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SOCIAL EDUCATION ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE BEYOND MASLOW AND THE LIMITS TO GROWTH

Two papers and one report, comprising three minor papers, presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Haster of Philosophy in Education at Massey University.

Timothy Arthur Smithells October, 1977

SECTION ONE

Social Education

The purpose of this paper was to present, in a study format, at a twelve to fourteen year readability level, two areas of everyday life ('The Family' and 'Leaving Home') relevant to students, teachers and parents. In the first area, the topics of family groupings, family relationships and family behaviour are covered in detail, using down-to-earth terms taken from Adlerian Psychology, Abraham Maslow, Eric Berne and R.D. Laing.

The basic assumption behind this paper was that these two topics are crucial ones for the adolescent to come to terms with, and important for parents, teachers and younger children to grasp.

SECTION TWO

Aspects of Language

In the first of the three papers comprising this section, a set of basic coding/decoding units for the Romanised English alphabet are presented in detail. These are then related to the mechanisms and stages of development in the decoding process, and to the various levels of perceptual discrimination.

In the second paper, the concept of decoding patterns was extended by examining the extension units (accents such as the cedilla) used in a cross-section of ten languages. Eleven such extension units were compared and contrasted, as was the internal consistency of the individual letters among the ten languages. High consistency was found to exist between T.O.A's using Romanised script.

In the third paper, second language learning, in a New Zealand context, is discussed and related to the concept of language mastery. Three levels of mastery - basic, secondary and advanced - are postulated, together with examples. The conceptual process of spillover from one language to a second, through levels of mastery, to spillover back to the original language, is introduced and discussed.

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SECTION THREE Beyond Maslow and The Limits to Growth

In this paper, Part One looks at Maslow's hierarchy of needs, and the time-space perspectives of individuals, in synthesis form. Time-space constraints are shown to operate in conjunction with the individual's need framework. The ability and capability of the self-actualising person to minimise and/or remove the constraints of time and space, in meeting his or her higher needs, is discussed. The concept of an all-embracing higher need 'the need to serve' is introduced. The ability of self-actualising persons to function effectively both in the future, and world-wide, and to be in the present is expressed in the light of their potential value to the rest of mankind.

In Part Two, Maslow's concept of the peak-experience is examined in three ways:0) in terms of the self-actualising person, and the methods used to produce or induce peak-experiences, (3) the necessary and sufficient conditions for inducing the peak-experiences, (3) and in the light of a three-tier experiment carried out by the author in 1974. Conclusions reached were that experiences similar to peak-experiences in quality may be able to be induced in oneself or in suitable subjects, under appropriate conditions. Necessary and sufficient conditions included relative silence, a visible focus-object, relative absence of physical tension, a high degree of attentional ability, and an openness to experience on the part of the individual.

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SECTION ONE

SOCIAL EDUCATION

SOCIAL EDUCATION
'The Family' and 'Leaving Home'
Two Study Units

Preface

To those of us, past, present and future, who find ourselves involved with the development of others ---

Development of the individual, in terms of learning, tends to be separated for convenience into a number of area. We talk of intellectual, physical, emotional/psychological, social and moral development. As in the above sentence, intellectual development has tended to come first, to predominate. Here in New Zealand, as intellectual gains persist in their being perceived as criteria of achievement or success, so have the other areas tended to be held back.

We need teachers, among many resource people and groups, to enable younger people to learn and apply basic skills of living within the family, and within other groups in society. This is one of the prime objectives of social education.

The purpose of this paper is to present, in a study format, two areas of life which tend to be overlooked or glossed over by the schools for various reasons. The schools could and perhaps should take some responsibility for the instilling of awareness, and the teaching of skills in these areas. Parents can and do instruct their children in a range of family life skills (see Unit One), which those children are capable of using in adult life. However, few parents may be capable of the objectivity needed to allow children to explore the questions of how they want to live, and what choices are available to them. (See Unit Two).

This paper is not value-free. The topics of values, wants and needs have been included, so that teacher and learner may share their findings about the influence of our values on our decisions and choices. I have used portions of these two units in working with classes of younger people in intermediate and secondary schools in New Zealand and England. The format is my own. My inspiration to write these units stems in part from the writings of Alfred Adler, Abraham Maslow, Eric Berne, R.D. Laing, Loren Grey and Rudolf Dreikurs.

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INTRODUCTION

To those using this unit of work:

A lot of the ideas presented here come from the writings of five people who have worked for much of their lives with families, children, parents, brothers and sisters, and the problems they run into. These ideas have not been thought up or dreamt up. They come from years and years of work and observation, in thousands of situations, with thousands of families.

I personally believe in these ideas. They work for me. They may not work for everybody. Maybe they work for me because I believe in them. It helps me to have a bit of faith. I like the ideas because they are simply written, easy to understand and to talk about, and they make sense to me.

You may not want to believe these ideas. You may not want to swallow them. Test them out. See if they might be true for families and other groups of people you know. Talk about them with your friends. Give some ideas of your own.

The 'teacher guides' are presented only as one possible foundation for these units. They are a set of basic assumptions, and do not have to be taken as facts.

T.A.S. 6/77

Notes for Unit One

At the end of this unit, check to see if you understand the meanings of these key words and phrases: family constellation, child development, family pattern, displacement, family tree, the four mistaken goals of childhood, family atmosphere, natural consequence, logical consequence.

UNIT ONE

THE FAMILY

Topic One - Family Groups (O.H.P. Transparency - Example) (Teacher Guide)

- A. Family Name Cooper. B. Forename Alan.
 - 1. Where do I live? At home.
 - 2. Street 23 Cable Road.
 - 3. Suburb Lowdale.
 - 4. Town Te Awamutu.
 - 5. Shifts 3 times.
 - 6. Previous Addresses: 764 Brook Road, Hamilton
 12 Sunnyvale Street, Hamilton East
 103A Eden Street, Manurewa (Auckland)
 - 7. Size of family group now six people.
 - 8. Names Brian Cooper, June Cooper, Grant Cooper,
 Alan Cooper, Carol Cooper, Sue Cooper.
 - 9. Nicknames Brian (Dad), June (Mum), Grant (none),
 Alan (Blue), Carol (none), Sue (Bub).
 - 10. Others not with me none.
 - 11. N/A (not applicable it doesn't apply to me).
 - 12. Others treated like family yes.
 - 13. Names Uncle Rod and Aunt Helen, Mr Banks (old family friend).
 - 14. Lived with Us Yes, Mr Banks boarded for a year with us when I was little.

Topic One - Family Groups

This is a <u>fact-gathering</u> topic. Facts can help us to understand more about family life. Head up a page/sheet. <u>Topic One</u> - My Family Group. Read the following questions, one at a time, and write your own answers to each question - use O.H.P. transparency as your example.

- A. What is my family name?
- B. What is the forename I am known by?
- 1. Where do I live? (at home, boarding, hostel, with friends, etc).
- 2. What street do I live in?
- .3. What suburb (if any) do I live in?
- 4. What town/city/county town/area do I live in?
- 5. How many times have I shifted house since I was born?
- 6. If I have shifted house, what addresses have I lived at?
- 7. How many people are there living in my (family) group at the moment?
- 8. What are their names? (Give one forename and family name underline my name).
- 9. What nicknames, if any, do my family have for one another?
- 10. Are there any other members of my family group who are not living with me?
- 11. If so, what are their names, and where do they live?
- 12. Are there any other people whom my family treats as part of the family? (e.g. special family friends, special relatives).
- 13. If so, what are their names?
- 14. Have any of this last group lived with my family group at any time?

We will use some of this information for Topic Two - Family Descriptions.

Topic Two - Family Descriptions (Teacher Guide)

Example - here are three ways of describing the Cooper family. (O.H.P. transparency or BB)

Method Two (Short Method)

COOPER FAMILY: a. Brian (37), June (born Stanaway, 35), Grant 16,

Alan 15, Carol 12, Sue 5.

- b. F M: B16, B15, G12, G5
- c. Father (work), Mother (work/home): Boy 16 (work), Boy 15 (F4), Girl 12 (F2), Girl 5 (Pl).

Method Three (Narrative Method)

(Ny) The Cooper family goes like this: My father, Brian, was born in Auckland in 1940, went to school in Auckland and Hamilton, and works as a handyman for an autoelectrician. My mother, June, was born in Hamilton, in 1942, went to school in Cambridge, and has just started work in a dairy. My father was the second of four children, and my mother was the first of three children. They met in Huntly, and married in Hamilton in 1960. I have one brother, and two sisters. My elder brother, Grant, was born in 1961, went to school in Te Awamutu, got his School Certificate last year and works as a bricklayer. I was born in 1962, and I am in the Fourth Form at school here in Te Awamutu. My younger sister, Carol, was born in 1965, and is in Form Two, and my younger sister again, Sue, has just started school.

Each of these methods gives you information about the Cooper family.

This is a <u>describing</u> topic. We are looking at ways for you to describe or depict your family. We use the idea of the <u>family</u> <u>pattern</u> to help us to do this.

Head up a page/sheet My Family Pattern.

- 1. My family tree looks like this: (use the example to help you).
- 2. My family pattern looks like this: (short method use one of a, b or c.)
- 3. Write down this passage, filling in the gaps as you go. Use the example shown to help you.

My family pattern goes like this: My father was born in
in 19, went to school in, trained as a and now
works as a for My mother, was born in
and now works as a for My father came in a
family of children, and my mother came in a family
of, and married in, and married in
in 19 I have sister(s) and brother(s). They
are: who was born in in 19, went to school in
, (OR - is going to school in), and is now
(CONTINUE FOR EACH BROTHER AND SISTER).

4. What else can you tell (infer) about this family just using the above information?

Children watch everything which goes on around them. They decide about what is going on from what they see, and look for clues for how they should do things. All children have to learn to handle themselves - their bodies and minds, and the world around them. A baby spends most of its first year learning how to handle its body. It learns how to move its arms and legs in a coordinated way, so it can change position and grasp what it wants. It learns how to make its body work as it wants it to. It learns to see, and figure out what it sees; it learns to hear, feel, smell, taste, and eat and digest solid food. In time, it learns how to use its 'brains', and to do what is has to do (dressing itself, opening doors and drawers, going to the toilet). Later on, it discovers what it is better at, and what it is not so good at doing.

At the same time as the baby is learning to handle itself, it is learning to make contact with others. It learns to smile, and return a smile for a smile. It learns to gurgle, coo, kick its legs and so on.

There are three points which affect how a child grows up in a family. How the family gets on with one another, and how the parents get on, affects the child's actions, and attitudes.

The family constellation is also very important - it is the position of each person in the family, and how they all get on with one another. This also affects how the child grows up in a family. Each child will find its own place in its own way. The last point is that the accepted ways of training children have a strong effect on how a child grows up. If parents believe in Dr Spock, or Plunket, or Gesell, they will often use the methods these writers suggest, especially if their parents or their friends use(d) it also.

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The Family

Topic Three - Understanding Ourselves in Our Families When We Were Young (Teacher Guide).

This is a <u>family-exploring</u> topic. We are going to look at ourselves, in our families, when we were young, to try to find a reason or reasons for the way we are now.

Here are some points which may be of use to us.

People do things for a reason, or for a purpose. People try to reach a goal by doing something. Sometimes we know why we do things, sometimes we don't. We all have done something, which made us think afterwards: "Now, why did I do that?" There is a hidden reason for it. The same goes for things that young children, or your younger brothers and sisters do, and you think, or say, "Why did you do that?" If we can understand the reason for it, we can help a child to change from doing something we don't like.

Every child in every family, when it is young (say, under 3 years old) wants to belong. It wants to find her/his place. It tries to find ways to belong, to be a part of its family. Once a way is found, which gets results, the child will stick to it. The results are that the child feels it belongs to the family, and that it reaches its goal. Children know they want to belong. They don't have any idea of how they get to feel they belong. They just do it, whatever it is - scream, draw on the wallpaper, help with the dishes, be quiet, fight, mess themselves - if it lets them feel they belong, (no matter what happens afterwards).

Children are good at watching what people do, but make a lot of mistakes in deciding what is going on. They often get the wrong idea, and pick the wrong way to find their place in the family.

We will look more at that in Topic Four - Understanding Our

Mistaken Goals.

Topic Three - Understanding Ourselves In Our Families When We Were Young. My Early Memories and Behaviour.

Answer these first questions by yourself, using the above heading and a fresh page/sheet.

- 1. What did I do when I was young, which makes me think now 'Why did I use to do that?'
- 2. What do I do now, which makes me think 'Why do I do that?'
- 3. What did I do at home, when I was young, to show I belonged? (Give three examples or more).
- 4. Can I remember three things I got the wrong idea about when I was young?
- 5. What was I good at before I turned five? What could I do, that I got praised or encouraged for? (Try to list 3 items).
- 6. What was I pretty useless at, at the same time, which I got told off for, or punished for? (Try to list 3 items).
- 7. What is my earliest memory? (Write a short paragraph in your own words about that memory don't worry about spelling or grammar).
- 8. Is there any part of my early life I don't like remembering?

 Just write yes or no. (You do not give details unless you really want to).

Discuss with your neighbours in class, the answers you each wrote - see if you can find some conclusions about what you all did when you were young.

Topic Three - Understanding Ourselves in Our Family's When We Were Young. Family Constellations

Answer these first questions by yourself, using the above heading, on a fresh page/sheet.

- 1. Am Ia i. First-born child iv. Last-born child
 - ii. Second-born child (an) Only child v.
 - Middle child Other (specify) ?? iii. vi.
- Have I been displaced? To answer this question, look at this 2. example of the Cooper family:

At the start, there was only Brian and June, for the first 15 months after they were married. Grant came along in 1961. and Alan displaced him the next year. Three years later. Carol displaced Alan. When all the three children were at primary school, seven years later, Sue arrived. She didn't really displace anybody very much.

3. What do I think being displaced means? (Try to see yourself as a very young child who has just had a baby brother come home). How do I feel about the whole idea? What has changed for me? (If you have actually been displaced, describe what happened, and how you felt). Write a short paragraph about it.

We will answer these questions as a class:

- How many of us are there in this class? 4.
- How many of us are: i. First-borns

ii. Second-borns

iii. Middles

iv. Last borns

v. Only children

vi. In more than one group

Move to sit in groups of people as you were born. Pick the first of your two groups if you belong in two groups, i.e. if you were second-born and also a middle child, go to the second-born group.

- 6. Can we find similar situations, or ways in which two or more of us in a group are alike? (Appoint a recorder, and have him/her list details).
- 7. Can we see any ways in which the people in the other groups are like each other, inside school, or outside of it? (Recorder to list findings).

Topic Three - Understanding Ourselves In Our Family's When We Were Young. • Family Atmosphere

Answer these questions by yourself, using the above heading, and a fresh page/sheet.

(NB: A sib is any of your brothers or sisters).

- 1. Which sib was I most like when I was younger?
- 1a. In what ways was I like him/her?
- 2. Which sib was I least like when I was younger?
- 2a. In what ways was I not like him/her?
- 3. Who did I get along best with in my family? (Only children begin here).
- 3a. How come I got along best with this person?
- 4. Whom did I not get on with much at all in my family?
- 4a. How come I didn't get on well with this person?
- 5. What were the advantages of my being in my position in the family?
- 5a. What were the disadvantages?

Discuss your answers to these questions in your groups according to where you were born in your family.

What conclusions can we find from our groups? $\frac{\text{Clue:}}{(\text{Look at positions in the family).}}$

Now go on, and write brief answers to these questions:

- 6. Who, if anyone, got me into trouble?
- 7. Whom, if anyone, did I fight with?
- 8. Whom, if anyone, did I argue or squabble with?
- 9. Whom did I tend to take sides with? (stick up for?)
- 10. Whom did I enjoy playing with?
- 11. Whom did I'get up to things' with?

Discuss as above, in your groups, using the same clue as above.

Topic Three - Understanding Ourselves In Our Families When We Were Young. How Did we See Our Parents?

Answer these questions by yourself, using the above heading, on a fresh page/sheet.

- 1. Whom did I take most notice of when I was young?
- 2. Whom did I try to get round most?
- 3. Whom did I go to when I wanted something?
- 4. Whom did I go to if I wanted to confide in an older person?
- 4a. Whom did I go to if I was in trouble?
- 5. Whom did I disagree with most?

Compare your answers in your groups - Can we find any people with the same, or nearly the same answers as yourselves?

Now go on to these questions - make very brief notes.

- 6. How did I find my father (step-father) when I was young?
- 6a. In what ways was I most like him?
- 6b. In what ways was I not like him at all?
- 7. How did I find my mother (step-mother) when I was young?
- 7a. In what ways was I most like her?
- 7b. In what ways was I not like her at all?
- 8. How well did my parents get on when I was young?
- 9. Who was the boss (at home)? (on holiday, on trips, when the family went out)?
- 10. Were there any other adults who were important to me when I was young?
- 10a. If so, who were they, and what was my connection with them?

WE WILL NOW GO BACK AND LOOK AGAIN AT ALL THE QUESTIONS ON THIS SHEET - HOW DO I FEEL ABOUT THESE QUESTIONS NOW?

(THINK TO YOURSELF ABOUT YOUR ANSWERS FOR YOURSELF, IF YOU WANT TO TALK ABOUT THEM WITH SOMEONE, WHO YOU FEEL, UNDERSTANDS OR ACCEPTS YOU).

Topic Four - Understanding Others' Mistaken Goals (Teacher Guide)

This is a <u>person-exploring</u> topic. We are going to look at the possible reasons for others doing what they did when they were very young, to feel they belonged. (Look at pages 7-8 to refresh your memory if you want to).

Here are some points which may be of use to us.

We have read that young children are good at watching what people do. They go ahead and do what they decide they have to do to belong. They decide on what to do from what they work out other people are doing. However, they do often get the wrong idea. (Jane, aged two, wants to help Mum change baby Ben's nappies. Mum says no every time, and goes on changing Ben herself. Jane starts messing herself to show she belongs, and to get her mother to involve her in the baby's life. She has become a bit of a baby again to get some of Mum's attention.)

If a child does well, and learns that it can cope, and is able to try out new things and have some success, there will not be many problems for it, or for the parents. The child does what the situation requires. If a child has become discouraged (has had a lot of knockbacks or setbacks), he will try anything to find, or keep his place in a group. He has to find a place. For example, Bill doesn't like playing rough games with the boys, so to show he belongs, and to get the group's attention, he bashes the girls.

There are four mistaken goals a child can have. It helps us to understand others' mistaken goals to get on with them. It helps us to understand our mistaken goal to see why we do pointless things sometimes. The first of these goals is attention (wanting to be the centre of attention). A child may do all sorts of things to keep others busy with it, or to get others to notice it. (We

getting too much attention.)

The second mistaken goal is power (also called 'the struggle for power'). This often happens after parents and sibs have tried to use force to stop a child trying to get attention. The child decides to use power to fight back. The child may defy everyone who tries to use force, or refuse to do something, or may do the opposite. For example, Ann wants to play all the time with Mum, who is busy watching T.V. Mum tells Ann off, Ann keeps it up, and Mum ends up by ordering Ann to bed. Ann refuses, is smacked and put to bed. She has forced Mum to take action, and so Ann wins the struggle.

The third mistaken goal happens when the power struggle gets a lot worse. Both sides fight back most of the time. The child may have to use revenge to feel it still belongs. By now, the child may feel it can't be liked, and that it has no power. So, the child only counts when it can hurt others back. For example, Tony's father whacks him hard every time Tony answers back. Tony learns to get at his father by really taking it out on his little brother, Alan.

The last mistaken goal is used by the child, who is completely discouraged (knocked back in all ways). These children try to show how completely useless they are, by giving up trying at anything. They become helpless, and use this to avoid doing most things. For example, Graham is very slow at his school work, and has got behind. His mother expects him to do as well as his sister, Claire, who has caught him up easily at school. She scolds Graham for not doing well, and he gives up. Graham feels that he is going to fail whatever he does, so why should he even try?

One final point - Every child is worth something, and no child is worthless.

Topic Four - Understanding Others' Mistaken Goals Getting The Wrong Idea

- 1. Can I think of any young children I know who have got the wrong idea of things? (Share any examples you can think of).
- 2. Can I think of any example from my own family or close friends, where a child has got the wrong idea of things?
- 3. Can I think of any children I know who are <u>discouraged</u>? (who have been knocked back a lot?)
- 4. What did I do at home when I was a child to get parents' attention when they were busy? What used to happen? Do I think that what I used to do worked out all right for me? Why/Why not?

Draw up the following table (show O.H.P. or BB) on one page/sheet. Head it up <u>Mistaken Goals: Table One</u>. Enter in as many of the spaces as possible names of people who fit into the categories. For example, for the space headed School/Power, you might think of Jim, in Form 4TG, who always answers Mr Brownlie back, and never does what he is told. If you do not want to write in names, put the initials of the people instead, so you will remember all your examples when we come to talk about them.

Some clues to help you work out the difference between Attention - Power - Revenge - Withdrawal are:

- a. If someone tells an attention-getter to stop it, he/she will for a short time, then starts up again.
- b. If someone tells a <u>power-struggler</u> to stop it, he/she will almost always keep on, to show his/her power.
- c. If someone tells a revenger to stop it, and succeeds, he/she will take it out on someone else, usually not long after.
- d. If someone tells a withdrawer to stop it, he/she will give up straight away, and want to be left alone.

Topic Four - Understanding Others' Mistaken Goals
Enter the names of the two or more people involved in the example you think of for each square.

***		TABLE ONE: M	MISTAKEN GOALS	TES	
₩ 100 (3)		LAC			
Mistaken Goal	School	Triends Acquaintences	Family	Neighbours	Sports or other olubs
Attention					
Power					
Revenge			=		
Withdrawal/ Assumed Disability					

Topic Four - Understanding Others' Mistaken Goals What are The Mistaken Goals Here?

- 1. A three-year old, Anne, refused to stay out of the street when she played outside. Her mother had to watch her all the time, and bring her back into the garden. Tellings-off and spankings did no good.
- 2. Four-year old, Gavin, spilled his salad on the table. 'Clean it up, Gavin, said his mother. Gavin looked sulky and did not move. 'Come on. You made the mess, you clean it up.' Gavin kept on looking sulky. His mother cleaned up the salad and didn't say anything more.
- 3. Two of the mother's friends dropped in. Angela, aged four, stood watching eight-month-old Billy crawling around the floor. Her mother and friends were admiring Billy and saying how clever he was. Angela suddenly dashed over and bit Billy on the arm. Her mother grabbed her, spanked her and dragged her to her room.
- 4. Andrew, aged six, greeted his grandmother as she came into the house, 'Gidday, you old wrinklebag!' His mother slapped him hard on the mouth. 'Don't you ever speak to your Granny like that again!' she said. 'Apologise!' Andrew apologised through his angry tears.
- 5. Fiona, aged four, wouldn't stay in bed. She would come out and ask for a drink, she would ask to go to the toilet, she would try to climb into her parents' laps, as they sat watching T.V.
- 6. Brian, aged nine, came home from school with another maths test saying 'Must try harder. 2/10'. His mother looked at the test and told him off severely, saying, 'Why can't you do as well as your sister? You're a disgrace to the family!' Brian shrugged his shoulders and went off into his bedroom and shut the door.
- 7. Lyn's mother often had friends round in the afternoons. Lyn, aged four, was usually asked to go and play by herself. However, within a short time, she would start bringing her jigsaw puzzles in show to the visitors. When her mother told her off, Lyn would resignedly pack up her puzzles, leave the room, and come back in again soon afterwards with some other toys. She kept this up most afternoons, in spite of the regular tellings-off.

Topic Five - What Can We Do About Children's Mistaken Goals?

(Teacher Guide)

Here are some points which may be of use to the understanding of this topic. (See also the Chart on Page 22).

Natural and Logical Consequences

Many parents punish children for doing 'wrong' things, or for not doing what they are 'supposed to do'. How useful is punishment if a child keeps on doing the wrong thing?

Many parents praise children for doing the 'right' thing, or for not doing something naughty. How useful is praise when the child expects rewards every time he/she is good, even if only for a short while? What use is a reward if the child is naughty often?

What happens when a child forgets its lunch? The child goes hungry. What heppens when a child touches a hot plate? The child gets burnt. These are <u>natural consequences</u> of a child's forgetting/being careless. Except where the child might get badly hurt, we should allow him/her to find out the consequences of what he/she does.

A child has to learn responsibility for itself. A child has to take the consequences of its acts. We cannot learn for them, or take their consequences. We have to mind our own business, and let the child learn to mind its own. If we mind the child's business (force it to eat, for example), it will learn to mind ours (force us to do something when we don't want to).

Look for the child's goal. In many cases, it will be to get extra attention. If there is a natural consequence, let it happen, (if the child isn't going to be badly injured). If not, ask yourself, 'What will happen if I don't interfere?' Let the child see the consequence of what he/she does, by arranging the result. For example, if a child leaves clothes and toys all over the house, the parent can put them out of sight and reach. If the child asks for them, the parent can say, calmly, 'I'm sorry, but I put that away because it was in the way of my cleaning/hoovering/etc. Ask me tomorrow and I'll give you your toy'. This is a Logic of the consequence.

			1
Mistaken Goal	What Child is Saying	How Parent Often Feels	What Parent Can Do
Attention	Watch me. Notice me. Do what I want.	Annoyed. Impatient. Delighted (with 'good' child). Upset. 'I want you!'	Ignore. Do the unexpected. Give attention at pleasant times. Use logical consequences where you can.
Power	I'm the boss. Do what I say, or else	Provoked. Angry. Challenged. 'I'll show you!'	Withdraw. (Get out of it). Be friendly. Treat your child as your equal. Work on one power problem at a time. Use logical consequences.
Revenge	I'll hurt you by hurting I'll get you back somehow.	Hurt. Really mad. 'How could you?'	Win child round. Don't fight back: Take time to help child. Keep order with logica consequences if possible.
Withdrawal/ Assumed Disability	I'm no good. I'm useless. I can't do it, so I won't do any- thing.	Despairing. Hopeless. 'I give up!'	Encourage. (This may take a long time). Have faith in child and child's ability.

SOCIAL EDUCATION

The Family

Topic Five - What Can We Do About Children's Mistaken Goals?

What Happened To Us?

Move into your groups. Use the following questions to look at the list of everyday situations.

- i. What was the mistaken goal?
- ii. Who won out?
- iii. What was the natural or logical consequence? (if any)
 - v. What would I have done in my parents' place?

List of Situations: (Check out with each group member what happened when he/she was a child in this situation).

- a. Getting up late/getting up too early in the morning.
- b. Not eating all your food.
- c. Leaving late for school.
- d. Leaving your room untidy.
- e. Refusing to go to bed/trying to stay up late.
- f. Showing off with visitors.
- g. Not doing homework.
- h. Being late for tea.
- i. Leaving toys outside/in the lounge.
- j. Not doing your chores/jobs around the house.

NB: Some situations may not apply to some people. Try to figure out why, for example, you always keep your room tidy.

Topic Five - What Can We Do About Children's Mistaken Goals?

What Would I Do If I Were A Parent In This

Situation?

Look for the goal - look for a consequence to improve the situation.

- 1. Three-year old, Bruce, spilled his porridge at breakfast.
 'Clean it up, Bruce, said his mother. Bruce made a face, and said nothing. 'Comeon. You did it, you clean it up!' His mother waited. Bruce made another face. His mother cleaned up the porridge and said no more about it.
- 2. Four-year old Tracey, wouldn't take a shower in the changing rooms after swimming in the sea. Her mother, who had finished her shower, said, I'll smack you if you don't get in that shower right this minute!' Tracey refused, got smacked, and was put, wet and sandy, in the back seat of the car.
- 3. Nine-year old, Craig, came in to tea with dirty hands. 'What a piggy boy!' said his mother. 'What do you mean by coming to the table like that! And look at your hair! And that shirt collar! And I suppose your towel's filthy!' Craig looked down, and said sadly, 'You always say I'm useless.'
- 4. Mary and her father were at the TAB. 'Stand right by me,' said her father. Mary moved away. 'Come back here!' called her father. Mary stood still. Her father kept writing, then Mary ran for the door. 'Come back at once, Mary!' her father called. Mary ignored him, and stood in the doorway watching the traffic.
- 5. Dad had taken five-year old, Greg, to the supermarket to do the shopping. After paying for all the items, father noticed Greg carrying a bag of marshmallows. 'Where did you get that?' he demanded. Greg looked scared. 'Over there', he pointed. 'You little thief! That's stealing, what you just did! You're just trying to make trouble for me!' The father spanked Greg, hauled him back inside, and paid the clerk, while apologizing for his son's dreadful behaviour.
- 6. It was a little before bedtime, and Sandy's toys were all over the floor of the living room. Her mother said, 'It's time for bed. Would you like me to help you pick up your toys, and put them away, or do you want to do it by yourself?' (This approach usually worked). Sandy said, 'No, I'm too tired to pick them up'. Her mother replied, 'You jolly well get on and pick ...

them up, or no story for you! Sandy burst into tears, and ran into her room.

- 7. Father was working in the garage. Paul, aged eight, wandered in, and picked up a saw. 'Put that down at once, you'll hurt yourself!' his father said straight away. Paul put it down, and picked up a chisel. 'Didn't you hear me, Paul?' Paul retreated, put the chisel down, and grabbed a cutting knife.
- 8. Melissa, aged four, sucked her thumb when she was sad or upset. Her mother was very worried about it, and spoke to Melissa about it a lot. Melissa started sucking her thumb more and more.
- 9. Colin, aged seven, was always getting into trouble at school. His parents kept telling him off. His parents spent a lot of their time with Colin's baby sister, Kay. Colin wasn't allowed to help with Kay, because he was a bit clumsy. One day, Colin's mother came into the kitchen and found Colin putting a lighted match on Kay's arm.
- 10. Joan is an only child. She is spoilt. She and her mother went to tea at Grandma's place. Joan wanted pikelets for tea. She cried and whined when her mother said, 'You'll eat what Granny gives you!' Joan kept on whining. Her mother smacked her, and told her to be quiet. Joan started howling, and had to be taken home before the meal was finished.
 - 11. Graham, aged six, greeted his grandfather as he came into the house, 'Hiya, baldy!' His father smacked him hard on the cheek. 'How dare you speak to your Grandad like that, Graham! Apologise!' he said. Andrew, in tears, apologised.
 - 12. Two of the mother's friends dropped in. Angela, aged four, stood watching eight-month-old Billy crawling around the floor. Her mother and friends were admiring Billy and saying how clever he was. Angela suddenly dashed over and bit Billy on the arm. Her mother grabbed her, spanked her and dragged her to her room.
 - 13. Brian, aged nine, came home from school with another maths test saying 'Must try harder. 2/10'. His mother looked at the test and told him off severely, saying, 'Why can't you do as well as your sister? You're a disgrace to the family!' Brian shrugged his shoulders and went off into his bedroom and shut the door.

SOCIAL EDUCATION

The Family

A Study Unit for Younger People

Summary of Unit One

- 1. Almost all of us here in New Zealand have a family, or familytype group we belong to. We may belong to more than one group like this during our lives. We may belong to family groups for all, or most or some of our lives.
- 2. Every family has a family pattern. We can depict or describe a family pattern in several ways. A family pattern can tell us something about a particular family.
- 3. Every child wants to belong, to be a part of his/her family. A child will do what he/she thinks is right for him/her to belong to the family. Children make a lot of mistakes in deciding what they should do to belong, from wrongly interpreting the actions of people in their family. These things may affect a child's growing up in a family; the family atmosphere, how the parents get on, the family constellation, the present methods of raising children.

Families often have one main problem or one 'problem' son or daughter. Many children will have one (or more) brothers or sisters they do not get on with, except in families where there is an only child. Many children will have one (or more) brothers or sisters they get on well with, much or at least some of the time.

- 4. Most children in most families develop one or more basic goals within that family, at some early stage of their lives. There are only four basic goals attention, power, 'revenge' (getting back at someone) and withdrawal (which is sometimes called 'assumed disability'). These four goals are mistaken goals.
- 5. We use the natural and logical consequences of the situation to improve the situation for ourselves and for a child. We have to let the child find out the consequences of his/her actions.

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UNIT TWO

'LEAVING HOME'

INTRODUCTION

To those using this unit of work:

Sooner or later, nearly all of you will leave 'home', at least for some years. Most of you will leave, or will contemplate leaving home within the next five to seven years. Some of you may already have set future plans - you want to go back on the farm, you want to join the family business, or you may now live away from home.

Seven questions you will probably have to consider at some stage in these next five to seven years are:

- 1. How do I want to live?
- 2. How come I want to leave?
- 3. When am I going to leave?
- 4. Where am I going to live?
- 5. Who am I going to live with?
- 6. What living costs will I have?
- 7. How will I meet those costs?

The first two questions involves your thoughts and feelings, your ideas and plans, your values and wants and needs.

The last five questions deal with the <u>facts</u> of leaving home. Your answers to these questions will be affected by your answers to the first two questions - once you have some idea of how you feel you might want to live, and how come you want to leave, you have started to answer the other basic questions.

Notes for Unit Two

At the end of this unit, check to see if you understand the meanings of these key words and phrases: values, wants, needs, life-styles, option, specific/general, living costs, fully-furnished, semi-furnished, unfurnished, bed-and-breakfast, bed-sitter, board, rent, kitty.

'Leaving Home'

Topic One

Teacher Guide

HOW DO I WANT TO LIVE?

Many young people get to the point where they want to leave home. Some leave. Some stay on. Some sort out their reasons for leaving, other just leave. Some think about how they want to live, others leave without considering any of the possibilities.

If we learn about ourselves - our values, wants and needs - we can start building up a picture of our <u>life-style</u>. A life-style is a mixture of how we are living, and how we want to live, in terms of our values, and needs. When we get to a point where we gradually become dissatisfied with how we are living, we often consider leaving home to live how we want to live.

Questions to consider at the end of this unit:

- Can we live how we want to, straight after leaving home?
 (Why/why not?)
- What right and responsibilties are common to us in all living situations after we leave home?
- 3. What alternative can you think of, which would help young people like yourselves, to adjust better to everyday life after leaving home?

Topic One - How Do I Want To Live?

MY PRESENT WAY OF LIFE

Fill in these incomplete sentences from your own life, using the above heading, on a fresh page/sheet.

- 1. My family calls me
- 2. My friends call me
- 3. I prefer to be called
- 4. I live (at home, in a hostel, flat, etc.)
- 5. I live with these people:
- 6. Where I live, I get on best with
- 7. Where I live, I get on not so well with
- 8. Where I live, we usually together
- 9. Where I live, we occasionally together
- 10. Where I live, we never together
- 11. I enjoy doing with the people I live with/my family
- 12. With people outside my family, I enjoy
- 13. On my own, I enjoy
- 14. Around the house, I don't like doing
- 15. I don't mind doing around the house
- 16. I have to around the house
- 17. I can choose to around the house
- 18. I can have of the people I like to visit my house
- 19. I can visit of the people I want to visit
- 20. I can go out
- 21. I can stay out
- 22. When I go out, I like to wear
- 23. When I go out, I like to
- 24. I am allowed to at home
- 25. I allow myself to outside of home
- 26. The group/'crowd' I mix with are
- 27. Where I live, we talk about
- 28. When I am with my friends, we talk a lot about

Topic One - How Do I Want To Live?

Teacher Guide

VALUES

- 1. We all have values, whether we admit to them or not. We may be aware of some of our values, and unaware of others. Being clearer about our values can be useful, enjoyable, and helpful to ourselves and others.
- 2. Values mean different things to different people. Values are defined in many ways. The word 'values' means something different to each person. Two or more people may share the same value. People take on values they don't just happen.
- 3. We can value something we own or share or do, just for itself. Jan may value playing indoor basketball. Gary may value his Yamaha 360 Trail Bike. We may also value the same thing, for what it gives us. Jan may value indoor basketball, because it keeps her in shape. Gary may value his bike, because it gives him some freedom.
- 4. We can also value qualities (like patience, generosity, trustworthiness, kindness and cool-headedness) <u>in</u> others, and <u>in</u> ourselves.
- 5. Below is given a range of meanings for the statement 'I value my sleep'. The Concise Oxford Dictionary was used to find these:

My sleep is important to me

I appreciate my sleep

My sleep is worth a lot to me

- I pride myself on my ability to sleep
- I prize my sleep highly
- I have a high opinion of the value of sleep
- I need my sleep
- I want regular sleep

So, one person may value sleep, because it is refreshing. Another may value sleep, because it means she can get away from the kids for a few hours. Values do have different meanings for different people.

Topic One - How Do I Want To Live?

MY VALUES

- 1. What do I value? List ten things you do, share or own, which you value.
- 2. If someone says to you, 'I value exercise' or 'I value wood-work' or 'I value your opinion', what do you think he/she means? Give three or more meanings for each of the above statements, in your own words.
- 3. Take each of the values you wrote in Question One, and extend it in this way:

I value my, because it gives me
or

I value my, because I depend on it for my

- 4. Which of the things you wrote in Question One are most important to you at the moment?
- 5. Which of the values you wrote in Question Three are most important to you at the moment?
- 6. Fill in the endings to these sentences with possible values:
 - a. I value food, because I depend on it
 - b. I value having my own room, because it gives me
 - c. I value living at home, because it gives me
 - d. I value my friends, because I depend on them
 - e. I value living out in the country, because it gives me
 - f. I value my holidays, because they give me
 - g. I value money, because it gives me
 - h. I value going out, because it gives me

Discuss these questions in your 5 groups (see OHP transparency or BB).

- 7. What do we value in others? (Example 'I value Roger's honesty')
- 8. What else might we value others for?
- 9. What do we value in ourselves?

Topic One - How Do I Want To Live?

FROM VALUES TO NEEDS (Teacher Guide)

1. What Do We Need? (Example from class ...)

To help us answer this question, we are going to look at a diagram called the <u>need framework</u>. It may help us to see how our needs fit together and depend on one another. This need-framework was worked out by a man called Abraham Maslow. He spent a lot of time studying healthy and super-healthy people. His plan was to try and find out why these people were so healthy. He used the need-framework to help him.

Diagram 1 (Draw on blackboard or on OHP transparency).

2. The diagram goes like this. Everyone starts off as a new-born baby (or maybe even earlier) with certain basic body needs, such as ...? We move upwards in the diagram once we have satisfied, in our own way, the needs lower down. So, if we are hungry, or thirsty, we are not going to be thinking much about becoming an

All Black, or about how our friends will like our new shoes.

3. Once we get to the stage where we can honestly say, most of the time, 'I reckon I'm OK as a person' and where other people respect us, or like getting around with us, or don't mind us getting around with them (treat us as OK) then we reach (for a while) the part of the diagram where the super-healthy people have got to. This doesn't mean that they are super-fit. It means that their lives are a healthy balance of their needs - all of them. Whom do we know who is always cheerful, never seems to get ill, has a lot of energy, makes and keeps friends easily, is good at almost everything they try to do, and praises rather than pulls down?

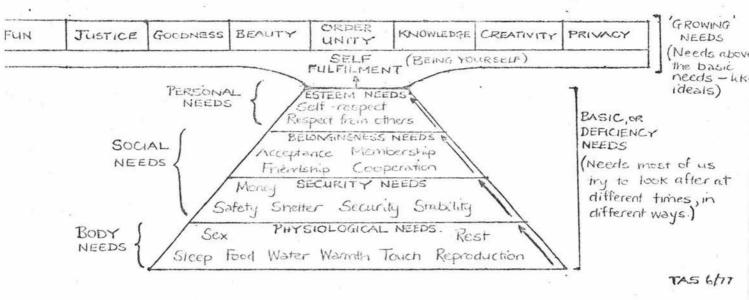
How many examples have we found? What can we figure from this?

4. When you get to the top row of needs, you are usually more interested in looking out for others basic needs than in concentrating on your own. Many of us reach out for one or more of these needs in the top row, but we don't have to satisfy this need a lot of the time, like the super-healthy person. Most of us put ourselves first, most of the time.

Topic One - How Do I Want To Live?

TABLE THREE:

A NEED FRAMEWORK



Leaving Home

Topic One - How Do I Want To Live?

FROM VALUES TO NEEDS

- 1. Draw on on a fresh sheet, the need-framework, filling in the needs on each level from the OHP transparency/BB. You will need to use one complete side to fit everything in.
- 2. List any other needs you can think of, on the level where they fit in the diagram you drew for Question One.
- 3. Think of two people you know on each level of the framework. List the five levels, and write the names of your two people beside the level each is needing to satisfy regularly. (Clue start off with very young children at the lower levels).
- 4. Look at the top row of needs. Are there any of them you feel you have satisfied at any time, even if only for a few minutes or more? List any you have.

Now move into your five groups. Look at people's answers for Questions Two, Three and Four. Appoint a recorder. Note general findings briefly to share in a full class session.

- 5. Who do you know who is likely to be on the top row of needs most of the time? Give reasons. Look at people in your city/area, your country, other countries, the world.
- 6. How are values and needs tied in with each other?
- 7. Fill in the gaps in the following statements to make them true for you:

I value because it gives me I need to meet my needs.

Now write out the sentence three more times, covering three more of your values.

- 8. What am I good at? List 3-5 things you are good at, or which you think you are at least a little better than average at.
- 9. What does the rest of the group think I'm good at? We will check out each thing we put for ourselves in our groups in our next session.

Topic One - How Do I Want To Live?

FROM NEEDS TO WANTS AND WISHES (Teacher Guide)

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- 1. What do you want? What do you want to do in life? How do you want to live? I wish that I
- 2. We all have wants and wishes, whether we admit it to others or not. Some wishes we keep secret, some we tell. Some wants we don't see in ourselves.
- 3. Wants mean different things to different people. Wants can easily be confused with needs. We often blur the line between them.
- 4. Some things we want we don't need and other things we need we don't want. Ann, who has a good complexion, wants some iridescent make-up, but does she really need it? Alan's mother insists he eats 'greens', but Alan doesn't want to know about them.
- 5. A simple difference between wants and needs is: you cannot usually do without the (basic) things you need, but you can do without a lot of the things you want.
- 6. We often tie our wants in with our mistaken goal from childhood Gail wears loud clothes because she wants to be
 noticed (among other reasons), Keith argues because he wants
 to win over people with words, Trev kicks the neighbour's dog
 because he's been walloped by his father, and Marion reads in
 her room so people will leave her alone.
- 7. Most people have a secret wish, which they aim for. Some few people make it, most don't. The ones that don't may settle for something less, or may keep on about how unlucky they were or are.

Topic One - How Come I Want To Leave? How Do I Want To Live?

FROM NEEDS TO WANTS AND WISHES

Answer these questions by yourself, using the above heading, on a fresh page/sheet. Make brief notes only.

- 1. What do I want? (List 5 possessions you want within the next 5 years.)
- 2. What do I want to do in life?
- 3. What do I want from others?
- 4. What do I want which I don't really need? (Give at least 3 examples).
- 5. What do I need that I really don't want? (Give at least 3 examples).
- 6. Head up two columns 'Needs' and 'Wants'. Write each word in the list below in the column where it belongs for you.

oxygen peace and quiet alcohol (drinks) money privacy eight hours sleep a night friends a set of 'wheels' modern clothes regular exercise cigarettes vitamin C pop music self-confidence School Certificate prayer greasies sunglasses rest

Move into your five groups and compare notes on Questions 1-6. What can you work out from comparing notes?

Next. look at Question Seven.

- 7. We have been looking at Abraham Maslow's need-framework, and the basic needs every human being has. Are you going to have different needs after you leave home? Are you going to want different things?
- 8. Do you have a secret wish? Colin Meads did he made the All Blacks. June Opie did she learnt to walk again. Sir Edmund Hillary did he climbed Mt Everest. Some people have a secret wish to run their own business, to become mayor, to have a good time, to travel to a particular country, to be a good father, mother, wife, husband, or person. What is your secret wish? Are you going to have to leave home to follow that wish?

Move into your 5 groups again, and share your wants and wishes if you feel you can. Perhaps we could all agree not to say anything about this outside the classroom, if that would help people.

Leaving Home

Topic One - How Do I Want To Live?

LIFESTYLES (Teacher Guide)

- 1. We have been looking at our values, our wants and our needs.
 We have to tie these together to make up a picture of our life-style. Part of our life-style will come from our parents, and what they have shown us about everyday life, and part comes from other people.
- 2. Most people do not want to live exactly the same way as their parents did. Most people do not want to be complete different. We all tend to mix the two together, and use the best from both, for us.
- 3. Parents and children all over the world disagree over certain bits and pieces of their respective life-styles. It is a process which happens naturally as children become adults, and want to live their own lives.
- 4. Your life-style is what you make it. No-one else can live yours for you. No-one else can take yours away from you, unless you break the rules of the society you live in, in following your life-style.
- 5. Our life-styles only become possible if we are in a situation where we can control our own lives, most of the time. Some people choose to stay at home to do this, more leave home.

 The choice is up to us.

Leaving Home

Topic One - How Do I Want To Live?

LIFESTYLES

Answer these questions by yourself, using the above heading, on a fresh page/sheet.

- 1. Write a little about your feelings on these aspects of your lifestyle. Look at where you are now, whether you want to change the situation, and if so, what you want to change to. (Maximum of 50 words on any one aspect).
 - a) The way I want to dress

b) The way I want to talk

c) The transport I want to have

d) The job I want to get

- e) The groups I want or like to belong to
- f) The activities I want to take part in
- g) The friends I want to have
- h) The things I want to own
 i) The places I want to go to
- j) The money I want to ...

Move into your five groups, together with your answers. Appoint a recorder. Look at the first question to do with your dress, and note the range of answers which come from the group. Now, move into the group which is closest to your view of that aspects of your lifestyle. There may be two groups only, there may be a dozen. For example, you may have groups who prefer (a) casual clothing, (b) rough clothing, (c) the latest fashions, (d) conservative clothes, It does not matter greatly how the group divides itself up. The groups can choose their own appropriate titles.

Next, look at the second question, and look at the range of answers again. Repeat the group-shifting process if necessary. Continue for each question.

For each individual, these are your instructions: label the question and write down all the members of the group you are in, plus its title.

At the end of the session, look at your data, and answer the following questions:

- A. Did anyone follow exactly the same lifestyle as me?
- B. Were there any people who shared in at least 5 groups with me?
- C. If so, what is my connection with these people?
- D. What conclusions can we draw from this?

Leaving Home

Topic One - How Do I Want To Live?

HOW COME I WANT TO LEAVE HOME?

Some people leave home, because it seems the obvious thing to do. Some people leave home, because they get nudged out. Some people think about why they want to leave, others just up and leave. It may be useful for us to look at this question in our groups, to see if we are like one another in this respect.

Reasons for leaving may be tied up with jobs, sports, friends, independence, travel, and so on. Whatever it is, it will to be a reason important enough for you to leave.

Answer these questions in your groups. Listen to each other's feelings about leaving home. How would you feel if you were in their shoes?

- 1. What general reasons might I have for wanting to leave?
- 2. What specific reasons, if any, do I have, for wanting to leave?
- 3. Do any of us share similar reasons? Why/why not?
- 4. Can the groups think of any people who have left home for the following reasons?

Marriage, training elsewhere in NZ, to live by themselves, to live with friends, to travel overseas, to become independent, to live with one other person, to study away from home, to work away from home, to get away from a situation, person or people.

Topic Two - The Facts of Leaving Home (Teacher Guide)

- 1. Some people leave home without thinking about what they are doing - they may have strong reasons for doing so. Some people leave home fully prepared. Most people leave home knowing a few of the facts, and a few of the options. We can help ourselves by checking out the present facts of leaving home.
- 2. Timing when you leave is worthwhile. After school? After study or training? When you're fed up? You may have to leave later or earlier than you first planned. A job may come up, a training course may begin, you may find a place in a flat, you're not getting on so well at home, your family may be shifting.
- 3. Choosing where you live (City or country? Flat, board, hostel, or ...?) may depend on one or more factors. Training, jobs, study, travel, friends can all influence your choice.
- 4. When you first leave home, you may you may not have some say in whom you live with. We may choose to live with relatives, friends, or people we know, but we may equally well have to live with the above, or with people we don't know at all.
- 5. How much your living costs are going to be, may depend on where you live and what type of housing you live in. You cannot control these costs much. You can control your personal costs. You may share control of some group costs. Some costs you will have to meet daily, some weekly, monthly or yearly.
- 6. How you meet your costs is up to the sources you can call on - from a job, or jobs, from parents, from loans, from shares, interest, or dividends.

Topic Two - The Facts of Leaving Home (Teacher Guide)

7. On the next pages are lists of options. Some will be more to your liking than others. Some will be ones you feel you will be able to choose now in the future, some you may not consider for your own reasons. Some options are followed by a large number of people, some options are only followed by a handful. All the options presented are options for someone or some people living in New Zealand - they are largely taken from questionnaires administered by secondary school pupils in their local communities.

Topic Two - The Facts of Leaving Home

WHEN I AM GOING TO LEAVE?

Answer these first questions by yourself, using a fresh page/sheet and the above heading. List the number of the question, and write the one or more options which are closest to when you think you will leave.

(If Living At Home)

- 1. When do I think I might leave home?
 - a) Before I finish school
 - b) Straight after I finish school
 - c) After I have found a full time job
 - d) After I have been working for a while
 - e) After I am accepted for training
 - f) When I'm fed up/ready to leave
 - g) When I begin studying
- 2. What main reason is there for me leaving when I do?
 - a) Work

d) Travel

b) Study

e) Parents/Family/Sib(s)

c) Training

f) Other

Move into fours. Appoint a recorder to take notes.

- 3. What factors might cause you to leave earlier than you planned?
- 4. What factors might keep you at home longer than you thought?
- 5. What advantages might there be in your leaving earlier? What disadvantages?
- 6. What advantages might there be in your 'staying' on? What disadvantages?

Topic Two - The Facts of Leaving Home

WHERE AM I GOING TO LIVE?

Read these first questions by yourself. Use the OHP example to help you with your answers.

- 1. Straight after I leave home (I think), I would probably live:
 - a) In the same area/town/city as I do now, OR In a different area/town/city.
 - b) Near the centre of a town/city (Which?)
 - OR In the (outer) suburbs of a town/city (Which?)
 - OR In a smaller town or country town
 - OR In a country area close to town
 - OR Right out in the country
 - OR Moving from place to place
 - OR Other specify

NB: You may like two or more options equally. Write both down.

- 2. Straight after I leave home (I think), I would probably live:
 - a) In a house like my present one
 - OR In a older place
 - OR In a newer place
 - OR In a 'lived-in' place
 - OR In other conditions (specify)
 - b) In a place with a few rooms
 - OR In a place with a lot of rooms
 - OR It doesn't bother me
 - OR Other specify
 - c) In a place by itself
 - OR In a place in a street
 - OR In a place in a block of flats (Coronation Street or high-rise types)
 - d) In a place off the road if possible
 - OR In a place on the road/street-front
 - OR It doesn't bother me
 - OR Other specify

Topic Two - The Facts of Leaving Home

WHERE AM I GOING TO LIVE?

- 3. Straight after I leave home (I think), I would prefer to live:
 - i. In a flat
 - ii. In a hostel
 - iii. In a boarding house
 - iv. In a bed-and-breakfast'
 - v. In a bed-sitter (one room, cook for yourself—often in your room)
 - vi. In a commune, ohu or community
 - vii. In a crib, bach, bungalow or cottage
 - viii. In a hut/works hut/camping ground hut
 - ix. In a block of flats
 - x. In a farm house/farm cottage
 - xi. In a hotel, motel, or guest house
 - xii. In any of the following: van, car, tent, caravan
 - xiii. On a boat/ship
 - xiv. Other (specify)

NB: You may find more than one option equally preferable - list the one or ones you prefer most.

4. Go back to Question Three, and use the above options to answer this statement:

Straight after I leave home (I think), I may have to live:

5,6,7. Now put yourself in the position where you have left home for a few months or years. Look at Questions 1-3 again, and answer them using this statement:

Now I have enough money to live on, and I can save a little, I would prefer to live:

Topic Two - The Facts of Leaving Home

(OHP transparency or Wall Chart, plus Banda or Gestetner sheets)

WHERE AM I GOING TO LIVE?

STRAIGHT AFTER I LEAVE HOME

NAME: George Waru

Form 5G

I WOULD PROBABLY LIVE:

- 1. (AREA): a. In a different area
 - b. In the suburbs of a town/city (Wellington or Wanganui)
- 2. (CONDITIONS): a. In an older place
 - b. In a place with a few rooms
 - c. In a place in a block of flats
 - d. Doesn't matter

I WOULD PREFER TO LIVE:

- 3. (TYPE) Choice: 1. In a block of flats
- (If you have other equal choices)
- 2. In a boarding house.

4. (TO BE REALISTIC, I MAY HAVE TO LIVE):

Choice 1. In a works hut (MOW)

(or maybe) 2. In a bed-and-breakfast Choice

IF I HAD ENOUGH MONEY TO LIVE ON, AND I COULD SAVE A LITTLE, I WOULD PREFER TO LIVE:

- 5. (Future AREA): a. In a different area
 - b. In a country area close to town
- 6. (Future CONDITIONS): a. In a 'lived-in' place
 - b. In a place with a few rooms
 - c. In a place by itself
 - d. In a place off the road
- 7. (Future TYPE): 1. In a cottage, or bach
 - 2. In a farm cottage.

SOCIAL EDUCATION
Leaving Home
Topic Two - The Facts of Leaving Home

WHO AM I GOING TO LIVE WITH? (Teacher Guide)

Often, when we leave home, we are forced, for one reason or another, to live with people we don't really know or care about. Sometimes we have to live with people we don't particularly want to live with. At the same time we may have ideas about the kind of people we would like to live with. We may have friends we want to live with. We may meet people we want to live with through a job, a club, a sport, through going out. Our values, wants and needs will influence us in our choice of who we live or have to live with. It depends on what is most important to us at the time — our job, having a good time, the people we live with, saving money or whatever it is.

On the next page is a list of options. Read them and select the options which you may have to take, (depending on what your future plans are). Next, go through the list again, and state which options you would prefer, if you had more choice in the matter. Use the example on the wall chart/OHP transparency to help you.

Topic Two - The Facts of Leaving Home

WHO AM I GOING TO LIVE WITH?

- 1. Straight after I leave home I may have to live:
 - a. With another family
 - b. With one other person
 - c. With a small group of my own sex
 - d. With a small mixed group
 - e. With a larger group of my own sex
 - f. With a larger mixed group
 - g. By myself
 - h. Other specify
- 2. Straight after I leave home I may have to live:
 - a. With people of about my own age
 - b. With people a little younger than myself
 - c. With people a little older than myself
 - d. With people of different ages
 - e. It wouldn't bother me
- 3. Straight after I leave home I may have to live:
 - a. With relatives, or another member of my family
 - b. With people I work with
 - c. With people I share activities with
 - d. With fellow-students, or other trainees
 - e. With friends of the family
 - f. With a boyfriend or girlfriend
 - g. With my own friends
 - h. Other specify
- 4. Go through Questions One to Three again, and find the options you would take, if you had more choice in the matter.

Topic Two - The Facts of Leaving Home

(OHP transparency, or Wall Chart, plus Banda or Gestetner sheets)

WHO AM I GOING TO LIVE WITH?

STRAIGHT AFTER I LEAVE HOME

NAME: George Waru

Form: 5G

I MAY HAVE TO LIVE:

- 1. (GROUP SIZE): 1.
 - (or maybe) 2.
- 2. (AGE OR PEOPLE): 1.
 - (or maybe) 2.
- 3. (TYPE OF GROUP): 1.
 - (or maybe) 2.

IF I HAD MORE CHOICE IN THE MATTER, I WOULD LIKE TO LIVE:

- 4. (GROUP SIZE): 1.
 - (or maybe) 2.
- 5. (AGE OF PEOPLE): 1.
 - (or maybe) 2.
- 6. (TYPE OF GROUP): 1.
 - (or maybe) 2.
 - (or maybe) 3.
- 7. For Questions 1-3, What might force me to live this way?
- 8. For Questions 4-6, What might force me to change? (List 3 or more factors).

Leaving Home

Topic Two - The Facts of Leaving Home

WHAT LIVING COSTS WILL I HAVE? (Teacher Guide)

- 1. Wherever we live, or whoever we live with, (after we leave home), we have costs to meet.
- 2. Costs vary from place to place. Costs may be high in a large city, quite low in a remote country area, and in between, in a town.
- 3. Inflation affects your living costs at any time, as prices vary.
- 4. Your living costs are affected by your life-style. In the long run, if you live high, you pay more. If you budget carefully, you pay less.
- If you want to save money, you have to learn to cut your living costs.

A project follow on pages 53-58. It is composed of two instruction sheets, (teacher and pupil), an interview sheet, and a summary sheet.

Topic Two - The Facts of Leaving Home

WHAT LIVING COSTS WILL I HAVE? (Teacher Checklist)

A. IF I WERE WITH A GROUP:

i) IN A FULLY-FURNISHED FLAT:

(Likely costs) Rent, P & T, Power/Fuel, Food, Incidentals (Paper, cleaning materials, etc).

(Possible costs) TV Hire/Licence, Personal Effects, Insurance (Group), Some Repairs.

ii) IN A SEMI- or UNFURNISHED FLAT:

(Likely costs) As above, plus buying a 'fridge, washing machine, lounge suite, carpets, table and chairs.

(Possible costs) As above, plus utensils, pots and pans, deepfreeze, drink supply.

B. IF I HAD A YOUNG FAMILY OF MY OWN:

- i) IN A FULLY-FURNISHED FLAT: As above in A(i), plus clothing, transport, insurances (life, car, effects), toys, linen (towels, sheets, blankets, etc).
- ii) IN A SEMI-FURNISHED FLAT: As above in A(ii), including possibly utensils, pots and pans, deepfreeze, radio, TV.

C. WHICH ARE PERSONAL TO ME:

(Possible costs) Clothing, footwear, entertainment,
membership of clubs, travel, correspondence,
sweets, alcohol, tobacco, hobbies/interests,
incidental meals, medical, dental and legal
costs, transport, insurances (life, car/bike,
personal effects), linen, toiletries.

Leaving Home

Topic Two - The Facts of Leaving Home

WHAT LIVING COSTS WILL I HAVE?

Answer these questions in pairs, using the underlined headings below, as best you can. Make neat brief notes only. We will check our answers out during our project.

- 1. What might I expect to find in a fully-furnished flat?
 FULLY FURNISHED FLAT
- 2. What might I expect to find in a semi-furnished flat?

 SEMI-FURNISHED FLAT
- 3. What might I expect to find in an unfurnished flat?
 UNFURNISHED FLAT
- 4. What is a "kitty"?
 KITTY
- 5. If I were in a fully-furnished flat with a group, what living costs might I have to share in?
 SHARED LIVING COSTS IN A FLAT
- 6. If I had a young family of my own, what living costs might I have in a fully-furnished flat?
 LIVING COSTS IN A FLAT WITH MY OWN FAMILY
- 7. If I were in a fully-furnished flat with a group, what personal costs (not shared costs) might I have?

Project on Living Costs

TEACHER INSTRUCTION SHEET

- 1. Let the class divide into pairs which feel confident they can working with each other.
- Obtain 2 maps of your city/town area (divided into collection areas), from a local service organisation - Jaycees, SIH, Lions, Rotary, etc.
- 3. Pin one map on a wall as a reference chart.
- 4. Cut the other into its segments, after pasting onto cardboard/ thick card.
- 5. Select appropriate areas/segments. (Try to pinpoint areas with rental/board accommodation for younger people and families, rather than home-owner areas).
- 6. Assign appropriate areas to each pair. Leave some areas as back-ups.
- *7. Obtain permission for project from dean/principal.
- *8. Telephone local radio/TV station (if any) to arrange a news item, to give the local people some warning.
- *9. Send an article to the local newspaper.
- (*Good PR is vital to the success of this type of project).
- 10. Explain details of project on Student Instruction Sheet give out copies.
- 11. Assign times for class to go out, (avoid Monday mornings, paydays, and Friday afternoons) once you have been cleared to do this project work in school time.
- 12. Give out 8 Projects Sheets to each pair.
- 13. Keep a folder for each pair for completed Project Sheets.
- 14. Fix a time limit for all Projects Sheets to be handed in (say 2 weeks).
- NB: *Some Project Work may have to be done in the evenings send a notice home to parents telling them of the project, and the responsibilities of the pupils.

SOCIAL EDUCATION
Project on Living Costs

Teacher Guide

IDEA

We have been looking at the topic of 'Living Costs'. We are going to mount a research project now to help us with our course. The idea of the project is to get at the facts about the present living costs of people of your ages, and a little older, who have left home.

SKILLS

The project will involve a range of skills connected with gathering, preparing, presenting, analysing and evaluating data, or information. Interviewing skills will be part of the set of datagathering skills.

TIME-SPAN

We will require 4-5 weeks for the project; 2-3 weeks to gather and prepare data, and up to 2 weeks to present our findings, and to analyse and evaluate them.

TASK

You will have to visit people at their addresses to find out what living costs they have; groups, young families, couples, individuals in accommodation they do not own. You may have to visit some addresses (people in flats who work or study) in the evenings or at night. Subject to permission, you will be doing some of your interviewing during school hours.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR INTERVIEWS

You will receive a Banda/Gestetner sheet with some instructions on it. We need to discuss these, amend them or add to them if necessary. You will be working in couples. Each couple will be given a letter of the alphabet, as a code name.

SOCIAL EDUCATION

Project on Living Costs

Instruction Sheets for Interviews

- 1. Walk around your assigned area, and pick out houses you feel might be worth visiting (i.e. houses which are obviously occupied by young people; students, young couples, young families, boarding houses, hostels see List on Page 46). List the addresses on a piece of paper. Check:back flats, long driveways, right-of-ways.
- 2. Report addresses to organisers (teacher, and/or pupils). Enter addresses on map use your alphabet letter, and the number of the house.
- 3. Spread your visits (8 in all) out over 2 weeks. Try to complete most of them in school time, if possible.
- 4. Politeness, and a reasonable standard of dress, (if you visit outside school hours) will help to put the people you visit at ease.
- 5. For our results to be valid and reliable, you all have to:
 - (A) Use the same introduction, to tell the people you interview what is going on.
 - (B) Ask all the questions, in their right order. Try to get accurate answers.
 - (C) Record answers neatly and accurately, on to the interview sheets.

(Cut_along line)

INTRODUCTION TO INTERVIEW

- 1. Good morning/afternoon/evening. We are ___ form students at ___ High School/College. As part of our Social Education programme, we are trying to find out living costs of people our own age and a little older. This is to prepare us better for life when we leave home. We would like to interview you/your group about your living costs.
- 2. (If they say yes). Everything you tell us will be treated as confidential. It will be stored for safe-keeping at out school. Only the principal and our teacher will have access to the information you give us.
- 3. Thank you/Thanks for your help. If you can give us any further information, contact us as ____ or ___.

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Project

on Living

Costs

Summary

Sheet

SOCIAL EDUCATION

SOCIAL EDUCATION
Leaving Home

Topic Two - The Facts of Leaving Home

HOW WILL I GET THE MONEY TO MEET MY COSTS? (Teacher Guide)

- 1. Money is available to us from various sources. We can work for it, we can borrow it from various sources. We can receive money from shares, savings, or dividends. We can inherit money, or be given monetary gifts. We can obtain bursaries, grants, awards and cadetships.
- 2. Money commitments or payments have to be met the people receiving the money usually are not concerned where the money comes from.
- 3. Gambling is a common feature of New Zealand life. Some people resort to gambling to meet their costs, or to try to increase the money they already have.
- 4. If we work to earn money, we may need to consider our values again. Do we want good money, do we want to enjoy the job, do we want both, good money and an enjoyable job, do we want something else from work? Will we need to work full-time in one job, or part-time in two or more jobs, to meet our costs, (and our monetary needs?)

Leaving Home

Topic Two - The Facts of Leaving Home

HOW WILL I GET THE MONEY TO MEET MY COSTS?

Look at the following questions, in your groups of four. Give everyone time to express his/her opinion on each question. We will follow this with an evaluation session, looking at the place of money in our lives, before and after we leave home.

- 1. Straight after I leave home, I intend to get money to meet my costs through
 - a. Full-time work specify what type of work if possible.
 - b. Part-time work specify what types of jobs.
 - c. Holiday work (plus possibly bursaries, if studying).
 - d. Regular part-time work (plus possibly bursaries, if studying).
 - e. Part-time work while training off the job.
 - f. Loans, gifts, grants, savings.
 - g. A cadetship, studentship, study award, traineeship, or similiar.
 - h. Shares, dividends, profits (including gambling or betting).

(Mention one or more of your sources of money).

- 2. What do we mean by a 'kitty' system?
- 3. Do I gamble? Is it worth me gambling to meet my costs, or to increase the money I already have? Do I take part in any of this range of take-a-chance activities, involving money?
 - a. Golden Kiwi (lotteries)
 - b. Raffles
 - c. Cards
 - d. TAB, or on-course betting
- e. Pool, billiards, or snooker
- f. Housie, lotto, bingo
- g. Sweeps (sweepstakes, or the pools)
- h. Other specify

Topic Three - Looking at Money and Values

Move into the pairs you were in for the project. Read the following value list (not a complete list) through together. Try to pinpoint those values which are more important to you, after crossing out those which have little or no meaning for you. Explain your values to the other member of your pair.

<u>VALUE LIST</u>: What do I value, because I own it, do it, or share it with others?

What do I value, for what it gives me? What do I value in others?

Car, qualifications, being an individual, friendship, stereo, sport(s), praise, happiness, bike, high wayes, teamwork, a hobby, independence, the latest fashions, beauty, leadership, good fun, a pet, honesty, my family, spare time, books, good health, responsibility, travel, good food, trust, an interesting job, jewellery, acceptance, an activity or an interest, cooperation, a watch, 'experience', generosity, fresh air, fitness, good clothes, patience, a sense of humour, 'love', simplicity, status, intelligence, a tool or piece of equipment, encouragement, money....

1. Try to list 8 values which are most important to you at this time. List them in order, from 1st to 8th, in the table below. Now, look forward in time, to about when you will probably leave home. List the eight values which might be most important to you at that time.

Now	When I Leave Home
1	1
2	2
3	3
4	4
5	5
6	6
7	7

- 2. How important is money to you now?
- 3. How important might money become, in relation to your other values, when you leave home?
- 4. What do you want/need money for?
- 5. What are you prepared to sacrifice, or give up, to get the money you need or want?

- 1. Almost all of us here in New Zealand leave 'home', at some stage of our lives. We leave home for a variety of reasons. We may or may not be aware of these reasons. We may think about leaving, we may just leave.
- 2. Two questions possibly worth considering before we leave are:
 How do I want to live?
 How come I want to leave?

These two questions look at our way of life, and intended lifestyle, our values, needs, wants and wishes. They do not deal with the facts of leaving home but rather with our ideas on the same topic.

- When? Where? Who? How much? Where from?
 Once we have answered the 'How' questions above, we have a basis from which we can get at the facts we have more of what we're looking for, and why we're looking for it.
- 4. The question 'How Much?' is often a 'crunch' question. We need to look at the present-day costs to bring home to ourselves the realities of everyday life away from home. We need practice at finding this information.
- 5. Money is tied up closely with our values. We place different values on money at different periods in our lives.

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Evaluation of 'The Family' and 'Leaving Home'

No.		The Family	Leaving Home
1.	Did I find the unit worthwhile?		
2.	Did I enjoy the worksheets?		
3.	Did I understand the key ideas?		
4.	What size of group was best to to work in?		
5.	Was there enough oral work?		
6.	Was there enough written work?	-	
7.	Was there enough practical work?		
8.	Did I feel the project was useful?		
9.	Have I learnt any new skills?		-
10.	Which skills, if any?		
	How could we make these units more classes?	inveres ting it	7 Tuvulo
12.	What other activities would I have units?	wanted to do f	or these
13.	Do I feel any clearer about family leaving home?	life, or the i	ldea of
	E a		
14.	What other units, if any, do I feel students in looking at everyday life		ful for
15.	What other projects might it be wor	th us doing?	
16.	Any other comments?		

SOCIAL EDUCATION
'The Family' and 'Leaving Home'
A Final Comment

These units are not intended to be all-inclusive. Options will no doubt have escaped my attention, and that of the students with whom I have worked on parts of these units. I have included the 'Other - specify' option to cover these cases.

To get on in life, we must cooperate. For society to grow, we <u>need</u> to cooperate. Cooperation between people is basic for the enjoyment of learning about this area of life. To this end, I have included much group work in pairs, fours and larger groups. Extension activities have been left to the individual teacher, as have the possible areas of integration.

These units are aimed at the school leaver, in the year(s) before he/she leaves school. Many students between the ages of 15 and 18 (and some below 15) will be capable of handling the learning and skills involved.

I hope students, teachers and other resource people alike get as much out of these units as my students and I have in preparing them and trying them out.

SECTION TWO

ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE

ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE

A report comprising three minor papers, presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Philosophy in Education at Massey University.

Timothy Arthur Smithells
July, 1977

Foreword

My inspiration to write the first of the three papers contained in this report arose from the perusal of an article in The Reading Teacher' entitled 'Teaching prereading skills through training in pattern recognition'. The article seemed incomplete to me, and did not explore the concept of pattern recognition fully. From this, I designed a set of basic coding units for the Romanised alphabet as used in English, and related the set to the mechanisms of decoding, and to the degree of perceptual discrimination involved.

The second paper extended the concept of patterning through examination of the extension units used for the lower-case letters of the Romanised alphabet in a cross-section of ten languages (seven European, two Pacific and one Asian). It also looks at the internal consistency of the individual letters among the ten languages.

The third paper concerns the learning of languages other than one's own. It looks at second language learning in New Zealand, and at the concept of mastery of a language. Different levels of mastery are discussed and a possible list of criteria for mastery included, together with three examples. The concept of the 'spillover effect' in the process of learning a new language is introduced.

I am aware that these three papers ask considerably more questions than they answer. My principal concern in presenting these papers was to attempt to synthesize concepts from different fields of inquiry. I find it increasingly difficult to look at the field of reading without considering other areas such as visuo-motor development, neural patterning, language formation, perceptual discrimination, the role of the teacher and the symbolic nature of language itself.

T.A.S. 7/77

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Introduction

This report is composed of three short research papers. Each deals with an aspect of language learning.

The first paper deals with aspects of letter-decoding in the English traditional orthographic alphabet (T.O.n.), and the levels of perceptual discrimination involved. The discriminations are viewed as being hierarchical (involving progressively finer discriminations). A range of diagrams, (eight in all), are presented, together with notes to each diagram.

The second paper deals with a cross-section of ten alphabets utilising Romanised lower-case letters. It looks at letter consistency between alphabets, and the various extension forms of letters, in terms of the hierarchy of discriminations, in the T.O.A's.

The third paper deals with aspects of learning a language other than one's own (i.e. the basal language one learnt between birth and adulthood). It looks at the situation in New Zealand, and then at the question of mastery of another language. It utilises three examples to depict three possible levels of mastery, and looks at criteria for mastery, and at an effect involved in the process of learning another language.

LETTER RECOGNITION THROUGH PATTERNING

DIAGRAM 1	- BASIC DECODING U	NITS, ROMAN ALPHABET
DEPICTION	NOMENCLATURE	DESCRIPTION OF SHAPE
0	BALL	CIRCLE
1	STICKS (LENG, SHORT)	LINE SEGMENTS
Jl	HOOKS	OPEN CURVES
cun	CUPS (MUGS)	SEMICICULAR OPEN CURVES
<u> </u>	SAUCERS (BOWLS)	ARC .
S	SNAKE	TWINLOOP OPEN CURVE

Letter Recognition Through Patterning

Notes to Diagram One

Lix basic units are utilised. This is the minimum number of units needed to decode all 26 letters in the English alphabet. Individually, or in differing combinations, these units can be used to compose any lower-case letter in the English alphabet.

The six units are based on concrete objects. The objects selected are all common inanimate objects, except for the unit based on the object 'snake', which only concerns one letter, (s). The objects are likely to be within the experience, and all, including the snake, within the ken of five-year old children. In most cultures which utilise a Romanised alphabet in preand early reading programmes, most children, by the time they enter primary school or its equivalent, will have had some contact with balls, sticks, cups and saucers/bowls. Many children will have some cognisance of the concepts of hooks and snakes, if not from experience, then from television or from parents.

LETTER		NITS FOR EACH LETTER, ROMAN ALPHABE
	DECODING UNITS	NUMBER OF UNITS
<u>a</u>	BALL, STICK	2
Ь	BALL, STICK	2
С	CUP	
d	BALL, STICK	2
е	CUP, STICK	2
f	HOOK, STICK	2
9	HOOK, BALL	2
h	CUP, STICK	2
i	STICK	I
j	HOCK	1
k	STICKS	3
1	STICK	1
m	CUPS, STICK	. 3
n	CUP, STICK	2
0 .	BALL	1
Р	BALL, STICK	2
9	BALL, STICK	2
r	SAUCER, STICK	2
5	SNAKE	1
+	STICKS	2
u	CUP, STICK	2
V	STICKS	2
w .	5TICKS	4
X	STICKS	2
Υ	STICKS	2
z	STICKS	3
Tae - see	DIAGRAM 10 7	

. .

Letter Recognition Through Patterning

Notes to Diagram Two

The decoding units have been selected and labelled, on the basis of the likelihood of their being known by new entrants: known verbally, symbol-ically, and in many cases through VAKT contact, and experientially, through use in the home or the local environment.

Each lower-case letter has to be discriminated from all other letters, so that it can be seen as a separate entity. At the same time, it will be grouped and regrouped with other letters to discover the similarities between letters.

The letters are discriminated here in two basic ways. Children, as well as adults, discriminate members of sets by the parts (units) which make up the separate members. For example, the child's cognition of the difference between men and women in the set of people, is a discrimination learnt often within the first four years. Children also discriminate according to the number of parts which make up the members of a set. For example, in the set 'families', the child may know there are 6 people at his home, but only four next door, but that both groups are still families.

	i	AM3- F			UNITS		
		ALPHABET LETTI LONG STICK			CUP	SAUCER	SNAK
a	а		a				
b	Ь	Ь					
C				SA MOSELLARS—VA	С		
d	d	d					
e			е		е		
f			f	f			
9	9			9			
h		h	*		h		
i			i				
j				j			
K		k	k			*	į.
İ		· I	7				
m			m		m		
n			n		n		
0	0						
P	P	ρ					
9	9	9					
r			r			r	
5			ije.				S
t		+	. +				
U			ч		и		
V			V				
W.			W		***************************************	,	
X			X				
Y		y	ý.				
Z			Z	X			
	7	9	15	3	6	1	-1
	BALL	LONG STICK	SHORT STICK	HOOK	Cup	SAUCER	SNAKE

Letter Recognition Through Patterning

Notes to Diagram Three

For interest, I have included a frequency table for the usage of the decoding units in forming the 26 lower-case letters in the English alphabet.

It can be seen that 15 letters contain a short stick, and nine a long stick. Twenty-one letters in all contain one or more sticks. Ten letters are composed of a single type of unit (c,i,j,l,o,s,v,w,x and z). The remaining sixteen letters are all composed from two differing types of units (see also Notes to Diagrams Five and Six). One near-obsolete letter, the 'æ' found in words like 'encyclopædia' and 'pædiatrician' (but now often replaced by an 'e'), combines three different types of unit - a ball a cup and two short sticks.

DIAGRAI	44 - LE	TTER GROUPINGS	, INITIAL	
NUMBER	OF UNITS	NEEDED TO FORM	LETTERS, ROMA	N ALPHABET
1	2	3	4	
С	a	k	W	
i	b	m		
j	d	Z		
1	F			
0	9	140		
5	h			
	n			
	P	11		
	9	•		
	r			Į.
	+			
	u			×
	٧			XX
	×			
	У	4		
	e			
6	16	3	1	

Letter Recognition Through Patterning

Notes to Diagram Four

This depiction is a rearrangement of the second column shown in Diagram Two, into an initial pattern for decoding. (see Diagram Seven also) I am utilising this initial grouping according to number of units needed to form letters, to delineate the first stage of a hierarchy of discriminations This hierarchy is fully shown in Diagram Seven. Children, and adults, divide up the world in many ways, in the perception of concreta and symbolic representations. In everyday life, the examples of prices, wages, costs and amounts influence the ability to discriminate perceptually, in areas other than numerical discrimination. An example I like to quote from babysitting days is of a four year old boy named Gordon. I had to babysit often in the afternoons/evenings, and I was required to cook Gordon tea, since both parents were busy professional people. The family ate traditionally - meat, spud and two veg. On this particular day, I found there were no potatoes, in the house or out in the garden. I prepared the meat, and to compensate for the lack of petatoes, cooked larger quantities of the two vegetables. Upon serving the meal, Gordon remarked, "You haven't given me as much as Mum does! I haven't got any potatoes! Everything else is O.K!"

My interpretation of this is that Gordon had a percept of a meal which included four separate parts, or components, when perceived on a plate, but which did not discriminate as to total amount of food, only to a general 'too much - O.K. - too little' discrimination of the amounts of the separate parts. Gordon saw differences before likenesses, as well. He noticed the disparity between the number of parts I was serving him, and the number of parts he usually received, before he acknowledged that the amounts of each part I had served him, fell within his percept of 'an O.K. amount.'

D				
DIAGRAM 5	5 - LETTER	GROUPINGS	INTERMED	DIATE
ROMAN ALPHA	BET LETTERS	COMBINING	DECODING	UNITS:
BALL, STICK	CUP, STICK	>1 STICK	ОТ	HER
a	е	k	f	(HOOK, STICK)
Ь	h	+	9	(HOOK, BALL)
d	m	V	r	(SAUCER, STICK
Ρ	n	W		
9	и	×		
		У		
		Z		
5 +	5	+ 7	+ 3	= 20
PLUS THE ON	E UNIT LETTE	rs: Ci	105	6
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·			26
DIACRANA	6 - 1	- 62- 2-		
	6 - LETTE			CONTRACTOR CONTRACTOR STORES STORES
ROMAN ALPH	ABET LETTER	S COMBINING	DECODING	WITS, REVISED
ROMAN ALPH BALL, LONG S	TICK	s combining	DECODING	CONTRACTOR CONTRACTOR STORES STORES
ROMAN ALPH BALL, LONG S	TICK	S COMBINING	DECODING	WITS, REVISED
ROMAN ALPH BALL, LONG S	TICK	s combining	DECODING	WITS, REVISED
ROMAN ALPH BALL, LONG S BALL, SHORT S CUP, SHORT S	HABET LETTER TICK STICK	s combining b d p	DECODING	WITS, REVISED
ROMAN ALPH BALL, LONG S BALL, SHORT S CUP, SHORT S CUP, LONG S	HABET LETTER TICK STICK TICK	b d p a e m r	DECODING	WITS, REVISED
ROMAN ALPH BALL, LONG S BALL, SHORT S CUP, SHORT S CUP, LONG S SHORT STICK	HABET LETTER TICK STICK TICK	b d p a e m r	DECODING 9 1 U	WITS, REVISED
ROMAN ALPH BALL, LONG S BALL, SHORT S CUP, SHORT S CUP, LONG S SHORT STICK, LONG STICK, SH	HABET LETTER TICK STICK TICK S	b d p a e m r	DECODING 9 1 U	WITS, REVISED
	HABET LETTER TICK STICK TICK S	b d p a e m r h V W > + Y	DECODING 9 1 U	WITS, REVISED

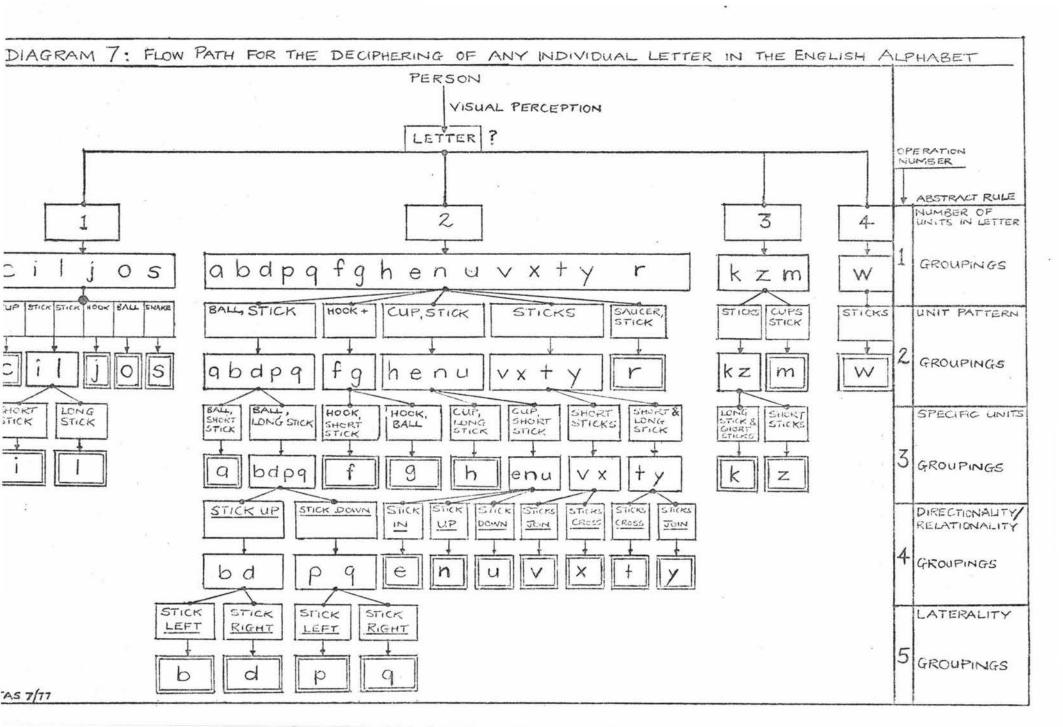
Letter Recognition Through Patterning

Notes to Diagrams Five and Six

The hierarchy of discriminations is continued here, leading on from Stage One in Diagram Four. Both diagrams depict groupings according to similarities between letters combining one or more different decoding units. Diagram Five describes a more general grouping than Diagram Six. Most unit combinations are specifically described in Diagram Six, with the exception of the letters f,g and r. Neither diagram is intended to be a complete step, or stage in the hierarchy of discriminations, but rather to show that grouping according to similarities is gradual. The process is gradual, because the feature analysis involved in the classifying of one group of objects as similar to each other, and different to all other groups of objects in the population being examined, implies grouping and regrouping to establish a reasonably constant definitive discrimination, which is utilitarian. A child looks for differences, before attempting to classify different groups according to their internal similarities.

To take another personal example, I looked after three year old Joey for a number of months while his mother was ill. He labelled all insects as 'bug'. He loved catching and keeping 'bug' in his hands until they inevitably expired. From observation, I noticed Joey putting down his collection of 'bug' every time he spotted a potential addition to his collection. Whereupon, certain 'bug' would disappear while others stayed curled up or entangled. Joey figured this out quickly, and came and asked me for a tin. I gave him one, and sitting down in the backyard, he put down his collection, and put every insect that 'ran away,' into the tin. In the space of a few days, he was putting beetles and centipedes into the tin, without checking them out first, and leaving worms, and occasionally slaters in two heaps on the porch, where he could keep an eye on them while he continued with his hunting and catching.

Joey initially grouped all insects as 'bug'. After grouping them indiscriminately, he found he had to regroup in more than one way to cater for the differences between groups. Eventually, he was able to perceive similarities within groups, and from then on, he could classify most insects he caught on the spot, and assign them to their correct groups.



Letter Recognition Through Patterning

Notes to Diagram Seven

In Diagram Seven, there is depicted a flow chart for the entire process of deciphering any specific lower-case letter in the English alphabet. The diagram builds on the basis laid in Diagram Four, and the extensions made in Diagrams Five and Six. However, the groupings, and the group patterns on the second level of the hierarchy may vary. For example, all the letters containing sticks (a,b,d,e,h,n,p,q,r,t,u,v,x,y) which are made up from two units might be grouped as they are in the diagram, or kept as a group of 14 letters which are not clearly discriminated until subgroups are more defined, on the third level of the hierarchy. I have presented groupings which seem logical to me, but will not necessarily appear as logical to any child at the pre-reading stage, or any adult who is unfamiliar with ideogram-based scripts.

From the diagram, it is apparent that the letters (c, j, m, o, r, s, w) can be deciphered with the use of only two discriminations in the hierarchy. As soon as the third level in the hierarchy is reached, and letter-groups are able to be <u>classified</u> according to unit composition, we are able to decipher (a, f, g, h, i, k, l, z).

Levels Four and Five in the hierarchy involve more complicated processes of discrimination. Spatial discrimination is involved in Level Four, where the differences between letters in subgroups (b,d,p,q) (e,n,u) (v,x) and (t,y) is much less than at Levels One and Two. five-year old new entrant very quickly learns the mraning of expressions such as 'Come in,' 'Join hands!' 'Hands up!' 'Sit down!' 'Cross your legs!' The application of these directional and relational concepts to the meaningful perception of letter-symbols presupposes fine visual discrimination, and the ability to attend, in order to discover the fine differences which exist. In other words, something akin to a VAKT approach is necessary, to ensure a child's perceptual base is broad and multisensory. We know that children up to the age of three, on average, explore and discriminate concrete objects tactovisually, with the sense of touch predominant. We know that visual perception becomes increasingly important once a child begins formal schooling, and must learn to discriminate symbols more than objects.

Level Five involves the advanced stage of lateral discrimination, where a child has learnt kinaesthetic awareness of left and right (his left and right), and must transfer this to left/right discrimination in symbol form. This may in some way contribute to the difficulties often found with b, d,p and q.

TWO	THREE	Four	FIVE		
C	a	е	Ь		
j	f	'n	d		
m	9	+	Ρ		
0	h	u	9		30
r	i	V			
S	k	×			× ×
W	1	У			
	Z				
7	8	7	4	(26)	- 4 a a b

Letter Recognition Through Patterning

Notes to Diagram Eight

Diagram Eight is included to make one point. It is easily calculated that 22 out of 26 letters require from two to four discriminations/abstract rules/operations to decode any specific letter. We chaler and Gesell both consider, on the basis of their work with children, that, on average, a four and a half year old child can hold four units in memory. At the same age, an average child can count objects up to three, can count aloud beyond three, can match eight out of ten forms, and can name the primary colours. Piaget's average five year old child can make applications of 'many-to-one', but not'one-to-many; can count to 10, knows his age and name, and is capable of using and understanding symbolic language. The average five year old also perceives details visually, and asks about them. Only at age five and a half years on average is the child developing the concept of left and right.

Further, with the letters b, d, p and q requiring five rules or progressively fine discriminations, in order for them to be decoded, plus symbolic left-right awareness (i.e. beyond a concrete awareness of laterality), it comes as no surprise that many new entrants cannot cope with certain letters of the alphabet.

Letter Recognition Through Patterning

Hypotheses and Conclusions

- The 26 lower-case letters in the English orthographic alphabet can be perceived and decoded as ideograms, using a basic set of six decoding units.
- Decoding involves perceptual discrimination of the decoding units
 as discrete entities, together with discriminations of directionality,
 relationality and laterality.
- 3. Decoding involves a particular number of operations for each letter, and progressively finer discriminations. The perceptual discriminations are hierarchical, according to differing levels of perceptual development.
- 4. Decoding any letter of the 26 lower-case letters in the English alphabet requires between two and five discriminations.

Much work of an essentially practical nature needs to be done in this area. I am aware that my levels in the hierarchy of discriminations are by no means hard and fust levels for more than the children for whom I found my approach worked. I am also aware that the decoding units chosen are, in some ways, purely arbitrary, and may be perceived as such. In terms of any child's total ongoing development, the hierarchy of discriminations itself may be too narrowly conceived, to take inevitable spurts and lags into account. The decoding process and the problems it causes in the home and the classroom, is very real, as is the whole question of teaching perception.

C	ONSISTANCY	AND	CHANGE	IN	ROMANISED	TRADITIONAL	ORTHOGRAPHIC	ALPHABETS

DIAGRAM 9-A CROS		
ROMANISED LOWER-CASE	LETTERS IN THEIR	T.O.A's
ENGLISH	ITALIAN	SAMOAN
FRENCH	SPANISH	MAORI
GERMAN	ESPERANTO	
NORWEGIAN	MALAYSIAN	

DIAGI	RAM !	10 - EXTENSION	N UNITS TO ROMAN A	LPHABET, BASED
ON TH	OSE WIL	LISED IN THE CH	OSEN CROSS-SECTION OF L	ANGUAGES
EXTENS	ON UNIT	NOMENCLATURE	FOUND IN I.T.A. IN	USUAL NAME
^		Roof	FRENCH (3,2,0,0) ESPERANTO (6,9,6,9,2,0)	CIRCUMPLEX
`		STICK	FRENCH (d,è)	GRAVE
/		STICK	FRENCH (é)	ACUTE
5		TAIL	FRENCH (Ç)	CEDILLA
••		EYES	ENGLISH, FRENCH (dais) GERMAN (ä,ö,ü)	DIAERESIS
B	(55)	HOOK + CUP	GERMAN	Double 's'
Ø	(0)	BALL, STICK	NORWEGIAN .	YOWEL
å	(a)	BALL, STICK, EYE	NORWEGAN	VOWEL
æ		BALL, CUP, STICKS	ENGUSH (OBS.)	YOWEL SOUND
~		WORM	SPANISH (ñ)	MANTILLA
U		CUP	MALAYSIAN (E)	(EXTRA VOWEL)

Consistency and Change in Romanised Traditional Orthographic Alphabets Notes to Diagrams Nine and Ten

A cross-section of languages utilising Romanised script in the lower-case letters of their traditional orthographic alphabets (T.O.A., in abbreviated form) was chosen on the basis of availability of texts, dictionaries and children's readers. Ten languages emerged from this selection (see Diagram Nine).

The T.O.A's of the ten languages were analysed and compared. The first finding of real interest was that all alphabets relied on the basic 26 letters, plus extension units, except for Norwegian, which employs 'ae' as a vowel, and German, which still uses the Cothic β (double 's') in some children's texts. In English, the 'æ' is still used, but is fast being replaced by 'e' or '(a)e' in dictionaries such as the Concise Oxford.

Seven of the ten languages utilised extension units. The only exceptions were Italian, Samoan and Maori. The other seven languages accounted for the eleven extension units found. In eight of the extension units, the unit is added to a letter of the T.C.A., as an accent to alter pronunciation, to designate a discarded letter or phoneme, or to emphasize a specific vowel, or vowel form. In the other three extension units, which include the two examples above, the extension shape signifies a new graphoneme, and a new letter shape.

French $(\hat{a}, \hat{e}, \hat{1}, \hat{0}, \hat{u}, \hat{a}, \hat{e}, \hat{e}, \hat{g})$ and discress with nine letter alterations, and Esperanto $(\hat{c}, \hat{g}, \hat{h}, \hat{j}, \hat{s}, \hat{u})$ with six, are the two languages in the cross-section chosen which principally use letters with an attached extension unit. They are more simply known as extension letters. German has four letter alterations $(\ddot{a}, \ddot{o}, \ddot{u}, \text{and } \beta)$, Norwegian three, and English, Spanish and Malaysian one each.

Of the eleven extension units, three are optional in specific languages.

The 'æ' is optional in English. The diaeresis is optional in English and French. The '\beta' is optional in German. These extension units occur in some texts and not in others.

The circumflex (circonflex) is by far the most commonly used extension unit. It is found in ten extension letters. The umlaut/diaeresis is found in three extension letters, and in a range of vowel combinations. Seven of the extension units are peculiar to a particular letter.

ETTER	NO OF OPERATIONS OF NEEDED TO DECOME LETTER			FORMS		NO OF OPERATIONS NEEDED TO DECODE EXTENSION FORMS
a	3	ä	à	â	å	4
b	5					
C	2	ç		ĉ		3
d	5	***************************************				*
e	4-	é	è	ê	ĕ	5 OR 6
f	3					
9	3			ĝ	9	4
h	3	-		ĥ		4
i	3 .			?		4
j	2			ĵ		3
K	3					
1	3					
m	2					
n	4	ñ				5
0	2	Ö)	ô	Ø	3
P	5					
9	5					
r	2					
S	2	(B	= 5	ss)ŝ		3 Hook, cup
+	4					f, g
u	4	į	i	û		5
V	4					
W	2	(5)		N		
X	4			-	7"	183
Y	4					
Z	3	t paster				
1 1	K	OF MAY	DE FROI		RON LETTE S : BALL, O	

Consistency and Change in Romanised Traditional Orthographic Alphabets
Notes to Diagram Eleven

In looking at the extension units, we find, as might have been expected, extension vowels predominate over extension consonants. All five vowels have extension forms, with 'a' and 'e' having four separate forms apiece. Esperanto provides most of the extension consonants ($\hat{c}, \hat{g}, \hat{h}, \hat{g}, \hat{s}$). The only other extension consonants which are in regular orthographic use are the 'g' in French and the 'fi' in Spanish.

When we consider the number of operations needed to decode any extension letter, several interesting points emerge. In French, the extension forms of the letter 'e' cause difficulty to second language learners. This may be because three options are available, and fine discriminations are required to make an appropriate selection. There may also be difficulty because the extension forms require five or six operations to be decoded. Pattern recognition at this level implies a formal operational level of development on the part of the learner. Six unit memory spans may be necessary for a child to cope with concrete operations, but symbolic cognition is vastly different to recalling number patterns in a WISC. From academic hearsay - I have not uncovered any source literature to date on this point - French children, in learning their T.O.A., experience more difficulty with the forms of the letter 'e', than with any other letter. If we include the extension forms of 'e' (branching downwards from 'e')in Diagram Seven, at Levels Five and Six, it seems reasonable to assume that letters of such perceptual complexity, and involving very fine discriminations (e.g. between 'é' and 'è'), will present the most difficulties. Further to the above point, the letter 'u' in German, requiring five operations to be deciphered, has a strong possibility of being the problem letter for learners of that language, as has the letter 'n' in Spanish. I personally found '" the most difficult letter to assimilate in German, in learning the alphabet at an early age. In fact, the debate about appropriate ages or stages of development for learning language symbolically(in reading, writing and spelling), becomes less relevant, if those who work with young people, are themselves able to discriminate which level in the discrimination hierarchy any child has reached, and thus identify potential problem areas, or letters.

CODE

LETTER NOT IN T.O.A. * OBSOLESCENT LETTER

LETTER IN T.O.A. B BORROWED LETTER, LETTER ONLY

EXTENSION LETTER

USED IN BORROWED WORDS

DIAGRAM 12 - BREAKDOWN OF T.O.A'S: LETTERS, EXTENSION LETTERS, BORROWINGS

a	æ	Ь	C	d	е	÷	9	h	i	j	k	1	m	n	0	p	9	r	S	+	u	٧	w	×	Y	z	LANGUAGE
a	米	Ь	С	d	е	f	9	h	í	J	k	1	m	n	0	P	9	r	S	F	u	V	W	×	Y	Z	ENGLISH
9	1	Ъ	c ĉ	d	е	f	9	h	i	i î	k	1	m	n	0	P	1	r	s ŝ	t	û	v		1	1	Z	ESPERANTO
a à a	N. Carrier	Ь	c	d	e êéè	f	9	h	î	j	K	1	m	n	0	Р	9		s	t	u a	٧	В	X	У	Z	FRENCH
7	В	Ь	В	d	e	f	9	h	i	j	K	1	m	n	0 50	P	9	٢	S B(ss	†	ü	٧	W	×	γ	Z	GERMAN
a	· Bar	b	C	d	е	f	9	h	i	*	В	1	m	n	0	P	9	r	S	t	u	V	В	В	В	Z	ITALIAN
a	N.	Ь	В	d	e	В	9	h	i	J	K	1	m	n	Ö	Р	A.	1	S	+	u	No.	W	1	Y	В	MALAYSIAN
À	1	1967	- C-	18	е	2	1	h	i		k	1	m	n	0	Р	SACTOR S	r	1	F	u	100	W	1			MADRI
٦ ٢ .	æ	6	c	d	е	f	9	h	i	j	k	1	m	n	ø	P	В	r	S	t	u	٧	B	В	У	В	NORWEGIAN
à	1	A. Committee	1	-	е	f	1	В	i	A.	В	1	m	n	0	Р	1	В	S	+	u	V	No.				SAMOAN
1		Ь	C	d	е	f	9	h	ì	j	В	1	m	n ñ	0	Р	9	r	S	t	ч	V	В	×	Y	Z	SPANISH
4	1	8	6 2	8	10 4	8	8	9	10	7	7	9	10	10	10	10	5	9	9 2	10	10 2	8	4-	4.	6	6	FREQUENCY EXT. FREQUENCY
	1		2		,	1		1			3						1	1					4.	2	1	2.	FREQUENCY AS A

Consistency and Change in Romanised Traditional Orthographic Alphabets Notes to Diagram Twelve

_sing English as the base language, and including the obsolescent 'ae', the ten languages were compared, in diagram form, to see if any patterns or generalities were apparent in their T.O.A's.

Eleven letters out of the twenty-seven base letters were used as borrowed letters, in languages other than English. These were (&, c, f, h, k, q, r, w, x, y and z). The letter 'w' was used as a borrowing in four European languages. The letter 'k' was used as a borrowed letter in three languages. All other borrowed letters occurred in only one or two languages.

Fifteen letters (ae, b, c, d, f, g, j, l, q, s, v, w, x, y and z) did not form part of the T.O.A. of one or more languages in the cross-section of languages chosen. Eight letters (ae, c, f, q, w, x, y, and z) were used as a borrowing in at least one language, and did not form part of the T.O.A. in one or more other languages. Two letters (b, r) were used as a borrowing in one language each, but were included in the other nine T.O.A's.

Disregarding the obsolescent 'ae', the letters (q,x, and y) were most frequently not found in the ten T.O.A's. The letters (b,c,dgg,j,v,w and z) were less frequently missing.

Conclusions from this set of data appear on Page 29.

CROSS-	SECTION	V' LA	VGUAC	GES (R	OMAN	NSED	SCR	PT)					
LETTERS	COMMO	4 70 .		[Num	BER	OF L	ANGU	AGES	IN	SAN	APLE]	
10	ж	9	*	8	*	7	₩ć.	6	*	5	*	<5	*
a	3	h	3	Ь	5	į	2	C	2	9	5	W	2
е	4	1	3	d	5	k	3	Y	4			×	1
i	3	r	2	f	3			Z	3			æ	3
m	2	S	2	9	3								
n	4-			V	4								
0	2	×											
P	5												T
+	4			•									T
и	4												
9		4		5		2		3		1		3	-

* No. OF OPERATIONS TO DECODE LETTER

Consistency and Change in Romanised Traditional Orthographic Alphabets
Notes to Diagram Thirteen

The twenty-seven letters were grouped, in this diagram, into letter-sets common to a specific number of languages out of the ten languages in the cross-section.

Nine letters, including all five regular vowels, were found in all ten languages. No consonants blends were able to be formed from the four consonants involved (m, n, p and t).

Four letters were found in nine out of the ten languages. These were the two letters (1,r) which are most frequently used in consonant blends, in the seven European languages in the cross-section chosen, the letter 's' which occurs as the initial consonant in a wide range of blends in the same seven languages, and the letter 'h', which occurs in a number of digraphs, and blends.

With the above thirteen letters which are found in nine or ten of the ten languages, eight consonant blends and three digraphs can be formed. This implies consistency on the part of the T.O.A., in that moving from learning one language using a Romanised T.O.A. to another, will involve a lower/more gross level of perceptual discrimination than if one had to learn a language based on the Cyrillic script or ideograms.

Five letters, including 'b' and 'd', occurred in eight out of the ten languages. These could be used to form a further seven consonant blends and two digraphs.

To summarise, 33% of the letters occurred in all ten languages in the cross-section, 48% occurred in nine or ten languages, and 67% occurred in eight or more languages. Fifteen common consonant blends and five digraphs (approximately 50% of all those found in the European languages) could be formed from the 18 letters common to eight or more of the ten languages.

LANGUAGE	T.O.A	NUMBER O	BEING PHASED CUT	WITH EXTENSIONS	TiO.A PWS BORROWINGS	T.O.A. PLUS BORROWINGS, EXTENSIONS	
ENGLISH	26	-	1	-	26	26	
ESPERANTO	22	(OR ALL)	•	6	22	28	
FRENCH	25	1		6	26	32	
GERMAN	25	2	-	4	27	31	
ITALIAN	21	4	1	_	25	25	
MALAYSIAN	20	3	-	1	23	24	
MAORI	13		-	-	13	13	
NORWEGIAN	23	4	-	2	27	29	
SAMOAN	13	3	-	_	16	16	
SPANISH	24	2	_	1	26	27	
RANGE	13-26	0-4	0-1	1-6	13 -27	13 - 32	
MEDIAN	22.5	2	0	1	25.5	26.5	
Modes	13,25	2,3,4	0	1,6	26	_	

Consistency and Change in Romanised Traditional Orthographic Alphabets Notes to Diagram Fourteen

This diagram is intended as a summary of the totals of letters in the individual T.O.A's, the borrowings, the obsolescent letters, the extension letters and two combined totals.

Hypotheses and Conclusions

Cognition of all 27 lower-case letter-shapes in the Romanised English T.O.A. (including 'ee') transfers to the same letters, as they occur, in other languages based on Romanised script, because of internal consistency.

Perception of a particular letter in an unfamiliar language using a Romanised T.O.A. is influenced by one's re-cognition of the individual letter-shape or pattern from previously formed neural pathways, and prior memory.

Cognition of individual lower-case letters in the Romanised English T.O.A. (including 'ae') does not necessarily transfer to the same letters, as they occur, in other languages based on different script systems, such as the Cyrillic script, because there is a low degree of letter-consistency.

Consistency of extension shapes utilised with lower-case letter-shapes in the ten Romanised T.O.A's was high, in terms of transferability.

Conclusions at this stage are tentative, since much correlational and further cross-sectional comparative research is necessary. From Diagrams Nine to Fourteen, which were included for reference rather than as any form of proof, the internal consistency of the 27 Romanised T.O.A. letters can be seen to be high, in terms of cognitive transfer. Two Cyrillic-based languages were examined (Greek and Russian), which include a number of Romanised letters. Little transfer consistency was observable, but more research needs to be carried out in this area. The extension shapes used with various letters in the Romanised T.O.A's formed extension letters which required a higher hierarchical level of discrimination than the original letters.

LANCUAGE ACQUISITION

Language Acquisition:

We learn a specific language in a variety of ways. We memorise the alphabet, or perhaps graphemes and graphonemes. We write out a sight vocab-blary. We listen to tapes, or to other people speaking the language. We reed the script of the language in books, magazines and other publications. We imitate the written and spoken language patterns of others, we read aloud to discover the flow or the feel of the language. We spell the language, and consult dictionaries. We compose our own thoughts and feelings in the language. At some certain point or stage, we are assumed to be competent at one or more of the modes of reading, writing, listening, spelling and speaking.

There are different levels of competence in the knowledge and usage of a particular language. Functional literacy involves the basic skills of reading and writing. Oracy involves the adequate knowledge of the speech patterns of a language, and the ability to use them to communicate with others. Some people prefer to acquire only the basics of a language — language for everyday use — while others want to extend their knowledge of, and their ability in their own language. Still others want to learn to use other languages. It is this last group which is of particular interest to me.

Here, in New Zealand, we use the English language predominantly. We have developed our own pronunciation, our own idioms, and to a lesser extent, minor dialectical variations, in certain areas, or environments. (e.g. the language variations found on the West Coast, in Southland and the Uraweras) Our minority languages are principally spoken by the members of the ethnic groups who wish to retain their languages of origin, either as a first or second language. There is little cross-pollination of cultures or languages. Maori, Samoan, Dutch, Chinese and Serbo-Croatian are all spoken in New Zealand, within families, extended families, neighbourhoods, clubs or other organisations. At least five thousand people speak each of these languages as part of their everyday life. Most of these people (the Maori race excepted) are immigrants, or have parents or grandparents who are/were immigrants. If the families speak English together with their mother tongue at home, the children will have a greater chance of growing up bilingual. Where the parents principally speak English or their mother tongue at home, the children will tend to grow up monolingual.

Language Acquisition:

Few New Zealanders who do not stem from one of the previously-mentioned ethnic backgrounds make or take the chance to learn one or more of these minority languages, in a formal sense or in an appropriate cultural setting. A moderate proportion of younger people in this country study languages within the education system - at intermediate and secondary schools, in universities and at technical institutes. A range of European, Pacific and Classical languages are available to be studied. Only at the universities is a wider-based study of language introduced. Aspects of culture such as linguistics, literature and literary criticism, drama, history, politics, philosophy, and the evolution of language itself may come under the orbit of a subject such as German or Japanese.

However, we learn these second (or third, fourth, or nth) languages all too often in vacuo - we are required to learn the basics of reading, speaking and writing a language without being able to experience at first hand the language as a medium for the communication of another way of life.

I am not implying that we should export language students, nor that our mastery of languages other than our own is inferior in the basic language skills.

I would like to describe what I see as several levels of mastery of a language other than one's own. (i.e. a language different to the principal language used by people in the culture within which you were raised.)

Let us consider the examples of John, Terry and David. Each man is a New Zealander born and bred. All have one grandparent who is of English extraction. All three sets of parents were born and raised in New Zealand. Each of the three completed a Bachelor of Arts degree at a New Zealand university between 1969 and 1971. Each majored in German, with French and English being their other subjects in common. All received above average marks throughout their university (and secondary school) careers. All travelled overseas early in 1972. All spent at least six months (to early 1973) in West Germany. All three lived in major cities.

Individually, in terms of their mastery of the German language, they are quite different. This statement is based on a record of conversations with close mutual friends of John, Terry and David. These friends are German born and bred, with university educations and a wide background in languages.

Language Acquisition:

Perry reads German as well as he speaks it. He writes it less well. In Nest Germany, he was continually complimented on his knowledge of the German language. He was often (at least five times a week) mistaken for an American, Janadian or an Englishman. Once the locals got to know him, they slowed down their speech when conversing with him, or even in his presence. He stated that they tended to speak very clearly, without much noticeable use of idioms. Terry has reached the basic level of mastery of another language. He is able to communicate with others, at their expense. They must listen and speak more precisely than normal, and choose their words with more care than usual. He is unable to follow their idiom, and cannot extract much meaning from conversations at normal to rapid speaking speed. He speaks with a 'background English-type accent.'

David speaks, reads and writes formal German well. He reads German nearly as fast as he reads English. He has an extensive vocabulary of German words, applying to a number of specialist skills, such as chess, car maintenance and painting. David, in his time in Germany, was usually mistaken for a Dutch, Swiss or Austrian person. He uses German correctly, with some use of idiom. The locals in the area where he lived did not slow down their speech, but did speak more clearly when conversing with David. They spoke in their usual 'patter' or patois in his presence, when not engaged in conversation with him. David has reached the secondary level of mastery of another language. He is able to communicate with others almost as a language equal. They, on the other hand, still make allowances for his different ethnic background by making the effort to pronounce words and idioms more clearly than normal. David is unable to extract much meaning from conversations held at rapid speaking speed. He speaks with a general European-type background accent.

John speaks, reads and writes German well. He reads German well, but not as well as David. He has a wide vocabulary of German words, including a range of local idioms learnt from the locals in the area where he lived. John was able to speak German fast, and accurately enough that he was accepted - not as a foreigner who spoke German well, but as a temporary resident, at least. The locals spoke to him at normal speed after their first few encounters with him. They regularly used the local patois when speaking to John, and accepted his using the same expressions. John has reached the advanced level of mastery of another language. He communicates with others as a language equal. They make no concessions for him in their speech. They use a full range of idiom and speaking speeds as per normal. John understands most of what is said to him, or in his presence. He speaks German with a German accent. He may use local pronunciation variations.

Language Acquisition

There is a level of mastery beyond the level John reached in the previous example. Rather than illustrate this level by means of a personal example, I would prefer to provide a partial set of criteria for determining whether a person has moved beyond the advanced level of mastery of a second language. These criteria have been culled from bi-, tri- and multilinguals, in a range of professions, here in New Zealand and overseas, and represent common facets of their experience. It is acknowledged that the set is by no means complete, nor is it scientifically selected, but it may open up an area of sociolinguistics which has received little attention to date.

A true bi-, tri-, or multi-lingual will, through his/her knowledge of, and ability to use a language other than his/her own, be capable of fulfilling most or all of the following set of criteris:

He/she is capable of ...

- (a) Playing syntactically, semantically or grammatically with the language
- (b) Telling jokes in the language, in an appropriate style for the culture
- (c) Punning in the language
- (d) Losing his/her temper in the language
- (e) Using expletives and oaths in the language
- (f) Dreaming in the language (and in an appropriate setting)
- (g) Discussing, arguing, debating, criticising, encouraging, fibbing and 'stirring' in the language
- (h) Honestly portraying feelings, and capturing the feelings of others in the language
- (i) Thinking in the flow, in the patterns of the language
- (j) Comprehending the language as it is used in the above ways
- (k) Comprehending and appreciating the language as it is expressed through literature, the mass media and the performing arts.
- (k) Writing the language naturally, and translating it sensitively and in a manner appropriate to the culture into which the language is being translated
- (1) Comprehending a range of dialectical forms of the language

Language Acquisition

In looking at these different levels of mastery of a language other than one's own, the emphasis has been on pointers rather than process. One salient aspect of the process involving maturation in a language other than one's own is a concept I have termed the 'spillover effect'. Priefly, when a person wants to master a second, third or nth language, and makes a decision to this effect, the spillover effect begins to appear. The person will transfer accumulated linguistic-cognitive understandings (e.g. strong verb forms in his/her own language will probably be conjugated in similar fashion in the language being learnt) to the new language. At the same time, the person, in order to move towards mastery of that language, must relinquish the internalised patterns of reading, writing, speaking, spelling and listening he/she has built up, through habituation to a former language.

As the person forms percepts and builds cognitive awareness of the new language, spillover from the original language will tend to gradually decrease as the dechapituation process has its affect During and a second of the process as the dechapituation process has its affect During and a second of the process as the dechapituation process has its affect During and a second of the process as the dechapituation process has its affect During and the second of the process as the dechapituation process has its affect During and the process of the process and the dechapituation process has its affect During and the process of the pr

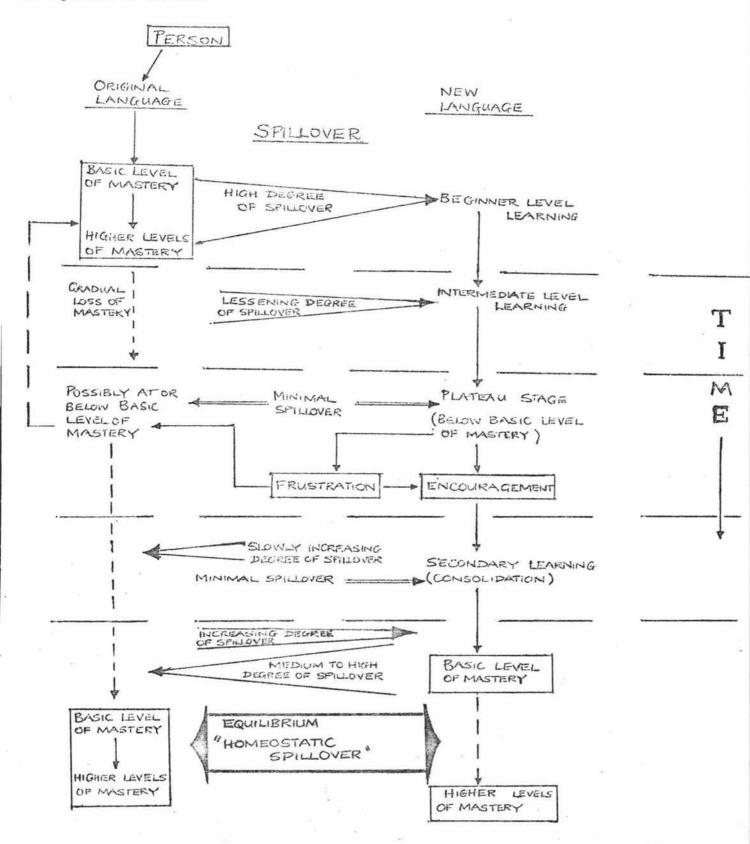
decrease, as the de-habituation process has its effect. During one or more stages of learning the new language, minimal spillover occurs. This is particularly noticeable in the stage where the person has a reduced mastery of the original language, and at the same time, is still struggling for mastery at the basic level in the new language being learnt. (It is important for the learner to be encouraged to continue building percepts and cognition of the new language, while disregarding the original language learnt.) Once the person has moved on from this stage of learning, the spillover effect reappears minimally, and, as the basic, and later levels of mastery are striven for, gradually tends toward a form of homeostatic spillover. In other words, when a learner achieves basic mastery of a new language, only then is he/she able to transfer linguistic-cognitive understandings back to the original language. The original language may then be reestablished at, or near the original level of mastery. This will tend to occur rapidly, since the original neural patterns still exist within the (conceptual) nervous system, and require only a certain degree of stimulus to recover. At the same time, there will be minimal loss of the new language. Spillover between the two languages will tend to equalise.

The consideration of such aspects of language acquisition in the light of current theories of cerebral dominance, memory and biofeedback is worth further prolonged investigation. So much of our inner world is still unknown and incomprehensible to us.

Language Acquisition

Diagram 15

The Spillover Effect



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Language Acquisition

A written record of conversations concerning the three men used as examples was kept, over the course of three years of intermittent contact with mutual friends. Tapes, letters and examples were the principal sources of information. By examples, I mean specific language behaviours.

SECTION THREE

BEYOND MASLOW AND THE LIMITS TO GROWTH

BEYOND MASLOW AND THE LIMITS TO GROWTH PART I

A paper presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Philosophy in Education at Massey University.

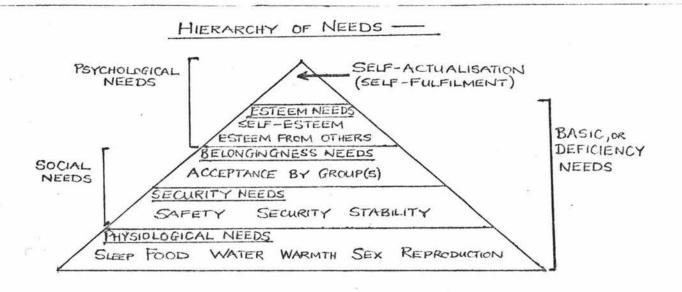
Timothy Arthur Smithells
May, 1977

In 1969, as a first-year student of psychology, I delved, by chance, into the life and works of Abraham Harold Maslow. He brought a sense of meaning to my whole year's study. To find a psychologist who wrote of healthy and super-healthy human beings was for me a stroke of luck, since it coincided so closely with my own Weltanschauung. Maslow was a person who threw his net wide, rather than looking inward. He contributed to many diverse fields of study, such as human relations, cognitive development, music education, creative thinking, psychoanalysis, juvenile delinquency, biology, philosophy, personnel administration, religion and social work. I feel the real weight of his contribution to our knowledge of people is yet to be recognised.

I am indebted to him for the inspiration to write this paper.

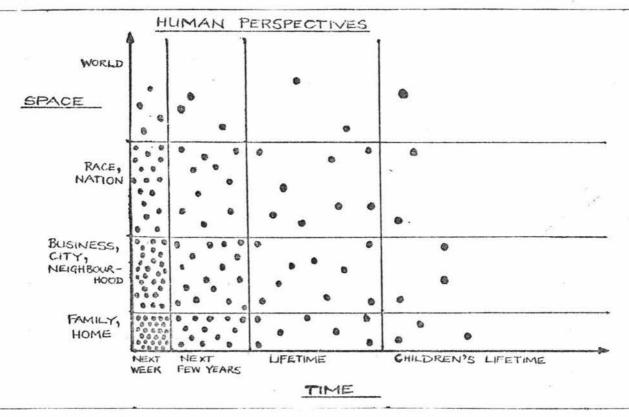
Maslow's hierarchy of needs was the basis of his humanistic view of the individual in society. It is depicted here in its basic form. 2

Figure 1:



Maslow arranged the above pyramidal structure in levels, to reinforce his premise that an individual had to fulfil all the basic, or deficiency needs (at least temporarily, or transitorily) on one level, before he/she could move upwards to the next level. (i.e. The lower needs in the pyramid were prepotent to those on higher levels).

I wish now to refer to the Club of Rome's First Report on
'The Limits To Growth'. On p.19, the following diagram appears:
Figure 2:



The Report states: 'A person's time and space perspectives depend on his culture, his past experience, and the immediacy of the problems confronting him on each level. Most people must have successfully solved the problems in a smaller area before they move their concerns to a larger one.' (p.18). To me, the basic contention behind this graph, and what it portrays, is that more people are functioning most of the time close to the origin. That.

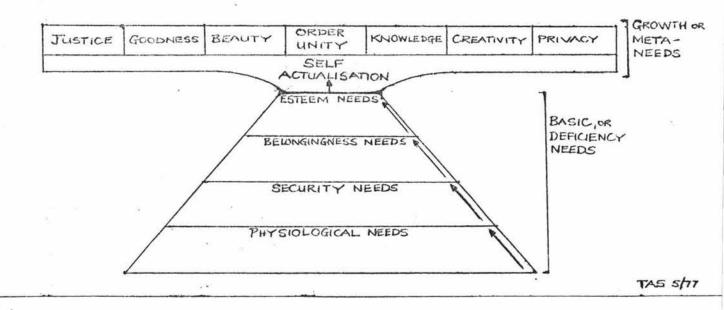
is to say, that most people dwell most of the time on the 'here' (the family, and/or social groups of which they are regularly a member), and 'now' (today, tomorrow, payday, next weekend, next week).

Two questions of relevance to this paper emerge from this graph. Who are these few people who occupy the outer limits of the graph (who think globally and 20 or more years into the future?). What likelihood is there of any points being on the origin of the graph, and, who are these people, if any?

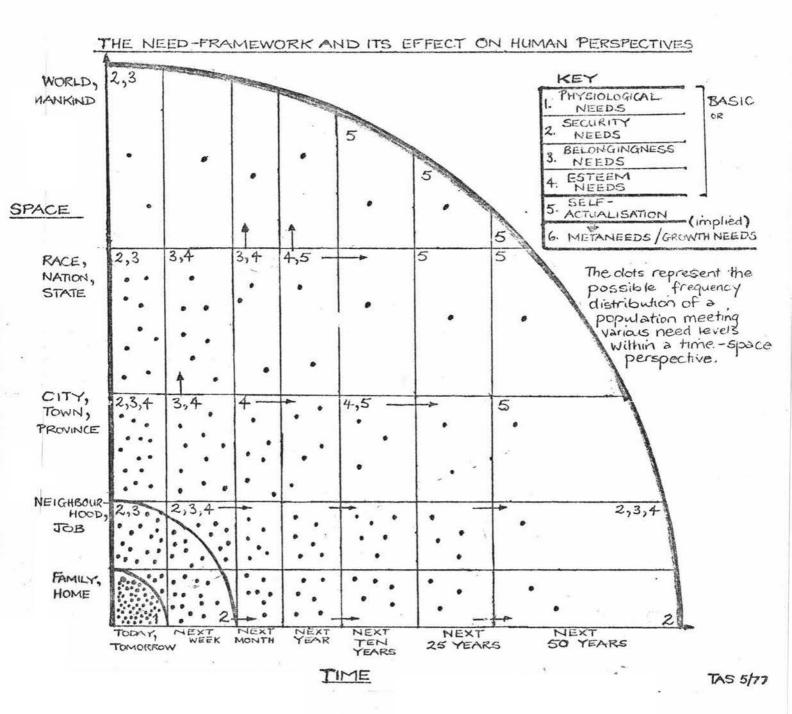
To answer these questions, we first need to return to Figure 1. At the apex of the need-pyramid is the need for self-fulfilment or, (as Maslow termed it) self-actualisation. 4 He called people who had begun to fulfil themselves self-actualisers. (Maslow, albeit with a self-confessed subjective list of criteria, turned up an interesting list of people whom he regarded as self-actualisers. Lincoln, Thoreau, Goethe, Beethoven, Einstein, both the Roosevelts, and John Stuart Mill were all on his list. 6) Self-actualisers tended to develop a new need pattern. met all their deficiency needs, and now moved toward the fulfilment of higher, or growth needs. The growth needs of such people were termed by Maslow metaneeds. They had equal value, were in no hierarchical order, and could be substituted for one another. These higher needs are inherent in man, as are the deficiency needs, and include justice, goodness, beauty, order, unity, knowledge, and creativity. I depict here my own representation of Maslow's description of the potential need-framework of the individual. 8 It is an extension of Figure 1 and is intended for clarification.

Figure 3:

NEED FRAMEWORK OF THE INDIVIDUAL



We move immediately to the consideration of a graph which combines and extends Figures 2 and 3. The depiction is my own: Figure 4:



Now the first question previously raised can be explored. The proportionately few people who occupy the outer limits of the graph (those portions containing the number five) are mostly self-actualisers. I have assumed that self-actualisers are capable of thinking, and tend to think more widely, in terms of space and time, than those lower on the need-hierarchy.

I would like to comment on this further. In a world beset with the struggle to evolve sound and far-reaching global policies on matters such as energy, finance, transport, food production, conservation of resources and the like, we definitely need self-actualisers who are able to think and act in wider terms of space and time. Moreover, we need more self-actualisers, as problems continue to compound and become increasingly complex. We need more of the ilk of Henry Kissinger and Dag Hammerschoeld. Despite their apparent faults and failures, they had only too obviously both the mental equipment to formulate sound ideas and plans, and the energy and personality to serve others (and their own metaneeds) by personally ensuring that their ideas were put into practice by the politicians concerned (as far as this was humanly possible).

However, a problem for the self-actualiser arises here. If we accept the assumption that, of all people on earth, self-actualisers are the most capable at thinking about the future of the world, then I would further assume a good capacity on their part, for planning and acting on those thoughts.

Let us return to the concept of growth needs. Self-actualisers need to grow. In order to grow, they must create or find opportunities to put their thoughts and plans into action. Thoughts and plans, without action to follow them, frustrate fulfilment and growth possibilities.

I would posit that this is true at all levels in the need-hierarchy. Further, it is essential for the growth-oriented self-actualiser. Therefore, if self-actualisers have the opportunity to act, they are meeting a new need upon which all the growth needs are dependent. I interpret this new need as a 'need to serve'. 10

So self-actualisers need to serve - an ideal, nature, a country, God, humanity - in order to grow, and preserve their wide perspectives. I would posit further that any self-actualiser's metaneed is dependent for its fulfilment, upon the <u>fulfilment</u> of the 'need to serve'. To take an example, a self-actualiser may hold beauty as his/her prime metaneed. He/she may attempt in various ways to meet, or fulfil this need. However, unless the need for service is met at the same time, the metaneed will remain unfulfilled. The only other option open to a questing self-actualiser, is to substitute another of the metaneeds. (NB: With regard to the metaneeds, it is also possible to perceive them as ideals.). In summary:

Metaneeds are similar to ideals, in that they can only be fulfilled through service. One must meet the 'need to serve', to fulfil a perceived metaneed, just as one must serve an ideal, to realise that ideal in onself. Therefore, the fulfilment of the 'need to serve' is prepotent to the fulfilment of one's perceived metaneed.

We now turn to the second question. Can we assume that there are human beings who have a time-space perspective at the origin of the graph in Figure 4? If so, who are they? I previously posited that the self-actualiser, who is in the position of being able to serve his/her perceived metaneed, can range freely into the future (and the past), in thinking about problems involving nations or the globe.

How does the present concern them? Maslow stated in 'Motivation and Personality' 12 that the characteristics of self-actualised persons included the following:

Their appreciation of people and things is <u>fresh</u> rather than stereotyped.

They identify with mankind.

They <u>transcend</u> the environment rather than just coping with it.

They have an air of detachment, and a need for privacy.

Eric Berne's concept of the autonomous individual 13 gives support to these characteristics. (See Figure 5 below).

MASLOW

SELF - ACTUALISER

TRANSCENDING
FRESHNESS OF
APPRECIATION
IDENTIFICATION
WITH MANKIND

(DETACHMENT)

Figure 5:

BERNE
AUTONOMOUS PERSON

AWARENESS
SPONTANEITY
INTIMACY

(USE OF AUTONOMOUS ADULT)

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We can accept that the self-actualiser who can range far in time and wide in space in his/her thoughts and plans, is also capable at other times, of being aware, spontaneous and intimate. I would posit, that in working or acting on his/her thoughts and plans, the self-actualiser, at the same time, has the capacity to be oblivious to everything, but the problem or person(s) at hand. The self-actualiser who can transcend the environment, through being oblivious of the passage of time, the immediate surroundings, and his/her basic needs, will be able to bring full here and now...

awareness to the problem or person(s) at hand. It is likely that the observable detachment of the self-actualiser comes from his/her ranging far and wide, in time and space, in his/her thoughts. The need for privacy, on the other hand, arises because of the capability of the self-actualiser to be here and now for other people in meeting their needs, and his/her own need to serve. A person who spends much of his/her time in the here and now with others has at least an equal need to be alone, and to be left alone.

In summary: (cf. Figure 4)

Self-actualisers can be at the origin. They tend to operate at need level 5. In thinking, they may be at the origin, and level 5 at the same time. In acting, they will tend to be at the origin, and level 5 - 6 at the same time.

People on need-levels 1-4 may have moments on level 5, and/or at the origin.

Those self-actualisers who do not meet their 'need to serve' and their metaneed, <u>may</u> have short periods at the origin and on level 5 at the same time. Those self-actualisers who are <u>presently</u> meeting their 'need to serve' and their metaneed, are the only people who meet their growth needs, by being on level 6, and simultaneously at the origin.

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BEYOND MASLOW AND THE LIMITS TO GROWTH PART II

Maslow's concepts of the peak-experience: methods, experiments and applications.

In 'Motivation and Personality' (1954), Maslow formulated his initial list of characteristics of self-actualised persons, based on studies of friends, acquaintances and historical figures. The list is reproduced here, as an introduction to some of the factors involved in Maslow's second basic concept, that of the peak-experience (F.E. in abbreviated form).

Figure 6:

CHARACTERISTICS OF SELF-ACTUALISED PERSONS

They are realistically oriented.

They accept themselves, other people and the natural world, for what they are.

They have a great deal of spontaneity.

They are problem-centred rather than self-centred.

They have an air of detachment and a need for privacy.

They are autonomous and independent.

Their appreciation of people and things is fresh rather than stereotyped.

Most of them have had profound mystical or spiritual experiences although not necessarily religious in character.

They identify with mankind.

Their intimate relationships with a few specially loved people tend to be profound and deeply emotional rather than superficial.

Their values and attitudes are democratic.

They do not confuse means with ends.

Their sense of humour is philosophical rather than hostile.

They have a great fund of creativeness.

They resist conformity to the culture.

They transcend the environment rather than just coping with it.

The underlined characteristics are those which may best bridge the gaps between Maslow's hierarchy of needs on the one hand, and his view of the peak-experience on the other. This will be examined more closely in the latter part of this paper, which gives reports of three types of P.E. situations. As far as Maslow was concerned, P.E.'s were his labels for those personal experiences which were profoundly mystical, happy, blissful, spiritual or wonderful. He considered that a person who had a P.E., underwent some (momentary) form of actualisation of self. He further postulated that self-actualisers underwent more P.E's than other people because they actualised more often, and more regularly 14. Before his death, Maslow, in his last major work, 'The Farther Reaches of Human Nature 15, recapped on P.E's. He considered that P.E's only occurred spontaneously, as an effect of actualising behaviour, or higher (meta-) cognition, and could not be naturally induced.

Within my experience, a P.E. is a deeply self-fulfilling, momentary experience of personal meaning. It can provide flashes of inspiration, or clues to the answers to the basic imponderables:
Who am I? Why am I here? (i.e. What is my purpose here on earth?).

Peak experiences happen to everybody, but may not necessarily be perceived as such. The mother seeing her new-born child for the first time, the team-member who scores in the last minute to win the game, the child who receives an unexpected present, the climber standing on a new 'top' - all these people are likely to have undergone a P.E., albeit for a few seconds only, and often without any cognition or re-cognition on their part.

Two questions which arise in relation to the experience of P.E's are:

- (1) Can P.E.'s be naturally induced, and if so, by what means?
- (2) What factors, in a situation where a P.E. occurs, are necessary and/or sufficient conditions for inducing P.E's ?

To answer these questions, I looked for sources dealing with experiences of a profound nature, which appeared similar to P.E's. In particular, I looked for clues leading to the methods involved, and generalities in the conditions whereby these meaningful experiences took place.

The following conditions or factors, plus the examples given, began to emerge as a pattern:

(1) Detachment

From others, from self, from one's immediate environment.
e.g. the detachment of the researcher, or of the deep-thinking person, or of the person following his/her 'grande passion'.

(2) Acceptance

Of other people, of self, of nature, of self as a part of nature.
e.g. the acceptance of ecological or environmental
responsibility expressed through such paths as vegetarianism,
veganism, conservation, recycling, simplicity, living at nature's
pace, living within one's means, and keeping life in balance.

(3) Childlikeness

In seeing oneself, in seeing others, in seeing the world.
e.g. the experiencing of life as always fresh, new, exciting, as a child would, whose sense receptors have not yet begun to channel, block or filter sense impressions. Also, the unblocking of the sensory channels through meditation, prayer, Hatha Yoga and other relaxation techniques, exercise, and the return to nature.

(4) Silence

A lack of verbal communication, the allowing of natural sounds to predominate.

e.g. the silence of a Quaker meeting for worship, the silence at dusk in the mountains, or in the bush, the silence of two or more people who are comfortable being silent in each other's company.

(5) Transcendence

Of self, of one's basic needs, of life's demands and pressures, of one's immediate environment (momentary or short-term).

e.g. in religious terminology, such expressions as 'filled with Christ', 'communion with God' and 'releasing that of God in man', in the alpha deep rest state (physiology and Transcendental Meditation), being at one with nature, merging with its regularly recurring patterns harmoniously (the back-to-nature movement), higher consciousness, higher awareness of being.

In summary, preconditions for inducing P.E's might seem to include the ability to be detached, self-acceptance, well-developed sensory awareness, relative silence in one's immediate environment, and the ability to'switch off' and 'tune in'.

It proved much more difficult to find means by which P.E's, or similar profound experiences could be induced. The similarities between the types of experience, as they occurred and were described, were about as uniform as the previous list of conditions. In other words, the source literature set the stage, and tended to jump to the climax or hohe Punkt of the enactment, rather than follow through scenes and acts.

For example, all the following concepts share something in common with Maslow's P.E.: Maharishi Mahesh Yogi's seven levels of consciousness in Transcendental Meditation 17, Gurdjieff's ten stages of the development of awareness in man 18, Colin Wilson's St Neot margin and reservoir of energy 19, the drug-induced experiences of Aldous Huxley 20, Carlos Castaneda 21, and Hermann Hesse 22, 'the still, small voice of God' found in Quaker theology 23, the attainment of higher consciousness (Nirvana) through the practice of Hatha (and other) Yogas, and the field of eidetic imagery in adults.

Only a few snippets dealing with <u>methods</u> of inducing P.E's came to light. All concerned the preparation of self for these experiences over a time period of at least weeks, and at most, a lifetime.

The next stage of exploration was experimental.My suppositions were that:

- (1) It was possible to induce P.E's in myself, as a subject.
- (2) It was possible for me to induce P.E's in selected individuals.
- (3) It was possible for me to induce P.E's in individuals in a group situation.

I accept in advance, that at that time, my methodology was based more upon trial and error than upon previously established scientific bases. My reasons for this course of action are centred around the lack of source material dealing with the methodology for such research.

The following descriptions of the three phases of the experimental work are intended to be anecdotal, yet precise, in terms of the observations recorded. The descriptions are summaries of diary notes for three separate teaching/learning experiences.

Initially, I taught myself (Phase One) to induce experiences akin to P.E's. In the second phase, I simplified my initial approach to its bare essentials, and taught it to three separate children in the Form One class I was teaching at the time. In Phase Three, I attempted to induce P.E's in individuals in a group situation, (including the three children from Phase Two).

Descriptions of the three methods, and of the conditions present at the time follow, together with a summary of what took place.

PHASE ONE

Method A

Time period: March 1973 to June 1973 (3 months, including two weeks initial baseline, four weeks experiment, three weeks return to baseline - including May holidays - and a further four weeks experiment).

Place: 40 Woodlands Road, Timaru, in the lounge of a front flat.

Equipment: One straight back chair, one timer.

Routine: Up to twenty minutes twice daily, using biorhythmic times (before breakfast and before the evening meal) rather than fixed hours.

Interruptions: The experiment was discontinued in these cases.

Process: Sitting with hands on knees, feet flat, back straight, head erect, the following activities were performed in sequence. There were no fixed time limits for any of the five activities, except the twenty minute total time constraint.

- (1) Basic Hatha Yoga breathing and relaxation exercises.
- (2) Mind-cleuring, and centering-down-into-self exercises (from Quaker methods of meditation).
- (3) Focus-relax exercise utilised in Transcendental Meditation.
- (4) Perceptual focussing (visual, tactile) on an object with eyes open (a) Ball-point pen (b) Orange
- (5) Use of eidetic imagery to focus on object with eyes closed, for as long as necessary - until the timer sounded, or until some effect ('experience') occurred.

Results from Method A

(Anecdotal summary only) I found that if I could sustain the object image eidetically with eyes closed, that, what can only be described as a 'wave of energy' passed through me, accompanied by a relaxation of the focusing by involuntary means. This occurred between fifty and sixty percent of the time, or more simply, at least once a day in the experimental phases, and very occasionally, twice. I found these experiences renewing and refreshing, and I was able to work late into the night with no feeling of fatigue, but other factors may have contributed to this. The peak-effects varied from a few seconds to several minutes in duration, in my estimation. I found it difficult to pinpoint in precise language the quality of these experiences, except to state that they were, for me, indepth experiences.

Physical effects: (checked at end of 20 minutes)

Briefly, pulse rate (baseline 66) lowered to a consistent 50-52, which took up to five minutes to restore itself to normal levels. Blood-pressure (baseline 105/70) lowered to a consistent 95/50 ofer 20 sessions, and returned to normal after the three month period. Respiration rate (baseline 20) dropped to below 15 in most sessions. Results were obtained and checked by E. Williams, B.Sc.

Phase One was completed in June, 1973. I returned to baseline, for two weeks, which took me into July. During this two week period, I preselected five possible children who might be willing to learn the basis of the technique I had attempted to teach myself. I contacted the families concerned, and was able to obtain separate written approvals from three of the five sets of parents, and verbal approval from the three children concerned, for them to learn Method B.I informed the families about the basic idea of the it, a dieut era del la e la la la la coma ta de la coma
PHASE TWO.

Method B

Time Period: July 1973 (2 weeks, plus one week baseline).).

Place: In the homes of the children, in the quietest room

available. The same room was used, where practicable.

for each session.

Equipment: One straight back chair, one timer, one orange.

Each child was visited once every three evenings Routine:

eyes tand to a lafter dinner, in the two weeks after baseline, as

The transfer of the contract o

a support to their learning, and to check that

Method B was being followed appropriately.

Names of

Children: Michael, Marie, Steven

Interruptions: The experiments were discontinued in the event of how was a region interruptions.

Data on children:

Data on onergan			
Your es look words, move to	MICHAEL	MARIE	STEVEN
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Verbal ability	Very high	Very high	Very high
Ability to relax	V.G.	G.	V.C.
Visual attention span	High	High	Above average

Process:

Method B is divided into three stages. It is described here in full detail.

Stage One

Ask the child to sit in one of the two upright chairs (see Figure 7). Seat yourself in the other chair. Keep the child at ease. Tell him/her a joke, ask him/her about a favourite activity, place or person. Talk about last night's TV programmes. Ensure the child understands he/she has to sit upright, without crossed legs or folded arms, to get the most out of Method B.

Stage Two

(Verbatim) Concentrate on this orange (give orange to child).Look at it, and at nothing else.Hold it loosely.Keep on looking at it... now, keep looking and imagine it, inside your head...can you see it? ...can you smell it?...imagine you're tasting it...now imagine you're an orange.Keep looking.

(After the first few minutes, you will find that most children's eyes tend to glaze with tears, from the focussing. To resolve this, say:)

Look at me...look at the seiling...look at the door...look at your knees...look at the table...look at me again...now look at the orange again, hard. Think about being an orange.

(Try not to speak for the next 4-5 minutes. The silence is necessary, but not sufficient for progression to Stage Three. When it proves necessary, tell the child:)

Your eyes look sore ...

(If the child agrees, move to Stage Three. If the child wants to keep on, say:)

Keep on looking at the orange ... imagine you gare right inside it.

Stage Three

Now, shut your eyes...keep on seeing the orange, inside your head... keep on thinking orange, orange, orange as hard as you can.... (Stop speaking at this point, and wait until the child opens his/her eyes. This may be a few seconds, or it may last several minutes. If the child wants to know that you are still present, tell him/her briefly.)

Results from Method B

(Anecdotal summaries only)

(1) Michael found no difficulty with any of the three stages, in the five trials in which I observed him. In Stage Three, he tended to grin widely, his brow furrowed, then smoothed out, he would lean back in the chair, and crane his neck further back, his breathing rate would become slower and deeper, and he took up to ten minutes to open his eyes, after verbal communication had ceased.

When asked about his experiences, Michael said (in summary): 'Really great... I felt all light and floaty...my head kept bobbing upwards... I couldn't stop smiling... I felt tingly.'

(2) Marie experienced minor difficulties with the latter part of Stage Three, in visualising the orange with eyes closed, in all five trials in which I observed her. In Stage Three, she tended to stretch upwards and lean back in her chair, she breathed more deeply, she wrinkled both nose and brow in concentration, she gripped the orange tightly at times, and she took up to five minutes to open her eyes.

When asked about her experiences, Marie said (in summary):
'It was funny, but nice...I could see lots of bubbles...
stars...I can still see stars, sort of...it felt good.'

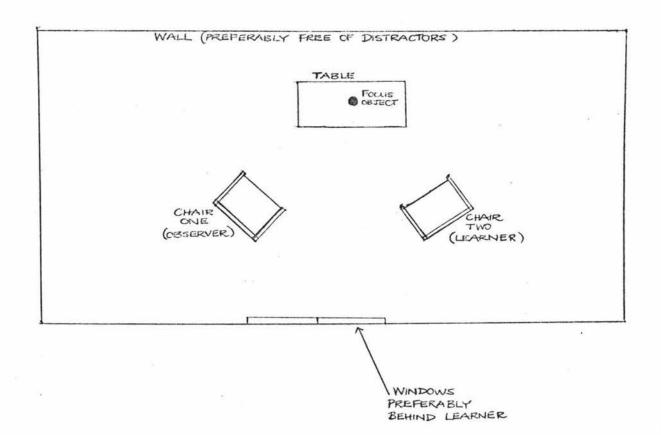
(3) Steven experienced difficulties with Stages Two and Three. He appeared to have very active tear-glands in comparison to the other two children, and had difficulty focussing for any length of time. Steven found it difficult to keep still in Stage Three. He kept moving in the chair, and he turned the orange around in his hands. His respiration varied in depth and rhythm, and he bent forward on several occasions, to draw deeper breaths. Steven opened his eyes within 80 seconds of the onset of silence.

When asked about his experiences, Steven said (in summary):
'My head feels a bit bigger...I don't know...I couldn't
concentrate on the orange or anything...I quite liked it it's different.'

Phase Two

Seating Disgram

FIGURE SEVEN



General Conclusions from Phase Two

- (1) Michael appeared to have 'experiences' similar to my own. He wanted to continue with the sessions, since he felt he had derived much benefit from them.
- (2) Marie appeared to have short-term 'experiences', with strong visual after-effects. Marie also appeared to experience any side- or after-effects more strongly than Michael or Steven.
- (3) Steven may have had momentary 'experiences', of a mild nature. His concentration/attention span was markedly lower than those of the other two children. Physically, Steven was in the early stages of puberty, which may account for some of the difficulties he experienced. (Michael and Marie were both still in the prepubertal phase of development.)
- (4) It can be posited that 'experiences' similar to P.E's are able to be induced, under appropriate conditions, with suitable subjects.
- (5) Tentative necessary conditions for an 'experience' to occur are: (a) Relative silence (b) Lack of distractors in the immediate environment (c) Focus-object, which is a simple, pure form (d) Appropriate posture (to facilitate correct breathing and muscle relaxation) (e) Acceptance of a (new) learning role (f) Ability to conjure up eidetic images, and to hold them in mind (g) Ability to 'turn off' one's thinking processes (h) High attention span.
- (6) Tentative sufficient conditions for an'experience' to occur are: (a) Relative silence (b) A focus-object (c) Correct breathing (d) Relaxation of body and mind (e) A high degree of perceptual ability, or 'awareness'.

PHASE THREE

Method C

Time Period: August 1973 (one Saturday evening, from the onset of

dusk until full darkness)

Place: Trotter's Corge, near the University of Otago hut.

seven miles from Palmerston South.

Equipment: Nil

Focus-object: The moon in the process of rising

Pre-planning: From August, 1973, a series of 2-3 day camps were held at the above site. Before the first of these camps, (at which Michael, Marie and Steven were all present), Method C was devised. Theoretically, it involved a range of similar conditions to Methods A and B: a focus-object, a non-distracting local environment, relative silence, and hopefully, cooperation in, and

plus the attentional ability required.

A large, flat rock, surrounded by a fledgling stand of manuka, on a hill-side about one kilometre from the hut, was chosen as a suitable site for observation.

acceptance of the experiment by the participants,

Anecdotal report of Method C

The idea of the experiment was explained to the children late on the afternoon of the chosen Saturday. The entire group of 26 children were given the choice of entering into an informal contract to do exactly as they were told, or to stay at the hut with the small group of parent-helpers. All elected to take part. The terms of the contract, briefly described, required each child to look and listen as hard and as long as possible, to stay silent until the start of the return journey to the hut, to keep movement of limbs to a minimum, to breathe slowly and deeply, and to keep from communicating with tongue, eye or limb, with any other child. All agreed to these conditions.

We moved, after an early dinner, to the rock, and seated ourselves as dusk began to fall. The group was told to watch the moon appear from behind and rise over the neighbouring cliffs. All fell silent.

Recorded here are notes from observation of the group of twentysix children (in summary form) plus the children's expressions of their experience (written on the following day). These are prefaced by a statement of intention:

Method C was devised, to examine whether a natural outdoor location, together with an intangible focus-object, were primary conditions for the inducing of P.E.-type experiences in individuals within a group. With their recent background, it seemed reasonable to assume that Michael and Marie, and possibly Steven would be more likely to induce P.E's, or similar 'experiences' in themselves, than most of the other children would.

Notes

All the children sat and listened and looked around initially. The usual signs of embarrassment passed. Many of the children focussed on the cliffs or on the rocks and trees nearby. The sounds which predominated (for me) were the gurgle of water plashing in the stream, the calls of birds, and the noises of the evening wind. From their own accounts, this initial waiting period was, for the children, an opening up of their senses. Expressions similar to the following cropped up repeatedly: 'I heard birds calling a sleepy goodnight to one another'...'the manuka bushes rustled in time with each other'...'I felt very small'...'I heard the stream chatting to the stones'...'the breeze was exploring the paths in the bush'...'I was part of the rock'.

As the moonlight strengthened, and the first segment of moon began to appear, the children refocussed visually. Many of them leant forward. Some gazed quite bug-eyed, completely oblivious of the existence of anything or anyone else. Others sat back, and watched through narrowed eyes. Some hugged their legs (the weather was warm) and rocked back and forth, with a blank expression on their faces. Very few children were aware of my gaze. Most seemed absorbed.

As the moon rose into full view, several children showed facial expressions ranging from pleased through happy to beatific. Some looked calm, even serene. Some merely grinned. One or two looked awe-struck. No-one stirred or spoke.

In their diaries, many of the children wrote up this part of the experience as something magical, something mystical and vivifying. Again, the following examples cropped up often: 'I was still like the rock'...'I felt myself swaying with the trees'...'I had to keep on looking at the moon'...'I couldn't stop smiling'...'The moon-light made my eyes go swimmy'...'The moon held me to the rock'...
'I felt the moon was shining just on me'.

Almost all of the children kept on looking at the moon. Some looked dreamy now, others looked as absorbed as they had previously. The first few children found their attention lagging, but kept quiet, and refrained from staring at those who were still involved with their perceptions. About 45 minutes had passed. I decided to stand up, to break the stillness. The children stood up, in ones and twos, stretching, yawning, blinking and rubbing their eyes. We walked, in small groups, back to the hut. Not a word was spoken on the return journey.

General Conclusions from Phase Three

Tentatively, it could be posited that some few of the children underwent a P.E.-type experience during Phase Three. Michael and Marie stated that the outdoor experience felt much the same as their five indoor trials. Steven said that he had got a lot more out of the outdoor situation, because he could concentrate better. Almost all the children (over 85%) said they enjoyed the experience, and over half enjoyed the silence (60%). Almost all the children said either that they felt comfortable being out in the open at night, or that they were less afraid of the dark. Over 35% said that, when I got up they did not feel ready to leave, and 20% spontaneously came and thanked me. The only conclusions which emerge from these figures are (1) that this was a useful learning experience from a perceptual-sensory point of view and (2) that silence can be an enjoyable learning medium.

Scientifically speaking, the variables in this situation were not all accounted for Certain variables were controlled, but I would feel very hesitant about confirming any particular factor as a precondition for a P.E.As a teacher, I am doubly cautious from my classroom experience of the 'Hawthorne' and 'halo' effects of arranged situations, with the observer/recorder also participating.

Overall Conclusions

- P.E's, or similar 'experiences' are able to be self-induced, or induced in others, given certain conditions.
- (2) with appropriate skills-training, P.E's or similar experiences can be induced indoors or outdoors, using a tangible or intangible focus-object.
- (3) Necessary and sufficient conditions for a P.E., or similar experience to be induced, include the following:
 - (a) Relative silence (plus the absence of manmade or artificial sounds, or communications)
 - (b) A visible focus-object
 - (c) Openness to experience
 - (d) Undivided attention given to focus-object
 - (e) Absence of any, but minor physical (or respiratory) tensions

This area needs researching thoroughly. The concept of a induced P.E's could have applications to family life, to individual growth, to formal and informal education, to religion and medicine, and to the philosophies behind those fields. Maslow spent years applying the concept of the P.E. He knew he was onto a major discovery, but time ran out for him. His legacy was 'The Farther Reaches of Human Nature'. The book points out one direction, as have many books by a range of philosophers, novelists, theologists and theorists. However, the practical nature of Maslow's work with P.E's, and his applications of it in industry, medicine and education make his direction, for me, down-to-earth enough to refine, and pass on to more people.

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