1973

A Study To Determine The Effects Of A Counselor - Student - Teacher - Parent Contractual Agreement Upon The Behavior And Achievement Of Middle School Problem Children.

Dorothy R. Whitford Frost
University of the Pacific

A STUDY TO DETERMINE THE EFFECTS OF A COUNSELOR-STUDENT-TEACHER-PARENT CONTRACTUAL AGREEMENT UPON THE BEHAVIOR AND ACHIEVEMENT OF MIDDLE SCHOOL PROBLEM CHILDREN

A Dissertation

Presented to

the Faculty of the Graduate School

University of the Pacific

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

---

by

Dorothy Whitford Frost

September 1973

A STUDY TO DETERMINE THE EFFECTS OF A COUNSELOR-STUDENT-TEACHER-PARENT CONTRACTUAL AGREEMENT UPON THE BEHAVIOR AND ACHIEVEMENT OF MIDDLE SCHOOL PROBLEM CHILDREN

Abstract of Dissertation

Problem children present a major concern in the field of education. Because they are not adjusting to the socially-acceptable behavior norms of their environment, they disrupt their own progress and the learning efforts of their classmates.

PURPOSE: The purpose of this study was to determine the effectiveness of school counselors involving problem children in a middle school with their teacher and parent(s) in a contractual agreement. This contractual agreement was based upon Glasser's Reality Therapy and tailored to the individual problem child's own needs, in order to help him to improve his behavior and achievement.

PROCEDURE: The treatment group was composed of middle school problem children, so designated and rated by the classroom teacher on the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale. The non-treatment group consisted of three intact homerooms, one at each grade level, most closely approximating that mean grade level in terms of Stanford Achievement Test scores. The pretest for both groups in the Paragraph Meaning and Arithmetic Computation subtests of the Stanford Achievement Test was a part of the school testing program. As soon as the problem child was designated, he was involved in a contractual agreement with his counselor, teacher, and parent(s). At the end of the school year, post-testing in the two subtests was administered to the treatment and to the non-treatment groups. The treatment group was again rated by the classroom teacher on the behavior rating scale. Five dependent variables were investigated for the treatment group: grade-point average, paragraph meaning, arithmetic computation, grade in the subject of the designating teacher, and behavior. Three dependent variables were investigated for the non-treatment group: grade-point average, paragraph meaning, and arithmetic computation.

FINDINGS: The data for the experimental group was analyzed by employing the Student t-test for correlated samples to test for a significant mean gain for the dependent variables of this group. The non-experimental group was used as a secondary comparison. The .05 level of statistical significance was used for testing the null hypotheses. Problem children, as well as non-problem children, made significant gains in grade-point average, paragraph meaning, and arithmetic computation. The gain of the problem children was not significantly higher than that of the non-problem children. The problem children received significantly fewer deviations from the mean on the behavior rating scale at the end of the year, but did not make a significant gain in the subject of the designating teacher.

CONCLUSION: From the significant gains of the treatment group and from subjective impressions, the researcher concluded that the contractual agreement and Reality Therapy may well be utilized for helping the problem child in the middle school improve his behavior and achievement.

This dissertation, written and submitted by

Dorothy Whitford Frost

is approved for recommendation to the Committee on Graduate Studies, University of the Pacific

Dean of the School or Department Chairman:

J. Marc Jantzen

Dissertation Committee:

Helmut H Reemes Chairman

Heath Lowry

[illegible]

Richard Lakewood

Bobby R. Hopkins

Dated 9/27/73

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The writer wishes to acknowledge her sincere appreciation for the thoughtful assistance and consistent support of her Dissertation Committee: Dr. Helmut H. Riemer, Chairman, Dr. Heath W. Lowry, Dr. Otis H. Shao, Dr. Richard Coke Wood, and Dr. Bobby Hopkins.

In addition, the writer appreciates the kind and thorough overall guidance of Dr. W. Preston Gleason, graduate adviser. Special appreciation is expressed to Dr. Bobby Hopkins, who joined the committee during its final two months and who was most generous with his time and direction in the statistical area. The amount of cooperation and interest of fellow doctoral students and the library staff cannot be estimated.

Gratitude is also expressed to the professional support of Dr. John B. Geissinger, Superintendent of Schools, the Board of Education, and The Middle School Faculty in Tenafly, New Jersey.

The writer gratefully acknowledges her indebtedness to the understanding of her family and to Lyla Riemer, typist.

Dorothy Whitford Frost

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter Page

Chapter | Page

Chapter 1

THE PROBLEM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

INTRODUCTION

> America promises that everyone shall have a chance to achieve his full potential, and education is the chief instrument for making good that promise. It is the path to individual fulfillment. Our aim is to make it an avenue broad enough for all to follow.[1]

Problem children present a major concern in the field of education.[2] Because they are not adjusting to the socially-acceptable behavior norms of their environment, they disrupt their own progress and the learning efforts of their classmates.[3]

Many studies have been made of problem behavior--its characteristics and its classifications. However, there still remains a need for research to help the practitioner to find answers to problems plaguing the child and the school. There is a need for the researcher to be where the problem child is and to help him, with the support of the significant people in his life, find an answer to his problem.[4]

---

[1]John W. Gardner, No Easy Victories (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1968), p. 67.

[2]Robert W. Woody, Behavioral Problem Children in the Schools (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1969), p. v.

[3]Ibid., p. 7.

[4]Hannelore Wass, "How Research Can Help to Personalize Education," Educational Leadership, XXIX (December, 1971), 249-51.

THE PROBLEM

The middle school counselor is constantly being faced with teachers who have problem children in their classrooms. Not knowing how to cope with these children who disrupt their own learning as well as that of their classmates, teachers are appealing to the counselor for help--in knowing what to do with problem children and how to help them in the classroom.

Parents of problem children often question the school counselor about what they can do to help their own children. They hopefully wonder if the school cannot do something. They are often aware that problem children need help now, in order to realize and use their potential.

The school counselor hears the problem child asking what is wrong with himself, why he doesn't know what to do in many situations, why everything he does seems to be wrong, why everyone criticizes him. The problem child sits in the counselor's office, waiting for help.

The school counselor, faced with this problem, is besieged with questions from the problem child, his teacher, and his parents. Is there any way in which the counselor can coordinate the significant people in the life of the problem child for the purpose of helping this child? Glasser[5] offers a possible direction. A contractual agreement based upon Glasser's Reality Therapy may provide a vehicle to aid the problem child in the middle school classroom.

---

[5]William Glasser, Reality Therapy (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1965).

Purpose of the Study

The present study was designed by the researcher to determine the effectiveness of a school counselor involving each problem child with his teacher and parent(s) in a contractual agreement, based upon Glasser's Reality Therapy and tailored to the individual problem child's own needs, for the purpose of improving his behavior and achievement.

Importance of the Study

The role of the school counselor is changing. He is working in a changing culture, and not in a vacuum.[6] To be effective, his role is not an independent one--rather, it is played in coordination and co-operation with the school and home. It is a role that must be re-defined in the face of problems and the results of research experiments.[7]

Current studies indicate there is a need for the school counselor to be concerned with "action guidance," rather than with "program guidance"--that is, helping students develop and function within a social environment, rather than preparing for them an assembly program which tells them about one aspect of social environment. There is a voiced need for the school counselor to be available to help work with problems beyond the ordinary teacher-student relationship.[8]

---

[6]Charles Gilbert Wrenn, The Counselor in a Changing World (Washington, D.C.: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1962), p. 111.

[7]Robert J. McCarthy, The Ungraded Middle School (West Nyack, New York: Parker Publishing Company, 1972), pp. 210-13.

[8]William E. Stradley, A Practical Guide to the Middle School (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1971), pp. 131-38.

The 1970 White House Conference went a step further. They viewed the school counselor as a "change agent" to help educators free themselves from traditional attitudes toward a problem child.[9] While a counselor may see a child in a one-to-one relationship, the teacher can observe this child daily in the classroom over a period of time and in relation to other children.[10] Rosenthal and Jacobsen have noted that a teacher's observation is even more careful and his reinforcement is even more appropriate when his attention is called to a particular child.[11]

In the United States, parent power and interest in the public schools is being shown--in teaching methodology, curricula, organization, and guidance. Parents are concerned about their role in working with the school and what is expected of them.[12]

The Krumboltzes[13] have long felt that the significant people in the life of the problem child--his school counselor, his teacher, and his parents--need to employ together a "common sense" behavioral approach. One approach that could be tried by these significant people

---

[9]Louise O. Eckerson, "White House Conference on Children: Implications for Counselors As Change Agents," Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, VI (May, 1972), 239-44.

[10]Joel Elkind, "The Middle School Muddle," The Clearing House, XLIV (March, 1970), 400.

[11]Robert Rosenthal and Lenore Jacobson, Pygmalion In The Classroom (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1968).

[12]Cynthia Parsons, "Change At School," The Christian Science Monitor, February 8, 1972, p. 6.

[13]John D. Krumboltz and Helen Brandhorst Krumboltz, Changing Children's Behavior (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972), p. xviii.

is Glasser's Reality Therapy. It is being used throughout the United States and Canada in schools, psychiatric clinics, mental hospitals, halfway houses, institutions for correction, and on educational television. The effectiveness of using this therapy with counselors, problem children, teachers, and parents being involved together is most promising and not explored to date.

Under pressure from students, teachers, and parents, counselors themselves are becoming convinced that somehow they must design new strategies to meet current needs in the classroom.[14] However, designing alone is not enough, for research reviews of the past fifteen years point to the need for counselors to be more effectively involved in research activities and to publish the results of their work.[15]

The common occurrence of "dead end" research in the field of education is being questioned. Communities are concerned about the "pure research" that is conducted in isolation, never put into practice, and filed on the shelf with previous reports.[16] Eboch has pointed out that "Research should guide practice, but somehow research must be more reality oriented than laboratory confined."[17] If the school counselor is to do an effective job, Peters and Hansen stress the importance of his involvement with active research--that is, research connected with

---

[14]Leona E. Tyler, The Work of the Counselor (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1969), p. 186.

[15]Lawrence Litwack, Russell Getson, and Glenn Saltzman (eds.), Research in Counseling (Itasca, Illinois: F. E. Peacock Publishers, Inc., 1968), p. x.

[16]Cynthia Parsons, "Do Schools Learn?" The Christian Science Monitor, May 10, 1972, p. 6.

[17]Sidney C. Eboch, "The Value of Field Studies in Education," Theory Into Practice, VI (April, 1967), 69.

his immediate daily situations.[18]

With many behavior problems appearing before entrance into the secondary schools, it is interesting to note that few studies of these problems have been undertaken at the elementary grade level.[19] In addition, while extensive research has been conducted to identify problem children and other studies have represented efforts to assist them, identification of these children has not been directly followed with involvement and experimentation for the purpose of discovering a means of helping them.

The researcher in this study, a sixth-grade counselor in a middle school, proposed to meet three currently-voiced needs:

1. a need for the counselor to design an action program.
2. a need for the counselor to act as a facilitator of communication--to help the problem child by means of a contractual agreement involving counselor, problem child, teacher and parents.
3. a need for the counselor to help the problem child at the elementary school level in the middle school.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

To help the problem child in the classroom setting in the

---

[18]Herman J. Peters and James C. Hansen, "The School Counselor As A Researcher," The School Counselor, VII (March, 1964), 170.

[19]Leland G. Orlov, "An Experimental Study of the Effects of Group Counseling With Behavior Problem Children at the Elementary School Level" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, The Catholic University of America, 1972), p. 7.

middle school by the involvement and commitment of the significant people in his life--his counselor, teacher, and parents--, this study utilized Glasser's Reality Therapy and a contractual agreement.

The Problem Child

Starting in the 1920's with Wickman's study,[20] to be repeated twenty-five years later by Stouffer[21] and again in 1957 by Hunter,[22] interest has continued to the present in becoming acquainted with the characteristics of the problem child. Research studies indicate a lack of agreement concerning these characteristics. However, Woody's subjective definition of the problem child is one which is most commonly projected by writers in the field and which will be used in this study:

> . . . the child who cannot or will not adjust to the socially acceptable norms for behavior and consequently disrupts his own academic progress, the learning efforts of his classmates, and interpersonal relations.[23]

Descriptive behavioral categories, behavior checklists, measurement of attitudes, and a study of definitions have been found to be of some help to the classroom teacher.[24] While there may be a danger in categorizing children, this categorization can be useful in providing

---

[20]E. K. Wickman, Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes (New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1928).

[21]George A. W. Stouffer, Jr., "Behavior Problems of Children As Viewed by Teachers and Mental Hygienists," Mental Hygiene, XXXVI (April, 1952), 271-85.

[22]E. C. Hunter, "Changes in Teachers' Attitudes Toward Children's Behavior Over the Last Thirty Years," Mental Hygiene, XLI (January, 1957), 3-11.

[23]Woody, op. cit., p. 7.

[24]Clifford P. Froehlich and Kenneth B. Hoyt, Guidance Testing (Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1959), p. 3.

guidelines for working with problem children.[25]

Glasser's Reality Therapy

Glasser warns that:

> As long as we cling to the belief that to help problem children we need highly trained professional people working in the traditional areas of case history, unconscious conflicts, insight, and transference, there will be no way to approach the public schools.[26]

Reality Therapy has been used by Glasser in correctional fields and in educational systems where he has worked directly with children, especially in the Los Angeles (Calif.) and Palo Alto (Calif.) public schools. He has taught large groups of counselors, teachers, and school administrators. As head of the Educator Training Center in Los Angeles (Calif.), he develops the ideas of Reality Therapy and works with teachers who are interested in the principles of Schools Without Failure.[27]

Reality Therapy dispenses with labels and limits the attention to the now behavior. It attempts to do in a short time what should have been done in normal growing up. This learning situation has three procedures--separate, but interwoven:

> First, there is the involvement; the therapist must become so involved with the patient that the patient can begin to face reality and see how his behavior is unrealistic. Second, the therapist must reject the behavior which is unrealistic but still accept the patient

---

[25]David Elkin, A Sympathetic Understanding of the Child Six to Sixteen (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1971), p. 3.

[26]Glasser, Reality Therapy, op. cit., p. 155.

[27]William Glasser, Schools Without Failure (New York: Harper and Row, 1969).

> and maintain his involvement with him. Last, and necessary in varying degrees depending upon the patient, the therapist must teach the patient better ways to fulfill his needs within the confines of reality.[28]

The basis of Reality Therapy is helping patients to fulfill two needs: "...the need to love and be loved and the need to feel that we are worthwhile to ourselves and to others."[29] Both needs are necessary, and learning to fulfill them must begin early in life.[30] Because of these needs, Glasser feels the school must provide a warm and human environment in which the child may fulfill his needs.[31]

A concept basic to Reality Therapy is responsibility:

> ...the ability to fulfill one's needs, and to do so in a way that does not deprive others of the ability to fulfill their needs.[32]

The ability is not natural, but must be learned--the earlier, the better--by involvement with others who care enough to be involved.[33] From Glasser's point of view,

> ...all that needs to be diagnosed, no matter with what behavior he expresses it, is whether the patient is suffering from irresponsibility or from an organic illness.[34]

Practically speaking, Glasser feels teachers do not have the time not to get involved, since involvement can happen in a short

---

[28]Glasser, Reality Therapy, op. cit., p. 21.

[29]Ibid., p. 9.

[30]Ibid., p. 11.

[31]Glasser, Schools Without Failure, op. cit., p. 24.

[32]Glasser, Reality Therapy, op. cit., p. 13.

[33]Ibid., pp. 14-20.

[34]Ibid., p. xiv.

time--minutes, even seconds. Reality Therapy principles take less time than the "tried and true" methods. When teachers become acquainted with these principles and understand them, they will be able to learn how to use new techniques and to become more involved with students.[35]

The Contractual Agreement

In this study, the contractual agreement--an agreement in writing between a problem child and his school counselor, teacher, and parent(s)--specified the problem, the purpose of the contractual agreement, the goal (final performance), how to accomplish this goal (starting with the current behavior), and future dates for evaluation.[36]

The contractual agreement is not new to the school. When the emphasis has been placed upon the student and his needs and thoughtfully-detailed procedures, contracting within the school has produced appreciable results.[37] For example, contracting for grades has had the added attraction of individually tailoring the contract.[38] Also, contract plans have been developed to make college curricula responsive to the needs of individual students.[39] However, the contract within the school still has to face technical problems: evaluation,

---

[35]Ibid., pp. 158-59.

[36]Please see Appendix A, p. 148.

[37]Raymond A. Ehrle, "Performance Contracting for Human Services," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, IL (October, 1970), 119-22.

[38]Edward F. Dash, "Contract for Grades," The Clearing House, XLV (December, 1970), 231-35.

[39]University of Redlands Report, 17, Summer, 1971.

design, coordination, understanding, and acceptance by the staff.[40]

CONCEPTUAL HYPOTHESES

Conceptual hypotheses which this study addressed included:

Hypothesis 1. Students who have been designated as problem children by the classroom teacher in the middle school and who have been involved in a contractual agreement will receive within the fourth quarter a significantly higher mean grade-point average than that received during the first quarter of the same school year.

Hypothesis 2. Students who have been designated as problem children by the classroom teacher in the middle school and who have been involved in a contractual agreement will, on the average, score significantly higher on the spring norms in paragraph meaning than they did on the fall norms in the same school year.

Hypothesis 3. Students who have been designated as problem children by the classroom teacher in the middle school and who have been involved in a contractual agreement will, on the average, score significantly higher on the spring norms in arithmetic than they did on the fall norms in the same school year.

Hypothesis 4. Students who have been designated as problem children by the classroom teacher in the middle school and who have been involved in a contractual agreement will receive within the fourth quarter in the subject of the designating teacher a mean grade that is significantly higher than that received during the first quarter of the same school year.

Hypothesis 5. Students who have been designated as problem children by the classroom teacher in the middle school on a behavior rating scale and who have been involved in a contractual agreement will, on the average, receive significantly fewer deviations on the same behavior rating scale at the end of the year than when they were first rated earlier in the same school year.

---

[40]Kenneth Gehret, "Performance Contracting: How Does It Score?" The Christian Science Monitor, January 3, 1972, p. 9.

PROCEDURE OF THE STUDY

To realize the purpose of the study, the researcher (1) asked classroom teachers in a middle school to identify problem children in their classrooms as soon as the problem was noted, and (2) initiated involvement of the problem child with the significant people in his life in a contractual agreement, for the purpose of offering him effective help in his behavior and achievement.

Sample Selection

The sample consisted of middle school students, predominantly sixth graders, who were designated as problem children by the classroom teacher in a middle school as soon as the problem was noted, after September 11, 1972, and on or before December 22, 1972.

Research Design

This study was designed to test the effectiveness of a contractual agreement upon the behavior and achievement of problem children in a middle school.

To analyze the gain of the experimental group, the researcher used a one-group pretest-posttest design. A group of non-problem students was used as a basis for a secondary comparison. Neither the experimental group nor the control non-experimental group was chosen at random - that is,subjects were not randomly assigned to groups. Both groups were given academic pretests and posttests; the experimental group alone received the treatment.

Contractual Agreement Procedure

The three grade counselors (sixth, seventh, and eighth) in a middle school were involved in this study. The sixth grade counselor was also the researcher.

Each classroom teacher of year-long subjects was asked to report to the grade counselor the name of a problem child as soon as the problem was noted in the classroom. When the name of a problem child was received, the counselor asked the reporting teacher to fill out a survey sheet,[41] which would give a picture of how a child appeared to the teacher, and a rating scale,[42] which would give a picture of how a teacher saw this child in comparison with the other children in the classroom.

The grade counselor met with the problem child, his teacher, and his parent(s) for the purpose of negotiating a contractual agreement. The problem had already been established by the teacher by means of the rating scale. At this meeting, a contract was designed, tailored to the needs of the individual child, and signed by all present.

The contract was initiated no later than December 22, 1972, and terminated by May 31, 1973. Future meetings of this group were established and written into the contract. The dates were subject to change if those involved so desired.

---

[41] Please see Appendix B, p. 150.

[42] George Spivack and Marshall Swift, Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale (Devon, Penn.: The Devereux Foundation, 1967).

ASSUMPTIONS AND LIMITATIONS

This study was based upon several assumptions and limitations. They were as follows:

Assumptions

1. School grades are acceptable measures of current performance in academic skills.
2. The Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale is an acceptable measure of behavior.
3. The Survey Sheet, as used in this middle school, gives an acceptable picture of how a child in the classroom appears to the teacher.
4. A study made in an upper-middle and lower-upper socio-economic area in a borough of 15,000 citizens could be representative of and generalized to school populations in similar areas.
5. Counseling methods were adequate implementations of Reality Therapy.

Limitations

1. The sample as designated by classroom teachers was limited primarily to the sixth grade in one middle school in one school district.
2. The classroom teachers designating the sample were limited to those teachers who saw their students in the classroom for the entire school year.
3. The breadth of this investigation depended upon the willingness of classroom teachers to designate the problem children in the classroom in this middle school, at all three grade levels.
4. This study was limited to one school year, 1972-1973.
5. The procedure of this study, as outlined in Chapter 3, was followed and included within the professional day of the three grade counselors.

DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

Terms used in this study were defined as follows:

1. Contractual Agreement: For the purpose of this study, an agreement stated in writing between the school counselor, the problem child, his teacher and parent(s). It specifies what is to be done for a designated period of time and for what purpose.

2. Grade-Point Average: For the purpose of this study, an average of grades made by a student, with the following points being assigned to the alphabetical grade: A=4.00; B=3.00; C=2.00; D=1.00; E(F)=0.00.

3. Middle School: "By definition the middle school is a school built to cover the developmental range of late childhood, preadolescence, and early adolesence."[43] It usually includes the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades.[44]

4. Problem Child: Subjectively, "the child who cannot or will not adjust to the socially acceptable norms for behavior and consequently disrupts his own academic progress, the learning efforts of his classmates, and interpersonal relations."[45]

   Problem Child: Objectively, for the purpose of this study, the child who has been rated by his classroom teacher as being above one standard deviation from the mean in 3 out of the 11 dimensions on the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale, except in Dimensions 7, 10, or 11, in which case he was below one standard deviation from the mean.

5. Reality Therapy Tenets: "...an intense personal involvement, facing reality and rejecting irresponsible behavior, and learning better ways to behave."[46]

---

[43]Hershel Thornburg, "Learning and Maturation in Middle School Age Youth," The Clearing House, XLV (November, 1970), p. 150.

[44]The Middle School: An Idea Whose Time Has Come (New Jersey: New Jersey State Board of Education, 1972), p. 1.

[45]Woody, Behavioral Problem Children in the Schools, op. cit., p. 7.

[46]Glasser, Reality Therapy, op. cit., p. 60.

6. Stanine: "A normalized standard score...of nine units, 1-9; in a normal distribution, stanines have a mean of 5.0 and a standard deviation of 1.96."[47]

SUMMARY

The first chapter of this study has noted that problem children are a major concern in the field of education. While studies have been made of their behavior, there remains a need for the school counselor to offer them help in regard to their behavior and achievement.

By using Glasser's Reality Therapy and a contractual agreement, the researcher has proposed a technique which would involve the problem child with those people significant in his life. The problem has been stated, as well as the relationship of this study to providing help to the problem child. The hypotheses to be tested, the assumptions and limitations of this study, and the definitions of terms used have also been presented.

There will be four additional chapters: (1) Chapter 2, "A Review of Related Literature," (2) Chapter 3, "The Design and Procedure of the Study," (3) Chapter 4, "Findings from the Data," (4) Chapter 5, "Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations."

---

[47]Howard B. Lyman, Test Scores and What They Mean (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963), p. 204.

Chapter 2

A REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A review of literature related to this study will be presented in the following areas:

1. Introduction: research in counseling
2. The role of the school counselor
3. The middle school guidance program
4. Behavior problem children
5. Accountability and contracting in guidance
6. Changing behavior in the classroom
7. Glasser's Reality Therapy
8. The team approach to help the problem child

INTRODUCTION: RESEARCH IN COUNSELING

During the past fifteen years, reviews of counseling research have recognized the need for evaluating counseling programs. Gamsky pinpoints the problem: the counselor is caught between classic research and field research, that is, discovering principles of universal applicability or evaluating his own effectiveness. The airtight experimental design of the graduate school does not always lend itself perfectly to the field need of a counselor.[1]

---

[1]Neal R. Gamsky, "Action Research and The School Counselor," The School Counselor, XVIII (September, 1970), 36-7.

Peters and Hansen see a counselor's reluctance as being the chief deterrent to research.[2] On the other hand, Sciarra has called the educational researcher "an intruder" in the school, one who asks special favors.[3] While evaluating a number of Title III innovative projects which has been undertaken in response to the critical needs of elementary and secondary schools and had included guidance-counseling and testing, Ahrens identified a reason for the success or the failure of projects--involvement or non-involvement of all concerned.[4] Unaccustomed to research, many counselors, teachers and administrators are afraid of research and become defensive. Collecting descriptive statistics is one thing; evaluation is another.[5]

Current journal articles speak in terms of the research needs of counselors:

1. a need to measure the effectiveness of what the counselor does in actual guidance.[6]
2. a need to develop an experimental point of view, better products through research.[7]

---

[2]Herman J. Peters and James C. Hansen, "The School Counselor as a Researcher," The School Counselor, VII (March, 1964), 170.

[3]June Sciarra, "The Researcher Goes To School," Journal of School Psychology, VI (Summer, 1968), 249-253.

[4]Maurice R. Ahrens, "How To Make Innovations Succeed--or Fail," Childhood Education, IL (January, 1973), 170-73.

[5]Gamsky, op. cit., p. 39.

[6]George Martin Murphy, "Plagiarize, Don't Let Another's Work Evade Your Eyes, but Be Sure To Call It Research," The School Counselor, XIII (May, 1966), 233-34.

[7]J. Lloyd Trump and Dorothy Baynham, "The School of Tomorrow," in The Teacher and The Taught, ed. Ronald Gross (New York: Dell Publishing Company, 1963), p. 301.

3. a need for the researcher to be where the actions is; a need to help people, rather than describe or classify them; a need to find answers to problems.[8]
4. a need for research to evolve from the concerns of counselors.[9]
5. a need for the behavior of the client to be the target of counseling research.[10]

Litwack has noted a paucity of research that investigates methodology in counseling.[11] A guidance journal editorial voices concern over submitted manuscripts that stress a need for counselors to change, but omit methods for getting institutions and people in these institutions to try new ways.[12]

Krumboltz suggests applying one test to proposed research:

> I would suggest that in the planning stage of every doctoral dissertation and research proposal in the field of counseling the test of relevance be applied. The test of relevance consists of asking one simple question and probing the answers: What will counselors do differently

---

[8]Hannelore Wass, "How Research Can Help To Personalize Education," Educational Leadership, XXIX (December, 1971), 249-51.

[9]Carl E. Thoresen, "Relevance and Research in Counseling," Review of Educational Research, XXXIX (April, 1969), 278.

[10]John M. Whiteley (ed.), Research in Counseling: Evaluation and Refocus (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1967), p. 187.

[11]Lawrence Litwack, Russell Getson, Glenn Saltzman (eds.), Research in Counseling (Itasca, Ill.: F. E. Peacock Publishers, 1968), p. x.

[12]Leo Goldman, "Change? Yes, but How?" The Personnel and Guidance Journal, LI (November, 1972), 170.

> if the results of this research come out one way rather than another?[13]
>
> ...the test of relevance can be taken one more step to make it a help in constructing research problems, not merely a way of eliminating irrelevant proposals.[14]

While research does not guarantee a change, it does provide a means of determining whether or not a change is needed.[15] It can provide a glimpse into new thinking and afford a clue for further research.[16]

The time has come for the counselor to re-structure his priorities. While it is true that some control and precision may be sacrificed in a field study, this can be compensated for by repeating the study, or part of it, under different circumstances or in other similar situations.[17] In any kind of research, there are three steps: planning, doing, and assessing. Today's counselors have focused far too long on the first two steps and have almost ignored the last.[18]

In this study, the researcher has recognized the need for today's professional school counselor to conduct field research, that

---

[13]Whiteley, op. cit., p. 191.

[14]Ibid., p. 192.

[15]William Kuschman, "On Public School Research," Illinois Schools Journal, L. (Winter, 1970), 275-80.

[16]Fred P. Barnes, Research for the Practitioner in Education (Washington, D. C.: Department of Elementary School Principals, 1964), p. 7.

[17]John L. Hayman, Jr., Research in Education (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1960), p. 35.

[18]Gamsky, op. cit., p. 41.

is, research where the educational concern is. A counseling methodology has been developed in detail, so that this study may be repeated under similar or different circumstances. The results of this study have been evaluated in terms of relevance to the counselor and to the counselee.

THE ROLE OF THE SCHOOL COUNSELOR

The literature which relates to the role of the school counselor will be discussed under the following headings: (1) change in the role of the school counselor, (2) uniqueness of the school counselor's role, (3) the school counselor as a communications agent, (4) the school counselor as a specialist and consultant, (5) the need of the school counselor to develop his own role.

Change in the Role of the School Counselor

The role of the school counselor has been catapulted into prominence in the educational world by the National Defense Act of 1958.[19] Traditionally, the role has been one-to-one counseling with the child; now, it is being redefined.

Reviewing past counselor roles, Urbick and Gross have noted that the emphasis was first on the counselor as an educator, then as an emergency commonality, and finally as an effective agent, becoming involved in the environment of his counselees.[20] Recently, from the

---

[19]William Evraiff, Helping Counselors Grow Professionally (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968), p. v.

[20]Thelma M. Urbick and Douglas R. Gross, "Counselor Education: A Profession on the Move," The Journal of Educational Research, LXIV (April, 1971), 340-44.

delegates to the 1970 White House Conference on Children comes both a plea that the guidance profession no longer tolerate complacency and a demand for a change in priorities, including research and experimentation with new approaches to caring for children.[21]

One of the major difficulties facing a school counselor is the lack of clarity concerning his role.[22] Many counselors are functioning as though there have been no social changes in the past ten years. They are afraid to take a risk and step out of the traditional role, they hesitate to be a part of the community or the faculty-administration team, and they are not ready to be a change agent.[23]

Uniqueness of the School Counselor's Role

Wrenn has noted the uniqueness of the counselor's role. Aware of other children of the same age in the school, the counselor's perspective is different from that of the classroom teacher who sees the child only in certain areas. Also, the counselor's relationship may be free of threat as he seeks to help the child in response to his needs.[24]

---

[21]Louise O. Eckerson, "The White House Conference: Tips or Taps for Counselors?" The Personnel and Guidance Journal, L (November, 1971), 167-74.

[22]Evraiff, op. cit., p. 2.

[23]Roger F. Aubrey, "And Never The Twain Shall Meet: Counselor Training and School Realities," The School Counselor, XX (September, 1972), 16-24.

[24]Charles Gilbert Wrenn, The Counselor in a Changing World (Washington, D. C.: American Personnel Guidance Association, 1962), pp. 2-3.

The School Counselor as a Communications Agent

Cline sees the school counselor as a communications helper who brings together the individuals concerned with a child's difficulty and helps them look at the problem. In the school setting, this role would involve working with teachers, parents, administration, siblings, doctor, pastor. Not only is the problem assessed, but possible clues as to its handling become available.[25] By contrast, Zerface and Cox would hope that rather than being confined to the limitations of customary school roles, school counselors consider operating more comfortably and effectively out of school as a direct agent of the community.[26] In the same general idea, Hutchinson notes the advantage of having an itinerant counselor, an outsider to whom teachers and children would feel free to relate, freer than with a counselor in the system.[27]

A School Counselor as a Specialist and Consultant

Patterson is concerned that the counselor not isolate himself, but become more involved with teachers and children. In this role, the counselor has a responsibility to determine the nature of his job and to project it to teachers, administration, and community.[28]

---

[25]David W. Cline, "The Psychiatrist, The Counselor, and The School," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, V (December, 1972),251-56.

[26]James P. Zerface and Walter H. Cox, "School Counselors, Leave Home," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, IL (January, 1971), 371-75.

[27]Roger L. Hutchinson, "The Itinerant Counselor," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, L (November, 1971), 213-14.

[28]C. H. Patterson, "The Counselor in the Elementary School," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLVII (June, 1969), 979-87.

In a study by Engelhardt, Sulzer, and Altekruse, emphasis is given to the acceptance by the teacher of the counselor in the role of a consultant. This study was conceived when teachers asked for help in reducing disturbing out-of-seat activities. Counselor observation and subsequent suggestions were accepted by the teachers for remedying the situation. From the standpoint of the authors, the most significant feature of this study is not the remediation, but the fact that teachers are able to accept the counselor as a consultant.[29]

In Munson's "Emerging Consortium," the counselor becomes a consultant to teachers, and moves closer to students with day-to-day caring, with his concerns reduced to the immediacy of student experiences. With both teacher and student, the counselor is involved in facilitating growth and its accompanying problems.[30]

Dinkmeyer views the counselor as a consultant to the teacher for the purpose of developing hypotheses about problems and recommendations for future management of a specific school. Maximizing the teacher's effectiveness would be the responsibility of the counselor.[31]

Especially where crisis-oriented counseling predominates, Randolph suggests that the counselor, as a consultant, may find it

---

[29]Leah Engelhardt, Beth Sulzer, Michael Altekruse, "The Counselor as Consultant in Eliminating Out-of-Seat Behavior," Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, V (March, 1971), 196-204.

[30]Harold L. Munson, "Guidance and Instruction: A Rapprochment," in Guidance for Education in Revolution, ed. David R. Cook (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1971), pp. 344-51.

[31]Don Dinkmeyer, "The Counselor as a Consultant to the Teacher," The School Counselor, XIV (May, 1967), 294-97.

appropriate to focus upon the classroom teacher's needs. Having helped the teacher to improve the classroom climate, the counselor-consultant will have time to work with children needing special help.[32]

The Need of the School Counselor to Develop His Own Role

With the search for a professional identity continuing, McCright recommends that a counselor be able to take positive steps for creating and establishing a realistic and suitable role: accepting the optimum development of individuals as the first aim in education and determining the services that only a counselor can provide.[33]

Advocating a common sense approach to school guidance, Gammons bypasses any popular Freud, God, Professional, Nice Guy images of a school counselor and supports the theory that unable to play two or more roles, the counselor must realistically formulate what he as a professional and a person can do within the limits of his school environment for the needs of students. The need for a continuing intra-school communication is clear.[34] Gammons' theory is supported by Evraiff who believes that every school counselor should develop for himself a consistent frame of reference.[35]

---

[32]Daniel L. Randolph, "Behavioral Consultation as a Means of Improving the Quality of a Counseling Program," The School Counselor, XX (September, 1972), 30-35.

[33]Mary Lee McCreight, "Needed: A More Realistic Role," The School Counselor, XIV (May, 1967), 304-6.

[34]Homer P. Gammons, Common Sense in Guidance (West Nyack, New York: Parker Publishing Company, 1969), pp. 14-15.

[35]Evraiff, op. cit., p. 8.

Summary

In the preceding section, it has been noted that the traditional role of the counselor, one-to-one counseling with a child, is changing, accompanied by a voiced need for researching and experimenting with new ways for caring for children. A major difficulty facing today's counselor is lack of clarity concerning his role which has a perspective quite different from that of the classroom teacher.

In current literature, the counselor is viewed as a possible communications agent and as a specialist and consultant, working with teachers and children. Realistically, however, a school counselor must take steps to determine his own role within his environmental limits and according to students' needs.

THE MIDDLE SCHOOL GUIDANCE PROGRAM

The literature which relates to the guidance program in the middle school will be discussed under the following headings: (1) the middle school's unique population, (2) needs of the guidance program in the middle school.

The Middle School's Unique Population

In American education, the middle school is no longer an innovation; about 1,211 are in operation at the present time.[36]

Atkins, former principal of the Fox Lane (New York) Middle School, has pinpointed the rationale for a middle school:

---

[36]Marion A. Ruebel, "Comments on Research," The National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 366 (October, 1972), pp. 86-88.

> ...built primarily to provide a more realistic attempt to cope with the enormous educational variability characteristic of 11 to 13 year olds by making instruction more individual than we have been able to do heretofore.[37]

The emphasis of every definition of the middle school is on the children to be served. For example, Alexander describes it as:

> ...a school providing a program planned for a range of older children, preadolescents, and early adolescents, that builds upon the elementary school program for earlier childhood and in turn is built upon by the high school program for adolescence. Specifically, it focuses on the educational needs of what we have termed the 'in-between-ager.'[38]

In Marshall's doctoral study, one of the rationales for forming the middle school is meeting the needs of students in the process of transition from childhood to adolescence.[39]

The child in the middle school is an adolescent. Wrenn aptly describes him as being:

> ...a collection of mirrors which reflect what other people expect of him. Some mirrors reflect adult expectations; some are those of his own peers. Sometimes he never gets beyond conforming to what others think he should be, and so his pattern of behavior never reflects his own sense of who he is.[40]

---

[37]Middle School: Report of Two Conferences on the Definition of its Purpose, Its Spirit and Its Shape (Mt. Kisco, New York: Bedford Public Schools, 1962), p. 3.

[38]William M. Alexander and others, The Emergent Middle School (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1968), p. 5.

[39]Doris Lee Marshall, "A Comparative Study of Instructional Policies of Middle Schools Administered Respectively by Elementary-Oriented Principals and Secondary-Oriented Principals" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Michigan State University, 1970).

[40]Wrenn, op. cit., p. 5.

Thus, for this middle school child, adolescence is a "period of intense involvement with the problem of achieving identity."[41]

Alexander has summarized the characteristics of the population of the middle school to demonstrate the interrelatedness of their physical, psycho-social, and intellectual development and to focus attention on the concept of the whole middle-schooler:

1. The transition period is marked by the necessity for relearning to manage the body skillfully during a period of rapid change . . . .
2. The transition period is marked by the onset and gradual regularization of menstruation in girls and the nocturnal emissions and more frequent erections in boys . . . .
3. The transition period is marked by a beginning awareness of new erotic sensations in both boys and girls . . . .
4. The transition period is marked by the necessity for developing many social skills in interacting with persons of the opposite sex . . . .
5. The transition is marked by dramatic changes in the activities of the peer group and in what is required to maintain belonging to the peer group . . . .
6. The transition period is marked by an important evolution in relationships with parents . . . .
7. The transition period is marked by a tremendous change in the individual's perception of himself and, consequently, in a quest for a satisfying concept of himself . . . .
8. The transition period often is marked by the necessity of redefining what is right and what is wrong . . . .
9. The transition period is marked by the development of a new mode of intellectual operations--a movement away from a dependence upon what can be perceived in the immediate environment to a level of hypothesizing and dealing with abstractions . . . .[42]

---

[41] Ibid., p. 6.

[42] Alexander, op. cit., pp. 40-42.

Needs of the Guidance Program in the Middle School

Moss has called the guidance program in the middle school a "total school concern," beginning and belonging in the classroom, with special guidance personnel assigned to help both teachers and students.[43] While Alexander sees the classroom teacher as being the key person in middle school guidance, he recognizes the need of a full-time counselor for coordinating and providing leadership for the overall guidance program as well as providing understanding between the staff and children.[44]

In 1949, only one professional book on elementary school counseling had appeared. In 1964, a difference began to be seen between elementary school counseling and that at other educational levels. In 1965, there were between 2,000 and 3,000 elementary school counselors. However, except for position papers on "behavioral counseling" and "developmental counseling," little has been written on theories uniquely applicable to counseling in the elementary school, let alone the middle school.[45]

Middle school proponents are unanimous in focusing upon two adjectives--individualized and flexible--and upon the need for each middle school to meet the needs of its own unique "tweenagers." As

---

[43]Theodore C. Moss, "Characteristics of a Good Middle School," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, LV (October, 1971), 71-74.

[44]Alexander, op. cit., pp. 168-69.

[45]Harold F. Cottingham, "Counseling--Elementary School," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, ed. Robert L. Ebel (4th ed., London: The Macmillan Company, 1969), pp. 229-42.

a pioneering unit, free of binding traditions, each middle school can develop a personality of its own and can become a case study in itself.[46]

Alexander's comments on a middle school curricula may well be applied to middle school counseling services:

> ...the necessity for each middle school to have a plan, tentative and open as it should be...that fits into the community's total program of schooling, anticipates the characteristics of the population served, and squares with the realities of personnel and physical facilities. Thus, it is best made by the faculty of a particular middle school for that school.[47]

As a practical guide for developing middle schools, Stradley advocates each school working out a basic philosophy of "what is best for the student" in that school, a responsibility resting upon the faculty.[48] Supporting this belief, Batezel offers the following for consideration:

> ...the middle school is not an extension of the elementary school, nor is it a copy of the high school; rather, it is a unique, flexible organization tailored to adolescent and pre-adolescent needs.[49]

Because of the diversity of maturation of the adolescent, the guidance program must be flexible, focusing on the needs of each child and helping him to develop realistic goals.[50] Wrenn has grouped these

---

[46]The Middle School: An Idea Whose Time Has Come (New Jersey State Department of Education, 1972).

[47]Alexander, op. cit., p. 64.

[48]William E. Stradley, A Practical Guide to the Middle School (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1971), p. 56.

[49]W. George Batezel, "The Middle School: Philosophy, Program, Organization," The Clearing House, XLII (April, 1968), 487.

[50]Alexander, op. cit., p. 168.

needs into four areas:

> for standards, with help in accepting and meeting these standards.
>
> for a sense of being loved and a line of direction.
>
> for a sense of achievement.
>
> for limits and assistance for moving within these limits.[51]

Marshall's study has indicated a lack of guidance programs at the middle school level.[52] Stefflre and Matheny have noted that while there seems to be a general concensus of agreement on the fundamental needs and characteristics of guidance, there is a need for research to identify specific functions and approaches of school guidance.[53]

Summary

In the above section, it has been noted that the population of the middle school is unique, covering the complete range of adolescence. Indeed, the rationale for the existence of the middle school is based upon providing for the educational needs of the "tweenager."

While the need of a full-time counselor in the middle school has been recognized, there is lack of theory concerning counseling in this school.

---

[51]Wrenn, op. cit., pp. 4-6.

[52]Marshall, op. cit.

[53]Buford Stefflre and Kenneth Matheny, "Counseling Theory," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, ed. Robert L. Ebel (4th ed., London: The Macmillan Company, 1969), p. 231.

Since the middle school is neither an extension of the elementary school nor a copy of the secondary school, the individual middle school is being encouraged to work out its own basic philosophy, based on what is best for the individual student and characterized by a flexibility to meet the needs of this student.

There persists a need for research and experimentation to ferret out approaches and alternatives to meet the individual needs of students in different situations.

BEHAVIOR PROBLEM CHILDREN

The literature which relates to behavior problem children will be discussed in this section under the following headings: (1) behavior problem children, (2) behavior problem children and the classroom teacher, and (3) problem behaviors.

Behavior Problem Children

Public education has assumed great responsibility for the development of children. Today's aim goes further than the academic need--it focuses on helping the student lead a productive life.[54]

When the total child is unable to adapt himself to a school environment, "the likelihood of a cyclical effect of poor classroom behavior and poor achievement is too evident."[55] Behavior problem children are not a permanently classified group, for nearly every

---

[54]Robert H. Woody, Behavior Problem Children in the Schools (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1969), p. 5.

[55]Marshall S. Swift and George Spivack, "Clarifying the Relationship Between Academic Success and Overt Classroom Behavior," Exceptional Children, XXXVI (October, 1969), 104.

child has behavioral problems sometime in his life.[56] When such a situation occurs, someone in the school system must take the responsibility for stating that a behavior problem exists.[57]

Behavior Problem Children and the Classroom Teacher

In his 1928 study, Wickman saw a definite correlation between children's behavior and teachers' attitudes:

> ...any behavior may become a problem if it is regarded and treated as such by the adult to whose care and training the child happens to be entrusted.[58]

By 1925 values, behavior problems, according to teachers, appeared to be open disturbances that attacked morality, orderliness, obedience and acceptable social conduct standards.[59]

Forty years later, Woody defined the problem child as:

> ...the child who cannot or will not adjust to the socially acceptable norms for behavior and consequently disrupts his own academic progress, the learning efforts of his classmates, and interpersonal relations.[60]

Wickman's study has been described as a classical investigation.[61] Because it has been influential in shaping public opinion, Stouffer[62]

---

[56]Woody, op. cit., pp. 7-8.

[57]Ibid., p. 42.

[58]E. K. Wickman, Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes (New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1928), p. 50.

[59]Ibid., p. 25.

[60]Woody, op. cit., p. 7.

[61]Wickman, op. cit.

[62]George A. W. Stouffer, Jr., "Behavior Problems of Children as Viewed by Teachers and Mental Hygienists," Mental Hygiene, XXXVI (April, 1952), 271-85.

duplicated it twenty-five years later in 1952, by following Wickman's original pattern of investigation. Rating scales were submitted to elementary school teachers and to mental hygienists in child-guidance clinics. Judgments were recorded as to the degree of seriousness of fifty behavior problems. Resulting data showed that teachers and hygienists of 1952 were closer in agreement than in 1928. Within the span of twenty-five years, two new problems had appeared--reading comic books and watching TV. The majority of items listed as undesirable by teachers were concerned with what a student does and not with what he does not do. While the 1952 teachers were more sensitive to behavior indicating social and emotional maladjustments, the school behavior problem child was still considered to be annoying, aggressive, untruthful, disorderly, irresponsible and disobedient.

In a 1967 study conducted in a New York suburb and based partly on Wickman's behavior inventory, Westbrook concluded that during the past four decades, teachers have been alerted to recognizing learning problems as a special area which interfered with a child's normal development.[63] Roubinek's study in 1971 noted that teachers' attitudes toward the behavior of children have changed since Wickman's study and are more like the attitudes of 1970 school psychologists.[64]

Penrose's doctoral study disclosed that the elementary class-

---

[63]Arlen Westbrook, "Teachers' Recognition of Problem Behavior and Referral of Children to Pupil Personnel Services," The Journal of Educational Research, LXIII (May-June, 1970), 391-94.

[64]Darrell LeRoy Roubinek, "A Comparison of the Attitudes of Elementary School Teachers and School Psychologists Toward the Behavior of Elementary School Children" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Oklahoma State University, 1971).

room teacher is responsible for the label attached to the problem child. Not only the first to identify him, she describes him as a particular type of problem child, that is, trouble-maker, academic problem, emotionally disturbed. The labeling becomes apparent early in the child's school career, in kindergarten or the first grade, and is noted by teachers' comments in the child's cumulative folder.[65]

Problem Behavior

Kough and DeHaan[66] have noted that problem behavior appears when children are deprived of the ordinary satisfactions of life and when they are placed under pressure to do things they can't quite manage. Morse[67] sees common patterns in causes of acting-out behavior:

a lack of adequate socialization

alienation

reaction to failure

demands of school are too taxing

anxiety about life in general

A study by Glavin[68] examined the basic assumption underlying early detection programs that most childhood problems would continue or grow worse if not treated. After a four-year interval, children

---

[65]Gloria Benson Penrose, "The Identification and Differentiation of Troublemakers at the Elementary School Level" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of California, Berkeley, 1968).

[66]Jack Kough and Robert F. DeHaan, Teacher's Guidance Handbook, Part I, Identifying Children Who Need Help (Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1955), p. 18.

[67]William C. Morse, "Disturbed Youngsters in the Classroom," Today's Education, LVIII (April, 1969), 31-37.

[68]John P. Glavin, "Persistence of Behavior Disorders in Children," Exceptional Children, XXXVIII (January, 1972), 367-75.

in grades two through five who had not received intervention help were reexamined with the original screening devices; 30 percent of these children were still disturbed. On the other hand, when a problem is treated, Bower,[69] Lambert,[70] and Stennett[71] found that the resulting better adjustment is reflected in better academic achievement.

Summary

In the above section, it has been noted that today's public education has assumed the responsibility of helping the child in the classroom to lead a productive life.

That the classroom teacher is able to detect the problem child in the classroom is supported by Wickman's and Stouffer's studies, as well as by current research. Causes for and common patterns in acting-out behavior have been reviewed, as well as the necessity for treatment.

Since all evidence points to the ability of the classroom teacher to detect a problem child in the classroom, the researcher in this study hopefully would assume that the classroom teacher would be equally competent, when involved with other significant people in the life of the problem child, in learning how to work with this child.

---

[69]Eli M. Bower, Early Identification of Emotionally Handicapped Children in School (Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, 1960).

[70]N. Lambert, The Development and Validation of a Process for Screening Emotionally Handicapped Children in School (California State Department of Education, 1963).

[71]R. G. Stennett, "Emotional Handicap in the Elementary Years: Phase or Disease?" American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, XXXVI, 1966, 444-49.

ACCOUNTABILITY AND CONTRACTING IN GUIDANCE

The literature which relates to accountability and contracting in guidance will be discussed under the following headings: (1) accountability in guidance, and (2) contracting in guidance.

Accountability in Guidance

While counseling and guidance programs have been built and nourished on faith, the honeymoon is being replaced with accountability, which inquires what difference have counseling and guidance made in the lives of individuals.[72] The "not measurable" defense is no longer valid. In fact, accountability may well prove to be a boon to guidance, as measurement taps the nature and interest of guidance programs.[73] The counselor himself may well profit from accountability, since it gives him the kind of responsible freedom which he hopes to develop in the students whom he counsels.[74]

As a professional exercise, accountability forms are unrealistic. As a result of rational understanding and community-school communication, they are workable. This latter form of accountability starts from the ground up, brick by brick, and is not handed down from the top. It must be spelled out in terms of individualization for each

---

[72]Charles J. Pulvino and Marshall P. Sanborn, "Feedback and Accountability," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, LI (September, 1972), 15-20.

[73]Charles W. Humes, "Accountability: A Boon to Guidance," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, LI (September, 1972), 21-6.

[74]Donald G. Hayes, "Responsible Freedom for the School Counselor," The School Counselor, XX (November, 1972), 93.

student, reflecting parent-student-society aspirations, mirrored through the classroom teacher.[75] Campbell has warned that an accountability program without the learner being involved is impossible, let alone inadvisable. While it may be convenient to think of children as so many bottles to be filled, the danger is that the children may see themselves in this passive role and play it as such.[76]

As a suggested approach to accountability in the schools, Miller has proposed a model consisting of teacher, student, and parent becoming intensely involved with setting up goals and accepting the responsibility of the implementation. By assuming such a responsibility, each member is responsible for attaining the goals that make sense to him.[77] Using a similar approach to meet accountability demands, the teachers of California's ABC Unified School District have written the performance objectives themselves and have distributed them to parents on the first parent-teacher conference. These objectives have not only enhanced teacher and district credibility, but have helped administrators to comply with California's Stull Act (September, 1972), mandating teacher evaluation upon a pupil performance basis.[78]

---

[75]Scott D. Thomson, "How To Custom Cut Accountability to Fit the Needs of Students and Parents," Nation's Schools, LXXXIX (May, 1972), 48.

[76]Robert E. Campbell, "Accountability and Stone Soup," Phi Delta Kappan, LIII (November, 1971), 176.

[77]William C. Miller, "Accountability Demands Involvement," Educational Leadership, XXIX (April, 1972), 617.

[78]"Accountability: Performance Goals Cut Down Complaints and Confusion," Nation's Schools, XCI (January, 1973), 71.

Contracting in Guidance

The contract is not new to a school child. In the home as well as in school, he is accustomed to schedule-making, arrangements, and bargaining in which rewards and punishments are manipulated for desired behavior.[79] Rogers has called the contract

> ...an open-ended device which helps to give both security and responsibility within an atmosphere of freedom.... This enables the student to set a goal for himself and to plan what he wishes to do. It provides a transitional experience.[80]

Written contracts are fairly new to counseling. They make clear on paper what has generally been understood. The counselor need not necessarily be a party to a contract; rather, he may help to negotiate a contract between individuals for the purpose of working out a problem. Krumboltz and Thoresen,[81] from a behavior modification viewpoint, see the behavior contract as an outgrowth of stating the reinforcement contingencies in advance.

Keirsey has reviewed the behavior contract, used by children acting out in the classroom. Under the leadership of the school psychologist who agrees to negotiate the contract and to be available for counseling, the child's desired behavior is stated on paper; each signer of this contract agrees to play a role for a specified time. When the child is disruptive in the class, he agrees to leave school.

---

[79]David Elkind, A Sympathetic Understanding of the Child Six to Sixteen (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1971), pp. 33-37.

[80]Carl R. Rogers, Freedom to Learn (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1969), p. 133.

[81]John D. Krumboltz and Carl E. Thoresen, Behavioral Counseling (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1969), pp. 87-89.

The teacher agrees to signal to the child to leave when he is disruptive. The principal agrees to enforce the contract. The parent agrees to avoid conversing with, punishing, or scolding the child when he is sent home. At the end of the specified time, the results are reviewed by the signers of the contract in terms of the originally stated desired behavior.[82]

In a case of bizarre behavior both in and out of school, Shier has noted the use of a behavior contract, to which the student, the school principal, the teacher, the psychologist, and the parents were a party. Three rules were stated: 1. raise a hand to talk; 2. raise a hand to get out of seat; 3. no throwing. If the student forgot these rules, he was to go home and come back the next day. At the end of five months, his classroom behavior was modified; his outside behavior remained the same.[83]

Summary

In the above section, it has been noted that counseling and the guidance program are now subject to accountability. Starting from the bottom up, rather than being imposed from above, spelled out in individualized terms, and involving the learner, accountability sets up measurable performance goals.

---

[82]D. W. Keirsey, "Transactional Casework: A Technology for Introducing Behavior Change." Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the California Association of School Psychologists and Psychometrists, San Francisco, 1965 (mimeo., 24 pp.).

[83]David A. Shier, "Applying Systematic Exclusion to a Case of Bizarre Behavior," Behavioral Counseling, by John D. Krumboltz and Carl E. Thoresen (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1969), pp. 114-123.

Making clear on paper what has been "understood," the behavior contract states reinforcement contingencies in advance. Keirsey and Shier review two behavior contracts, used not as a panacea but as a means of working with a problem child within the school.

It would appear to the researcher that accountability and the behavior contract encourage today's counselor in the school to look at his counseling in terms of "Is what I am doing making a difference and how much of a difference."

CHANGING BEHAVIOR IN THE CLASSROOM

The literature related to changing behavior in the classroom will be discussed under two headings: (1) changing behavior in the classroom by orientation of the school counselor, and (2) changing behavior in the classroom by impetus from behavior modification principles.

Changing Behavior in the Classroom by Orientation of the School Counselor

The counselor has a distinctive vantage point, that of seeing the school as a whole, the complete range of the student body, and each child as a whole student.[84] As a behavioral engineer, he is oriented toward arranging or rearranging the environment in order to bring about desired behavior changes.[85] His perspective is different from that of

---

[84]Wrenn, The Counselor in a Changing World, op. cit., p. 143.

[85]S. W. Bijou, "Experimental Studies of Child Behavior, Normal and Deviant," in Research in Behavior Modification, eds. L. Krasner and L. P. Ullman (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965), p. 44.

the teacher and that of the parent. Neither responsible as a teacher for a student to meet certain academic standards nor as emotionally involved as a parent, the counselor's relationship may be free of threat. He can comfortably offer the student an opportunity to assume responsibility for himself.[86]

For optimum results, the counselor may well spend more time in working with and training the significant people in the life of the problem child, that is, his teachers and parents, than with the child himself.[87] Three cases have been reviewed in detail by Krumboltz and Thoresen, in which teachers and parents were taught by counselors how to use reinforcement techniques in the classroom with children whose behavior was interfering with their academic achievement.[88] In a study to determine the value of using untrained personnel with a minimum amount of supervision, helpers in Franklin County, Ohio, were instructed to establish a "good relationship" with behavior problem children. Evidence from this study supported hypotheses that non-possessive warmth and empathy are necessary for children with academic and behavior problems.[89]

Changing Behavior in the Classroom by Impetus from Behavior Modification Principles

All who are responsible for educating and training children are

---

[86]Wrenn, op. cit., pp. 2-3.

[87]Krumboltz and Thoresen, op. cit., p. 130.

[88]Ibid., pp. 131-161.

[89]Dean L. Stoffer, "Investigation of Positive Behavioral Change as a Function of Genuineness, Non-possessive Warmth, and Empathetic Understanding," The Journal of Educational Research, LXIII (January, 1970), 224-228.

involved in changing their behavior. However, helping the child in school is not a cure-all; his outside life continues. With this in mind, the Krumboltzes[90] with a "common sense" behavioral approach, have used actual behavioral problems to illustrate behavior principles based on recent research findings. These are slanted for use to the teacher, the counselor, the parent--people who want to help young people behave more effectively.

In Gilmore's study[91] concerning counseling and academic achievement, parents of six ninth graders were counseled over a period of fifteen weeks, a span of three marking periods. As a result, there was an improvement in the academic achievement of their children.

To provide the classroom teacher with current summaries of educational research, NEA issues a "What Research Says To The Teacher" Series. One of these booklets, Controlling Classroom Misbehavior,[92] deals with techniques that teachers may use when a student acts in a way prohibited by the teacher. Sample behaviors, supplemented with appropriate application techniques and implications, are described in detail.

Teachers are being encouraged to take an eclectic approach to working with problem children; behavior modification is being suggested as an approach, not the approach. As an example, Behavior Modification

---

[90]John D. Krumboltz and Helen Brandhorst Krumboltz, Changing Children's Behavior (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972).

[91]John V. Gilmore, "Parental Counseling and Academic Achievement," Journal of Education, CIL (February, 1967), 48.

[92]William J. Gnagney, Controlling Classroom Misbehavior (Washington, D. C.: National Educational Association, 1965).

in the Classroom[93] acquaints the teacher first with the rationale, grounded in learning theory, of behavior modification to be used in a certain classroom situation; the situation and the experiment are described; a discussion of the effectiveness of behavior modification in this situation is discussed. The teacher has not been forced to accept behavior modification; rather, he has been encouraged to consider the possibility or the value of using this approach in his classroom.

Brown and Teague[94] have successfully shaped a child's behavior, from undesirable to desirable, by using successive approximation and an immediate reward system. Used by a teacher or counselor, this technique involves: choosing an end goal in terms of observable child behavior; deciding upon successive approximate, small increments starting with the child's "now" behavior and leading toward the desired goal and offering rewards, M and M's; gradually decreasing the reward, as the desired behavior continues on its own. The same principle is used in Fading,[95] a gradual withdrawal in supports. This technique has been successfully used by counselors, working with parents and teachers, to develop independence in a student. Although a counselor initially assumes the responsibility in an interview or discussion, he gradually

---

[93]George A. Fargo, Charlene Behms, Patricia Nolen (eds.), Behavior Modification in the Classroom (Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1970).

[94]James C. Brown and David G. Teague, "Behavior Modification in the School: A Team Approach," The School Counselor, XVIII (November, 1970), 111-16.

[95]Jon Carlson and G. Roy Mayer, "Fading: A Behavioral Procedure To Increase Independent Behavior," The School Counselor, XVIII (January, 1971), 193-97.

withdraws as the responsibility is assumed by the student, parent, and teacher.

Ray, Shaw, and Cobb[96] have used the Work Box for teaching attentional behavior to children whose classroom behavior is interfering with their learning. Working with the teacher, the counselor finds out what learning is considered to be appropriate and inappropriate by the teacher. A light in the Work Box, placed on the child's desk, appears when the child has acted appropriately for a designated period of time. By acting correctly, the child earns for himself and the class rewards of candy. Gradually the counselor is phased out, and the faculty is brought in for support; the candy is phased out and replaced by class approval.

Summary

In terms of the literature reviewed in this section, it would appear that the school counselor, seeing the school as a whole and being able to maintain a threat-free relationship with the student, may be in a vantage position for working with the significant people in the life of the problem child, teacher, parent, and professionally-untrained helper.

The behavior modification approach has given a direction to both counselor and teacher for setting up measurable goals in terms of desired student behavior for problem children. Techniques, based upon researched rationales, are available to encourage both counselor

---

[96]Roberta S. Ray, David A. Shaw, Joseph A. Cobb, "The Work Box: An Innovation in Teaching Attentional Behavior," The School Counselor, XVIII (September, 1970), 15-35.

and teacher to utilize an eclectic approach.

GLASSER'S REALITY THERAPY

The literature in this section will discuss Glasser's Reality Therapy under the following three headings: (1) an introduction to Glasser, (2) Reality Therapy, (3) Reality Therapy in the classroom.

An Introduction to Glasser

One approach to counseling with problem children which has been but lightly tapped to date is Glasser's Reality Therapy, a therapy that can be used by counselors and teachers if they are willing to be involved with others.

As an introduction to Glasser, one might well examine his writings:

Mental Health or Mental Illness?[97] with a subtitle of Psychiatry for Practical Action was published in 1960. Written to give an interested person a basic understanding of psychology, it was composed from lectures given to California Youth Authority Employees, as an aid to working with young people to be rehabilitated and as a help to professional people interested in helping others to lead a more satisfactory and productive life.

Reality Therapy,[98] published in 1965, is subtitled A New Approach to Psychiatry. Developing a new therapeutic approach,

---

[97]William Glasser, Mental Health or Mental Illness? (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1960).

[98]William Glasser, Reality Therapy (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1965).

Reality Therapy bears little resemblance to conventional therapy, nor is it the exclusive property of highly trained specialists. Its principles involve leading one to face reality and to learn to fulfill one's needs.

Schools Without Failure,[99] published in 1969, proposed a program to reduce school failure, by using Reality Therapy in the classroom by teachers and counselors.

The Identity Society,[100] published in 1972, was the result of Glasser's working in the Los Angeles public schools near Watts (California). Students were searching for an identity, instead of a goal. In this setting, Glasser used the involvement of Reality Therapy to change students' personal identity from failure to success.

As a psychiatrist in private practice, Glasser has consulted in the correctional fields. He has also worked directly with children in the Palo Alto (California) and Los Angeles public schools. Heading the Education Training Center, affiliated with La Verne College, he works with teachers interested in making their school one without failure. He teaches and consults at the Institute of Reality Therapy in Los Angeles.

Reality Therapy

As defined by Glasser, Reality Therapy is:

> A therapy that leads all patients to reality, toward grappling successfully with the tangible and intangible

---

[99]William Glasser, Schools Without Failure (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1969).

[100]William Glasser, The Identity Society (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1972).

aspects of the real world....[101]

Reality Therapy differs from conventional therapy in six major areas:

1. Because we do not accept the concept of mental illness, the patient cannot become involved with us as a mentally ill person who has no responsibility for his behavior.

2. Working in the present and toward the future, we do not get involved with the patient's history because we can neither change what happened to him nor accept the fact that he is limited by his past.

3. We relate to patients as ourselves, not as transference figures.

4. We do not look for unconscious conflicts or the reasons for them. A patient cannot become involved with us by excusing his behavior on the basis of unconscious motivations.

5. We emphasize the morality of behavior. We face the issue of right and wrong which we believe solidifies the involvement, in contrast to conventional psychiatrists who do not make the distinction between right and wrong, feeling it would be detrimental to attaining the transference relationship they seek.

6. We teach patients better ways to fulfill their needs. The proper involvement will not be maintained unless the patient is helped to find more satisfactory patterns of behavior. Conventional therapists do not feel that teaching better behavior is a part of therapy.[102]

Glasser lists the principles of Reality Therapy in the order in which they are usually used.[103] By following this order and becoming acquainted with the descriptions and examples of these

---

[101] Glasser, Reality Therapy, op. cit., p. 6.

[102] Ibid., pp. 44-45.

[103] Glasser, The Identity Society, op. cit., pp. 107-132.

principles in his books, Glasser believes anyone can begin to use Reality Therapy, developing a technique comfortable to himself and appropriate to the situation. For school personnel, Glasser has augmented these seven principles with words of advice [in quotes, following each principle]:[104]

1. Involvement -- "Be warm and personal and friendly."

2. Current Behavior -- "Deal with children as they are now with their present history, what's going on today."

3. Evaluating Behavior -- "Refrain from another human tendency which is to be not only a historian but also a preacher, moralizing and preaching all the way through the 'history.'"

4. Planning Responsible Behavior -- "Work out a plan with the child."

5. Commitment -- "Get the child's commitment to follow the plan. Get it in writing....Get a contract made out that says what he's going to do, and let him sign it. Commitment is what sells the involvement."

6. Accept no excuses -- "You have to be tough enough not to accept any behavior that the child has already said was bad for him."

7. No Punishment -- "Don't use any punishment whatsoever."

The basic concept of this therapy is responsibility, which is defined as "the ability to fulfill one's needs, and to do so in a way that does not deprive others of the ability to fulfill their needs."[105] Glasser views this concept as optimistic and hopeful, building upon

---

[104]Glasser, The Effect of School Failure on the Life of a Child (Washington, D.C.: National Association of Elementary School Principals, 1971).

[105]Glasser, Reality Therapy, op. cit., p. 13.

one's potentialities for good.[106] The basic needs associated with Glasser's responsibility are relatedness and respect which do not change with age.[107]

This responsibility is learned through involvement with responsible people, and the helping person becomes very real and involved with the person being helped. This involvement itself becomes the basis of motivation.[108]

Reality Therapy in the Classroom

Glasser sees the responsibility of schools as becoming a reservoir of social responsibility which necessitates providing a warm and human environment.[109] Reality Therapy can be comfortably applied by the teacher in the classroom; it is an approach for both the teacher and the parent to use.[110] In fact, a child's chance for success depends upon a series of personal involvements with the responsible and important people in his life; a teacher and parents are among such people.[111] The lack of such an involvement is why some children fail; they are lonely, not being able to be involved with

---

[106]Ibid., p. xxi.

[107]Ibid., p. xii.

[108]Glasser, The Effect of School Failure on the Life of a Child, op. cit.

[109]Ibid.

[110]Glasser, Reality Therapy, op. cit., p. xiv.

[111]Ibid., p. 158.

others.[112]

Beginning about 1950, a new society emerged; Glasser calls it the identity society.[113] More role conscious than goal conscious, people are concerned about who they are. Unable to find themselves, many people do assume a new identity, that of failure.

Usually children not doing well in school have not discovered that they can care for someone and that others care for them. These children are forced to find other pathways because they must have an identity; they do not flounder in the middle. They gain attention by failure and misconduct recognition.[114]

Hopefully, Reality Therapy may become a means of getting and maintaining a successful identity. The school has a responsibility for helping the student move toward success and being appreciated as a human being. The child must understand that he himself has the responsibility for fulfilling his needs, for behaving so that he can have a successful identity.[115]

Glasser has used Reality Therapy at the Ventura (California) School of Girls, an institution for the treatment of older adolescent girls. It has also been used by Glasser in Building 206 of the Veterans Administration Neuropsychiatric Hospital in West Los Angeles under the direction of Dr. G. L. Harriman, for long-termed hospitalized

---

[112]Glasser, The Effect of School Failure on the Life of a Child, op. cit.

[113]Glasser, The Identity Society, op. cit.

[114]Glasser, The Effect of School Failure on the Life of a Child, op. cit.

[115]Glasser, Schools Without Failure, op. cit., p. 16.

psychotic patients. As a consultant in the correctional field, he works with teachers and children. Perhaps his greatest contribution to the problem child is that he goes into the classroom himself, working with a teacher, with a group of teachers, with a school, showing how Reality Therapy can be practiced.

In an elementary school study, Gronert[116] successfully used Reality Therapy, combined with Adlerian Psychology, to set the stage and to arrange a counseling relationship for behavior modification. In a study to find a set of educational interventions for increasing comprehension reading skills with male delinquents (14-15 year-olds), Scheaf[117] used "Glasser-type" discussions as part of the treatment four days a week (45 minutes per day) for eight and a half weeks. In this time period, no significant measurable gains were made in reading achievement.

Hawes' doctoral study[118] assessed the effects of Glasser's Schools Without Failure Program on individual responsibility, self-esteem, and classroom behavior of culturally deprived Black children. Grades 3 and 6 in two elementary schools in inner Los Angeles were used. These two school were matched according to academic, ethnic, and

---

[116]Richard R. Gronert, "Combining a Behavioral Approach With Reality Therapy," Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, V (December, 1970), 104-112.

[117]William Allen Scheaf, "The Effects of Paired-Learning and Glasser-Type Discussions on Two Determinants of Academic Achievement and on Reading Achievement of Male Delinquents" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Case Western Reserve University, 1972).

[118]Richard Manning Hawes, "Reality Therapy in the Classroom" (unpublished Doctor's dissertaion, University of the Pacific, 1970).

socio-economic characteristics. School I and School II, experimental and control, had been designated as poverty schools eligible for funds provided by Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. The Schools Without Failure Program, used to extend the concepts of Reality Therapy to the classroom, is based on the assumption that failure should be eliminated from a child's learning experience. The class meeting is the backbone of the program. The research in this study found that the Schools Without Failure Program had significant effects upon children in the third and sixth grades in the experimental school, on the development of individual responsibility and encouragement of certain class behavior, but not on self-concept. The sex of pupils made little difference in the effectiveness of this program, but the younger grade level did.

Summary

In view of the literature reviewed in this section, it would appear that Reality Therapy can be used by school counselors and teachers with one stipulation, that they are willing to be involved with others. Glasser's publications and his willingness to go into the classroom himself are indications of his belief in this type of therapy. His is not an "ivory tower" approach; rather, the principles are spelled out in a workable, sequential manner. Differing from conventional therapy, Reality Therapy starts with the "now" behavior, faces reality, and teaches ways in which one's needs may be fulfilled.

Based on learning responsibility by involvement with others who care enough to be involved, Reality Therapy would seem to be a "natural" for use with the problem child in the classroom and with the

significant people in his life. With the school having the responsibility for helping a child to move toward a successful identity, Reality Therapy would encourage the child himself to take the responsibility for fulfilling his needs.

Although Glasser claims Reality Therapy can be used by anyone with a willingness to be involved, the paucity of research studies utilizing this therapy is amazing. One wonders why the school counselor has not used it, as he works with the problem child and his teacher(s) and parent(s).

THE TEAM APPROACH TO HELP THE PROBLEM CHILD

The literature in this section will be discussed under the following headings: (1) the counselor as a member of the team, (2) the teacher as a member of the team, (3) the parent as a member of the team, (4) the home-school team.

The Counselor as a Member of the Team

Peters and Shertzer have defined guidance as

> ...the process of helping the individual to understand himself and his world so that he can utilize his potentialities.[119]

In this role, the counselor cannot function as an outsider; rather, he must be a part of the child study team. His greatest contribution is in working with teachers and parents to provide environments at school

---

[119]Herman J. Peters and Bruce Shertzer, Guidance: Program Development and Management (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1969), p. 25.

and home conducive to a child's growth.[120] Christensen has pointed out that normally a change in a child's behavior is accompanied by changes in the lives of the significant people in his life.[121]

The counselor may serve as a go-between to open up communication between student, teacher and parent. Shaw calls this approach "milieu therapy."[122] By consulting with others in the life of a child, the counselor seeks to develop an attitude of flexibility and understanding toward each child's problem and to elicit understanding support from teachers and parents. This approach has been recommended by the American School Counselors Association:

> Environmental manipulation is often more necessary when counseling with children. The elementary school counselor will need to work more closely with teachers and parents when planning changes influencing the child.[123]

The Teacher as a Member of the Team

Penrose has noted that the teacher is responsible for labeling the problem child early in his school life, as well as differentiating his particular kind of problem and recording such in his cumulative folder.[124] Wrenn views the classroom teacher in the elementary school

---

[120] H. M. Smith and L. O. Eckerson, Guidance Services in Elementary Schools: A National Survey (Washington, D. C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966), p. 6.

[121] Oscar C. Christenson, "Education: A Model for Counseling in the Elementary School," Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, IV (October, 1969), 15-16.

[122] M. C. Shaw, "The Function of Theory in Guidance Programs," Guidance Monograph Series I (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1968).

[123] American School Counselors Association, "Report on Guidance in the Elementary School," Mimeograph, 1964.

[124] Penrose, op. cit.

as being in a most favorable position not only for observing the child, but sharing this observation with the counselor.[125]

Research has indicated that teachers are capable of making good judgments about behavior. Wickman's 1928 classic study of teachers' attitudes toward children's behavior was a forerunner of many similar studies.[126] Beilin's 1959 study indicated that the role of the teacher was changing, and that because of training and expectations, he could more quickly and accurately identify the problem child.[127] Westbrook[128] and Ziv[129] have noted that the gap between teachers' and psychologists' point of view has narrowed since Wickman's study--that is, teachers are becoming more sensitive to the problem child who is withdrawn.

It is the thinking of current journal writers that counselors could help many children by working with teachers.[130] However, there is often a difference of feeling between teachers and counselors due to:

1. teachers feeling that they themselves have always

---

[125]Wrenn, op. cit., p. 149.

[126]Wickman, op. cit.

[127]H. Beilin, "Teachers' and Clinicians' Attitudes Toward The Behavior Problems of Children: A Reappraisal," Child Development, XXX (1959), 9-25.

[128]Westbrook, op. cit.

[129]Avner Ziv, "Children's Behavior Problems as Viewed by Teachers, Psychologists, and Children," Child Development, XLI (September, 1970).

[130]Barbara A. Jones and R. J. Karraker, "The Elementary Counselor and Behavior Modification," Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, IV (October, 1969), 28-33.

been doing guidance.

2. teachers feeling that counselors are a part of the administration.
3. a lack of communication between teachers and counselors.
4. teachers not being able to see themselves as a part of the team.[131]

There are many natural opportunities for teachers and counselors to work together. Quinn[132] suggests strongly that the counselor, to take advantage of this situation, give most important consideration to letting the teacher know that he, the teacher, is the essential member of the guidance team. It is the impression of Becker, Thomas, and Carnine[133] that of all school referrals made to the school psychologist, special classes, and social workers, 80 percent of these referrals can be effectively handled by the classroom teacher if given help in knowing what to effect.

While help for the problem child is available for the classroom teacher, there is not one answer for every child, nor for every teacher. For example, Ginott[134] has collected, in the form of short scenarios, responses from teachers and parents in his classes and in so doing, has

---

[131]Paul F. Quinn, "Rapprochement--The Teacher and The Counselor," The School Counselor, XVI (January, 1969), 170-173.

[132]Ibid., p. 172.

[133]Wesley C. Becker, Don R. Thomas, Douglas Carnine, Reducing Behavior Problems: An Operant Conditioning Guide for Teachers (Urbana, Ill.: National Laboratory on Early Childhood Education, November, 1969), p. 5.

[134]Haim Ginott, Teacher and Child--A Book for Parents and Teachers (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1972).

made available practical guides for working with problem children, at home and at school. Maintaining Sanity in the Classroom[135] has a do-it-yourself approach made easy with illustrated teaching techniques. Reviewing a research study is not appealing to every teacher, a frequent reaction being "That doesn't fit my classroom or me." This might be the case when reading Antwarg's study[136] which defined and then isolated disturbing children in junior high school, for the purpose of studying the effect upon these children of teacher systematic study. The result of this experiment was that teachers' attitudes toward the problem children showed no significant improvement, but the problem children's attitudes toward the teachers changed to a positive direction.

For the classroom teacher to attempt to follow these suggestions alone can be discouraging, overwhelming, threatening. As a part of a team, the teacher gains support to study and research suggestions and ideas, to evaluate their effectiveness for his current situation or class, and then to focus his professional expertise on individual children.

The Parent as a Member of the Team

One of a counselor's priorities is to become involved with the significant people in the life of the child, the parents.

---

[135]Rudolf Dreikurs, Bernice Bronie Grunwald, and Floyd C. Pepper, Maintaining Sanity in the Classroom: Illustrated Teaching Techniques (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1971).

[136]Alexander Antwarg, "The Influence of Systematic Teacher Study of Their Disturbing Pupils on Selected Teacher-Disturbing Pupil Relationships" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, New York University, 1962).

Involving parents in school activities has long been a tradition. Greenwood, Breivogel, and Bessant[137] have noted that such an involvement usually falls into one or more of five levels: audience, teacher of the child, volunteer, trained worker, or participation in decision-making, especially through board membership. The 1971 theme of American Education Week was "Help Schools Bridge The Gap," indicating that children need both parents and teachers working together for the child's overall well-being.[138] On the one hand, the school must recognize that the child is a part of a family; on the other hand, it is often difficult for parents to see the child as an individual, not an extension of themselves.[139]

Until the present, schools have borne the responsibility of the educational process; now parents, as well as the schools, see a need for preparing the parents to shoulder their educational responsibility. Wolf, coordinator for Citizen Participation, United States Office of Education, has noted that parents today are seeking a kind of involvement that is quite different from the traditional attendance at PTA meetings; rather, they are asking questions about the quality of education and how to improve it.[140] As they become more involved,

---

[137]Gordon E. Greenwood, William F. Breivogel, Hattie Bessent, "Some Promising Approaches to Parent Involvement," Theory Into Practice, X (June, 1972), 183.

[138]Kenneth G. Gehret, "It's Visiting Time Again," The Christian Science Monitor, October 23, 1971, p. 11.

[139]Mrs. James A. King, "A Parent's Reaction," Theory Into Practice, IV (October, 1965), p. 157.

[140]Elinor K. Wolf, "The Case for Parent Involvement," Parents' Magazine, XLIV (February, 1969), 40-41.

they bear an increasing responsibility for having adequate solutions and answers to problems.[141]

In Ithaca, New York, a public school is being run by parents--the hiring of teachers, the allocating of budget items, the working of the school organization and curricula. In Berkeley, California, a group of families is designing its own school, with every family member a teacher, a learner, or both. In West Virginia, citizens are redesigning opportunities available with public finances. Against a financial barrier, school authorities are having to share their power, and with this power come many questions and improvements.[142]

If parents are to be involved as team members, it is necessary that they be viewed by the school as capable of serving on the team, and as being acquainted with school life. As front-line interpreters, the classroom teacher and the counselor are in a position to build home-school rapport by focusing on the child's well-being by means of mutual honesty and responsible communication.[143] When such a comfortable rapport has been established, the parent will not be "the last to know" of undesirable behavior.

The Parent Program has been used at the Devereux Day School in Scottsdale, Arizona, to involve parents directly in school

---

[141]E. Lakin Phillips, Daniel N. Wiener, and Norris G. Haring, Discipline, Achievement, and Mental Health (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960), p. 119.

[142]Cynthia Parsons, "Change at School," The Christian Science Monitor, (February 8, 1972), p. 6.

[143]Georgia B. Moeller, "The Parent-Student-Teacher Triangle," Today's Education, LX (November, 1971), 40-41.

visitation, bimonthly educational groups, and counseling groups. The children of parents who attend these group meetings regularly have shown more positive behavioral change than children of parents who do not attend group sessions.[144] In San Diego, California, a community liaison team, a community advisor and two parent counselors, has gone into home group meetings to discover what is worrying parents.[145]

The Home-School Team

In the "Ten Most Significant Educational Research Findings," Bloom hypothesized that change measurements are directly related to the environment in which the individual has lived during the change period. From this, Bloom has stressed the importance of the home and school acting in harmony for mutual support.[146]

In Palmo's study concerned with first, second and third graders who showed classroom adjustment problems, three treatment procedures for the students were employed: group counseling by the counselor and parent-teacher-counselor consultations; group counseling alone; parent-teacher-counselor consultations. Of the three treatments, the parent-teacher-counselor consultations were the most effective in

---

[144]Jeffries McWhirter and Carolyn Cabanski, "Influencing the Child: A Program for Parents," Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, VII (October, 1972), 26-31.

[145]George T. Frey, "Improving School-Community Relations," Today's Education, LX (January, 1971), 14-17.

[146]Daniel E. Griffiths, "The Most Significant Educational Research," Today's Education, LXI (April, 1972), 48-51.

reducing adjustment problems.[147]

Inaugurated in certain districts of Chicago in 1963, the IMPACT Program has provided a practical approach to helping problem children. The school team approach has been used with the counselor, teacher, nurse, social worker, psychologist, attendance officer, and principal combining interest and effort. Flexibility within the school structure has been a necessity for the success of this program.[148]

Summary

The previous section has discussed the place of the counselor, the teacher, and the parent as members of the home-school team for helping the problem child.

By the very nature of his counseling role, the counselor is in a natural position to work with teacher and parent as a go-between to open up communication. The teacher is in a position to observe the problem child in the classroom and to share that observation with counselor and parent. With the support of the counselor, the teacher gains encouragement and direction for researching and evaluating in working with the problem child. The traditional role of the parent is changing; now he is becoming involved in and responsible for school growth.

The counselor, the teacher, and the parent have a mutual bond,

---

[147]Artis J. Palmo, "The Effect of Group Counseling and Parent-Teacher Consultations," (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, West Virginia University, 1971).

[148]Berthold Demsch, "IMPACT: A Practical Approach for Reaching the School Child," The School Counselor, XVII (November, 1969), 101-105.

caring for and helping the problem child.

SUMMARY

The second chapter of this study has reviewed the related literature under eight headings: (1) introduction: research in counseling, (2) the role of the school counselor, (3) the middle school guidance program, (4) behavior problem children, (5) accountability and contracting in guidance, (6) changing behavior in the classroom, (7) Glasser's Reality Therapy, (8) the team approach to help the problem child.

In view of this related literature, the researcher would conclude there is a need for today's counselor to research where the educational concern is and to develop a methodology to be evaluated in terms of relevance to the counselor and the problem child.

According to current literature, the school counselor's role is changing from the traditional one-to-one counseling with the child to involvement in the student's environment. Although faced with lack of clarity of his role, the time has come for the school counselor to take a stand and develop his own role, related to current needs of students.

Current writers are focusing upon the need for flexibility and individualization within the middle school because of its unique population; at the same time, they decry the lack of theory in the present middle school guidance program. A need for research and experimentation by the school counselor in the middle school is loudly

voiced.

While public education is assuming the responsibility for helping all children to lead a productive life, there is a need for someone in the school system to identify the problem child and help him. From 1928 to the present, research studies have supported the belief that the classroom teacher is capable of identifying the problem child.

The honeymoon for guidance programs is over. The counselor is becoming accountable for the evaluation of his counseling. Gone, too, is the "not-measurable" excuse. Behavior modification is encouraging counselors and teachers and parents to use an eclectic approach in working with problem children.

From the literature reviewed, it would appear that the use by the school counselor in the middle school of two techniques scarcely utilized to date, Glasser's Reality Therapy and the behavior contract, would be a possible means of working with the problem child in the middle school and with the significant people in his life, his teacher and parent(s). In addition, it would make a contribution to research focusing upon help for the problem child in the middle school.

The research design and procedure used in this experimental study will be presented in Chapter 3.

Chapter 3

THE DESIGN AND PROCEDURE OF THE STUDY

The design and procedure of the study, as outlined in Chapter 1, will be presented in detailed form under the following sections: (1) setting of the study, (2) identification of the population sample and the sample groups, (3) research design and testing instruments, (4) methodology in chronological order, (5) hypotheses, (6) statistical procedure, and (7) summary.

SETTING OF THE STUDY

The setting of the study was in a middle school in New Jersey. This borough of 14,827 population in a 4.4 square mile area in Northern New Jersey is a bedroom community of New York City. After World War II, this formerly small village had been overwhelmed by a sudden increase of new families from the city, new money, and a marked interest in the schools. At present, real estate values range from $40,000 to $100,000. The effective buying income per family is $19,296. Eight churches, three industrial plants, and an educational system, six public and two private schools, are housed within the borough.[1]

The middle school, grades six, seven and eight, had been in existence for six years. Formerly a junior high school, grades seven,

---

[1] Bergen County Fact Book. Prepared by Bergen County Advisory Commission on Economic Resources and Development, 1971.

eight and nine, this school was housed in a building built in 1906 and added to in 1924. In September, 1972, the middle school moved into the "old" (1958) high school building. The enrollment in September, 1972, was a total of 749 students, with approximately 250 students in each of the three grades. The dropout rate in the 1972-1973 school year was zero. Students were almost exclusively Caucasian.[2]

Parents in this particular community take an active part in school life. They often come to school, or telephone, to talk with the counselors and teachers. Working consistently in the Home-School Association, they attend Back-To-School nights on a standing room basis. Participating with enthusiasm on school committees, their project for the 1971-1972 school year was Projection 80,[3] an exploration of the current curriculum, with detailed suggestions for improvement and expansion in the immediate future.

Each of the three counselors in this middle school remained with one class during its three-year stay at the school, starting with the sixth grade. Each was a credentialed counselor in the State of New Jersey. The sixth-grade counselor was the investigator. She had been a high school English and Latin teacher for nine years, and then a middle school counselor for nine years. The seventh grade counselor had been an elementary English teacher for eleven years, had served in the army for two years, and had been a middle school counselor for

---

[2]Records in the Office of the Superintendent of Schools, Tenafly, New Jersey, March, 1973.

[3]Projection 80. Citizens' Long-Range Planning Committee, Janury, 1972, Tenafly, New Jersey.

seven years. The eighth grade counselor had been an army career man for fourteen years, a reading specialist for ten years, an English and Social Studies teacher for four years, a business man for three years, and a middle school counselor for nine years.

A middle school was chosen for the setting of this study since the researcher was a middle school counselor. This study was designed to be undertaken within a counselor's school day; neither planning nor consulting was done outside the normal school day. Each counselor worked with teachers, problem children and their parents in his school office. Each contract session was held at the convenience of teachers and parents; care was taken that the problem child was not called out of a favorite class, such as wood shop or home economics. Neither parents nor children were informed that the contracting was part of a study.

IDENTIFICATION OF THE POPULATION AND THE SAMPLE GROUPS

The Population

The target population in this study was problem children in the middle school. The experimental accessible population was problem children in a middle school in Northern New Jersey, during the 1972-1973 school year.

The Treatment Group

The treatment group was not randomly chosen. It was composed of problem children, primarily sixth graders in a school in Northern New Jersey, and so designated by their classroom teachers.

Subjectively in this study, the problem child as defined by Woody was

> ...the child who cannot or will not adjust to the socially acceptable norms for behavior and consequently disrupts his own academic progress, the learning efforts of his classmates, and interpersonal relations.[4]

Objectively in this study, the problem child as rated by his classroom teacher was above one standard deviation from the mean in 3 out of 11 dimensions on the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale,[5] except in Dimensions numbered 7, 10, or 11, in which cases he was below one minus standard deviation from the mean.

The problem child was involved in a contract with the first teacher who reported his name to the counselor as being a problem child. When a problem child who had been selected for this study transferred out of the school or had a long illness, his contract was dropped from the study. In this study, one eighth grader transferred out of school in March, 1973; her contract was dropped from the study.

The Non-Treatment Group

The non-treatment group was also not randomly chosen. It consisted of three homeroom classes, one at each grade level. Since the homeroom classes in the middle school were grouped heterogeneously, the selected classes were those most closely approximating the mean grade level in terms of the Stanford Achievement Test scores

---

[4]Robert H. Woody, Behavior Problem Children in the Schools (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1969), p. 7.

[5]George Spivack and Marshall Swift, Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale (Devon, Penn.: The Devereux Foundation, 1967).

(Paragraph Meaning and Arithmetic Computation subtests), October, 1972.

As Van Dalen notes,

> School administrators are often most reluctant to disrupt the school schedule...but they may cooperate with an E if he is willing to use intact classes for an experiment.... Conducting an experiment without the S_s being aware of it is easier when intact classes are used for comparison groups than when random samples are taken from classes....[6]

RESEARCH DESIGN AND TESTING INSTRUMENTS

The Research Design

In this study, a one-group pretest-posttest design was utilized for analyzing the gain of the experimental group. In this design, the experimental group receives pretesting, the experimental treatment, and posttesting. In this study, the non-experimental group, used for a secondary comparison, received pretesting and posttesting.

In this study, the independent variable was the treatment used with the experimental group. The dependent variables were:

1. Achievement as measured by grade-point average.
2. Achievement as measured by first and fourth quarter grades.
3. Achievement as measured by Paragraph Meaning subtest scores on the Stanford Achievement Test.
4. Achievement as measured by Arithmetic Computation subtest scores on the Stanford Achievement Test.

---

[6]Deobold B. Van Dalen, Understanding Educational Research (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966), p. 279.

5. Conduct as measured by the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale.

Testing Instruments

Subtests of the Stanford Achievement Test which were used as testing instruments to measure paragraph meaning and arithmetic computation in this study included: (1) Intermediate II Battery, Forms X,Y (for the middle of Grade 5 to the end of Grade 6), Test 2, Paragraph Meaning, and Test 5, Arithmetic Computation,[7] and (2) Advanced Battery, Forms X,Y (for Grades 7, 8 and 9), Test 1, Paragraph Meaning, and Test 4, Arithmetic Computation.[8]

According to the Directions for Administering of the Intermediate II Battery of the Stanford Achievement Test, the Paragraph Meaning Test for Grade 6 has a split-half reliability coefficient of .93, a Kuder-Richardson reliability coefficient of .92, and a standard error of measurement of 5.0 in terms of grade scores. The Arithmetic Computation Test for Grade 6 has a split-half reliability coefficient of .89, a Kuder-Richardson reliability coefficient of .87, and a standard error of measurement of 5.5 in terms of grade scores.[9]

---

[7]Truman L. Kelley and others, Stanford Achievement Test, Intermediate II, Complete Battery, Form X,Y (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1965).

[8]Truman L. Kelley and others, Stanford Achievement Test, Advanced Complete Battery, Form X, Y (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1964).

[9]Truman L. Kelley and others, Stanford Achievement Test, Directions for Administering, Intermediate II Battery (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1964), p. 24.

The Paragraph Meaning Test for Grade 7, a subtest of the Advanced Battery of the Stanford Achievement Test, has a split-half reliability coefficient of .93, a Kuder-Richardson reliability coefficient of .93, and a standard error of measurement of 5.0 in terms of grade scores. The Arithmetic Computation Test for Grade 7 has a split-half reliability coefficient of .87, a Kuder-Richardson reliability coefficient of .87, and a standard error of measurement of 7.0 in terms of grade scores.[10]

The Paragraph Meaning Test for Grade 8, a subtest of the Advanced Battery of the Stanford Achievement Test, has a split-half reliability coefficient of .93, a Kuder-Richardson reliability coefficient of .93, and a standard error of measurement of 8.0 in terms of grade scores. The Arithmetic Computation Test for Grade 8 has a split-half reliability coefficient of .90, a Kuder-Richardson reliability coefficient of .90, and a standard error of measurement of 8.0 in terms of grade scores.[11]

In both the Intermediate II Battery and the Advanced Battery of Directions for Administering the Stanford Achievement Test, the same reference is made to validity:

> The validity of Stanford Achievement Test is best thought of as the extent to which the content of the test constitutes a representative sample of the skills and knowledges which are the goals of instruction. This content, or curricular, validity must be assessed through a careful analysis of the actual content

---

[10]Truman L. Kelley and others, Stanford Achievement Test, Directions for Administering, Advanced Battery (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1964), p. 24.

[11]Ibid.

> of each subtest in relation to the objectives of instruction in the various fields. The Stanford authors sought to insure content validity by examining appropriate courses of study and textbooks as a basis for determining the skills, knowledges, understandings, etc., to be measured.[12]

Due to the congruence between the item-analysis of the Stanford Achievement Test and this middle school's curriculum and the similarity between the norm population and that in this New Jersey town, the Stanford Achievement Test was selected in 1965 by the school psychologist to be used in the school testing program in grades 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8.

Under the heading of Performance by Subtests, the authors agree that part scores are "sufficiently reliable for use in the diagnosis of group performance...[and] may be compared with scores made by the national standardization group."[13]

The following comments have been made by the authors about the two subtests included in this study:

> Paragraph meaning is such a vital part of school achievement that ability in it should be carefully weighed against the achievement level desired of each pupil.[14]

> The computation items (Arithmetic Computation) are drawn from the fundamental operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division...the response 'not given' (NG) is included as one of the choices in each item in order to discourage guessing by pupils not able to perform correctly the required operations. The time limit for the test is generous, reducing the emphasis on computational speed. The exercises are representative of the usual curriculum and textbook patterns of content.[15]

---

[12] Ibid.

[13] Ibid., p. 22.

[14] Ibid., p. 4.

[15] Ibid., p. 5.

The Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale[16] was used in this study by classroom teachers who had reported the names of problem children. The scale was scored by the teacher as soon as he had reported the name of the problem child in his classroom, before December 22, 1972, and again in May, 1973.

This scale[17] does not provide a measure of character or personality traits; rather, it furnishes a profile of overt problem behavior. It has been specifically designed for use by the classroom teacher, who is instructed to base his ratings on his classroom experience with the child. Usually with one month of observation in the classroom, the teacher is able to score this scale within five or ten minutes. Forty-seven behaviors are measured; these define 11 behavior factors and three additional items:

1. Classroom Disturbance
2. Impatience
3. Disrespect-Defiance
4. External Blame
5. Achievement Anxiety
6. External Reliance
7. Comprehension
8. Inattentive-Withdrawn
9. Irrelevant-Responsiveness

---

[16]Spivack and Swift, op. cit.

[17]George Spivack and Marshall, Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale Manual (Devon, Pa.: The Devereux Foundation, 1967), pp. 3-32.

10. Creative Initiative

11. Need Closeness to Teacher

Additional items

1. Unable change

2. Quits

3. Slow Work

Normative data were obtained in a small city public school system from thirteen elementary schools. Thirty-two teachers rated the behaviors of 809 children, 721 White and 88 Black. The results of the teachers' ratings at different grade levels for each factor are very similar; this fact would indicate that rating teachers do use a different "standard" for children at different ages. One week after the initial ratings, 128 children were rated a second time. From the initial to the retest ratings, there was a general tendency for scores to decrease; the extent of change was small.

The test-retest correlations, that is, reliability, are moderately high, the median coefficient being .87. The test-retest correlation for each item on the scale was determined; the median correlation is .76, with a quartile range from .72 to .82. The standard errors of measurement for each factor are small; all of the standard errors of measurement are equal to one-half of the standard deviation of the scores of the total normative sample.

A Survey Sheet[18] was developed, used, and frequently revised during a period of three years by the researcher. It is a technique planned:

---

[18]Please see Appendix B, p. 150.

1. to enable the teacher, with a few minutes' effort, to give a current picture of the child in the individual classroom.
2. to give a parent, a counselor, a consultant, all of the child's teachers, or the child himself a current survey of himself as he behaves in one or in all of his classes.

This survey sheet, in this study, was used by the teacher as a customary focusing on the child; it served as an introduction to scoring the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale, which focused on the teacher seeing the problem child in comparison to the other children in the class. This survey sheet was not used as a pretest or as a posttest. It was checked by the teacher as soon as he had reported the name of a problem child before December 22, 1972.

METHODOLOGY IN CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER

The following outline indicates the procedures and the chronological order in which they were executed:

1. Before school started in September, 1972
   a. The researcher, the sixth-grade counselor in a middle school in Northern New Jersey, presented her proposal to the superintendent of schools to acquaint him with the purpose and nature of this study, as well as its appropriate usability for counselors, teachers, parents, and children in this middle school and to

secure his permission to undertake it during the 1972-1973 school year.

b. The researcher then contacted the school psychologist, through whose office all doctoral proposals and testing programs are channeled, to acquaint him with the nature of this study, and to gain his cooperation and permission. He was requested not to use the term problem child when he spoke to the sixth, seventh, and eighth grade teachers during Teacher Orientation Week concerning children with problems.

c. The researcher met with the principal of this middle school to acquaint him with this proposal and the procedures by which it would be executed. This study was of peculiar interest to the principal, since problem children had presented a difficult situation to this middle school in the 1971-1972 school year.

d. The researcher met with the other two counselors in this middle school to solicit their cooperation, and to acquaint them with the nature of the experiment and their role in it. At this meeting, the following points were carefully reviewed:

   (1) the purpose of the study

   (2) the methodology to be followed

   (3) the responsibility of each counselor, including the keeping of a log

(4) the purpose of the weekly meeting of the counselors, to discuss progress, problems, and suggestions and revisions for future experiments.

2. At the beginning of the 1972-1973 school year, each counselor contacted each teacher of year-long subjects at his grade level. He asked the teacher to give the name of any student who became a problem child, using Woody's definition, in his classroom to the grade counselor.
3. When the teacher reported the name of a problem child to the counselor, the counselor asked that teacher to fill out:
   a. a Survey Sheet, to describe how the teacher saw this child in the classroom.
   b. a Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale, to describe how the teacher saw this child in relation to the other children in the class.
4. The counselor assembled the health record, the Survey Sheet, and the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale. Upon the basis of this data, he arranged a meeting with the reporting teacher.
5. Meeting with the teacher, the counselor reviewed this information and acquainted the teacher with the concept

of a contractual agreement[19] and with the concepts of Glasser's Reality Therapy.[20]

6. The counselor arranged a meeting with the problem child, his teacher, and his parent(s) to set up a contractual agreement which was written by the counselor during the course of the meeting. All parties at this meeting signed the contract. Each problem child had one contract with the first teacher who had reported him as being a problem in the classroom. No child was included in the study unless his name had been reported before December 22, 1972. The contract was terminated not later than May 31, 1973. The dimensions of the problem, as noted by the teacher, were handled one at a time. The researcher felt this manner of handling each problem separately would not confuse or overwhelm the child, and step-by-step progress could be more immediately recognized. A contract terminated because of transfer or illness was dropped from the study. If one of the significant people in the life of the problem child or the problem child himself refused to sign the contract, there was no contract, and the child was not included in this study.

---

[19]Please see Appendix A, p. 148.

[20]William Glasser, Reality Therapy (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1965).

Each counselor was familiarized with the Principles of Reality Therapy and was not restricted to a set pattern of working with the problem child and his teacher and parent(s). This is in accordance with Glasser's belief:

> ...anyone can begin to apply Reality Therapy. Each person will then, as he gains experience, develop a technique congenial to him and appropriate to the people and the situation with which he is dealing.[21]

This was the first time that the counselors had used Reality Therapy. The manner in which they used this therapy and the techniques they developed will be presented in Chapter 4.

7. In October, 1972, the Stanford Achievement Test was administered to all students in the middle school by the homeroom teachers as a part of the school's regular testing program. For problem children already identified or to be identified by December 22, 1972, and for the non-treatment group, this test served as a pretest.

8. In June, 1973:

   a. The Stanford Achievement Test (subtests Paragraph Meaning and Arithmetic Computation) was administered as a posttest to all identified problem children by

---

[21]William Glasser, The Identity Society (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1972), p. 107.

the counselors and to the non-treatment groups by the homeroom teachers during a lengthened homeroom period. Homerooms not involved in the testing were engaged in a guidance program, planned by the counselors and conducted by the homeroom teachers.

b. Each classroom teacher involved in a contract with a problem child was asked to fill out a second Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale.

c. The first quarter grade-point averages and the fourth quarter grade-point averages of all problem children and of the children in the non-treatment group during the 1972-1973 school year were listed.

d. The first quarter grade and the fourth quarter grade of the problem child in the subject area of the designating classroom teacher were listed.

HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses stated in null form which this study tested included:

Hypothesis 1. Students who have been designated as problem children by the classroom teacher in the middle school by means of the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale and who have been involved in a contractual agreement will not receive within the fourth quarter a significantly higher mean grade-point average than that received during the first quarter of the same year.

Hypothesis 2. Students who have been designated as problem children by the classroom teacher in the middle school by means of the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale and who have been involved in a contractual agreement will not, on the average, score significantly higher on the spring norms in the

Paragraph Meaning subtest of the Stanford Achievement Test than they did on the fall norms in the same school year.

Hypothesis 3. Students who have been designated as problem children by the classroom teacher in the middle school by means of the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale and who have been involved in a contractual agreement will not, on the average, score significantly higher on the spring norms of the Arithmetic Computation subtest of the Stanford Achievement Test than they did on the fall norms in the same school year.

Hypothesis 4. Students who have been designated as problem children by the classroom teacher in the middle school by means of the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale and who have been involved in a contractual agreement will not receive within the fourth quarter in the subject of the designating teacher a mean grade that is significantly higher than that received during the first quarter of the same school year.

Hypothesis 5. Students who have been designated as problem children by the classroom teacher in the middle school by means of the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale and who have been involved in a contractual agreement will not, on the average, receive significantly fewer deviations from the mean on the same behavior rating scale at the end of the year than when they were first rated earlier in the same school year.

STATISTICAL PROCEDURE

In this study as stated, the subjects were included in a one-group pretest-posttest design. Those children designated as problem children by the classroom teacher in the middle school by means of the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale were placed in the experimental group. Non-problem students from three intact homerooms, one homeroom at each grade level which most closely approximated the norm for that grade level in terms of the mean grade scores from the Paragraph Meaning subtest and the Arithmetic Computation subtest of the Stanford Achievement Test, which had been administered in October,

1972, were placed in the non-experimental group. The pretest mean scores of the experimental group and those of the non-experimental group were compared to check their similarity.[22]

Internal Validity

The non-problem group allows a partial control for certain threats to internal validity, such as history, pretesting, and maturation.

Selection biases and regression effects are not applicable to this design. Mortality was not a serious consideration, since only one student left.

Instrumentation problems did offer a potential threat to internal validity and were given critical consideration.

External Validity

The problem children in this study were predominantly Caucasian and came from a middle class, and above, socioeconomic background. As a whole, their parents were well educated and interested in their children's welfare. They came to school willingly and appreciated talking and working with counselors and teachers. Hence, generalization might be somewhat limited to situations which differ greatly from this one.

Pretesting for both groups was in the area of achievement. The Stanford Achievement Test is given in the fall to all three grades, as a part of the school testing program. Therefore, no reaction was

---

[22]Van Dalen, op. cit., p. 276.

expected between pretest and treatment.

In regard to reactive experimental procedures, the pretesting was a part of the school testing program. The posttesting of non-problem children was conducted in intact homerooms by the counselors who often use homerooms for testing and discussion purposes. The testing of the problem children was done by the counselors, in small groups in the cafeteria; this again is a normal procedure in this school.

No multitreatment interference existed, since the one treatment was used, Glasser's Reality Therapy combined with the contractual agreement.

Statistical Analyses

The researcher analyzed the data for the experimental group by employing the Student t-test for correlated samples to test for a significant mean gain for the dependent variables of this study. In addition, the non-experimental group was used as a secondary comparison.

For computational purposes the following information was assembled for:

1. problem children

   a. the stanines for the pretesting and the posttesting scores of the Paragraph Meaning subtest of the Stanford Achievement Test.

   b. the stanines for the pretesting and the posttesting scores of the Arithmetic Computation subtest of the Stanford Achievement Test.

   c. the grade-point averages of the first and fourth quarters of the current school year.

   d. the grades of the first and fourth quarters in the subject area of the designating teacher of the problem child.

e. the ratings, compiled before and after treatment, on the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale.

2. non-problem children

a. the stanines for the pretesting and the posttesting scores of the Paragraph Meaning subtest of the Stanford Achievement Test.

b. the stanines for the pretesting and the posttesting scores of the Arithmetic Computation subtest of the Stanford Achievement Test.

c. the grade-point averages of the first and fourth quarters of the current school year.

The .05 level of statistical significance was used for the tests of the null hypotheses.

Procedures for Minimizing Error Variance

The following measures were taken to minimize bias and error variance:

1. This study was not publicized as an experiment. The teachers were informed by their respective grade counselor that the counselors were working with a new technique to help problem children.
2. The use of the behavior rating scale and the contract contributed to establishing uniformity of procedures.
3. Data and procedures were documented.
4. Data processing services were utilized for statistical computation, utilizing parametric statistics.

SUMMARY

The third chapter of this study has reviewed: (1) setting of

the study; (2) identification of the population and the sample groups; (3) research design and testing instruments; (4) methodology in chronological order; (5) hypotheses; (6) statistical procedures; and (7) summary.

Chapter 4 will present findings from the data drawn from this experiment.

Chapter 4

FINDINGS FROM THE DATA

INTRODUCTION

This study involved the use of Glasser's Reality Therapy and a counselor-student-teacher-parent contractual agreement as a means to improve the behavior and achievement level of problem children in the middle school.

The experimental group was composed of thirty problem children from three grade levels, sixth, seventh, and eighth, designated by means of the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale. The non-experimental group was composed of seventy children from three intact homerooms, one from each grade level, which most closely approximated the school mean grade level in terms of the Stanford Achievement Test scores (Paragraph Meaning and Arithmetic Computation subtests).

This study was undertaken and completed within one school year. At the beginning of the school year, each counselor contacted individually his grade-level classroom teachers who taught year-long subjects. He asked the teacher to notify him as soon as a problem child in the classroom was detected. When the classroom teacher designated a child in his classroom as being a problem child, the teacher was asked by the counselor to check a Survey Sheet (a regular school procedure) and to rate the designated child on the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale. Problem children designated as such before December 22,

1972, became a part of this study.

The treatment in this study consisted of:

1. a meeting together of the counselor, the problem child and his teacher and parent(s).
2. the use of Glasser's Reality Therapy and the construction of a contractual agreement to help the problem child take the responsibility for improving his "now" behavior and achievement. On the average, four such meetings were held with the problem child before June, 1973.

Five dependent variables were considered in this study of the problem child: paragraph meaning, arithmetic computation, a behavior rating scale, grade-point average, and a subject grade. For a comparative purpose, three measures were obtained for the non-problem child: paragraph meaning, arithmetic computation, and grade-point average.

Pretesting of the Paragraph Meaning and Arithmetic Computation subtests of the Stanford Achievement Test was a part of the school testing program, October 1, 1972. The pre-rating by the classroom teacher on the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale took place as soon as the teacher had designated the problem child, that is, after September 11, 1972 and before December 22, 1972.

Postesting of the Paragraph Meaning and Arithmetic Computation subtests of the Stanford Achievement Test for the non-problem children was administered by the counselors in three intact grade-level homerooms, during the last part of May, 1973. During this same week, posttesting

of these tests for problem children was accomplished by each grade level counselor with small groups of problem children. Both ways of testing by the counselors are customary in this school, throughout the school year.

The grade-point averages from the first and fourth quarters for both problem and non-problem children, and the first and fourth quarter grades in the subject of the designating teacher for the problem children were collected and tabulated by the counselors at the end of the year. The following numerical values were assigned to letter grades: 4.00 = A; 3.00 = B; 2.00 = C; 1.00 = D; 0.00 = E(F).

Sex, IQ, and age were also collected to describe more fully the participants of this study. This information is included in Appendix C and relates to the external validity of this investigation.

FINDINGS PERTAINING TO THE CONCEPTUAL HYPOTHESES

Grade-Point Average

The first conceptual hypothesis concerns the effect that a contractual agreement will have upon the grade-point average of the problem child.

The first null hypothesis was:

> Students who have been designated as problem children by the classroom teacher in the middle school by means of the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale and who have been involved in a contractual agreement will not receive within the fourth quarter a significantly higher mean grade-point average than that received during the first quarter of the same school year.

The grade-point average was obtained for each quarter by

totaling the numerical values of the grades in the four basic subjects, English, Social Studies, Mathematics, Science, and dividing by four. The gain was determined by subtracting the first quarter grade-point average from the fourth quarter grade-point average. Table 1 presents the statistical result for this dependent variable for the experimental group.

Table 1

Analysis of Grade-Point Average Gain Scores for Problem Children

	$\bar{X}$	S	N	t^a
Grade-Point Average 1st Quarter	1.632	0.619	30	--
Grade-Point Average 4th Quarter	1.892	0.916	30	--
Grade-Point Average Gain	0.260	0.619	30	t=2.300[b]

[a] = the critical value of t for 29 degrees of freedom is 2.045.

[b] = significant at the .05 level.

As noted in Table 1, the computed t value exceeds the critical t value and, therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected as being untenable. We can conclude that the mean fourth quarter grade-point average of problem children was significantly higher than that of the first quarter.

Grade-point averages were similarly obtained for the first and fourth quarter of this same school year for non-problem children. Table 2 presents the statistical result for this dependent variable for non-problem children.

Table 2

Analysis of Grade-Point Average Gain Scores for Non-Problem Children

	$\bar{X}$	S	N	t^a
Grade-Point Average 1st Quarter	2.771	0.496	70	--
Grade-Point Average 4th Quarter	2.907	0.657	70	--
Grade-Point Average Gain	0.136	0.405	70	$t=2.833^b$

[a] = the critical value of t for 69 degrees of freedom is 1.99.

[b] = significant at the .05 level.

As noted in Table 2, the computed t value exceeds the critical t value. We can conclude that the mean fourth quarter grade-point average of non-problem children was significantly greater than that of the first quarter.

Since the gain was apparent for the non-problem children as well as for the problem children, it seems likely that the teachers in this middle school tend to give higher grades in the fourth quarter.

This instrumentation problem is confounded with the effects, if any, of the treatment for the experimental group. The possibility that the problem students gained significantly more than the non-problem students was also investigated. Table 3 presents a comparison of the mean grade-point average gains for these two groups.

Table 3

Comparison of the Grade-Point Average Gain Scores for Problem Children and for Non-Problem Children

	$\bar{X}$	S	N	t^a
Problem Children Grade-Point Average Gain	0.260	0.619	30	--
Non-Problem Children Grade-Point Average Gain	0.136	0.405	70	--
Grade-Point Average Gain	0.124		100	$t=1.01^b$

[a] = the critical value of t for 98 degrees of freedom is 1.980.

[b] = non-significant at the .05 level.

As noted in Table 3, the computed t value does not exceed the critical t value. Therefore, we cannot conclude that the problem children made a significantly greater gain than did the non-problem children. Thus, the fact that the problem children did have a significantly higher grade-point average for the fourth quarter as compared to the

first quarter cannot be attributed solely to the treatment that they received. The instrumentation effect and the treatment effect are inextricably combined in some unknown proportion. (See Figure 1.)

Paragraph Meaning

The second conceptual hypothesis concerns the effect that a contractual agreement will have upon paragraph meaning scores of the problem child.

The second null hypothesis was:

> Students who have been designated as problem children by the classroom teacher in the middle school by means of the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale and who have been involved in a contractual agreement will not, on the average, score significantly higher on the spring norms in the Paragraph Meaning subtest of the Stanford Achievement Test than they did on the fall norms in the same school year.

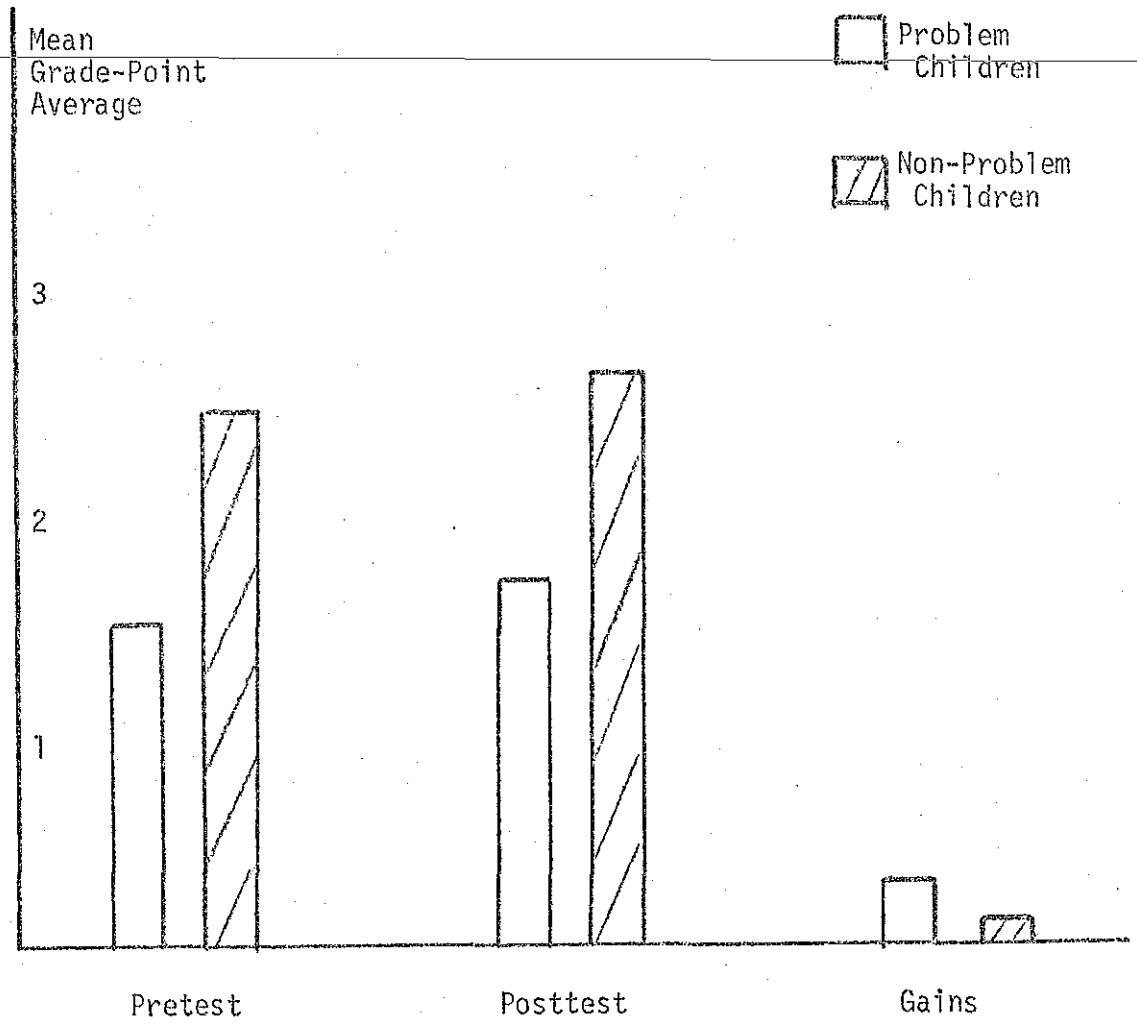
The national mean stanine scores of the Paragraph Meaning subtest of The Stanford Achievement Test, administered the first of October, 1972, and the first of June, 1973, were used to determine the gain in Paragraph Meaning. Table 4 presents the statistical results for this dependent variable for the experimental group.

As noted in Table 4, the computed *t* value exceeds the critical *t* value and, therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected as being untenable. We can conclude that the Mean Paragraph Meaning score for the problem children on the spring norms was significantly higher than that on the fall norms.

The national mean stanine scores of the Paragraph Meaning subtest of the Stanford Achievement Test, administered the first of October, 1972, and the first of June, 1973, were also obtained for non-

Figure 1

Comparison of the Mean Grade-Point Averages for Problem Children and for Non-Problem Children



problem children. Table 5 presents the statistical results of this dependent variable for the non-problem children.

Table 4

Analysis of Paragraph Meaning Gain Scores for Problem Children

	$\bar{X}$	S	N	t^a
Paragraph Meaning Fall Norms	4.567	2.029	30	--
Paragraph Meaning Spring Norms	5.167	2.086	30	--
Paragraph Meaning Gain	0.600	1.429	30	t=2.298[b]

[a] = the critical value of t for 29 degrees of freedom is 2.045.

[b] = significant at the .05 level.

As noted in Table 5, the computed t value exceeds the critical t value. We can conclude that the non-problem children scored significantly higher on the Paragraph Meaning spring norms than on the fall norms.

Since the gain was apparent for the non-problem children as well as for problem children, it seems there is a tendency for children to score higher on the Paragraph Meaning subtest of The Stanford Achievement Test in the spring than in the fall of the same school year.

Although both groups showed a gain, there is a question as to whether the problem children gained significantly more than did the

non-problem children. Table 6 will present a comparison of the mean Paragraph Meaning Gains for these two groups.

Table 5

Analysis of Paragraph Meaning Gain Scores for Non-Problem Children

	$\bar{X}$	S	N	t^a
Paragraph Meaning Fall Norms	5.886	2.011	70	--
Paragraph Meaning Spring Norms	6.257	1.759	70	--
Paragraph Meaning Gain	0.371	1.230	70	$t=2.523^b$

[a] = the critical value of t for 69 degrees of freedom is 1.99.

[b] = significant at the .05 level.

As seen in Table 6, the computed t value does not exceed the critical t value. Therefore, we cannot conclude that the problem children made a significantly greater gain than the non-problem children. Each group scored higher based on the spring norms than it did on the fall norms, but the reason for this finding is unclear. (See Figure 2.)

There is a slight disparity in the use of the norms for the Stanford Achievement Test. The subtests, Paragraph Meaning and Arithmetic Computation, were administered October 1, 1972, and again the first of June, 1973. In the Directions for Administering manual, grade

scores with accompanying percentile ranks and stanines are given for three possible testing dates: September through December, January through April, and May through June. In this study, the subtests were administered at the end of one-fourth of the first possible testing period, but during the middle of the third possible testing period. However, the manual suggests a change in computing the score only if the school year is atypical. The 1972-1973 school year used in this study was not atypical. Therefore, we would assume that the disparity in the timing of the testing in this study would be acceptable for using the scoring dates presented in the testing manual of the Stanford Achievement Test.

Table 6

Comparison of the Paragraph Meaning Gain Scores for Problem Children and for Non-Problem Children

	$\bar{X}$	S	N	t[a]
Problem Children Paragraph Meaning Average Gain	0.600	1.429	30	--
Non-Problem Children Paragraph Meaning Average Gain	0.371	1.230	70	--
Paragraph Meaning Average Gain	0.229		100	t=.76[b]

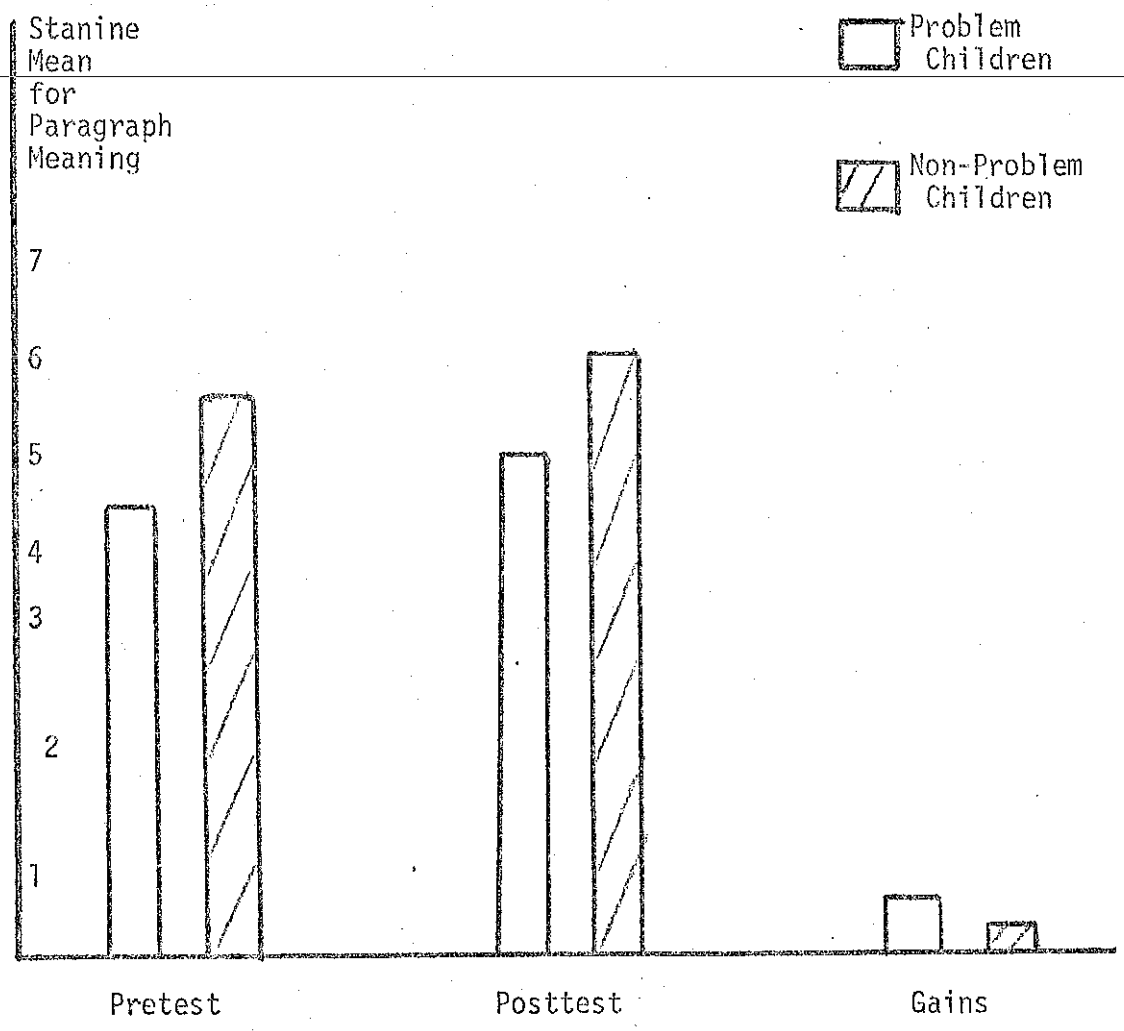
[a] = the critical value for t for 98 degrees of freedom is 1.980.

[b] = not significant at the .05 level.

The performance of the participants in this study deviated

Figure 2

Comparison of the Stanine Means for the Paragraph Meaning subtest for Problem Children and for Non-Problem Children



from that of the norming group for the Stanford Achievement Test, but the reason for this difference is unknown. Also, the fact that the problem children did have a significantly higher Paragraph Meaning average for the fourth quarter as compared to the first quarter cannot be attributed solely to the treatment. The effect of instrumentation and treatment are inextricably combined in some unknown proportion.

Arithmetic Computation

The third conceptual hypothesis concerns the effect that a contractual agreement will have upon the arithmetic computation scores of the problem child.

The third null hypothesis was:

> Students who have been designated as problem children by the classroom teacher in the middle school by means of the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale and who have been involved in a contractual agreement will not, on the average, score significantly higher on the spring norms of the Arithmetic Computation subtest of the Stanford Achievement Test than they did on the fall norms in the same school year.

The national mean stanine scores of the Arithmetic Computation subtest of the Stanford Achievement Test, administered the first of October, 1972, and the first of June, 1973, were used to determine the gain in Arithmetic Computation. Table 7 presents the statistical result for this dependent variable for the experimental group.

As noted in Table 7, the computed t value exceeds the critical t value and, therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected as being untenable. We can conclude that the mean Arithmetic Computation score of problem children on the spring norms significantly exceeded that on the fall norms.

The national mean stanine scores of the Arithmetic Computation subtest of the Stanford Achievement Test, administered the first of October, 1972, and the first of June, 1973, were also obtained for non-problem children. Table 8 presents the statistical results of this dependent variable for the non-problem children.

In Table 8, the computed t value exceeds the critical t value. We can conclude that the mean Arithmetic Computation score for non-problem children is significantly higher on the spring norms than on the fall norms.

Since the gain was apparent for the non-problem children as well as for problem children, it seems there is a tendency for children in this middle school to score higher on the Arithmetic Computation subtest of the Stanford Achievement Test in the spring than in the fall of the same school year.

Although both groups showed a gain, there again is a question as to whether the problem children gained significantly more than did the non-problem children. In Table 9, a comparison of the mean Arithmetic Computation gains for these two groups will be presented.

As seen in Table 9, the computed t value does not exceed the critical t value. Therefore, we cannot conclude that the problem children made a significantly greater gain than the non-problem children. Although each group gained significantly according to the national norms, there is no significance between gains of the two groups. (See Figure 3.)

The slight disparity in norming has been discussed under the above section, Paragraph Meaning.

Table 7

Analysis of Arithmetic Computation Gain Scores
for Problem Children

	$\bar{X}$	S	N	t^a
Arithmetic Computation Fall Norms	3.300	1.601	30	--
Arithmetic Computation Spring Norms	4.467	1.925	30	--
Arithmetic Computation Gain	1.167	1.315	30	$t=4.862^b$

[a] = the critical value of t for 29 degrees of freedom is 2.045.

[b] = significant at the .05 level.

Table 8

Analysis of Arithmetic Computation Gain Scores
for Non-Problem Children

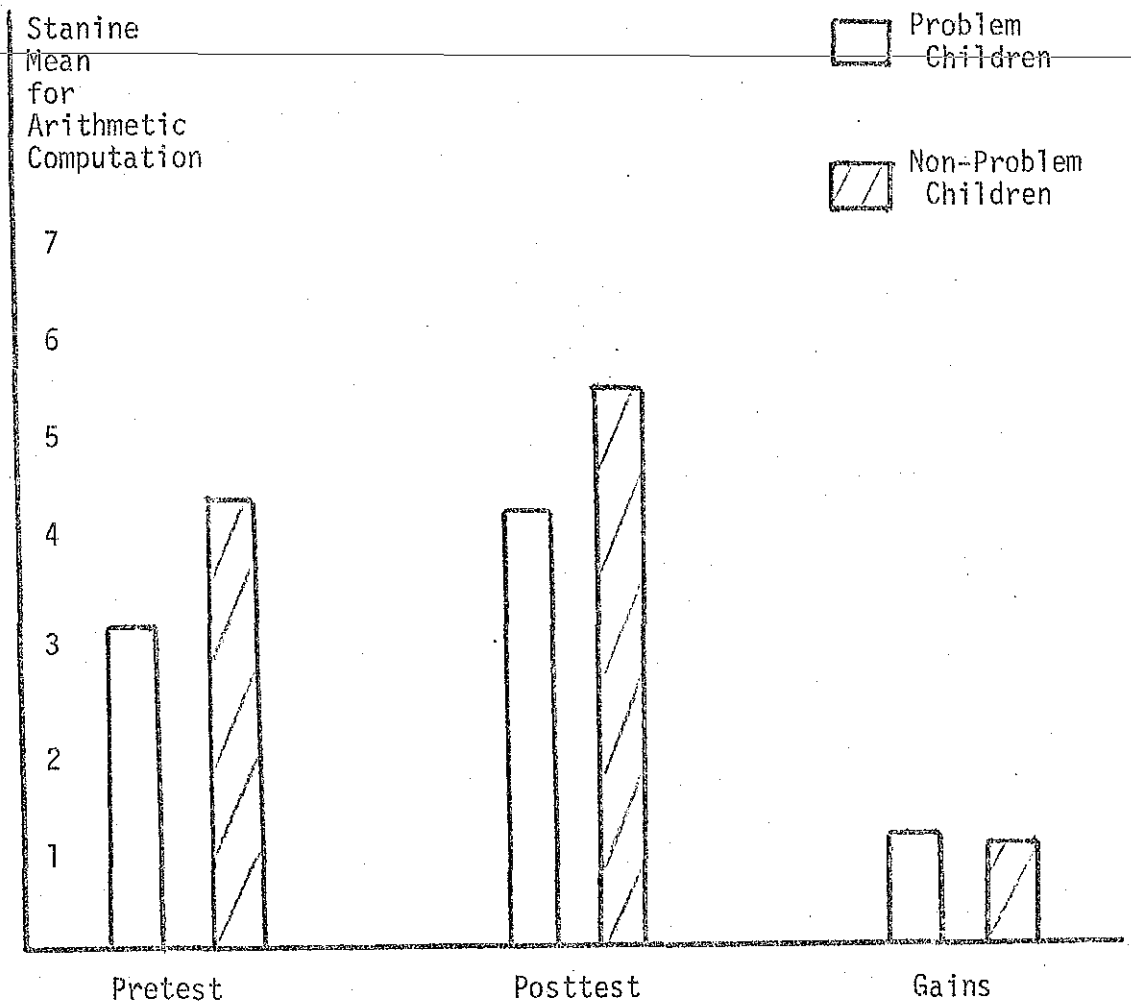
	$\bar{X}$	S	N	t^a
Arithmetic Computation Fall Norms	4.614	2.052	70	--
Arithmetic Computation Spring Norms	5.757	2.010	70	--
Arithmetic Computation Gain	1.143	1.477	70	$t=6.457^b$

[a] = the critical value of t for 69 degrees of freedom is 1.99.

[b] = significant at the .05 level.

Figure 3

Comparison of the Stanine Means for the Arithmetic Computation Subtest for Problem Children and for Non-Problem Children



The fact that the problem children did have a significantly higher arithmetic computation average for the spring norms as compared to the fall norms cannot be attributed solely to the treatment they received. The instrumentation effect and the treatment effect are inextricably combined in some unknown proportion.

Table 9

Comparison of the Arithmetic Computation Gain Scores for Problem Children and for Non-Problem Children

	$\bar{X}$	S	N	t^a
Problem Children Arithmetic Computation Average Gain	1.167	1.315	30	--
Non-Problem Children Arithmetic Computation Average Gain	1.143	1.477	70	--
Arithmetic Computation Gain	0.024		100	$t=.08^b$

[a] = the critical value for t for 98 degrees of freedom is 1.980.

[b] = not significant at the .05 level.

Grade of Problem Child in Subject of Designating Teacher

The fourth conceptual hypothesis concerns the effect that a contractual agreement will have upon the grade-point average of the problem child in the subject of the teacher who designated him as being such.

The fourth null hypothesis was:

Students who have been designated as problem children by the classroom teacher in the middle school by means of the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale and who have been involved in a contractual agreement will not receive within the fourth quarter in the subject of the designating teacher a mean grade that is significantly higher than that received during the first quarter of the same school year.

The alphabetical grade for the first and fourth quarters was obtained from the office report card and converted into a numerical value: A = 4.00; B = 3.00; C = 2.00; D = 1.00; E(F) = 0.00. Table 10 presents the statistical results for this dependent variable for the experimental group.

Table 10

Analysis of Grade Gains in Subject of Designating Teacher for Problem Children

	$\bar{X}$	S	N	t^a
Grade 1st Quarter	1.667	0.844	30	--
Grade 4th Quarter	1.733	1.048	30	--
Grade Gain	0.067	0.740	30	t=.496[b]

[a] = the critical value of t for 29 degrees of freedom is 2.045.

[b] = not significant at the .05 level.

As noted in Table 10, the computed t value does not exceed the critical t value and, therefore, the null hypothesis must be accepted

as tenable. The experimental group did not make significant grade gains in the subject of the designating teacher. One cannot conclude that problem children who participate in Reality Therapy and a contractual agreement will receive within the fourth quarter in the subject of the designating teacher a mean grade that is significantly higher than that received during the first quarter of the same school year. It is interesting to note that while both problem children and non-problem children made a significant gain in overall grade-point averages for the school year, problem children did not make a significant gain in the subject of the designating teacher.

Behavior

The fifth conceptual hypothesis concerns the effect that a contractual agreement will have upon the behavior rating for the problem child.

The fifth null hypothesis was:

> Students who have been designated as problem children by the classroom teacher in the middle school by means of the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale and who have been involved in a contractual agreement will not, on the average, receive significantly fewer deviations from the mean on the same behavior rating scale at the end of the year than when they were first rated earlier in the same school year.

As soon as the classroom teacher designated a problem child, between September 11, 1972 and December 22, 1972, he was asked to rate this child on the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale. The child was again rated by this teacher at the end of the same school year. To be included in this study as a problem child, the student must have deviated at least one standard deviation from the mean on at

least three of the eleven dimensions. Table 11 presents the statistical results for this dependent variable for the experimental group.

Table 11

Analysis of the Number of Deviations from the Mean on a Behavior Rating Scale for Problem Children

	$\bar{X}$	S	N	t^a
Number of Deviations from the Mean 1st Rating	6.667	2.249	30	--
Number of Deviations from the Mean 2nd Rating	5.633	3.045	30	--
Change in Number of Deviations from the Mean	-1.033	2.539	30	$t=2.226^b$

[a] = the critical value of t for 29 degrees of freedom is 2.045.

[b] = significant at the .05 level.

As seen in Table 11, the computed t value exceeds the critical t value, revealing significantly fewer deviations. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected as being untenable. We can conclude that problem children received significantly fewer deviations from the mean on the behavior rating scale on the second rating than they did on the first rating.

The fact that the problem children did have fewer deviations from the mean on the behavior rating scale at the end of the school

year than when they were first rated would appear to be attributed to the treatment effect. Also, it should be noted that at the end of the year when the problem child was no longer a threat to the teacher, the classroom teacher could have unconsciously rated him more generously on the rating scale.

In this study, sex, IQ, and age were collected to describe the participants.

Of the thirty problem children, twenty-five were boys, and five were girls. Of the seventy non-problem children, thirty-two were boys, and thirty-eight were girls.

The average IQ for the problem children was 104.067. For the non-problem children, the average IQ was 116.471.

The average age for problem children was 145.567 months. For the non-problem children, the average was 150.700.

There was no significant correlation between these factors (sex, IQ, and age) and the dependent variables.

SUMMARY

This chapter has reviewed the findings of the data for this study under the hypotheses to be investigated. These hypotheses pertained to the following five variables: (1) grade-point average, (2) paragraph meaning, (3) arithmetic computation, (4) grading in the subject of the designating teacher, (5) behavior.

The data for the experimental group were analyzed by employing the Student t-test for correlated samples to test for a significant mean gain in the dependent variable measures. The control group was

used as a secondary comparison. The .05 level of significance was adopted for all of the hypothesis testing.

Four null hypotheses concerned with grade-point average, paragraph meaning, arithmetic computation, and behavior were rejected. One null hypothesis concerned with the grade in the subject of the designating teacher was accepted.

For a secondary comparison, an analysis was made of the gain scores of non-problem children in relation to grade-point average, paragraph meaning, and arithmetic computation. Although both problem and non-problem groups showed significant gains, there was no significant difference between the gains of each group. Although a slight disparity of norming existed in relation to the Stanford Achievement Test, it was assumed that the timing of the testing as administered in this study would be acceptable for using the scoring dates as presented in the testing manual of the Stanford Achievement Test.

It should be noted that the gains in this study may not be attributed solely to the effects of Reality Therapy and the contractual agreement. There is a possibility that the instrumentation effect and the treatment effect are inextricably combined in some unknown proportion. In other words, since both the treatment group and the non-treatment group in this study showed gains, the school curriculum or the instructional practices or both in this middle school tend to increase scores in this particular instrument.

With two variables, no secondary comparison was available: the grade in the subject of the designating teacher and a behavior rating scale. It was noted that while problem children made a

significant gain for the year in their grade-point average, they did not make a significant gain in the grade of their designating teacher. The number of deviations from the mean on a behavior rating scale decreased significantly.

There was a minimal correlation between sex, IQ, age and the dependent variables.

Chapter 5 will present a summary, conclusions, and recommendations for further study.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to determine the effectiveness of involving each designated problem child in a middle school with his counselor, teacher, and parents(s) in a contractual agreement, based upon Glasser's Reality Therapy and tailored to this child's individual needs, for the purpose of improving his behavior and achievement.

In this chapter, the researcher has presented: (1) a summary of the study, (2) conclusions relating to hypotheses, (3) subjective impressions gained by the researcher, (4) implications of this study, and (5) recommendations for further study.

SUMMARY OF THIS STUDY

A summary of this study includes: (1) setting, (2) procedure, (3) findings from the data, and (4) limitations.

Setting

The setting of this study was in a middle school, grades six, seven, and eight, in Northern New Jersey. Each grade has a school counselor who remains with the class during its three-year stay in this school.

The study was concerned with two groups in this middle school:

problem children and non-problem children. The problem children had been designated as such by their classroom teacher by means of the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale. The non-problem group was composed of three intact homerooms, one at each grade level, which most closely approximated the school mean grade level in terms of the Stanford Achievement Test scores (Paragraph Meaning and Arithmetic Computation subtests).

Procedure

The study was undertaken and completed within one school year. At the beginning of the school year, 1972-1973, the three counselors contacted each one of their grade-level teachers who taught year-long subjects and asked him to notify the grade counselor as soon as he detected a problem child in his class. Woody's description of the problem child was used.[1]

When a classroom teacher reported the name of a problem child in his classroom, the counselor asked that teacher to fill out a Survey Sheet, a routine procedure in this school, and to rate the child on a Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale. Children described as problem children by the classroom teacher on or before December 22, 1972, and scoring at least one standard deviation from the mean on at least three of the eleven dimensions on the rating scale became a part of this study.

---

[1] Robert H. Woody, Behavioral Problem Children In The Schools (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1969), p. 7.

The treatment consisted of:

1. a meeting of the counselor, the problem child, and his teacher and parent(s).
2. the use of Reality Therapy and a contractual agreement to help the problem child take the responsibility for improving his behavior and achievement.

Findings from the Data

In this investigation, five dependent variables were examined: (1) grade-point average, (2) paragraph meaning, (3) arithmetic computation, (4) a behavior rating scale, and (5) a subject grade. For comparative purposes, three measures were obtained for the non-problem children: paragraph meaning, arithmetic computation, and grade-point average. To describe the participants more fully in this study, the following additional data were collected: sex, IQ, and age.

Testing instruments used were the Stanford Achievement Test and the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale. The pretesting of the Paragraph Meaning and the Arithmetic Computation subtests of the Stanford Achievement Test was a part of the school testing program the first of October, 1972. The posttesting of these two subtests was scheduled for the first of June, 1973, in three intact homerooms, one at each grade level, for non-problem children, and in small groups for problem children. All testing was administered by the grade counselors. The classroom teacher who had designated the problem child as such rated him on the rating scale as soon as the designation was made (before December 22, 1972) and again at the end of the same school year.

The data for the experimental group was analyzed by employing

the Student t-test for correlated samples to test for a significant mean gain for the dependent variables of this study. The non-experimental group was used as a secondary comparison. The .05 level of statistical significance was used for the tests of the null hypotheses.

Limitations

Certain precautions to the generalizing of this study should be observed as follows:

1. This study was limited to one school year in one middle school in one school district.
2. This study was limited to the following designation of problem children at each grade level: 23 at the sixth grade, 4 at the seventh grade, and 3 at the eighth grade.
3. This study was limited to three school counselors who had had no previous experience in using Glasser's Reality Therapy and a contractual agreement with problem children.
4. The findings of this study should be limited to a predominantly Caucasian similar socio-economic setting.

CONCLUSIONS RELATING TO HYPOTHESES

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of three school counselors in a middle school involving problem children with their teacher and parents in a contractual agreement, based upon Glasser's Reality Therapy and tailored to the individual child's own needs, for the purpose of improving his behavior and achievement. A

group of non-problem children was used for a secondary comparison.

Hypothesis Relating to Grade-Point Average

The findings from the data in this study supported the hypothesis that problem children designated as such on a behavior rating scale and involved in a contractual agreement will receive a significantly higher grade-point average in the fourth quarter than that received in the first quarter of the same school year.

The data also noted that non-problem children who had not received the treatment employed for problem children received a significantly higher grade-point average in the fourth quarter than that received during the first quarter of the same school year.

While both groups showed a significant gain, the problem children did not make a significantly higher gain than did the non-problem children. Without the treatment, the problem children may have made no gain. It is possible that teachers in this middle school give commensurately higher grades in the fourth quarter than in the first quarter.

Hypothesis Relating to Paragraph Meaning

The analysis of the data in this study supported the hypothesis that problem children designated as such on a behavior rating scale and involved in a contractual agreement scored significantly higher on the spring norms in paragraph meaning than they did on the fall norms of the same school year. Non-problem children who had not received the treatment also scored significantly higher on the spring norms in paragraph meaning than they had on the fall norms of the same

school year.

While both groups showed a significant gain, the problem children did not make a significantly higher gain than did the non-problem children.

It would seem that during this study there was a tendency for children in this middle school to score higher on the Paragraph Meaning subtest of the Stanford Achievement Test in the spring than in the fall of the same school year.

Hypothesis Relating to Arithmetic Computation

The data supported the hypothesis that problem children designated as such on a behavior scale and involved in a contractual agreement will score significantly higher on the spring norms in arithmetic computation than they did on the fall norms of the same school year. The findings showed that non-problem children also scored significantly higher on the spring norms in arithmetic computation than they had on the fall norms of the same school year.

Both groups showed a significant gain, but the problem children did not make a significantly higher gain than did the non-problem children.

As with the Paragraph Meaning subtest, there appears to be a tendency for children in this school to score higher on the Arithmetic Computation subtest of the Stanford Achievement Test in the spring than in the fall of the same school year.

Hypothesis Relating to the Grade in the Subject of the Designating Teacher

The findings did not support the hypothesis that problem children involved in a contractual agreement will receive a significantly higher grade in the subject of the designating teacher in the fourth quarter than they did in the first quarter of the same school year.

It is interesting to note that while the problem children did not make a significant gain in the subject of the designating teacher, they did make a significant gain in grade-point averages for the year. There is a possibility that at the beginning of the year, the teacher might have graded a problem child according to his effort and to the teacher's estimate of his ability. At the end of the year, the child's grade might have been comparable in value to peer grades. This would be in accord with the grading philosophy in this particular school, that a grade is to be individualized in terms of a child's ability and effort.

Hypothesis Relating to Behavior

The data did show that problem children involved in a contractual agreement would receive significantly fewer deviations on the same behavior rating scale at the end of the year than when they were first rated earlier in the same school year.

The improvement in the behavior of problem children may have been due to the treatment. There is also the possibility that at the beginning of the year, problem children could have been a threat to the designating teacher; at the end of the year, there may have been no threat since the year was over, and the once-designated problem child

would no longer be with the teacher. Hence, it may have been easier for the teacher to refrain from extreme ratings on the behavior scale.

SUBJECTIVE IMPRESSIONS GAINED BY THE RESEARCHER

Subjective impressions gained from the judgment of the researcher were not provided for in the original planning of this study. However, soon after the researcher became involved with a teacher, a problem child, his parents, and the other counselors, positive factors appeared as well as unplanned-for reactions that provoked discussion and thought among the counselors. These will be discussed under the following headings: (1) the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale, (2) Reality Therapy, (3) the contractual agreement. Because of the nature of these discussions, there will be some overlapping. Each section cannot be rigidly isolated from the other two; on the contrary, the researcher felt that the interplay of the rating scale, the therapy, and the contractual agreement was an asset.

The Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale

The administration in this middle school was not actively involved in this study. The researcher did not want the teachers to feel by any chance that this way of working with the problem child was being imposed upon the faculty by the administration. At the beginning of the 1972-1973 school year, the researcher, a sixth grade counselor, met with the other two grade-level counselors. It was agreed that a common problem existed for the counselors, how to find and help the problem child at each of the three grade levels in this middle school. A

weekly meeting of the counselors was planned, to share progress, reactions, and possible problems. This weekly meeting was quickly supplemented by almost daily brief, informal meetings. None of the counselors had previously used this rating scale, this therapy, and this contractual agreement.

Teachers of year-long subjects were individually contacted by the grade-level counselors within two or three weeks after school started. The approach was simply stated, the essence being: "The counselors are concerned with the problem child in our school. We are interested in working out a new technique, and we need your help. As the classroom teacher, you will probably recognize the problem child sooner than anyone else in the building. When you detect him, please give his name to me." At this point, the counselor used Woody's definition to describe the problem child. With few exceptions, the teacher nodded his head in agreement and voluntarily responded: "Yes, that sounds right."

The teachers apparently were interested, although a few immediately said, "I always handle my own problems." The counselors accepted this statement and made no comment, since this was the right of the individual teacher, to express himself and state his manner of handling the problem child.

When a teacher reported a name, the counselor asked that teacher to fill out a Survey Sheet to give a quick picture of how the teacher saw the child, and a Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale to show how the teacher saw the child in comparison with the other children in the classroom. The researcher had chosen this rating scale as a measuring instrument for three reasons: (1) it is dignified

and contains no possibly embarrassing items for the teacher to rate, (2) it is easily and quickly scored, (3) it gives the teacher an opportunity to see how the problem child compares with non-problem children.

The manual for this rating scale had noted that a one month observation was usually sufficient time for the classroom teacher to detect the problem child and use the scale. In this study, names were reported at the following time:

September - 1 name
October - 12 names
November - 13 names
December - 4 names

While this scale was designed for use by teachers in their classroom experience and was not intended to reflect upon their effectiveness as teachers, the counselors felt the scale might possibly be a threat to some teachers. To counteract such a threat, the counselors emphasized the fact that only the classroom teacher was able to detect this problem child, and thus his rating was valuable. No teacher involved in this study felt the time spent in rating was a problem; in fact, the majority were interested in seeing the overall picture after the counselor had scored the scale.

The request of the counselors to consider the "now" behavior fell in line with the rating instructions of this scale, with Glasser's Reality Therapy, and with the current unwritten but often stated philosophy of the teachers in this middle school--that is, when the child enters the classroom at the beginning of the year, the teacher

usually accepts him as he is and does not immediately read his past records; eventually, if problems are noted, the teacher then reads the permanent records for a clue as to a possible reason or answer.

After the counselor had scored the scale, he discussed it with the teacher. The concensus of stated opinions was: "Interesting. Dignified. Easy to rate. Gives me a review, too, of the whole picture."

When the teacher was asked at the end of the year to rate the child a second time, he accepted comfortably. No teacher asked to see the original rating for a comparison. This scale was used only by the classroom teacher who had designated the problem child. It was neither discussed with, nor seen by, any other memebers of the faculty, the problem child, or his parent(s).

The most frequently checked dimension, in both pre- and post-ratings, was Classroom Disturbance; the least frequently checked was Achievement Anxiety. In addition to the eleven dimensions on this rating scale, there were three Additional Items to be checked by the classroom teacher:

	Pre-Rating	Post-Rating
Unable change	25*	18
Quits	24	20
Slow Work	22	18

*The number denotes the number of deviations beyond the first standard deviation from the mean.

At the end of the study, the counselors felt this scale was a most satisfactory means by which the classroom teacher could conven-

iently, comfortably, and accurately describe the problem child.

Reality Therapy

The three counselors had never used Glasser's Reality Therapy as such, although many of his suggestions had been used by both counselors and teachers. One counselor, the researcher, had attended a Glasser general meeting at Stagg High School in Stockton, California, in May, 1970. She had also attended an all-day seminar conducted by Glasser at Hunter College, New York City, in June, 1973. All three counselors were acquainted with Glasser's publications and were interested in his approach and principles.

Glasser himself has claimed that anyone with a willingness to be involved can use this therapy. The seven principles involved, as reviewed in Chapter 2 of this study, are stated in simple terms. However, the paucity of literature involving the use of Reality Therapy by counselors was not reassuring to the counselors in this study. They wondered if this therapy would work in the middle school, with these problem children, with these teachers and parents.

When a counselor reviewed a scored rating scale with the involved teacher, he explained the manner in which the conference with the problem student and his parent(s) would be held and reviewed the principles of Reality Therapy. When the counselor telephoned the parent(s) of the problem child and invited them to come to school, he used the Reality Therapy approach, that is, showing concern for and interest in the child and a willingness to be involved in a plan to help the child. This tended to counteract the parent's first reaction, "What's wrong?"

At the conference, the participants sat in a small circle. In the presence of some defensiveness or uncertainty on the part of those present, it was necessary that the counselor take the initiative in starting the conference. Reality Therapy provided a direction. Each counselor used this therapy by developing a technique comfortable to his own style. The seventh and eighth grade counselors employed a somewhat formal style. The sixth grade counselor, the researcher, used an informal approach to relieve the atmosphere. The following is a general outline of what happened at a conference, each step paralleling a principle of Reality Therapy:

1. "Fred,[2] we're all here because we are interested in you and concerned about your behavior and achievement."

2. "In fact, your teacher feels your behavior is getting in the way of your learning this year."

   (At any point, Fred or his parents or his teacher is welcome to say how he feels or to add anything he wishes. Inevitably, Fred or his parents will inquire, "You've looked at the past school records?" Counselor or teacher replies, "No, we're only interested in your behavior and achievement right now.")

3. The teacher evaluates the child's behavior in the classroom and his achievement. (There is always an opportunity for Fred and/or his parents to discuss the matter, perhaps bringing in the home situation. When there is a tendency to wander to past action, the counselor takes the responsibility for focusing the attention back to the present.)

4. The next step is to work out a plan on paper for Fred to change his behavior and achievement. As the conversation develops and ideas are offered, the counselor is using the contract form: "As we think this through, let me jot down your ideas so we won't forget them." (Again, each counselor develops a technique comfortable to him.)

---

[2] A fictitious name.

5. When the conversation ends, the counselor explains: "I've been writing down your suggestions. Let me read them." (Again, here is an opportunity for restructuring of ideas or sequences. The child often has good ideas and seems to enjoy taking an active part in the planning.) "We all seem to agree this is a good plan. I agree; so I'm going to sign. Do you agree to these terms, Fred?" (Fred does, takes the pen, and signs. Then the parent(s) and teacher sign.) "We've all signed, Fred, because we're all with you. Now, it's your responsibility to carry it out."

6. Inevitably, Fred asks, "If it doesn't work, what will happen?"
   Counselor replies, "We won't accept any excuses."

7. "We will start again."

While on the average only four such conferences were held for each child, doors to communication started opening. Parents would telephone back or informally drop into the office, to voice appreciation for the counselor and teacher caring enough to take the time to be involved. The problem child became more comfortable, in varying degrees to be sure, with the counselor and teacher and parent(s). Apprehensive, defensive, or embarrassed at first, he realized the genuine interest of the counselor and teacher, and saw the home-school team at work in his favor.

Reality Therapy offers teachers an approach to working with parents, a cooperative support for the child. As teachers become acquainted with the home situation during the conference, in which parents relax, they invariably become more sensitive to Fred as a human being, to his needs, to his right to dignity.

Contractual Agreement

There is nothing new about a contract, but a written contract is fairly new to counseling. In this study it was used to spell out on

paper what is usually "understood":

1. the problem
2. the purpose of the contractual agreement
3. the goal
4. how to accomplish this goal, starting with the "now" behavior
5. future dates for evaluation

This contractual agreement was not couched in sophisticated terms. It was spelled out in simple, direct language contributed by the teacher, the problem child, the parent(s). The important point was that its terms were formulated and agreed to by all present, and the learner was involved.

At first, the counselors were slightly concerned about the possibility of a lack of ease in such a situation. Would it be threatening? Would it "get off the ground"? Would those present actually participate? The first conference eased all apprehension. Once the counselor had set the stage with a Reality Therapy approach, all present seemed to welcome this opportunity to sit down together, to share, to offer support in a dignified, caring manner. No problems were encountered in getting the parents to school, starting a conversation, signing the contract. The interest and support did not stop here, but continued throughout the year with much intracommunication.

Reality Therapy opened the door to making parents feel they were needed and welcome to become involved with the school. Parents and teachers commented throughout the year upon the "constructive way" of handling the situation, with a conference and contract in which all concerned participated. Problem children who had never visited the

counselor, except upon the counselor's request, started dropping by the office "just to talk if you have the time." All participants felt comfortable when they realized there would be no publicity, no name lists to be turned into the office, no write-ups to be placed in the permanent record. Several questions were asked about continuing the conferences and contract through the following school year. The counselor's answer was "If a situation presents itself next year, you [Fred] will be older and the situation might be different, so we could start from that point."

At the end of the school year, the three counselors reviewed their reactions to this experiment, by way of thinking through the following questions:

1. Why did classroom teachers hesitate to designate a problem child?

   The following responses were considered:

   a. a possible threat to professionalism

   b. extra work

   c. something new

   d. because of past legal situations involving the teacher and school

   e. "how involved" is involvement?

   f. wanted to handle problem children in their own way

   g. perhaps counselors should learn to work more consistently with classroom teachers in handling student situations and acquire teachers' confidence.

2. If you were to repeat this study, what would you do differently?

   The following were suggested:

   a. two counselors: use "agreement" and simplify terms.

one counselor: would do the same as this year

b. ask the child to write the agreement in the same setting

c. again, contact the teacher individually; don't make a "project" of it

d. all three counselors with this year's experience would feel easier from the start

e. one counselor would have several meetings before he introduced the contract

f. one counselor would work more with teachers and child, and less with parents-- "they mean well, but their relationship with the child is not always good."

3. Generally, when was the first indication of a problem mentioned on the child's record?

The counselors discovered the first indication was:

a. in kindergarten or first grade

b. when the child first entered the school system

c. comment usually was:
"trouble adjusting to peers"
"behavior in way of achievement"

4. What recommendation would you make for use of this contract and Reality Therapy with problem children?

The counselors unanimously agreed that this treatment could be used profitably in the third grade, before behavior patterns become too set, especially if the third grade was ungraded.

In addition, the counselors gave an overall look at stated results of the contractual agreement:

1. The Problem

a. Most frequently stated:

not respectful to others

playing in class, not listening, not working

homework not done

won't accept responsibility, relies upon others

not organized

b. Often stated:

annoys others

doesn't try to understand, won't ask for help

can't get along with the kids

not getting A's and B's

c. Occasionally stated:

slow

quits

blames others

needs approval

have my "up and down" days

2. Purpose of the Contractual Agreement:

behave myself

change and achieve more

be a good kid, be a better kid

realize my potential

A's or even B's

graduate

3. Goal:

be a good kid

behave

have a changed attitude

produce, put my potential to work daily

work on my own

learn how to get along with others, even if I don't especially like them

4. How to Accomplish This Goal:

when I "act up," the teacher nods, I take the pass and report to the front office; then see the teacher after school, when we'll talk about what happened

ask for help: raise hand, go after school or before school for help

organize my notebook so I'lll know where things are

copy my homework in assignment section of notebook; parents will check it, but not correct it

learn to follow directions at school and home; "my teachers and parents must speak carefully so I'll understand"

come to class organized

budget my time, so I'll have time to study and play

I'll have the courage to act, even if it's a mistake

respect the right of other kids to listen and work; they must respect mine, too

(When parents asked how they could help, it was generally agreed:

1. listen to the student, but don't accept excuses
2. let him take the responsibility, even if it occasionally means a lower grade
3. let him learn to ask for help
4. be understanding, but go easy on sympathy.)

5. Setting future dates:

Inevitably, the child would suggest a date or schedule a check-up time with the counselor and/or teacher.

Parents suggested that they call counselor or teacher.

Teacher suggested that he talk with the counselor, the child, or parent, or all, as it seemed appropriate.

In the follow-up conferences, the counselors first examined the progress made and then room for improvement. Comments from these conferences included:

1. Parents -- I like to see him take the responsibility, but it's hard for me to back off.
   Things are better at home, too.
   Grades not that much better.

2. Teachers -- He's more relaxed, more comfortable.
   Homework's coming in; not well done, but it's a start.
   He still needs help on a 1-2-3-4 structural basis; we're working on that.

3. Children -- Making friends; kids aren't picking on me so much.
   I can depend upon myself, but it doesn't always work.
   I'm not clowning now, but no miracles on my report card yet.
   I guess I do care about what other kids think of me.
   Getting organized is easy; staying organized is hard, but it does save time so I can do the things I want to do.
   Keeps me out of trouble, too.

Summary

In assessing the entire experiment, the researcher felt the most important accomplishment was establishing a climate by means of Reality Therapy and the contractual agreement, whereby:

1. the home and school were able to work comfortably with the problem child, with respect for all concerned.

2. the problem child did have an opportunity to face his problem and to be involved from the start in plans to help himself.

3. the problem child was able to understand that he alone must take the responsibility for his actions and growth, supported by the caring of his family and school.

IMPLICATIONS OF THIS STUDY

The researcher has reviewed the results of this study with encouragement.

The significant gains of problem children in this middle school in grade-point average, paragraph meaning, arithmetic computation, and behavior would indicate that Reality Therapy and the contractual agreement may offer a means of help to the problem child in the middle school for improving his achievement and behavior. The question does arise: Could the problem child have improved his achievement and behavior without the contractual agreement and Reality Therapy? This question cannot be answered directly at this time. However, he did make a significant gain in both achievement and behavior, and a greater gain (although not significantly greater) than the non-problem child in three of the dependent variables: grade-point average, paragraph meaning, and arithmetic computation. If this study were to be repeated, half of the problem children could be given this particular treatment and the other half could be given the usual attention. With a comparable control group, the value of the treatment could be assessed more accurately.

Significant gains were not made in the subject of the designating teacher. The researcher has noted, however, that significant gains were made in the grade-point average of the problem child. The question arises: Was the first grade given by the designating teacher a true grade--that is, was it equal in value to similar grades in the classroom

of this teacher, or was it a grade individualized in terms of what the teacher believed to be the potential and the effort of the problem child? Was the second grade equal in value to similar grades given by the designating teacher? If the pluses (no minuses are given in this middle school) had been counted, would the problem child have shown some increase in gain in the grade of the designating teacher? If the study were to be replicated, the counselor might well share the teacher's interpretation of both the first and the last grade of the problem child.

In this investigation, the number of designated problem children varied from grade to grade. Was this variance due to the fact that three counselors were involved? The Encyclopedia of Educational Research has noted that

> When several counselors are used in a study, it is highly likely that there may be significant differences among them, which differences may tend to attenuate outcomes.[3]

Also, since the majority of problem children were designated by sixth grade classroom teachers, there is a possibility that the sixth grade in this middle school operates as a school within a school, thus giving security to sixth grade teachers and establishing a comfortable working rapport with the sixth grade counselor. Too, there is a possibility that some of the seventh and eighth grade teachers in this middle school are secondary school oriented and feel that the treatment used in this study should be reserved for lower grades.

---

[3]Buford Stefflre and Kenneth Matheny, "Counseling Theory," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, ed. Robert L. Ebel (4th ed.; London: The Macmillan Company, 1969), p. 263.

In this experiment, the counselors set a realistic goal for themselves, incorporating Reality Therapy and a contractual agreement as a method of working with problem children within the regular school day. Moving away from one-to-one counseling, they were able to act as consultants, utilizing the experience of the classroom teacher and involving problem children and their parents in planning a way to help the child. This approach supports Ginzberg's current encounter with guidance thinking--that is, if counselors are going to interfere in peoples' lives, they should know what they are doing, they should involve the learner and his parents, they should make use of the classroom teachers, and they should take a look at research.[4]

In an introduction to Barriers and Hazards in Counseling, Wrenn feels that "the counselor needs desperately first to 'look at himself', with open eyes and an understanding heart."[5] In this study, the counselor had to look at himself and make a decision, do I want to be involved and can I be involved?

In this investigation, the researcher has met the three needs as proposed in Chapter 1:

1. a need for the counselor to design an action program.
2. a need for the counselor to act as a facilitator of communication, to help the problem child by means of a contractual agreement involving counselor, problem child,

---

[4]Eli Ginzberg, "The Interface Between Education and Guidance," Phi Delta Kappan, LIV (February, 1973), 381-84.

[5]Dorothy E. Johnson and Mary J. Vestermark, Barriers and Hazards in Counseling (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1970), p. v.

teacher, and parents.

3. a need for the counselor to help the problem child in the middle school.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Although this study was limited in time to one school year and in use to three counselors, the results were encouraging enough to recommend further research and experimentation.

1. Responding to a frequent comment from teachers, problem children and their parents, "This should have happened earlier!", a replication of this study at the third grade level would be a worthwhile investigation.
2. A longitudinal study, covering the three middle school years of the problem child, so designated in the sixth grade, should be valuable in determining if the gain made in the sixth grade lasts or increases.
3. A replication of this study, taking into account the economic background and education of parents of problem children, would be of interest and value to counselors and teachers, as they work with the child.
4. The researcher recommends that a study be initiated in which parents' ratings of their problem children on a behavior rating scale be studied and compared with the ratings of classroom teachers on a similar behavior rating scale.
5. A replication of this study in three middle schools

with varying ethnic, economic, geographical backgrounds would be of value to counselors and teachers.

6. To assess more carefully the value of the treatment in this study, the contractual agreement and Reality Therapy, the researcher recommends that this study be replicated, with half of the problem children being assigned to the contractual agreement and Reality Therapy treatment, and the other half of problem children being assigned to the counselor's customary treatment.

SUMMARY

The researcher has summarized this study, by reviewing the setting, procedure, findings from the data, and limitations.

Conclusions relating to the five hypotheses have been made, concerning significant gains of problem children in grade-point average, paragraph meaning, arithmetic computation, and behavior. Although not a part of the original design, subjective impressions of the researcher were discussed, since they were not measurable in this study.

The place of this study in related literature was reviewed. As a result of this investigation, the researcher was able to offer recommendations for further research.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

A. BOOKS

Alexander, William M., and others. The Emergent Middle School. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1968.

Barnes, Fred P. Research for the Practitioner in Education. Washington, D. C.: Department of Elementary School Principals, 1964.

Becker, Wesley C., Don R. Thomas, and Douglas Carnine. Reducing Behavior Problems: An Operant Conditioning Guide for Teachers. Urbana, Illinois: National Laboratory on Early Childhood Education, November, 1969.

Bower, Eli M. Early Identification of Emotionally Handicapped Children in School. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, 1960.

Cook, David R. (ed.). Guidance for Education in Revolution. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1971.

Dinkmeyer, Don C. Guidance and Counseling in the Elementary School: Readings in Theory and Practice. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968.

Dreikurs, Rudolf, Bernice Bronie Grunwald, and Floyd C. Pepper. Maintaining Sanity in the Classroom: Illustrated Teaching Techniques. New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1971.

Ebel, Robert L. (ed.). Encyclopedia of Educational Research. 4th ed. London: Macmillan Company, 1969.

Elkind, David. A Sympathetic Understanding of the Child Six to Sixteen. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1971.

Evraiff, William. Helping Counselors Grow Professionally. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968.

Fargo, George A., Charlene Behrns, and Patricia Nolen (eds.). Behavior Modification in the Classroom. Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1970.

Faust, Verna. The Counselor-Consultant in the Elementary School. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1968.

Froehlich, Clifford P., and Kenneth B. Hoyt. Guidance Testing. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1959.

Gammons, Homer P. Common Sense in Guidance. West Nyack, New York: Parker Publishing Company, 1969.

Gardner, John W. Excellence. New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1961

_____. No Easy Victories. New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1968.

Ginott, Haim. Teacher and Child--A Book for Parents and Teachers. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1972.

Glasser, William. The Effect of School Failure on the Life of a Child. Washington, D. C.: National Association of Elementary School Principals, 1971.

_____. The Identity Society. New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1972.

_____. Mental Health or Mental Illness? New York: Harper and Brothers, 1960.

_____. Reality Therapy. New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1965.

_____. Schools Without Failure. New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1969.

Gnagey, William J. Controlling Classroom Misbehavior. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1965.

Gorman, Alfred H. Teachers and Learners: The Interactive Process of Education. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1969.

Gross, Ronald (ed.). The Teacher and The Taught. New York: Dell Publishing Company, 1963.

Hayman, John L., Jr. Research in Education. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1960.

Holt, John. How Children Grow. New York: Pitman Publishing Corporation, 1964.

Jersild, Arthur T. Psychology of Adolescence. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1963.

Johnson, Dorothy E., and Mary J. Vestermark. Barriers and Hazards in Counseling. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1970.

Kough, Jack, and Robert F. DeHaan. Teachers' Guidance Handbook, Part I. Identifying Children Who Need Help. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1955.

Krasner, L., and L. P. Ullman (eds.). Research in Behavior Modification. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965.

Krumboltz, John D., and Helen Brandhorst Krumboltz. Changing Children's Behavior. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972.

_____ and Carl E. Thoresen. Behavioral Counseling. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1969.

Litwack, Lawrence, Russell Getson, and Glenn Saltzman (eds.). Research in Counseling. Itasca, Illinois: F. E. Peacock Publishers, Inc., 1968.

Lyman, Howard B. Test Scores and What They Mean. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963.

McCarthy, Robert J. The Ungraded Middle School. West Nyack, New York: Parker Publishing Company, 1972.

The Middle School: An Idea Whose Time Has Come. New Jersey State Department of Education, 1972.

Middle School: A Report of Two Conferences of the Definition of Its Purpose, Its Spirit, and Its Shape, 1962. Mt. Kisco, New York: Bedford Public Schools, 1962.

Peters, Herman J., and Bruce Shertzer. Guidance: Program Development and Management. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1969.

Phillips, E. Lakin, Daniel N. Wiener, and Norris G. Haring. Discipline, Achievement, and Mental Health. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960.

Rogers, Carl R. Freedom To Learn. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1969.

Rosenthal, Robert, and Lenore Jacobson. Pygmalion In The Classroom. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1968.

Sarason, Irwin G., Edward M. Glaser, and George A. Fargo. Reinforcing Productive Classroom Behavior. New York: Behavioral Publications, Inc., 1972.

Silberman, Charles E. Crisis in the Classroom. New York: Random House, 1970.

Smith, H. M., and L. O. Eckerson. Guidance Services in Elementary Schools: A National Survey. Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1966.

Stradley, William E. A Practical Guide to the Middle School. New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1971.

Tolbert, E. L. Research for Teachers and Counselors. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Burgess Publishing Company, 1967.

Tyler, Leona E. The Work of the Counselor. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1969.

Van Dalen, Deobold B. Understanding Educational Research. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966.

Van Hoose, William H., Mildred Peters, and George E. Leonard. The Elementary School Counselor. Detroit: Wayne State University Press, 1967.

Weitz, Henry. Behavior Change Through Guidance. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1964.

Whiteley, John M. (ed.). Research in Counseling: Evaluation and Refocus. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1967.

Wickman, E. K. Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes. New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1928.

Woody, Robert H. Behavioral Problem Children in The Schools. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1969.

Wrenn, Charles Gilbert. The Counselor in a Changing World. Washington, D. C.: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1962.

B. PERIODICALS

"Accountability: Performance Goals Cut Down Complaints and Confusion," Nation's Schools, XCI (January, 1973), 71.

Ahrens, Maurice R. "How To Make Innovations Succeed--or Fail," Childhood Education, IL (January, 1973), 170-173.

Andrews, Joseph K. "The Results of a Pilot Program to Train Teachers in the Classroom Application of Behavior Modification Techniques," Journal of School Psychology, VIII (1970), 37-42.

Aubrey, Roger F. "And Never The Twain Shall Meet: Counselor Training and School Realities," The School Counselor, XX (September, 1972), 16-24.

Batezel, W. George. "The Middle School: Philosophy, Program, Organization," The Clearing House, XLII (April, 1968), 487-490.

Beilin, H. "Teachers' and Clinicians' Attitudes Toward the Behavior Problems of Children: A Reappraisal," Child Development, XXX (1959), 9-25.

Brown, James C., and David G. Teague. "Behavior Modification in the School: A Team Approach," The School Counselor, XVIII (November, 1970), 111-116.

Campbell, Robert E. "Accountability and Stone Soup," Phi Delta Kappan, LIII (November, 1971), 176-178.

Carlson, Jon, and G. Roy Mayer. "Fading: A Behavioral Procedure To Increase Independent Behavior," The School Counselor, XVIII (January, 1971), 193-197.

Christensen, Oscar C. "Education: A Model for Counseling in the Elementary School," Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, IV (October, 1969), 12-19.

Cline, David W. "The Psychiatrist, The Counselor, The School," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, V (December, 1972), 251-256.

Dash, Edward F. "Contract for Grades," The Clearing House, XLV (December, 1970), 231-235.

Demsch, Berthold. "IMPACT: A Practical Approach for Reaching the School Child," The School Counselor, XVII (November, 1969), 101-105.

Dinkmeyer, Don. "The Counselor as Consultant to the Teacher," The School Counselor, XIV (May, 1967), 294-297.

Eboch, Sidney C. "The Value of Field Studies in Education," Theory Into Practice, VI (April, 1967), 69-72.

Eckerson, Louise O. "White House Conference on Children: Implications for Counselors as Change Agents," Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, VI (May, 1972), 239-244.

_____. "The White House Conference: Tips or Taps for Counselors?" The Personnel and Guidance Journal, L (November, 1971), 167-174.

"An Education Experiment That Could Affect Your Children," Good Housekeeping, February, 1971, 158-159.

Ehrle, Raymond A. "Performance Contracting for Human Services," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, IL (October, 1970), 119-122.

Elkind, Joel. "The Middle School Muddle," The Clearing House, XLIV (March, 1970), 400.

Engelhardt, Leah, Beth Sulzer, and Micael Altekruse. "The Counselor as a Consultant in Eliminating Out-of-Seat Behavior," Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, V (March, 1971), 196-204.

Frey, George T. "Improving School-Community Relations," Today's Education, LX (January, 1971), 14-17.

Gamsky, Neal R. "Action Research and the School Counselor," The School Counselor, XVIII (September, 1970), 36-42.

Gilmore, John V. "Parental Counseling and Academic Achievement," Journal of Education, CIV (February, 1967), 46-49.

Ginzberg, Eli. "The Interface Between Education and Guidance," Phi Delta Kappan, LIV (February, 1973), 381-384.

Glavin, John P. "Persistence of Behavior Disorders in Children," Exceptional Children, XXXVIII (January, 1972), 367-376.

Goldman, Leo. "Change? Yes, But How?" The Personnel and Guidance Journal, LI (November, 1972), 170.

Greenwood, Gordon E., William F. Breivogel, and Hattie Bessent. "Some Promising Approaches to Parent Involvement," Theory Into Practice, X (June, 1972), 183-189.

Griffiths, Daniel E. "The Most Significant Educational Research," Today's Education, LXI (April, 1972), 48-51.

Gronert, Richard R. "Combining a Behavioral Approach With Reality Therapy," Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, V (December, 1970), 104-112.

Hays, Donald G. "Responsible Freedom for the School Counselor," The School Counselor, XX (November, 1972), 93-102.

Humes, Charles W. "Accountability: A Base to Guidance," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, LI (September, 1972), 21-26.

Hunter, E. C. "Changes in Teachers' Attitudes Toward Children's Behavior Over the Last Thirty Years," Mental Hygiene, XLI (January, 1957), 3-11.

Hutchinson, Roger L. "The Itinerant Counselor," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, V (November, 1971), 213-214.

Jones, Barbara A., and R. J. Karraker. "The Elementary Counselor and Behavior Modification," Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, IV (October, 1969), 28-33.

King, Mrs. James A. "A Parent's Reaction," Theory Into Practice, IV (October, 1965), 157-158.

Kuschman, William. "On Public School Research," Illinois Schools Journal, L (Winter, 1970), 275-280.

McCright, Mary Lee. "Needed: A More Realistic Role," The School Counselor, XIV (May, 1967), 304-306.

McWhirter, J. Jeffries, and Carolyn Cabanski. "Influencing the Child: A Program for Parents," Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, VII (October, 1972), 26-31.

Miller, William C. "Accountability Demands Involvement," Educational Leadership, XXIX (April, 1972), 617.

Moeller, Georgia B. "The Parent-Student-Teacher Triangle," Today's Education, LX (November, 1971), 40-41.

Morse, William C. "Disturbed Youngsters in the Classroom," Today's Education, LVIII (April, 1969), 31-37.

Moss, Theodore C. "Characteristics of a Good Middle School," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, LV (October, 1971).

Murphy, George Martin. "Plagiarize, Don't Let Another's Work Evade Your Eyes, but Be Sure to Call It Research," The School Counselor, XIII (May, 1966), 233-234.

Patterson, C. H. "The Counselor in the Elementary School," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLVII (June, 1969), 979-987.

Peters, Herman J., and James C. Hansen. "The School Counselor as a Researcher," The School Counselor, VII (March, 1964), 165-170.

Pulvino, Charles C., and Marshall P. Sanborn. "Feedback and Accountability," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, V (September, 1972), 15-20.

Quinn, Paul F. "Rapprochement--The Teacher and the Counselor," The School Counselor, XVI (January, 1969), 170-173.

Randolph, Daniel L. "Behavioral Consultation as a Means of Improving the Quality of a Counseling Program," The School Counselor, XX (September, 1972), 30-35.

Ray, Roberta S., David A. Shaw, and Joseph A. Cobb. "The Work Box: An Innovation in Teaching Attentional Behavior," The School Counselor, XVIII (September, 1970), 15-35.

Rogers, Carl R. "The Interpersonal Relationship: The Core of Guidance," Harvard Educational Review, XXXII (Fall, 1962), 416-429.

Ruebel, Marion A. "Comments on Research, "The National Association of Secondary School Principals, No. 366 (October, 1972), 86-88.

Sciarra, June. "The Researcher Goes To School," Journal of School Psychology, VI (Summer, 1968), 249-253.

Stennett, R. G. "Emotional Handicap in the Elementary Years: Phase or Disease?" American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, XXXVI (1966), 444-449.

Stoffer, Dean L. "Investigation of Positive Behavioral Change As a Function of Genuineness, Non-Possessive Warmth, and Empathetic Understanding," The Journal of Educational Research, LXIII (January, 1970), 224-228.

Stouffer, George A. W., Jr. "Behavior Problems of Children As Viewed by Teachers and Mental Hygienists," Mental Hygiene, XXXVI (April, 1952), 271-285.

Swift, Marshall S., and George Spivack. "Clarifying the Relationship Between Academic Success and Overt Classroom Behavior," Exceptional Children, XXXVI (October, 1969), 99-104.

Thomas, G. Patience, and Betty Ezell. "The Contract as a Counseling Technique," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, LI (September, 1972), 27-31.

Thomson, Scott D. "How To Custom Cut Accountability To Fit The Needs of Students and Parents," Nation's Schools, LXXXIX (May, 1972), 48-49.

Thoresen, Carl E. "Relevance and Research in Counseling," Review of Educational Research, XXXIX (April, 1969), 263-268.

Thornburg, Hershel. "Learning and Maturation in Middle School Age Youth," The Clearing House, XLV (November, 1970), 150-155.

University of Redlands Report, 17 (Summer, 1971).

Urbick, Thelma M., and Douglas R. Gross. "Counselor Education: A Profession on the Move," The Journal of Educational Research, LXIV (April, 1971), 340-344.

Wass, Hannelore. "How Research Can Help To Personalize Education," Educational Leadership, XXIX (December, 1971), 249-251.

Westbrook, Arlen. "Teachers' Recognition of Problem Behavior and Referral of Children to Pupil Personnel Services," The Journal of Educational Research, LXIII (May-June, 1970), 391-394.

Wolf, Elinor K. "The Case for Parent Involvement," Parents' Magazine, XLIV (February, 1969), 40-41.

Zerface, James P., and Walter H. Cox. "School Counselors, Leave Home," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, IL (January, 1971), 371-375.

Ziv, Avner. "Children's Behavior Problems As Viewed By Teachers, Psychologists, and Children," Child Development, XLI (September, 1970), 871-879.

C. UNPUBLISHED WORKS

American School Counselors Association. "Report on Guidance in the Elementary School." 1964. (Mimeographed.)

Anderson, Thomas Hugh. "Are a Student's School-Related Behaviors Dependent Upon What Is Expected of Him?" Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 1970.

Antwarg, Alexander. "The Influence of Systematic Teacher Study of Their Disturbing Pupils on Selected Teacher-Disturbing Pupil Relationships." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, New York University, 1962.

Bergen County (New Jersey) Fact Book. Prepared by Bergen County Advisory Commission on Economic Resources and Development, 1971.

Buys, Christian James. "Effects of Teacher Reinforcement on Classroom Behaviors." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Colorado, 1970.

Dave, R. H. "The Identification and Measurement of Environmental Process Variables That are Related to Educational Achievement." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Chicago, 1963.

Duncan, Lucius Wendell. "Parent-Counselor Conferences and Parent-Child Communications." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, The University of Florida, 1968.

Hawes, Richard Manning. "Reality Therapy in the Classroom." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of the Pacific, 1970.

Keirsey, D. W. "Transactional Casework: A Technology for Inducing Behavior Change." Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the California Association of School Psychologists and Psychometrists, San Francisco, 1965. (Mimeographed, 24 pp.)

Marshall, Doris Lee. "A Comparative Study of Instructional Policies of Middle Schools Administered Respectively by Elementary-Oriented Principals and Secondary-Oriented Principals." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Michigan State University, 1970.

Orlov, Leland G. "An Experimental Study of the Effects of Group Counseling With Behavior Problem Children on the Elementary School Level." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, The Catholic University of America, 1972.

Palmo, Artis J. "The Effect of Group Counseling and Parent-Teacher Consultations on the Classroom Behavior of Elementary School Children." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, West Virginia University, 1971.

Penrose, Gloria Benson. "The Identification and Differentiation of Troublemakers at the Elementary School Level." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of California, Berkeley, 1968.

Roubinek, Darrell LeRoy. "A Comparison of the Attitudes of Elementary School Teachers and School Psychologists Toward the Behavior of Elementary School Children." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Oklahoma State University, 1971.

Scheaf, William Allen. "The Effects of Paired Learning and Glasser-Type Discussions on Two Determinants of Academic Achievement and on Reading Achievement of Male Delinquents." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Case Western Reserve University, 1972.

D. TESTING INSTRUMENTS

Kelley, Truman L., and others. Stanford Achievement Test, Advanced Complete Battery, Forms X, Y. New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., 1964.

_____. Stanford Achievement Test, Intermediate II, Complete Battery, Forms X, Y. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1965.

_____. Stanford Achievement Test, Directions for Administering, Advanced Battery. New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., 1964.

_____. Stanford Achievement Test, Directions for Administering, Intermediate II Battery. New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., 1964.

Spivack, George, and Marshall Swift. Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale. Devon, Pennsylvania: The Devereux Foundation, 1967.

_____. Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale Manual. Devon, Pennsylvania: The Devereux Foundation, 1967.

E. MONOGRAPHS

Lambert, N. The Development and Validation of a Process for Screening Emotionally Handicapped Children in School. California State Department of Education, 1963.

Projection 80. Citizens' Long-Range Planning Committee, January, 1972. Tenafly, New Jersey.

Shaw, M. C. "The Function of Theory in Guidance Programs." Guidance Monograph, Series I. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1968.

F. NEWSPAPERS

Gehret, Kenneth G. "It's Visiting Time Again," The Christian Science Monitor, October 23, 1971, p. 11

_____. "Performance Contracting: How Does It Score?" The Christian Science Monitor, January 3, 1972, p. 9.

Parsons, Cynthia. "Changes at School," The Christian Science Monitor, February 8, 1972, p. 6.

_____. "Do Schools Learn?" The Christian Science Monitor, May 10, 1972, p. 6.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

THE CONTRACTUAL AGREEMENT

A CONTRACTUAL AGREEMENT

Date _____

The Problem

Purpose of the Contractual Agreement

Goal (final performance to be specified)

How to Accomplish This Goal (start with current behavior)

Future Dates for Evaluation

Signed by:
student _____

teacher _____

parent _____

counselor _____

APPENDIX B

SURVEY SHEET

Date _____

To _____

Prior to a student/teacher/parent consultant conference, I would appreciate a brief survey concerning _____ in your _____ period class.

Please return this to me by tomorrow at 3:11, if convenient.

Thank you.

_____

. . . . . .

	Excellent	Good	Average	Poor
Attendance				
Acceptance by peers				
Attitude in class				

	Always	Usually	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
Prepared for class work?					
Doing his best?					
Listens?					
Organized? (book, pencil)					
Participates?					

Any comment you might care to make? _____

_____

APPENDIX C

RAW DATA COLLECTED

FOR THIS STUDY

KEY TO RAW DATA FOR PROBLEM CHILDREN AND NON-PROBLEM CHILDREN

No. = Student

Grade = School grade during 1972-1973 school year.

Age = Age of student, in months, on December 22, 1972.

Sex = Sex of individual student: 1 = male; 2 = female.

IQ = Latest IQ recorded on student's permanent record (usually Otis-Lennon).

Pre = Pretest

Post = Posttest

Par = National stanine of Paragraph Meaning subtest of Stanford Achievement Test
Grade 6: Intermediate II, Forms X, Y
Grade 7: Advanced, Forms X, Y
Grade 8: Advanced, Forms Y, X

Arith = National stanine of Arithmetic Computation subtest of Stanford Achievement Test
Grade 6: Intermediate II, Forms X, Y
Grade 7: Advanced, Forms X, Y
Grade 8: Advanced, Forms Y, X

Dev = Number of ratings beyond 1 standard deviation on the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale--except on Dimensions 7, 10, or 11, where the rating would be below 1 standard deviation.

GPA* = Grade-point average of four basic subjects in 1st and 4th quarters of 1972-73 school year.

Gr* = Grade in 1st and 4th quarters of 1972-73 school year, in subject of designating teacher of problem child.

*For grade-point average and grade, the following values were assigned to grades: A = 4.00; B = 3.00; C = 2.00; D = 1.00; E(F) = 0.00.

Table 12

Raw Data for Problem Children

No.	Grade	Age	Sex	IQ	Pre Par	Post Par	Pre Arith	Post Arith	Pre Dev	Post Dev	1 GPA	4 GPA	1 Gr	4 Gr
01	6	133	2	119	7	8	5	7	08	04	3.00	3.00	3	3
02	6	138	1	135	9	9	7	7	05	03	3.00	3.25	3	3
03	6	139	2	101	5	5	3	3	03	01	1.75	2.00	1	1
04	6	145	2	097	6	2	2	2	10	08	2.50	2.50	3	3
05	6	134	1	117	5	6	5	7	04	01	2.75	2.75	3	2
06	6	147	1	100	4	5	4	5	03	00	1.75	2.00	1	2
07	6	153	1	089	5	6	1	3	04	08	1.00	2.00	1	2
08	6	139	1	097	5	6	4	6	08	08	2.50	2.00	2	2
09	6	148	1	107	4	6	3	6	08	07	2.50	2.00	2	2
10	6	145	2	110	6	5	3	4	06	07	1.50	2.00	1	0
11	6	151	1	094	4	4	4	4	06	05	1.50	1.25	2	1
12	6	143	1	113	1	4	2	4	07	06	1.25	1.25	1	1
13	6	137	1	097	2	4	1	4	07	07	1.00	1.25	1	1
14	6	138	1	114	5	7	4	5	03	03	2.75	3.00	2	3
15	6	144	1	068	3	1	2	1	08	09	0.75	1.25	1	0
16	6	139	1	125	6	6	5	4	04	04	2.50	2.25	2	2
17	6	142	1	103	5	6	4	5	06	06	1.50	2.00	2	2
18	6	139	1	098	4	7	2	5	08	07	0.75	1.25	2	1
19	6	144	1	111	5	7	3	6	07	01	0.20	2.25	2	1
20	6	154	1	075	2	3	2	2	06	08	1.00	1.25	1	1
21	6	135	1	097	5	5	4	5	09	09	1.75	2.00	2	2
22	6	140	1	116	9	8	6	8	05	05	2.50	2.75	3	3
23	6	137	1	101	5	5	2	6	10	09	1.50	2.25	1	2
01	7	150	1	127	7	9	6	8	08	01	2.00	4.00	2	4
02	7	148	1	105	4	4	2	2	10	08	1.00	0.00	1	1
03	7	148	1	100	1	1	2	3	07	08	0.00	0.00	0	0
04	7	147	1	093	3	4	3	4	07	01	1.00	1.00	2	3
01	8	164	2	116	6	6	5	4	11	11	2.25	2.25	2	1
02	8	165	1	096	2	3	2	3	08	06	1.25	1.75	1	2
03	8	181	1	101	2	3	1	1	04	08	0.25	0.25	0	0

Table 13

Raw Data for Non-Problem Children

No.	Grade	Age	Sex	IQ	Pre Par	Post Par	Pre Arith	Post Arith	Pre Dev	Post Dev	1 GPA	4 GPA	1 Gr	4 Gr
01	6	132	2	139	9	9	6	6	-	-	3.25	4.00	-	-
02	6	141	2	103	5	6	4	5	-	-	2.50	3.00	-	-
03	6	136	2	109	5	6	3	4	-	-	2.75	2.75	-	-
04	6	147	2	093	3	4	4	4	-	-	1.75	2.00	-	-
05	6	141	1	112	5	7	4	5	-	-	2.25	2.75	-	-
06	6	140	2	130	7	7	7	6	-	-	3.00	3.50	-	-
07	6	134	2	112	2	7	6	7	-	-	3.50	3.50	-	-
08	6	138	2	116	7	6	5	9	-	-	3.25	3.50	-	-
09	6	139	2	105	4	6	3	5	-	-	3.00	4.00	-	-
10	6	141	2	130	7	8	4	7	-	-	2.75	3.00	-	-
11	6	139	2	118	8	8	5	7	-	-	3.25	3.50	-	-
12	6	143	1	128	9	9	6	6	-	-	3.75	4.00	-	-
13	6	143	1	111	2	3	2	2	-	-	1.50	1.25	-	-
14	6	141	1	121	5	5	4	6	-	-	3.00	4.00	-	-
15	6	138	1	121	7	6	5	4	-	-	3.00	3.00	-	-
16	6	139	1	121	8	6	6	7	-	-	3.50	4.00	-	-
17	6	145	1	114	9	9	4	8	-	-	3.50	4.00	-	-
18	6	143	1	108	5	6	2	3	-	-	2.75	2.50	-	-
19	6	145	1	130	9	9	7	8	-	-	4.00	4.00	-	-
20	6	145	2	100	5	4	1	4	-	-	2.50	2.50	-	-
21	6	146	1	093	2	4	4	3	-	-	2.25	2.00	-	-
22	6	140	2	118	6	3	1	3	-	-	2.50	2.50	-	-
23	6	136	2	120	7	6	5	4	-	-	2.75	2.75	-	-
24	6	140	2	104	6	5	4	4	-	-	2.75	2.75	-	-
25	6	136	1	125	7	8	5	5	-	-	2.75	2.50	-	-
01	7	149	1	097	5	6	2	3	-	-	2.00	2.00	-	-
02	7	153	1	128	8	8	3	3	-	-	2.00	2.00	-	-
03	7	147	1	117	6	6	5	4	-	-	2.00	2.00	-	-
04	7	153	2	111	4	6	3	6	-	-	3.00	3.00	-	-
05	7	145	2	115	4	5	3	2	-	-	3.00	3.00	-	-
06	7	146	1	117	8	7	5	8	-	-	3.00	3.00	-	-
07	7	150	2	110	6	6	4	4	-	-	3.00	3.00	-	-
08	7	148	2	125	7	8	3	4	-	-	3.00	3.00	-	-
09	7	162	2	105	4	5	5	5	-	-	3.00	3.00	-	-
10	7	148	1	117	7	8	5	7	-	-	3.00	3.00	-	-

Table 13 (continued)

No.	Grade	Age	Sex	IQ	Pre Par	Post Par	Pre Arith	Post Arith	Pre Dev	Post Dev	1 GPA	4 GPA	1 Gr	4 Gr
11	7	142	1	122	8	7	5	6	-	-	3.00	4.00	-	-
12	7	156	2	114	5	6	4	5	-	-	3.00	3.00	-	-
13	7	149	2	118	6	6	7	8	-	-	3.00	3.00	-	-
14	7	142	1	102	6	6	2	5	-	-	3.00	2.00	-	-
15	7	149	1	106	5	4	4	6	-	-	3.00	2.00	-	-
16	7	148	1	114	5	6	2	4	-	-	2.00	2.00	-	-
17	7	144	2	108	6	5	5	4	-	-	2.00	2.00	-	-
18	7	146	2	115	5	6	3	5	-	-	3.00	3.00	-	-
19	7	157	2	101	5	5	4	6	-	-	3.00	3.00	-	-
20	7	154	1	118	5	5	3	3	-	-	3.00	3.00	-	-
21	7	150	1	139	9	9	8	8	-	-	3.00	3.00	-	-
22	7	148	2	127	8	8	6	7	-	-	3.00	4.00	-	-
23	7	159	2	135	5	7	9	9	-	-	3.00	4.00	-	-
24	7	144	2	109	5	7	4	7	-	-	2.00	3.00	-	-
01	8	164	2	114	5	5	4	7	-	-	2.50	2.75	-	-
02	8	160	1	119	5	6	3	4	-	-	2.75	2.25	-	-
03	8	168	2	109	4	5	3	4	-	-	2.25	2.50	-	-
04	8	168	1	121	7	7	8	8	-	-	2.00	1.75	-	-
05	8	161	1	119	7	8	7	7	-	-	2.00	2.50	-	-
06	8	169	1	111	3	4	3	6	-	-	2.50	2.75	-	-
07	8	165	2	105	6	4	3	3	-	-	2.00	2.25	-	-
08	8	166	2	105	4	5	3	7	-	-	3.00	3.25	-	-
09	8	158	1	115	3	5	5	7	-	-	3.50	3.50	-	-
10	8	169	2	133	5	6	8	9	-	-	3.00	3.50	-	-
11	8	161	2	128	6	6	5	6	-	-	2.75	2.50	-	-
12	8	165	2	115	6	7	5	5	-	-	2.25	2.25	-	-
13	8	159	1	141	9	9	9	9	-	-	3.25	3.00	-	-
14	8	163	1	130	9	9	8	9	-	-	3.00	3.50	-	-
15	8	160	2	128	9	9	8	9	-	-	3.25	3.00	-	-
16	8	170	1	112	5	7	8	9	-	-	3.00	3.50	-	-
17	8	166	2	113	5	7	3	3	-	-	2.75	3.00	-	-
18	8	166	2	105	5	4	3	5	-	-	2.25	2.25	-	-
19	8	167	1	127	9	9	8	9	-	-	2.50	2.75	-	-
20	8	161	2	125	6	8	7	7	-	-	2.75	3.00	-	-
21	8	166	1	132	9	7	8	9	-	-	3.00	2.50	-	-

APPENDIX D

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PROBLEM AND NON-PROBLEM CHILDREN

Table 14

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PROBLEM CHILDREN

Variable	$\bar{X}$	S	N
Grade	6.333	0.661	30
Age	145.567	10.278	30
Sex	1.167	0.379	30
IQ	104.067	14.176	30
Pre Par	4.567	2.029	30
Post Par	5.167	2.086	30
Pre Arith	3.300	1.601	30
Post Arith	4.467	1.925	30
Pre Dev	6.667	2.249	30
Post Dev	5.633	3.045	30
GPA 1	1.632	0.853	30
GPA 4	1.892	0.916	30
Gr 1	1.667	0.844	30
Gr 4	1.733	1.048	30
Gain Par	0.600	1.429	30
Gain Arith	1.167	1.315	30
Gain Dev	1.033	2.539	30
Gain GPA	0.260	0.619	30
Gain Grade	0.067	0.740	30

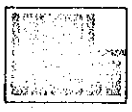
Table 15

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR NON-PROBLEM CHILDREN

Variable	$\bar{X}$	S	N
Grade	6.943	0.814	70
Age	150.700	10.694	70
Sex	1.543	0.502	70
IQ	116.471	10.848	70
Pre Par	5.886	2.011	70
Post Par	6.257	1.759	70
Pre Arith	4.614	2.052	70
Post Arith	5.757	2.010	70
GPA 1	2.771	0.496	70
GPA 4	2.907	0.657	70
Gain Par	0.371	1.230	70
Gain Arith	1.143	1.477	70
Gain GPA	0.136	0.405	70

APPENDIX E

THE DEVEREUX ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
BEHAVIOR RATING SCALE



THE HAHNEMANN MEDICAL COLLEGE & HOSPITAL OF PHILADELPHIA
DEPARTMENT OF MENTAL HEALTH SCIENCES COMMUNITY MENTAL HEALTH SERVICES

DIVISION OF RESEARCH AND EVALUATION
314 NORTH BROAD STREET, 3RD FLOOR
PHILADELPHIA, PA. 19102 (215) LO 8-0860

July 30, 1973

Miss Dorothy R. Frost
P. O. Box 4719
Stockton, California 95204

Dear Miss Frost:

Please feel free to make the Devereux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale part of the appendix of your dissertation.

I would appreciate your sending me a copy of your work, or some part of it which you have written up which employs the DESB.

Sincerely,

George Spivack

George Spivack, Ph.D.
Professor and Director
Division of Research & Evaluation

GS:bbw

Signed in Dr. Spivack's absence.

DEVEREUX ELEMENTARY SCHOOL BEHAVIOR RATING SCALE*

George Spivack, Ph.D. and Marshall Swift, Ph.D.

Devereux Foundation Institute for Research and Training

Student's Name _____ Teacher's Name _____

Student's Sex _____ Age _____ Academic Subject _____

Grade _____ School _____ Date of Rating _____

RATING GUIDE

1. Base rating on student's recent and current behavior.	Consider only the behavior of the student over the past month.
2. Compare the student with normal children his age.	The standard for comparison should be the average youngster in the normal classroom situation.
3. Base rating on your own experience with the student.	Consider only your own impression. As much as possible, ignore what others have said about the student and their impressions.
4. Consider each question independently.	Make no effort to describe a consistent behavioral picture or personality. It is known that children may show seemingly contradictory behavior.
5. Avoid interpretations of "unconscious" motives and feelings.	As much as possible, base ratings on outward behavior you actually observe. Do not try to interpret what might be going on in the student's mind.
6. Use extreme ratings whenever warranted.	Avoid tending to rate near the middle of all scales. Make use of the full range offered by the scales.
7. Rate each item quickly.	If you are unable to reach a decision, go on to the next item and come back later to those you skipped.
8. Rate every question.	Attempt to rate each item. If you are unable to rate a particular item because it is not appropriate to the child in question, or because of lack of information, circle the item number.

The preparation of this publication was supported in part by Research Grant #32-48-7680-5023 from the Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education & Welfare.

YOU ARE GOING TO RATE THE OVERT BEHAVIOR OF A STUDENT. FOR ITEMS 1-26 USE THE RATING SCALE BELOW. WRITE YOUR RATING (NUMBER) FOR EACH ITEM IN THE BOX TO THE LEFT OF THE ITEM NUMBER.

Very frequently	Often	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
5	4	3	2	1

COMPARED WITH THE AVERAGE CHILD IN THE NORMAL CLASSROOM SITUATION, HOW OFTEN DOES THE CHILD...

Rating	Item
☐	1. Start working on something before getting the directions straight?
☐	2. Say that the teacher doesn't help him enough (i.e., won't show him how to do things, or answer his questions)?
☐	3. Bring things to class that relate to current topic (e.g., exhibits, collections, articles, etc.)?
☐	4. Tell stories or describe things in an interesting and colorful fashion (e.g., has an active imagination, etc.)?
☐	5. Speak disrespectfully to teacher (e.g., call teacher names, treat teacher as an equal, etc.)?
☐	6. Initiate classroom discussion?
☐	7. Act defiant (i.e., will not do what he is asked to do, says: "I won't do it")?
☐	8. Seek out the teacher before or after class to talk about school or personal matters?
☐	9. Belittle or make derogatory remarks about the subject being taught (e.g., "spelling is stupid")?
☐	10. Get the point of what he reads or hears in class?
☐	11. Have to be reprimanded or controlled by the teacher because of his behavior in class?
☐	12. Poke, torment, or tease classmates?
☐	13. Annoy or interfere with the work of his peers in class?
☐	14. Tell stories which are exaggerated and untruthful?
☐	15. Give an answer that has nothing to do with a question being asked?
☐	16. Break classroom rules (e.g., throw things, mark up desk or books, etc.)?
☐	17. Interrupt when the teacher is talking?
☐	18. Quickly lose attention when teacher explains something to him (e.g., becomes fidgety, looks away, etc.)?
☐	19. Offer to do things for the teacher (e.g., erase the board, empty the pencil sharpener, open the door, get the mail, etc.)?
☐	20. Makes you doubt whether he is paying attention to what you are doing or saying (e.g., looks elsewhere, has blank stare or faraway look, etc.)?
☐	21. Introduce into class discussion personal experiences or things he has heard which relate to what is going on in class?
☐	22. Get openly disturbed about scores on a test (e.g., may cry, get emotionally upset, etc.)?
☐	23. Show worry or get anxious about knowing the "right" answers?
☐	24. Look to see how others are doing something before he does it (e.g., when teacher gives a direction, etc.)?
☐	25. Complain teacher never calls on him (e.g., that teacher calls on others first, etc.)?
☐	26. Make irrelevant remarks during a classroom discussion?

FOR ITEMS 27-47 USE THE RATING SCALE BELOW:

Extremely	Distinctly	Quite a bit	Moderately	A little	Very slightly	Not at all
7	6	5	4	3	2	1

COMPARED WITH THE AVERAGE CHILD IN THE NORMAL CLASSROOM SITUATION, TO WHAT DEGREE IS THE CHILD...

Rating	Item
☐	27. Unable to change from one task to another when asked to do so (e.g., has difficulty beginning a new task, may get upset or disorganized, etc.)?
☐	28. Oblivious to what is going on in class (i.e., not "with it," seems to be in own "private" closed world)?
☐	29. Reliant upon the teacher for directions and to be told how to do things or proceed in class?
☐	30. Quickly drawn into the talking or noise-making of others (i.e., stops work to listen or join in)?
☐	31. Outwardly nervous when a test is given?
☐	32. Unable to follow directions given in class (i.e., need precise directions before he can proceed successfully)?
☐	33. Sensitive to criticism or correction about his school work (e.g., gets angry, sulks, seems "defeated", etc.)?
☐	34. Prone to blame the teacher, the test, or external circumstances when things don't go well?
☐	35. Able to apply what he has learned to a new situation?
☐	36. Sloppy in his work (e.g., his products are dirty or marked up, wrinkled, etc.)?
☐	37. Likely to know the material when called upon to recite in class?
☐	38. Quick to say work assigned is too hard (e.g., "you expect too much," "I can't get it," etc.)?
☐	39. Responsive or friendly in his relationship with the teacher in class (vs. being cool, detached or distant)?
☐	40. Likely to quit or give up when something is difficult or demands more than usual effort?
☐	41. Slow to complete his work (i.e., has to be prodded, takes excessive time)?
☐	42. Swayed by the opinion of his peers?
☐	43. Difficult to reach (e.g., seems preoccupied with his own thoughts, may have to call him by name to bring him out of himself)?
☐	44. Unwilling to go back over his work?

COMPARED WITH THE AVERAGE CHILD IN THE NORMAL CLASSROOM SITUATION, TO WHAT DEGREE DOES THE CHILD...

☐	45. Like to be close to the teacher (e.g., hug or touch the teacher, sit or stand next to teacher, etc.)?
☐	46. Have difficulty deciding what to do when given a choice between two or more things?
☐	47. Rush through his work and therefore make unnecessary mistakes?

DEVEREUX ELEMENTARY SCHOOL BEHAVIOR RATING SCALE*

George Spivack, Ph.D. and Marshall Swift, Ph.D.
Devereux Foundation Institute for Research and Training

DESB PROFILE

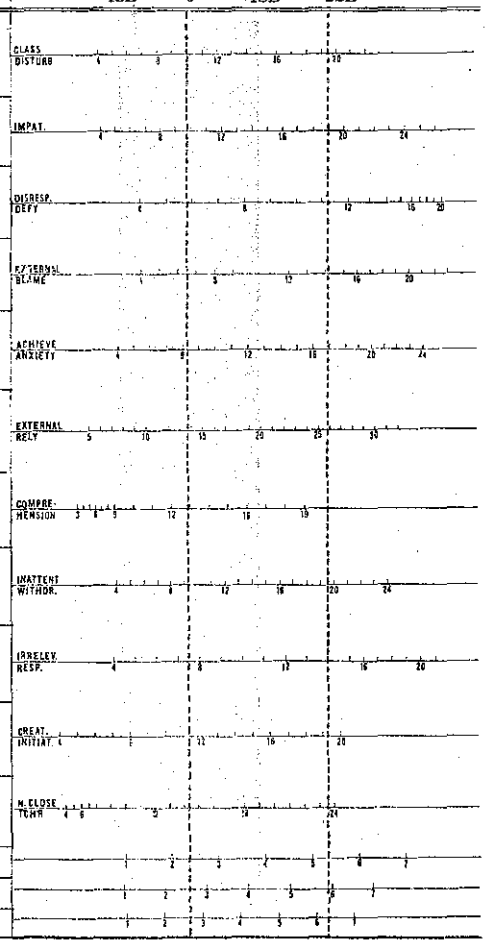
Student's Name _____ Teacher's Name _____

Student's Sex _____ Age _____ Academic Subject _____

Grade _____ School _____ Date of Rating _____

Behavior Factor	Factor Item Raw Scores	Tot'l Raw Sc.
1. Classroom Disturbance	needs control 11 ___ 13 ___ interfere teases 12 ___ 30 ___ drawn in	
2. Impatience	starts 1 ___ 44 ___ go back sloppy 36 ___ 47 ___ rushes	
3. Disrespect-Defiance	disrespect 5 ___ 9 ___ subject defy t'ch'r. 7 ___ 16 ___ rules	
4. External Blame	t'ch'r. help 2 ___ 34 ___ blames called on 25 ___ 38 ___ too hard	
5. Achievement Anxiety	test scores 22 ___ 31 ___ testing right answ. 23 ___ 33 ___ sensitive	
6. External Reliance	see others 24 ___ 42 ___ swayed rely t'ch'r. 29 ___ directions 32 ___ 46 ___ choices	
7. Comprehension	understands 10 ___ 37 ___ recites applies 35 ___	
8. Inattentive - Withdrawn	lose attn. 18 ___ 28 ___ oblivious not attnd. 20 ___ 43 ___ reachable	
9. Irrelevant - Responsiveness	exagg. story 14 ___ 17 ___ interrupt answers 15 ___ 26 ___ irrel. talk	
10. Creative Initiative	brings in 3 ___ 6 ___ start disc. act. imag. 4 ___ 21 ___ talk exper.	
11. Need Closeness to Teacher	seeks t'ch'r. 8 ___ 39 ___ friendly helps 19 ___ 45 ___ phys. close	
Additional Items	27 Unable change	
	40 Quits	
	41 Slow Work	

Raw Score in Standard Score Units



ADDED COMMENTS

Use space below to record any additional descriptions of this child's behavior which you think are striking or characteristic, or may not be sufficiently covered by the scales.