group. The sample group thought that, over the course of the mentoring programme, the 'Understanding' behaviour of their science teachers had decreased, whereas the control group thought that the 'Understanding' behaviour of their science teachers had increased. The control group's view of their science teachers was generally more constant and positive than the sample group's perceptions.

Thirdly, in assessing the behaviours of their Ideal teachers using the QTI, little change was recorded by either the sample group or the control group over the course or the mentoring programme.

The Ego-State Questionnaire was designed for the purposes of this study to assess the *ego-state* dominance in participants. Differences between the sample group and the control group were revealed by the questionnaire. The sample group were higher in *Adapted Child* responses and lower in *Nurturing Parent* responses than the control group.

Examination results in science and mathematics for the sample group and the control group were averaged out and compared. In the New Zealand National Examination, School Certificate, there was little difference between the two groups. That the members of the sample group kept up with the control group and scored a slightly higher average mark is likely to be a result of the mentoring programme, and showed the benefit that can accrue when TA is used with at-risk young people. It is thought that the emphasis on the use of *Adult ego-state* enabled sample group members to focus on their school work and helped them to enhance their lives outside of the classroom.

The at-risk students who chose to opt out of the study fared worse than those who took part in the mentoring programme, both in terms of academic achievement and in terms of their behaviour records.

Some generalizations can be made about the at-risk students in the sample group. These generalizations can be seen as distinguishing features of at-risk students, and are

given as part of the key points arising from the comparison of the sample group with the control group (8.8.2). First, the main points regarding the sample group taken from a consideration of them as individuals is given.

8.8.1 *Key points regarding students in the sample group*

a) Students had little conflict with teachers they rated positively using the QTI.

b) Students did have conflict with or felt negative towards teachers they rated negatively using the QTI.

c) A student's effort in a subject can depend on how the student feels towards the teacher of that subject.

d) Emotional reaction of a student to a teacher influences the student's effort in the teacher's subject, and, consequently, that student's achievement.

e) The positive aspects of all *ego-states* need to be developed in at-risk students.

f) TA has the potential to help at-risk young people in many ways as its *ego-state* theory takes into account the various parts of the young peoples' personalities.

g) Students in this study benefitted from the development of their *Adult ego-states.* More needs to be done to explore ways of developing other *ego-states*, e.g., *Positive Nurturing Parent, Positive Natural Child.*

h) At-risk young people need to have a stronger *Nurturing Parent ego-state* (see generalization vii, Chapter 8.8).

i) Most benefit from the mentoring programme was gained by the more able students.

j) Most of the sample group had increased self esteem at the conclusion of the mentoring programme. The degree of influence of the possible factors, e.g., the nature of the mentoring programme, TA, decreased perceived problems, increased academic success, could be researched further.

k) At-risk students were changeable in their classroom behaviour, and behaved differently for different teachers. This seemed to relate to how particular teachers were rated using the QTI.

l) Clear contracts are important when working with at-risk young people. Contracts also need to be realistic.

m) It took time to build up a working relationship with some at-risk students; 12-18 months seems ideal.

n) A combination of group work and individual work seemed to be needed with at-risk young people.

o) With less able at-risk young people, their at-risk status can be lessened by the systematic development of their *Adult ego-state*, e.g., teaching problem solving skills.

p) Emotional stability needs to be established before at-risk students are able to reach their academic potential.

q) The ten students in the sample group fared better in a number of areas than might otherwise have been expected.

8.8.2 *Key points arising from the comparison of the sample group with the control group*

a) The sample group were behind the control group academically at entry to secondary school.

b) Both attendance and behaviour records were worse for the sample group compared to the control group both before and during the study, though the sample group did improve.

c) Self-esteem was low for the sample group at the start of the mentoring programme, compared with the control group. It had improved by the end of the programme.

d) Perceived problems remained static for the control group but dropped significantly for the sample group during the course of the mentoring programme. It seems that at-risk young people see themselves as troubled, and that TA can be proactive, both helping to improve self-image and providing a usable method of problem solving.

e) The sample group rated teachers more negatively than the control group. It seems that it was difficult for this group of at-risk young people to maintain positive relationships with their teachers over time. Worse negative effects may have been avoided for the sample group through opportunities provided during the mentoring programme for them to vent their feelings.

f) The sample group has higher *Adapted Child ego-state* characteristics and lower *Nurturing Parent ego-state* characteristics than the control group.

g) Academic results were similar for both groups. The sample group were encouraged to develop and use their *Adult ego-states*. This is seen as a significant factor in determining their results.

h) Sound academic results can be achieved by at-risk young people when they are encouraged to think, and are also supported at the emotional level.

8.9 Synthesis

This study was born of the need for educators to know what could enhance both the learning and the personal growth of students. It was thought (see 1.2) that it made sense if the personal growth needs of students were catered for and the resulting benefits could lead to academic gains. It is believed that the gains made by the sample group (see Chapter 7) both as individuals and as a whole show that personal growth and learning were enhanced. The study set out to test the usefulness of TA to schools and to see whether the positive outcomes that TA had produced in other fields could be produced in education. As TA was the method used with the sample group, it has been shown that TA has a place among education's psychology theories. The study has achieved the aims (see 1.3) of bringing about positive changes in a group of at-risk students and has produced a number of ideas that teachers can use to promote positive behaviour in the classroom. Each of the Research Questions (see 1.7) will now be discussed in light of the completed study:

8.9.1 *To what extent was the theory and practice of TA of use to schools?*

It was found that a number of studies had been carried out using TA in schools. These were presented in detail (see Chapter 4) and were summarized in this chapter (see 8.5), and the Key Points given (see 8.5.1). It has been shown that TA does have wide application in schools and has been used effectively to raise self esteem, to bring about positive behavioural change, to provide trainee teachers and practising teachers with a method to promote positive behaviour, and to assert legitimate control in classrooms.

TA also can be used across a range of student types, and studies showed its usefulness with primary and secondary students, in 'normal' situations and with disruptive and learning-disabled students. So the extent or scope of TA's applicability is wide, however none of the studies gave details as to how many schools use, or have used, TA. It is suggested that there is enough evidence to show that TA has the potential to be of enormous benefit to schools but more needs to be done to convince the relevant authorities.

8.9.2 *Could TA be used as part of a school's strategy to promote positive behaviour?*

There was enough evidence (see 4.2, 4.3) to support the use of TA as a positive behaviour strategy. The studies focussed on the classroom rather than the school, so if TA is effective in the parts of a school it can be effective in the whole school. The early work that has been done, e.g., Ford (1984), Wolfgang and Glickman (1986), Mukhopadhyay and Saxena (1981), and Santa Rita (1993) combined together could form the basis of a theoretical document that could be trialled in a school. The drawback to the use of TA as a total school strategy is that it takes time to teach teachers the basic theory. The TA101 course run for teachers in this study took about 20 hours and needed to be run 'after hours' to cut costs. Consequently, less than ten per cent of the staff took part. TA could be used as part of a school's strategy to promote positive student behaviour. Such a school could have the positive results produced by the individual classroom studies cited above. It would be an exciting project to promote but two major obstacles would need to be overcome: first, finding a willing school and second, convincing educational authorities to adequately fund such a project. A step along the way to having a school use TA as part of its positive behaviour strategy would be to provide greater incentives for teachers to study TA. If TA101 was made a credit towards a teaching qualification, or if TA was taught at university level and credited towards existing degrees, it might motivate and encourage a wider application of TA in schools. With TA's ability to bring out the positive aspects in people, any school using TA as part of its strategy to promote positive behaviour would be a school in which teachers were proactive not only in their

promotion of positive behaviour but in the creative learning environment that would ensue.

8.9.3 *Could TA methods have a significant effect in changing the attitudes of 'at-risk' youth?*

One of the main values of TA as a tool to help the communication of and with at-risk young people is that it is 'straight'. Many 'at-risk' young people have developed over their early years ways of avoiding clear and open communication. They play (TA) *games* ranging from disruptive to withdrawn with the end result being a lack of contact, especially honest emotional contact. Ford (1984) thought that one of the main values of TA was its ability to stop verbal *game*-playing in the classroom (see 4.2). Santa Rita's (1993) work in producing a guidebook for teachers provides ways of avoiding classroom *games*. Whatever strategy develops, 'straight' communication will have a significant effect on changing the attitudes of at-risk youth as it will upset their equilibrium. TA promotes 'straight' communication. That TA methods have a significant effect in changing the attitudes of 'at-risk' young people has been shown in this study. Group work was effective in the initial stages when a support group using TA was run for 'at-risk' students in the year prior to the study (see 5.6). TA was originally established as a group method. This, coupled with the social nature of teenagers meant that the TA support group worked well. TA group work provided an opportunity for group members to grow emotionally. Part of this education of the emotions was both incidental and vicarious, and arose from being the member of a group where emotionally-charged issues were shared. Part of the emotional growth was planned and exercises were organised to, for example, teach about TA and *ego-states*, learn about maintaining *Adult* in an argument, and to expand one's emotional vocabulary (see Appendix 5). The group members became more emotionally mature and began to develop what could be termed 'emotional courage' i.e., an ability to confront problematic aspects of themselves and of themselves with significant others.

The attitudes of the 'at-risk' young people in this study also changed during the time of the mentoring programme, where TA was used extensively. These changes are revealed in the Case Studies of the students involved (see 6.2 to 6.11). Both Arran and

Jack developed the ability to think through their difficulties. Rather than previous avoidance behaviours, they developed a more determined attitude. Barry, Danny, Eugene, Fred, Gary, and Henry ended the year with positive attitudes to school and to study. Danny and Eugene were also much more settled. TA helped Gary to adopt a less egocentric attitude at home, and this choice resulted in his improved communication. Chris became more trusting of himself and others. Ian was the only one not to have significantly changed in attitude, as his suspension for much of the programme prohibited involvement. He did, however, remain with the programme on his return, and seemed to have gained some insights that could help him in the future. To sum up, there was evidence of some positive attitudinal change in all of the 'at-risk' young people involved in this study.

8.9.4 *Did changing the attitudes of 'at-risk' youth have a bearing on their progress in science and mathematics, their behaviour and their self image?*

Changing the attitudes of the 'at-risk' youth in this study was a key factor in bringing about other changes. The change in attitude was brought about in a mentoring programme that had an emphasis on TA methods (see 8.9.3). This section considers other specific areas of change.

The first area of change to be considered was progress in science and mathematics. In science, the at-risk group of students known as the sample group, improved their science marks by an average of eight percent. At the mid-year examination, which was the start of the mentoring programme, the sample group average in science was 41%. In the end of year National Examination (New Zealand School Certificate), their average was 49% (see 7.3.9.2). Two students in the sample group did not sit the final examination as personal circumstances led to their withdrawal from the course. All of the other students' marks improved over the course of the mentoring programme ranging from four to 22%. Of the eight students in the sample group who sat the science examination at the end of the year, five passed. The range of marks was from ten to 76%.

In mathematics, the sample group improved their marks by an average of eight percent over the course of the mentoring programme. Their mid year examination average was 54% and in the end of year National Examination their average mark was 62%. The marks for all of the students studying for the National Examination improved over the course of the mentoring programme ranging from three to 20%. Of the six students who sat the National Examination, five passed. The remaining four students in the sample group studied the less academic local Applied Mathematics course. Three of these students completed the course requirements and passed the course, one did not complete the course requirements because of a lengthy suspension from school.

To summarize, all of the students who ended up sitting the end of year examinations improved their scores. The average of this improvement over science and mathematics was 12%, so it could be said that the mentoring programme was responsible for a 12% improvement in the science and mathematics results of these at-risk students. However, students in general do usually improve their marks as an external examination acts as motivation to greater effort. With at-risk students, it is also possible that, due to their volatility and poor self esteem, they might equally well give up, and return lower marks. It is thought that the mentoring programme and the change in attitude that it brought about helped counter such negative outcomes.

The students in the control group sat a similar number of external science and mathematics examinations as the sample group. The average improvement between the mid-year and National Examinations for the control group in both science and mathematics was four percent. When this figure is compared with the average improvement of the sample group it can be seen that the sample group made a much greater improvement in science and mathematics when compared with the control group. Further, the sample group was more likely to have been erratic as the external National Examinations approached, yet all of them improved. Not only was the improvement less with the control group, four sets of marks actually dropped between July and the end of year by an average of 7.5%. It seems reasonable to conclude that the sample group were supported by the mentoring programme and by their attitudinal change brought about by the use of TA.

The next area of change to be considered is change in behaviour. The survey findings (see 7.3.4) revealed an improvement in the classroom behaviour for the sample group in the year of the study. On average, the members of the sample group received 1.3 fewer detentions in the year of the study, an improvement of 25%. This suggests that changing the attitudes of at-risk youth can have a positive effect on their classroom behaviour.

The final area of change to be considered in this section is change in self-image. Self esteem increased for the sample group in all areas measured by the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory during the study (see 7.3.5). The areas measured included 'General', 'Social', 'Home', and 'School'. The overall percentile score rose from 70.4 to 72.8 during the mentoring programme. While the control group's percentile rose from 68.8 to 75.2 over the same time, it is not believed that the sample group's self esteem would have risen at all without the TA-based mentoring programme. Perceived problems decreased significantly for the sample group while perceived problems for the control group remained the same (see 7.3.6). The areas of greatest change for the sample group were 'Home and Family', where perceived problems decreased from seven in June to two in November, and in 'Personal Growth', where perceived problems decreased from six to two in the same period. This change supports the claim that behavioural improvement took place outside the school as well as within. These changes brought about enhanced self image and a more positive attitude to life. After 'Home and Family' and 'Personal Growth', the next area of positive change was 'Self Control', lending weight to the argument that changing the attitudes of 'at-risk' youth does have a positive impact on their behaviour and their self image.

Changing the attitudes, then, of 'at-risk' youth did have a bearing on their progress in science and mathematics with an average eight per cent improvement on their mid-year scores by the end of the mentoring programme. Behaviour and self image also improved to a marked degree.

8.9.5 *What effect would teacher interpersonal behaviour have on student outcomes in science and mathematics?*

The case studies of the individuals who made up the sample group revealed that for some students, teacher interpersonal behaviour had an effect on the science and mathematics outcomes of these students.

Arran (see 6.2.7) rated his science and mathematics teachers positively using the QTI. His marks in science and mathematics improved over the course of the mentoring programme, and he passed both subjects. He failed chemistry, and although there are no QTI ratings for this teacher, negative attitudes were revealed towards this teacher in mentoring sessions.

Barry passed just one subject in the external examination (New Zealand School Certificate) and that was mathematics. He had rated his mathematics teacher positively as being like his 'Ideal' teacher. Barry failed science, where had had rated his teacher negatively using the QTI.

Teacher interpersonal behaviour that had a positive influence on academic outcomes for Aaron and Barry were the behaviours indicating 'Dominance' and 'Cooperation'. Where there were good academic outcomes, these two students also rated their teachers as being low in 'Opposition' and 'Submission' behaviours.

Danny passed science. Using the QTI he rated his science teacher highest on 'Understanding', 'Helping/Friendly', and 'Leadership' interpersonal teacher behaviours, and low on 'Uncertain', 'Admonishing', and 'Dissatisfied' interpersonal teacher behaviours. He failed mathematics where he had rated his teacher highest in interpersonal teacher behaviours classed on the QTI as representing 'Opposition' and 'Submission' and lowest in interpersonal behaviours representing 'Dominance' and 'Cooperation'.

Although Eugene did not pass science, his mark improved. He rated his teacher highest in 'Cooperation' behaviours, lowest in 'Opposition' behaviours.

The findings for these four students; Aaron, Barry, Danny, and Eugene are what might be expected. Positive interpersonal behaviour traits in their teachers were high, negative traits low, and their science and/or mathematics marks improved. However, the findings relating to other students in the sample group led to different conclusions.

Gary recorded the greatest improvement of all students in the sample group in both science (+22) and mathematics (+20) over the course of the mentoring programme. He rated the teachers of both of these subjects as being highest in 'Opposition' behaviours, second highest in 'Submission' behaviours. Fred also improved in science (+8) and rated his science teacher highest in 'Opposition' behaviour and, like Gary, second in 'Submission' behaviours. Chris improved in both science (+17) and mathematics (+6) and rated his teachers in these subjects differently with his science teacher highest in 'Oppositional' behaviours, his mathematics teacher highest in 'Cooperation' behaviours. Henry also made good gains in marks over the time of the mentoring programme. His science mark improved by 16, his mathematics mark by 18. He had classified his science teacher as being highest in 'Submission' behaviours, his mathematics teacher as highest in 'Dominance' behaviours.

The 'Cooperation' - 'Opposition' quadrants seem to affect students the most as student responses in the QTI were more definite in these areas.

Science teachers were assessed using the QTI by 17 students from the sample and the control groups. In the area of 'Dominance' behaviours, one student rated his science teacher highest and this student's mark improved. In the area of 'Cooperation' behaviours, nine students rated their science teachers highest with eight having marks that improved. In the area of 'Submission' behaviours, one student rated his teacher highest in this area and his mark improved. In the area of 'Opposition' behaviours, six students rated their teacher highest and of these four had marks that improved, and two had marks that decreased over the time of the mentoring programme.

Mathematics teachers were assessed using the QTI by 12 students from the sample and control groups. All students improved their mathematics scores over the time of the mentoring programme. One student had rated his teacher highest in 'Dominance'

behaviours, five had rated their teachers highest in 'Cooperation' behaviours, and six had rated their teachers highest in 'Opposition' behaviours.

It is difficult to draw categorical conclusions from this study on the relationship between teacher interpersonal behaviour and student outcomes in science and mathematics. There did seem to be a relationship between teacher interpersonal behaviour and student outcomes, but the results were different for different students. The sample group and the control group in this study were too low in numbers to be able to say that findings in this area were statistically reliable. A more comprehensive study with a greater number of students is needed.

There is more to academic outcomes than Teacher Interpersonal Behaviour, though Teacher Interpersonal Behaviour is a contributory factor in student outcomes. For the students in this study it seems that the personal qualities of the students, e.g., determination, motivation, vulnerability, played a part in affecting their outcomes. The mentoring programme could have countered the negative effects of some teacher interpersonal behaviour. Some students may need a good interpersonal relationship with their teacher, others may be less affected.

8.9.6 *Summary of findings and results*

There seemed to be a causal relationship between certain elements in this study. In the school setting, TA was firstly used with the group of at-risk students. This led to them having fewer perceived problems, and their self esteem increased. Following this, it was noticed that relationships improved both in school between teacher and student, and at home between students and their parents. The students also seemed to relate better with each other. Once relationships showed positive signs, it seemed easier for the students to maintain positive relationships. Finally, these events led to improved academic performance. The order of events may have been slightly different for some students but the order of these possible causal relationships can be shown diagramatically.

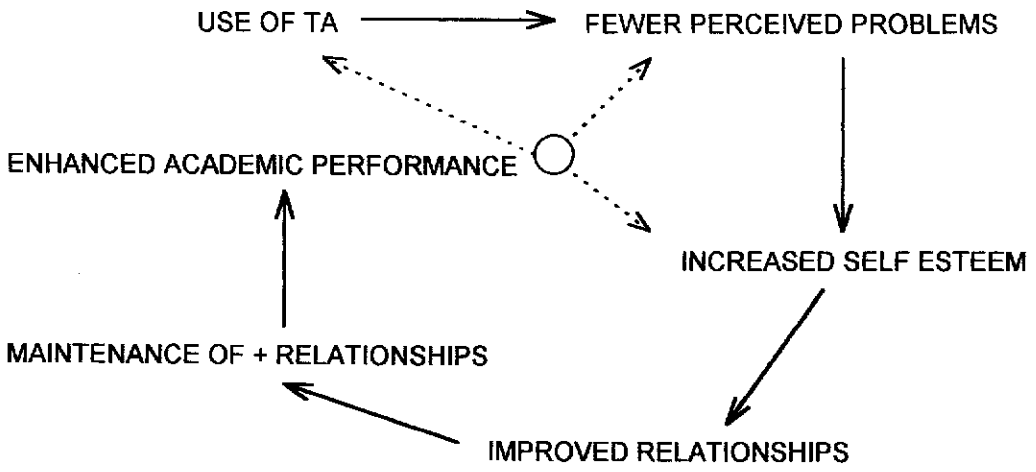

Figure 8.1. Possible causal relationships between elements in the study.

The sequence of events would be likely to continue, and it is thought that once academic performance is enhanced the sequence of events would become cyclic, as indicated by the dotted arrows in figure 8.1.

TA was the method used in the mentoring programme and it worked well for this group of at-risk students for a number of reasons. One of the main advantages of TA was that it encouraged thinking in a group of young people who had hitherto tended to react to situations from an emotional level. Their *Adult ego-state* was encouraged, which often meant that their previously dysfunctional *Negative Adapted Child* was held in check. As their communication skills and their relationships improved, other positive *ego-states* would have come into play, e.g., *Natural Child* and *Nurturing Parent.* It is thought as a result of the findings of this study, that *Nurturing Parent* is an *ego-state* that needs to be developed in at-risk young people (see 7.5.7). Further research is needed to test the idea of raising the positive aspects of the *Nurturing Parent ego-states* of at-risk young people. It is suggested that they would become better able to care for themselves as well as care for others. Both the students in the sample group and the students in the TA support group run in the year prior to the study found that TA was a helpful way to explain transactions in a non-threatening way. A further advantage of TA was that it uses contracts. The clear, specific and realistic contracts that TA can provide are a good way to help at-risk young people achieve their goals.

When TA is used as part of an intervention strategy at-risk young people are able to learn the skills needed to improve their relationships with their peers, their family and their teachers. Further, the at-risk young people in the sample group were in many cases able to maintain the improved relationships, leading to the cycle of change referred to in figure 8.1. All of the students who completed the mentoring programme reported improved relationships in one or more areas, and had improved school behaviour and academic results.

Mentoring using TA led to increased self esteem for the students in the sample group. That the greatest increases in self esteem were seen in the students who were also in the previous year's TA support group indicates that it takes time to bring about change in at-risk young people. It seems that an ideal time period to work with at-risk youth would be 18 months. In this study, the students in the TA support group were 14-15 years and this is thought to be an ideal age to begin such work. The clear boundaries and contracts that are part of a TA approach helped by providing a sense of security within mentoring where both parties, mentor and student, know their roles. Clear boundaries and contracts also give a means of goal setting and of keeping the student goal oriented over a period of time. TA is an appropriate method to use with at-risk youth as it encourages a person's positive aspects and promotes thinking.

Most students responded positively to the positive traits of teachers, as measured by the QTI and supported by *ego-state* theory. The study showed that some students will succeed academically in spite of having teachers with the negative qualities indicated by the QTI. It seemed that for these students other factors were important, such as good self esteem, a knowledge of TA and having other positive relationships. Students in both the sample group and the control group showed that given a choice they clearly preferred teachers who were high in Leadership, Helping/Friendly and Understanding behaviours as indicated by the QTI, those behaviours one might expect in a person with strong *Adult, Nurturing Parent* and Positive *Controlling Parent ego-states*.

This study has confirmed some of the identifying features of young people who may be at-risk. These features are that the young people are already behind academically at entry to secondary school, their home-life may be unstable, truancy and behaviour

problems begin to emerge early in their secondary school life and they have low self esteem.

8.9.7 *Limitations of the study*

While every care was taken to conduct this study within the parameters of sound research, a number of situations and practical factors have meant that it was restricted.

Firstly, both the sample group and the control group were small in number. The group members were all male, all from the same urban school, and all in the same year group. Secondly, the study was conducted over a relatively short time span. Thirdly, at-risk students who were not part of the programme were not included in the testing. Finally, the definition of 'at-risk' used encompassed students who were quite visible because of their acting out, while students who had reacted to their circumstances by withdrawing were not considered for the study but may have been also at-risk.

Conclusions drawn from this study need to be understood in the light of these limitations. The final part of this chapter considers what has arisen in the study and what the findings of the study might lead on to.

8.9.8 *Implications for action and research*

Three questions will be considered in this section. Firstly, the place of this particular study amongst the literature will be discussed. Next, what those involved in education might gain from this study is outlined. Finally, some consideration is given to what needs to be done as a result of this study.

8.9.8.1 Where does this study fit in?

Many of the specific studies on TA in education have been short journal articles and other literature has been written as either teaching or parenting manuals designed to sell. This study has some characteristics of its own in that it has sought to document what has already been done, to bring the combined literature on TA in education

together and to test TA as a method that can be used to help troubled youth. It is thought that the study has achieved these objectives, has added some new knowledge to the field, and has a much wider application in that the findings that related to the sample group members could be used in the context of the classroom and the school. To summarize:

a) It was found that at-risk young people have a low occurrence of *Nurturing Parent ego-state* characteristics, and tend to respond to situations from other less appropriate *ego-states*.

b) The drop in perceived problems for the sample group of at-risk students was marked, compared with the control group, at the conclusion of the mentoring programme.

c) TA has the potential to be of great benefit to schools as a classroom management strategy, as a way of enhancing one-to-one relationships, as a way of helping at-risk young people and as a way of viewing the overall structure of the school.

d) TA has potential to be used as a method to promote positive behaviour and enhance learning.

e) It has been shown that TA has the potential to significantly change the attitudes of at-risk young people thus giving them increased self esteem, enhanced relationships and fewer perceived problems.

f) It has been shown that when the attitudes of at-risk students become more positive, their own self image also becomes more positive and their academic performance is raised.

g) Students preferred positive interpersonal relationships with their teachers, and teacher-student behaviour affected the academic outcomes of the students.

8.9.8.2 What do educators need to do to take advantage of this study?

To take advantage of this study, the education sector will need to firstly become more familiar with TA. Furthermore, greater attention needs to be given to teacher selection and more appropriate support needs to be given to practising teachers. Students too need appropriate support and the special needs of at-risk students need greater consideration.

This study has shown that TA can be of great benefit to teachers as well as students. Teachers need to have an in-depth understanding of TA in order for a TA approach to become a way for teachers to promote positive behaviour. TA needs greater acceptance as a practical educational psychology and the teaching of TA101 to teacher trainees and practising teachers would be a minimal requirement for understanding and acceptance. When a school decides to adopt TA as its approach to the promotion of positive behaviour, it is essential that all teachers complete the TA101 course, including managers. There is a pressing need for educationalists with qualifications in TA to be appointed to positions within teacher training institutions.

Because of the adverse effect a teacher with negative attitudes can have on his/her students and because of the well-being and success that can come to students of a positive teacher, more care needs to be taken in the selection of teacher trainees and appropriate support and re-training needs to be available to practising teachers. Use of the QTI in this study has enabled an isolation of types of teacher behaviour, and showed that teachers with 'Dominance' and 'Cooperation' behaviours are more likely to promote academic success and positive behaviour than teachers exhibiting aspects of 'Submission' and 'Opposition' behaviours. The QTI revealed that students' class teachers with 'Dominance' and 'Cooperation' behaviours as being 'Ideal' teachers. While the study showed that some students will succeed academically in spite of teachers with 'Submission' and 'Opposition' behaviours, it is likely that those students had enough positive aspects to other parts of their lives to see them through. With positive teachers these students may have achieved even better. Consideration needs to be given to the use of personality tests or dominant behaviour assessments for

applicants for teacher training so that teacher trainees with desirable characteristics as well as appropriate qualifications are selected.

Appropriate support needs to be given to practising teachers. Because it is known what teacher behaviours will encourage positive behaviour and learning amongst students, this information needs to be passed on to teachers, e.g., at in-service training courses. Senior teachers and managers need to know how to encourage the positive aspects of staff. Heads of Departments need to be given both the training and the time that will enable them to assist teachers who have further training needs as well as encouraging teachers who are doing well. The positive behaviours that the QTI identifies are similar to the *ego-states* (*Nurturing Parent, Positive Controlling Parent, Adult*) that teachers could use to promote the corresponding *ego-states* in students (*Natural Child, Positive Adapted Child, Adult*) that are conducive to learning. Teachers may also need support with personal issues from time to time. In this study, where the QTI revealed teachers that students rated in a negative way, it seemed that the students also inadvertently pointed out teachers who were under stress. Teachers may need counselling, and it is suggested that an independent counselling service ought to be available for teachers in every major centre.

Appropriate and on-going support is needed for students. While it would be costly to provide mentoring programmes for large numbers of students, this study has shown that such programmes work so it is possible that if the lives of at-risk students can be made more positive, money could be saved in the long run, e.g., in police time, welfare agency time, unemployment benefits, institutional care costs, etc. This study had a sample that represented two point five percent of their year group. These students came to the school's attention because of their acting-out behaviours. It is probable that there was at least that number again within the year group who were also at-risk but had withdrawn as a way of coping. And there were four other year groups within the school. In terms of reaching the at-risk students within the school, this study reached a relatively low number of such students, but was effective with those it engaged. To take advantage of this knowledge, it is thought that more student support is needed where the students are i.e. in schools, and when the students are able to use it i.e. during school hours. Community agencies could operate from within schools, or

have hours that enabled school students to visit them. Considering the time taken to support the students in this study, schools themselves need one full-time counsellor, welfare officer or youth worker per 500 students.

At-risk young people need on-going support for about 18 months before positive changes take place. This study showed that the students who had been involved with both the mentoring programme and the previous year's TA support group showed the greatest gains. This study has also shown that the needs of at-risk students are varied, but include the need for *positive strokes*, for the development of *Adult* thinking and for the development of *Nurturing Parent* i.e., an ability to care for oneself and others. At-risk young people also need to learn positive ways to relate to others, to communicate and to express feelings in appropriate ways. They need to be able to discuss problems and learn to problem solve. They need to find safe and appropriate ways to have fun. In TA terms, at-risk young people have a need to develop neglected parts of their *ego-states; Nurturing Parent, Adult* and *Natural Child.* At-risk young people need to do all this before they will be really receptive to learning and before they will be fully capable of behaving in a positive way in the classroom. Educators need to consider the possible benefits of taking at-risk students out of mainstream schooling for a time in order for some of the work needed to prepare them to be receptive to learning can be done. Such work would include teaching TA, raising self esteem, resolving problems and issues and improving interpersonal relationships. An alternative for at-risk students might be studying a reduced programme and attending a concurrent development programme using TA. To be beneficial as well as acceptable, such a development programme may need to be offered under the guise of a subject, e.g., 'Introduction to Psychology', 'Introduction to Sociology', etc.

8.9.8.3 What needs to be done next?

Follow-up to this study may be considered in three parts: implications for action, implications for research and guidelines for the use of TA in schools. Implications for action involve informing the appropriate people and institutions of the findings of this study in the hope that they will be found to be usable and of value. Implications for research rest on the hope that a scholar with knowledge of TA will pursue these ideas

further. Guidelines for the use of TA in schools are offered as a starting point for schools to develop their own strategies. These three aspects are summarized below.

Implications for Action

a) Teachers need to be made aware of those positive interpersonal behaviours that promote learning and personal growth. These interpersonal behaviours involve the use of *Nurturing Parent, Adult* and *Positive Controlling Parent ego-states* in teachers which in turn bring out the *ego-states* in students that are needed for personal growth and academic success; *Natural Child, Adult* and *Positive Adapted Child.*

b) Those who select trainee teachers and those who appoint practising teachers need to be made aware of those interpersonal behaviours and *ego-states* that are most suited to those who teach.

c) TA101 courses need to be made available to practising teachers of science and mathematics, and to teacher training institutions.

d) Advise educators in positions of authority of the benefits of using TA with at-risk students to raise performance in science and mathematics.

e) Advise educators in positions of authority of the benefits of using TA as a practical educational psychology to promote positive behaviour.

Implications for Research

a) Ways of raising the *Nurturing Parent ego-states* in at-risk young people needs to be researched and trialled to see if it lowers their at-risk status and enhances personal growth.

b) Ways of raising the *Adult* and *Natural Child ego-states* in at-risk young people needs to be researched and trialled to see if it enhances academic performance in science and mathematics.

c) The use of TA as a general classroom method to promote positive behaviour and improve academic progress needs to be researched and trialled.

d) The mentoring programme using TA needs to be trialled with a group of at-risk girls.

Guidelines for the use of TA in Schools

a) Standards need to be set for school staff using TA. It is suggested that for teachers who want to use TA as a method to promote positive classroom interpersonal behaviour, completion of TA101 would be a minimum requirement. It would be preferable to have some training beyond TA101 or to seek help from a trained TA practitioner that specifically relates to education.

b) Teachers in the school that was part of this study found certain parts of their TA101 course to be particularly relevant to teaching. These parts were *Games, Rackets* and *Script Theory*. Also deemed useful were sessions on 'classroom applications' and information on *ego-states* and *strokes*.

c) Staff involved in more specific use of TA with students or teachers ought to be qualified beyond TA101. This suggestion applies to staff doing group work or counselling with students, or teaching TA to students or staff.

d) While it is beneficial for groups of teachers to attend TA courses, for a school to benefit fully and be able to use TA as a method to promote positive behaviour it would be highly desirable for senior staff, including the principal, to also be familiar with TA.

e) It is suggested that a first step to introducing a school to TA methods is staff training. It is vital that this initial training is followed up regularly with sessions on relevant aspects of TA to the particular needs of the staff and school.

f) Once school staff are familiar with TA, guidelines for the particular needs of the school could be drawn up to ensure ongoing training, development, and supervision are catered for.

g) Training courses in TA are administered by the ITAA and run in cities and major centres throughout Australia and New Zealand. It would be a positive step in the promotion of TA in schools for local authorities, schools and ITAA members to collaborate on ways of making TA training more readily available to teachers.

8.9.9 *Denouement*

The purpose of this study was to test the usefulness of TA to educators. It sought to find out the extent to which the theory and practice of TA was of use to schools, whether TA could be used as part of a school's strategy to promote positive behaviour, whether TA methods could have a significant effect in changing the attitudes of at-risk youth, and whether this changing of attitudes would have a bearing on progress in science and mathematics, behaviour and self image, and what effect teacher interpersonal behaviour would have on student outcomes in science and mathematics.

Each of the young people who made up the sample group made personal gains from being involved in the mentoring programme. The sample group as a whole has made a valuable contribution to the body of knowledge on education. By way of conclusion, the learnings that have come from this study lend strong support to the argument for greater use of TA in schools and in work with at-risk youth. TA has much to offer educators as a practical education psychology and it is hoped that this study will help to make TA more widely known to those who work with young people and to raise the profile of TA with educators.

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APPENDIX 1: The Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory

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(Co-ordinator, ADT Project(Retrospective), Curtin University of Technology, 1.11.02)

APPENDIX 2: The Mooney Problem Checklist

APPENDIX 3: The Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction (QTI)

SUPPLEMENT

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire asks you to describe the behaviour of your teacher. This is NOT a test. Your opinion is what is wanted.

This questionnaire has 48 sentences about the teacher. For each sentence, circle the number corresponding to your response. For example:

	Never				Always
This teacher expresses himself/herself clearly.	0	1	2	3	4

If you think that your teacher always expresses himself/herself clearly, circle the 4. If you think your teacher never expresses himself/herself clearly, circle the 0. You also can choose the numbers 1, 2 and 3 which are in between. If you want to change your answer, cross it out and circle a new number. Thank you for your cooperation.

Don't forget to write the name of the teacher and other details at the top of the reverse side of this page.

This page is a supplement to a publication entitled *Teacher and Student Relationships in Science and Mathematics Classes* authored by Theo Wubbels and published by the national Key Centre for School Science and Mathematics at Curtin University of Technology.

Teacher's Name _____ Class _____ School _____

	Never Always	Teacher Use
1. This teacher talks enthusiastically about her/his subject.	0 1 2 3 4	Lea
2. This teacher trusts us.	0 1 2 3 4	Und
3. This teacher seems uncertain.	0 1 2 3 4	Unc
4. This teacher gets angry unexpectedly.	0 1 2 3 4	Adm
5. This teacher explains things clearly.	0 1 2 3 4	Lea
6. If we don't agree with this teacher, we can talk about it.	0 1 2 3 4	Und
7. This teacher is hesitant.	0 1 2 3 4	Unc
8. This teacher gets angry quickly.	0 1 2 3 4	Adm
9. This teacher holds our attention.	0 1 2 3 4	Lea
10. This teacher is willing to explain things again.	0 1 2 3 4	Und
11. This teacher acts as if she/he does not know what to do.	0 1 2 3 4	Unc
12. This teacher is too quick to correct us when we break a rule.	0 1 2 3 4	Adm
13. This teacher knows everything that goes on in the classroom.	0 1 2 3 4	Lea
14. If we have something to say, this teacher will listen.	0 1 2 3 4	Und
15. This teacher lets us boss her/him around.	0 1 2 3 4	Unc
16. This teacher is impatient.	0 1 2 3 4	Adm
17. This teacher is a good leader.	0 1 2 3 4	Lea
18. This teacher realises when we don't understand.	0 1 2 3 4	Und
19. This teacher is not sure what to do when we fool around.	0 1 2 3 4	Unc
20. It is easy to pick a fight with this teacher.	0 1 2 3 4	Adm
21. This teacher acts confidently.	0 1 2 3 4	Lea
22. This teacher is patient.	0 1 2 3 4	Und
23. It's easy to make a fool out of this teacher	0 1 2 3 4	Unc
24. This teacher is sarcastic.	0 1 2 3 4	Adm
25. This teacher helps us with our work.	0 1 2 3 4	HFr
26. We can decide some things in this teacher's class.	0 1 2 3 4	SRe
27. This teacher thinks that we cheat.	0 1 2 3 4	Dis
28. This teacher is strict.	0 1 2 3 4	Str
29. This teacher is friendly.	0 1 2 3 4	HFr
30. We can influence this teacher.	0 1 2 3 4	SRe
31. This teacher thinks that we don't know anything.	0 1 2 3 4	Dis
32. We have to be silent in this teacher's class.	0 1 2 3 4	Str
33. This teacher is someone we can depend on.	0 1 2 3 4	HFr
34. This teacher lets us fool around in class.	0 1 2 3 4	SRe
35. This teacher puts us down.	0 1 2 3 4	Dis
36. This teacher's tests are hard.	0 1 2 3 4	Str
37. This teacher has a sense of humour.	0 1 2 3 4	HFr
38. This teacher lets us get away with a lot in class.	0 1 2 3 4	SRe
39. This teacher thinks that we can't do things well.	0 1 2 3 4	Dis
40. This teacher's standards are very high.	0 1 2 3 4	Str
41. This teacher can take a joke.	0 1 2 3 4	HFr
42. This teacher gives us a lot of free time in class.	0 1 2 3 4	SRe
43. This teacher seems dissatisfied.	0 1 2 3 4	Dis
44. This teacher is severe when marking papers.	0 1 2 3 4	Str
45. This teacher's class is pleasant.	0 1 2 3 4	HFr
46. This teacher is lenient.	0 1 2 3 4	SRe
47. This teacher is suspicious.	0 1 2 3 4	Dis
48. We are afraid of this teacher	0 1 2 3 4	Str

For Teacher's Use Only: Lea ____ Und ____ Unc ____ Adm ____ HFr____ SRe ____ Dis ____ Str ____

APPENDIX 4: The Ego-State Questionnaire

EGO STATE QUESTIONAIRE

ank in order of preference, choice, importance to you, or the most likely thing that you would do y placing 1-5 in the boxes. (1 = 1st choice, 5 = 5th choice)

1.	As a hobby, I'd prefer	a) None – waste of valuable time	
		b) Caring for pets	
		c) Acting	
		d) Something my parents approve	
		e) Computers	
2.	Favoured career	a) Doctor, nurse	
		b) Teacher's helper	
		c) Accountant	
		d) Actor or artist	
		e) Traffic Police	
3.	Activities I would like are	a) Sports	
		b) Referee	
		c) Helping Mum or Dad	
		d) Chess	
		e) First Aid	
4.	Part time work I'd enjoy	a) Data enty or analysis	
		b) I wouldn't be good at anything	
		c) Clown at childrens' party	
		d) Nightclub bouncer	
		e) Babysitting	
5.	Smoking dope is	a) A danger to my health	
		b) Evil	
		c) A way of getting back at parents	
		d) A scary adventure	
		e) A way of distorting reality	
6.	People like me because I	a) Am well informed	
		b) Am bossy	
		c) Am co-operative	
		d) Look after them	
		e) Express my feelings	
7.	When family or friends are upset or troubled I	a) Try to work out what they want	
		b) Do what I can to comfort them	
		c) Tell them what to do	
		d) Try to hear how they feel	
		e) Keep calm and be logical	

8. When my parents tell me off I
   a) Realise its tough for them too
   b) Get angry back
   c) Feel upset
   d) Listen to their view
   e) Point out that they're not perfect

9. When someone I care for is doing something wrong I
   a) Point out that they are wrong
   b) Tell them how I feel about it
   c) Try to help them out of it
   d) Go along with it
   e) See if they will consider alternatives

10. Successful people
   a) Are a pain in the neck
   b) Are good thinkers
   c) Have fun
   d) Know right from wrong
   e) Care about others

11. If you won $1000 would you
   a) Realise you mustn't waste it
   b) Have an adventure holiday
   c) Give some to the needy
   d) Rage
   e) Consider investment options

12. To get the most out of life it is best to
   a) Know what you should/shouldn't do
   b) Care for others
   c) Plan carefully
   d) Be liked by others
   e) Express your feelings

13. I like people who
   a) Are caring
   b) Quickly see the right / wrong
   c) Are interesting to talk to
   d) Laugh a lot
   e) Are well balanced

14. A hero figure for me could be a
   a) Bankrobber
   b) Doctor
   c) Police Officer
   d) Scientist
   e) Athlete

15. When shopping for a present I try to get something
   a) Helpful
   b) That is fun
   c) That will make me liked
   d) That is value for money
   e) That will improve the person

16. My ideal partner would

a) Be kind and considerate
b) Be sensible and reliable
c) Be co-operative
d) Be fun to be with
e) Know right from wrong

17. If I had to look after three five year olds for the afternoon I'd

a) Get down on the floor and play with them
b) Watch them carefully so they didn't harm themselves
c) Wind them up and annoy them
d) Make sure they didn't misbehave
e) Help them find interesting things to do

18. If a classmate accidentally spilt drink on me I'd

a) Tell them it was a nuisance, but see the funny side
b) Comfort them, help clean it up
c) Get angry and wet them back
d) Work out what happened
e) Tell them off for being clumsy

19. Others would say I was

a) Well informed, organised
b) Able to express feelings
c) Able to control others
d) Helpful, kind
e) Rebellious; a troublemaker

20. I see my self as being

a) Afraid of making mistakes
b) Humorous, spontaneous
c) Interested in learning
d) Critical of others
e) Caring

KEY TO EGO-STATE QUESTIONNAIRE

1	a)	CP
	b)	NP
	c)	NC
	d)	AC
	e)	A
2	a)	NP
	b)	AC
	c)	A
	d)	NC
	e)	CP
3	a)	NC
	b)	CP
	c)	AC
	d)	A
	e)	NP
4	a)	A
	b)	AC
	c)	NC
	d)	CP
	e)	NP
5	a)	NP
	b)	CP
	c)	AC
	d)	NC
	e)	A
6	a)	A
	b)	CP
	c)	AC
	d)	NP
	e)	NC
7	a)	AC
	b)	NP
	c)	CP
	d)	NC
	e)	A
8	a)	NP
	b)	AC
	c)	NC
	d)	A
	e)	CP
9	a)	CP
	b)	NC
	c)	NP
	d)	AC
	e)	A
10	a)	AC
	b)	A
	c)	NC
	d)	CP
	e)	NP
11	a)	CP
	b)	NC
	c)	NP
	d)	AC
	e)	A
12	a)	CP
	b)	NP
	c)	A
	d)	AC
	e)	NC
13	a)	NP
	b)	CP
	c)	A
	d)	NC
	e)	AC
14	a)	AC
	b)	NP
	c)	CP
	d)	A
	e)	NC
15	a)	NP
	b)	NC
	c)	AC
	d)	A
	e)	CP
16	a)	NP
	b)	A
	c)	AC
	d)	NC
	e)	CP
17	a)	NC
	b)	NP
	c)	AC
	d)	CP
	e)	A
18	a)	NC
	b)	NP
	c)	AC
	d)	A
	e)	CP
19	a)	A
	b)	NC
	c)	CP
	d)	NP
	e)	AC
20	a)	AC
	b)	NC
	c)	A
	d)	CP
	e)	NP

CP = Controlling Parent
NP = Nurturing Parent
A = Adult
NC = Natural Child
AC = Adapted Child

APPENDIX 5: Exercise to Expand Emotional Vocabulary

Introduction

The exercise given in this appendix was worked out in the course of counselling with Danny prior to the start of the mentoring programme. He had become 'stuck' on occasions when attempts were made to work at a 'feeling' level. He had had bouts of depression, and outbursts of anger that turned to abuse, vandalism, threats of violence and threats of suicide. It was thought that Danny needed to develop appropriate use of his Natural Child. He seemed to be building up anger because it was not being expressed at a low level. It may be that he had learned at some earlier stage not to show anger, and had developed unhelpful Adapted Child behaviours where Natural Child behaviours would be more productive and healthy.

This exercise was used again with Danny during the mentoring programme. Its aims were:

1) To expand emotional vocabulary around anger.

2) To develop an ability to express low level angry feelings in a safe environment (counselling).

3) To encourage the use of 'I' statements to express anger outside of the counselling situation.

'I' Statements

'I' statements help the user to be responsible for the statement. Self-responsibility was thought to be more needed by Danny so the first step in this exercise was to teach 'I' statements, progressing from the simple to the more duplex. The progressive steps were:

1) I feel _____ (simple expression of feeling).

2) I feel _____ when you _____ (gives information to another about reasons behind the feeling).

3) I feel _____ when you _____ because _____ (adds meaning).

Once this way of expressing feelings was explained to Danny, a list of situations, people, and behaviours that caused him to feel anger were drawn up. He talked about how angry he felt in each situation and the concept of levels of anger was developed with Danny, along with his words for expressing that level of anger.

Danny thought that he had three levels of anger, that low level anger caused him to feel 'annoyed', that a middle level of anger caused him to feel 'angry' and that strong feelings of anger caused him to feel 'pissed off'. On a continuum, Danny thought that his feelings of anger would fit at the places shown below:

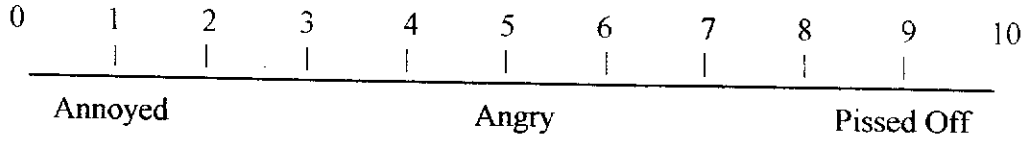

Figure A1. Continuum showing Danny's levels of angry feelings.

Danny, then, had three categories of feelings; low, middle and strong. He said 'I only express feelings at the 7 to 10 level'. A second continuum was drawn up and the session attempted to build up a vocabulary that had appropriate words at each level. Danny's continuum is shown below:

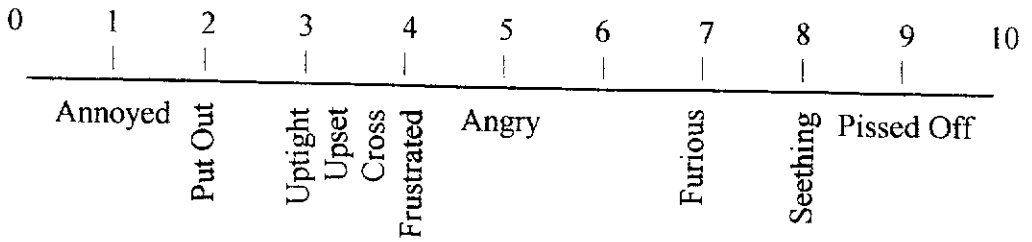

Figure A2. Continuum showing Danny's levels of angry feelings with developed vocabulary

Danny, then, was able to build up a greater vocabulary around anger. What he was encouraged to do after counselling was to express low level feelings more. It was thought that the previous lack of expression of low level angry feelings was what was leading to both depression and violent and inappropriate outbursts for Danny.

Carkhuff (1973) wrote on ways of expressing feelings and responding to feelings. He considered the concept of levels of feeling, and spoke of levels of intensity being 'strong', 'mild' and 'weak'. It is thought that the continuum idea could be used with all areas of feelings i.e., 'sad', 'mad' (angry), 'glad' and 'afraid'. It may be useful for teens to draw up continuums in each of these areas.

APPENDIX 6: The PAC Chair Game

This exercise was used with the TA Support Groups. Objectives included:

1) To teach PAC (*Parent Adult Child*)

2) To experience what happens when people respond from different *ego-states*.

3) To consider the kinds of situations where arguments might develop.

First, the group were asked to write on cards things that their parents, siblings or peers might say that could lead to arguments.

Next, the TA *ego-states* were revised, and characteristics of each were written up.

Then five chairs were arranged in a line, each chair representing one of the *ego-states*, i.e.:

Controlling Parent
Nurturing Parent
Adult
Adapted Child
Natural Child

After that, the students took turns at sitting in the 'hot seat', a sixth chair in front of the *ego-state* chairs. Other students were now sitting in the *ego-state* chairs and responded to the person in the 'hot seat' who read his card to each of them in turn. Responses were made from the appropriate *ego-state*.

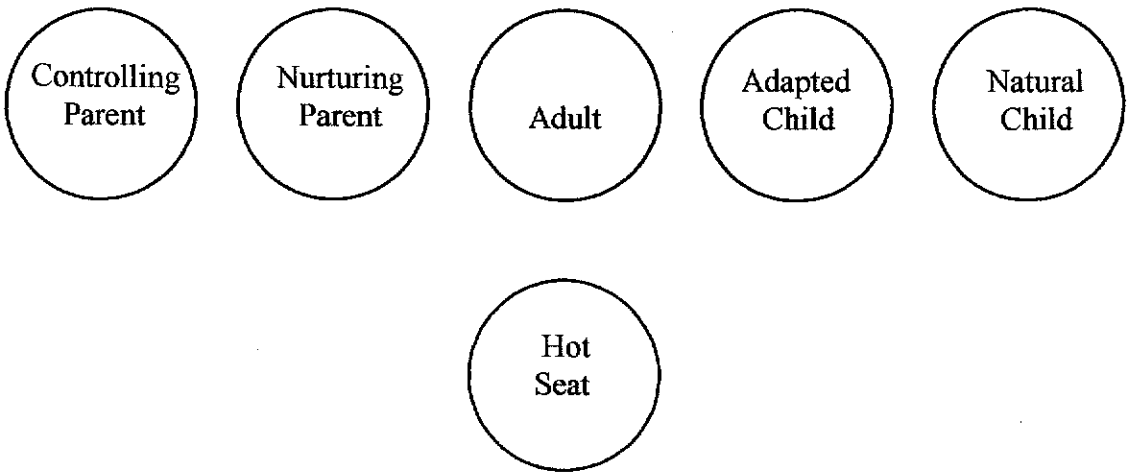

Figure A3. Arrangement of Chairs for the PAC Chair Game.

Cards tended to have *Controlling Parent* statements similar to statements that the student's own parents had made, e.g., 'Go and tidy your room.' 'Have you done your homework?' and critical statements from teachers and peers. It seems these effect students a lot and it was not surprising that such statements came up in a group of students who had low self esteem. Were this exercise to be developed, there are many possible statements including compliments that could be included.

Finally, after students had changed places and had turns in various roles, the group were de-rolled and discussion took place on what they had experienced and learned.

(Extra students can be observers, coaches and prompts.)

APPENDIX 7: List of activities that could be used with High School students to raise Positive Nurturing Parent ego-state

1) Teach a course of helping skills, e.g., introductory counselling/psychology.

2) Have students complete certificates run by qualified trainers in (e.g.) first aid, child-minding, life-saving.

3) Appropriate, supervised work experience, e.g., Senior Citizens, Nurse Aide, Playcentre, Primary School, IHC.

4) Work with animals, e.g., SPCA.

5) School 'monitor' roles that directly relate to the care of others, e.g., road-crossing patrol, mentor, tutor, coach.

A programme to raise *Positive Nurturing Parent* would need to teach, monitor and debrief students involved in such activities as those given above. Teaching and discussion would be designed to raise such qualities as caring, concern, forgiveness, and warm protectiveness and an ability to both reassure and encourage. When used with at-risk young people, shown in this study to be low in *Positive Nurturing Parent ego-state*, it is likely that not only would there be an increase in desirable *ego-state* usage, e.g., *Adult*, *Nurturing Parent*, *Natural Child*, but also a decrease in less desirable *ego-states*, e.g., *Negative Adapted Child*, *Negative Controlling Parent*. There is no reason why at-risk young people could not be told exactly what the purpose of the programme was, to have TA *ego-states* explained to them, and to have an opportunity to either opt in or out of such a programme.

APPENDIX 8: Letter of agreement for Sample Group members and/or their parent/s - caregiver/s

4 May, 1998

Dear_____,

You are invited to take part in a research project I am doing on Transactional Analysis (T.A.) and Student Outcomes in Science and Mathematics. It is hoped that the study will improve results in these subject, and lessen incidents where you are in conflict with the Discipline Network of the College.

We will meet regularly to monitor academic progress, and to seek solutions to any difficulties you might be having.

Your name will not be used in writing up the research, nor will the name of the College. You will be able to see the findings and read any comments made.

If you are under 16, would you please show this letter to your parent/guardian before you sign the return section below.

Thank you

Yours sincerely

S Slater
Guidance Counsellor

_____✂_____

I,_____, agree to be part of the study on Student Outcomes being conducted by Mr Slater.

_____Student

_____Date

_____Parent/Guardian Signature (if student is under 16)

APPENDIX 9: Alphabetical list of TA terms used in Chapter 2

	Page
Activity	25
Adapted Child	13
Adult	14
Agitation	23
Autonomy	33
Child	14
Complementary Transactions	18
Controlling Parent	13
Counterinjunctions	31
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Doing Nothing	23
Drama Triangle	28
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Games	25
Games and Game Analysis	26
Incapacitation, Violence	24
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Intimacy	25
Life Position	29
Natural Child	13
Nurturing Parent	13
OKness	10, 29
Overadaption	23
Parent	13
Pastiming	25
Permissions	32
Programme	31
Rackets	28
Recognition Hunger	22
Rituals	25
Script	29
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Stamps	31
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Time Structuring	24