THE EFFECT OF THREE COUNSELING TECHNIQUES UPON THE INEFFECTIVE BEHAVIOR PATTERNS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILDREN

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The contents of this section usually represent reflections of such a nature that they have little meaning to people other than the writer. This attempt will be, I'm sure, no exception to this rule. The sincerity of this effort is, however, genuine and deeply felt for all those playing a major role in my growth and development.

First, to Mamma and Daddy my deepest love and devotion--for without you there would be no me.

To Bobby, without your confidence that "I could do it" I wonder if I ever would have.

To Sue and Terry, such friends may come once in a lifetime--you truly are a part of where I am today and where someday I hope to be.

Finally, to Billy--what can I say to a person who has become such a part of me except thanks for being you and making this another experience of many we have and will share.

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CHAPTER I

THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Preliminary Statement

This study investigates the effect of three counseling techniques--simulation gaming, group discussion, and minimal teacher/counselor consultation--upon the ineffective behavior patterns of elementary school children. Through the vehicle of each of these techniques, the process of decision-making and its skills was stressed.

A major assumption of this investigation is that it is possible the maladjustive behavior patterns of children may be manifestations of a lack of an awareness as to alternatives for behavior. Due to the inability to utilize the decision-making process, the child may be unequipped to arrive at more beneficial or effective behaviors.

The schools have been described as social institutions created for the purpose of teaching youth to perform adequately the adult roles believed important to the enhancement of society (Blocher, 1966). It is essential, therefore, that children learn to deal effectively with their environment by practicing appropriate behaviors in their interpersonal relationships. For this reason, no tool needed for growth and development can be ignored.

Rationale for the Study

The rationale for this particular investigation must be examined from three perspectives. First, the general developmental needs of elementary school children; next, the concept of maladjustment as it relates to this study; and, finally, the goals of education and their influence upon the present study.

Examining the elementary school child in the process of Erikson's (1959) psychosocial development, he is seen struggling to be the "initiator" of his activities. The child's industrious behavior, if met with success, can lead to feelings of accomplishment and self-worth; however, if confronted with consistent failure, feelings of guilt and inferiority might develop. These feelings in all probability would manifest themselves overtly in environmental relations, and the behaviors of these children would reflect somewhat of a deteriorated self-image (Erikson, 1950).

Maslow (1954) contends the motivational needs of supreme importance at the elementary school age are those of love and belongingness. From these feelings a secure sense of self-esteem and pride in one's accomplishments becomes possible. He believes that children who primarily sense failure from the environment exhibit rather frustrated patterns of behavior as they attempt interaction.

The participants in this investigation, ranging in age from nine to ten years of age, would be functioning at the concrete operational stage of Piaget's (1969) developmental

theory of cognition. At this stage, interest in acting upon the environment by direct experience is of major concern to the child.

White (1959) has suggested that one of the basic motives of all human beings is to feel competence in dealing with the environment; therefore, adjustment should be enhanced when a child finds he is able to deal more effectively with his environment. He must, for example, find reasonable success in the formal intellectual tasks confronted in the school environment, he must master the social skills that aid him in finding a place in his peer group, and he must develop reasonable physical competencies for his sex group (Blackham, 1967). The central factor in the development of satisfactory adjustment appears to be the establishment of a satisfying and safe relationship for the child so that he can feel better about himself (White, 1959).

The term "maladjustment" carries with it many connotations. For the purpose of this particular study, Blackham (1967) presents a qualitative definition based on Maslow's theory of motivation which seems applicable:

> ...a child may be considered maladjusted when he is so thwarted in satisfaction of his needs for safety, affection, acceptance, and self-esteem that he is unable intellectually to function efficiently, cannot adapt to reasonable requirements of social regulation and convention, or is so plagued with inner conflict, anxiety and guilt that he is unable to perceive reality clearly or meet the ordinary demands of the environment in which he lives (p. 73).

During the past two centuries, American society and the world in general has undergone many radical changes. The

problem of understanding and dealing with these changes is significant at both the individual and institutional levels. A great deal of time and energy has been spent in an attempt to better understand these changes, and to aid both individuals and institutions in their adjustments to them. Yet, in spite of this radical flux, some provisions have been made in every known society to guarantee that the culture be passed on to the young. This process is generally referred to as the "socialization process" (Broom and Selznick, 1968). Blackham (1967) defines this procedure as "...the process by which a child learns to behave appropriately in his culture" (p. 20).

The transmission of culture through the schools can be separated into two related aspects--cultural knowledge (cognition), and cultural attitudes, values, and norms (affect). The cognitive function of education is most familiar and has historically received the most attention within the school setting (Popenoe, 1971).

In stressing the cognitive aspect of socializing the young, it seems that education may have taken the path of least resistance. As Weinstein and Fantini (1970) suggest:

> It is easier to teach toward such specific objectives, and more generally, to recognize and deal with the child's need to know how to read, write, compute, and to have some knowledge of his environment than it is to recognize and deal with his need for a satisfying self-definition, for constructive relationships with others, and for some control over what happens to him (p. 18).

They stress that an attempt must be made to "shift priorities" from a cognitive to an affective base. In an effort

to meet this and the previously reviewed theoretical propositions, this investigation finds its basic rationale in the principle that:

> ...education must be concerned, above all, with developing and extending the powers of all children to relate to others; with increasing their awareness of themselves, and with enlarging their understanding of, and control over the world in which they live (Duane, 1971, p. 240).

The Problem

If it is assumed that elementary school boys and girls do indeed share the previously theorized needs for initiating their activities, for love of belongingness, and for feelings of competence in dealing with their environment, then questions must be asked concerning the responsibility of education in meeting those needs. Educators must determine what, in fact, is being done to aid children in fostering feelings of competence in relating to their environment.

One of the processes employed by the individual relating within his environment is that of decision-making. Innumerable choices are made daily which are of greater or lesser importance to the development of the child. It is with the skill of decision-making and its influence upon the effective growth and development of the child that this study concerns itself.

Assuming that ineffective behaviors may be the result of a lack of an ability to utilize the decision-making process to arrive at more socially acceptable behaviors, the basic question of this investigation is: Can the ineffective

behaviors of elementary school children be modified as a result of analyzing and/or practicing decision-making skills? And, if so, what techniques are most conducive to this modification?

Statement of Hypotheses

This research examines the following major hypotheses:

H_{o1}: There is no significant difference in the measures of the "total emotional adjustment" factor on the Rating Scale for Pupil Adjustment between groups established for this investigation.

H_{o2}: There is no significant difference in the pre-post "total adjustment" scores on the California Test of Personality within groups experiencing:

(a) simulation gaming in group counseling sessions (Experimental Group 1).

(b) group discussion in group counseling sessions (Experimental Group 2).

(c) treatment as a result of minimal teacher/counselor consultation (Experimental Group 3).

(d) no treatment (Control Group).

H_{o3}: There is no significant difference in the pre or post measures on the "total adjustment" factor of the CTP between groups experiencing:

(a) simulation gaming in group counseling sessions (Experimental Group 1).

(b) group discussion in group counseling sessions (Experimental Group 2).

(c) treatment as a result of teacher/counselor consultation (Experimental Group 3).

(d) no treatment (Control Group).

H_{o4}: There is no significant difference in the pre-post scale scores for students experiencing group counseling employing simulation games (Technique I) in the following aspects:

(a) self-reliance

(b) sense of personal worth

(c) sense of personal freedom

(d) feeling of belonging

(e) withdrawal tendencies

(f) nervous symptoms

(g) social standards

(h) social skills

(i) anti-social tendencies

(j) family relations

(k) school relations

(l) community relations

(m) personal adjustment (a-f above)

(n) social adjustment (g-l above)

(o) total adjustment (a-l above)

H_{o5}: There is no significant difference in the pre-post scale scores for students experiencing group counseling employing group discussion (Technique II) in the following aspects:

(a) self-reliance

(b) sense of personal worth

(c) sense of personal freedom

(d) feeling of belonging

(e) withdrawal tendencies

(f) nervous symptoms

(g) social standards

(h) social skills

(i) anti-social tendencies

(j) family relations

(k) school relations

(l) community relations

(m) personal adjustment (a-f above)

(n) social adjustment (g-l above)

(o) total adjustment (a-l above)

H_{o6}: There is no significant difference in the pre-post scale scores for students experiencing teacher/counselor consultation (Technique III) in the following aspects:

(a) self-reliance

(b) sense of personal worth

(c) sense of personal freedom

(d) feeling of belonging

(e) withdrawal tendencies

(f) nervous symptoms

(g) social standards

(h) social skills

(i) anti-social tendencies

(j) family relations

(k) school relations

(l) community relations

(m) personal adjustment (a-f above)

(n) social adjustment (g-l above)

(o) total adjustment (a-l above)

H_{o7}: There is no significant difference in the pre-post scale scores for the students in the Control Group in the following aspects:

(a) self-reliance

(b) sense of personal worth

(c) sense of personal freedom

(d) feeling of belonging

(e) withdrawal tendencies

(f) nervous symptoms

(g) social standards

(h) social skills

(i) anti-social tendencies

(j) family relations

(k) school relations

(l) community relations

(m) personal adjustment (a-f above)

(n) social adjustment (g-l above)

(o) total adjustment (a-l above)

H_{o8}: There is no significant difference in the I. Q. scores as measured by the California Short-Form

Test of Mental Maturity between the population and the sample (Groups 1-4).

H_{o9}: There is no significant difference in I. Q. scores as measured by the California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity between the four groups which composed the sample for this study.

H_{o10}: There is no significant relationship between "total adjustment" scores on the CTP and I. Q. scores on the California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity for those students serving as subjects for this study.

The investigator chose to reject the null hypothesis at the .05 level of significance for the correlated t-test measures and the simple analysis of variance tests. Davis (1964) suggests that the .15 level of significance be adopted for individual change scores, as the analysis for these scores should be less stringent. This level was chosen for use in analyzing the individual change scores.

Definition of Terms

A number of terms utilized in this investigation should be defined for clarification. The following terms and their respective definitions are presented for that purpose.

Ineffective Behavior Patterns. Those students' whose "Total Emotional Adjustment" socres on the Rating Scale for Pupil Adjustment placed them at or below the fiftieth

percentile were, for the purposes of this investigation, said to be displaying ineffective patterns of behavior.

Maladjustment. Throughout this paper the term "maladjustive" or "maladaptive" behaviors may be substituted for the term "ineffective." The above operational definition applies to these terms as well. For the purposes of this investigation these terms simply indicate a "conflict of interest" between the individual and the environment.

Decision-Making Skills. Decision-making is a "self-directed" activity through which a purposive alternative is selected as a course of action. Any change scores from the pre to post measures on the CTP of the sample are defined as effects of the experimental treatments emphasizing the development of decision-making skills.

Common Problems. Fourth and fifth grade children scoring at or below the fiftieth percentile on a teacher rating scale were determined to be encountering "common problems," and for the purpose of this investigation were eligible for inclusion in the experimental treatment groups.

Experimental Group 1. Those students identified as manifesting "ineffective behavior patterns," who, in addition to their normal school schedules, received the experimental treatment of simulation games in bi-weekly, thirty-minute group counseling sessions for a period of nine weeks.

Experimental Group 2. Those students identified as manifesting "ineffective behavior patterns," who, in addition to their normal school schedules, received the experimental

treatment of group discussion in bi-weekly, thirty-minute group counseling sessions for a period of nine weeks.

Experimental Group 3. Those students identified as manifesting "ineffective behavior patterns," who, in addition to their normal school schedules, received experimental treatment through three teacher/counselor consultations. Each of these sessions was approximately forty-five minutes in duration and was conducted during the nine weeks of the investigation.

Control Group. Those students identified as manifesting "ineffective behavior patterns" who received no experimental treatment during the nine weeks of this investigation.

Approach to the Study

1. After receiving approval for this study from the Superintendent of Schools and the Director of Curriculum for the Edmond Public School System, Edmond, Oklahoma, the investigator contacted the Principal of a selected school within the Edmond system. The study was interpreted and plans were formalized with the help of the fourth and fifth grade classroom teachers that were to be involved. Data were obtained during the spring semester of the 1971-72 school year. All testing was done by the investigator and was carried out within the school setting on a group basis.

2. The fourth and fifth grade teachers were asked to complete the Rating Scale for Pupil Adjustment on each of their students; and the "Emotional Adjustment" scores on the

Rating Scale were calculated for all fourth and fifth grade students attending the school.

3. Fifty students were rated at or below the fiftieth percentile by their teachers on the Rating Scale. From these fifty, twenty-four students were randomly selected to serve as the sample for this investigation.

4. Each of the twenty-four subjects were randomly assigned to one of the four groups employed in the study, with each group consisting of six members. Treatments were randomly assigned to the four groups.

5. All of the subjects were pre-tested on the California Test of Personality prior to the initiation of the experimental treatments.

6. Experimental treatments were administered for a period of nine weeks by the investigator in the form of: (a) group counseling utilizing simulation games; (b) group counseling utilizing group discussion; (c) minimal teacher/counselor consultation; and (d) no experimental treatment was applied to the control group.

7. Subjects in the four groups were post-tested on the California Test of Personality following the nine weeks of the investigation.

8. Results of the screening measures on the Rating Scale and the pre-post measures on the CTP were statistically analyzed and reported.

Limitations of the Study

1. The study is limited to fourth and fifth grade students from a selected school in the Edmond, Oklahoma, public schools. Generalization of the findings of this study beyond the school population from which it originated would not be statistically justifiable.

2. All possible variables are not being studied or controlled.

3. Results and conclusions are based upon the specific scales of the testing instruments.

4. The investigator was not the elementary counselor employed in the school under investigation.

5. The study encompassed only nine weeks of the school term.

6. Teacher/counselor consultation was limited to a total of three sessions during the study. This minimal contact may have resulted in less than adequate feedback.

7. The investigator served as counselor in the study, thus, not controlling for possible experimenter bias.

8. Contact with the teachers of the subjects in all of the groups was unavoidable in the school setting; thus, control for limitation of such contact to only Experimental Group III was not possible.

9. Treatments did not receive equal emphasis as to time and contact.

Assumptions of the Study

The following assumptions must be made in regard to this investigation:

1. Ineffective behaviors are identifiable and may be manifestations of an inability to utilize the decision-making process.

2. The responses to questions on the California Test of Personality were representative of the students' actual feelings when the responses were given.

3. The responses on the Rating Scale for Pupil Adjustment were representative of the teachers' actual perceptions of student behaviors at the time the instrument was completed.

4. Uncontrolled variables were randomly distributed.

Significance of the Study

The emphasis of this investigation was to determine the impact of three counseling techniques upon the ineffective behavior patterns of elementary school children. The results of this study should provide information pertinent to the function of the elementary counselor. Experts in the field of elementary counseling have long debated the issue of whether emphasis should be placed upon the "counseling" or "consulting" functions of the counselor, this study should provide insight into that dilemma, as well as provide support for the utilization of the most effective techniques in the two functions.

CHAPTER II

RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

An investigation of this nature demands a theoretical as well as an experimental analysis. Therefore, this chapter provides related literature which lends itself to such analyses. The literature investigation will be presented in three major sections. The first section, "A Theoretical Perspective," will present a theory base for the major issues of this investigation. The second section, "An Analysis of the Techniques Under Investigation," presents literature relative to the three techniques utilized in the study. The chapter will conclude with a presentation of "Related Experimental Research," in the areas under investigation.

A Theoretical Perspective

This section of the paper presents a theory base from three perspectives. The concept of decision theory will first be explored; but, because of the intricate and involved nature of this theory, only those aspects directly related to the decision-making process will be presented. Next, the theory of games as an outgrowth of decision theory will be

examined. And, finally, the theory underlying developmental counseling will be analyzed.

Decision Theory

Many qualitative definitions of the decision-making process can be found in the literature surrounding the theory of decision-making. Most sources seem to share a common characteristic in defining the process--the link between thought and action:

> Thought is the process that culminates in decision. Action is the physical embodiment of a decision. Think, decide, and act in that order. Omit the first step and you are in for trouble. Omit the last and chance will determine the outcome (Le Bert-Francis, 1966, p. 20).

Individuals are continuously confronted with situations that demand decisions. This condition can place a person under severe strain, particularly if he consistently fails to make appropriate or rewarding decisions (Le Bert Francis, 1966). The satisfactory development of the individual requires that "action patterns that tend to destroy the possibilities for further and better decision making...be reconsidered, changed, or abandoned" (Harnack, 1968, p. 135).

The literature surrounding decision theory consistently suggests that the process of education should help the individual acquire the needed skills associated with the "art" of decision-making (See Appendix A). However, observation suggests that like other aims of education, i.e., "thinking" and "learning to learn," the skills involved in the decision-

making process are expected to develop inadvertently rather than by practice or training (Fulcher, 1965).

Fulcher (1965) contends that as with other applied arts, the skills involved in the decision-making process can, in fact, be increased by instruction and training, and that the stage for such practice seems only logically to be in the schools where the child is acquiring other "tools" essential to growth and development.

Cooper (1961) supports the contention that the "reasoning process" plays a dominant role in life and can modify and direct behaviors. He too feels the disposition toward rational behavior is something that is developed through practice.

An analysis of the literature suggests that the process of decision-making is generally conceded to operate in rather well-defined stages. These stages vary according to authors, but all tend to follow a general theme. Brim (1962) summarizes these:

> The decision process consists of six phases customarily linked into a sequence: (1) identification of the problem; (2) obtaining necessary information; (3) production of possible solutions; (4) evaluation of such solutions; (5) selection of a strategy for performance; and (6) actual performance of an action or actions, and subsequent learning and revision (p. 9).

If individuals are to be aided in the development of decision-making skills, Fulcher (1965) contends that it is essential to analyze and practice each of these steps inherent in the decision process.

Although typical advice suggests that the appropriate steps in decision-making are getting the facts, weighing them, and then making a decision between alternatives, many times in actual practice these rules are violated. In reality much more is involved than simple "rational" processes (Kurtz, 1965). Therefore, it is essential that the individual practice decision-making skills in situations that closely resemble his typical environment (Cooper, 1961).

Shackle (1969) suggests that to deal more effectively with one's environment, the individual must become aware of his freedom of choice between alternatives. For, "decision can take place only when several distinct and mutually exclusive acts appear to the individual to be available to him" (p. 4). It is essential, therefore, that a person sense a genuine freedom of choice to practice true decision-making. The development of this skill seems particularly vital when it is understood that

> ...decision making...is a uniquely human endeavor... only man can originate a decision. Animals can be trained, and machines can be programmed to repeat a decision. But, it must be originated by man" (Le Bert-Francis, 1966, p. 32).

Game Theory

Game theory is virtually an outgrowth of decision theory; however, decision theory is not concerned with the factual information that a player has about a given situation or with theory formulation as to how such knowledge has been attained (Buchler and Nutini, 1969). "Decision theory is

aimed at studying human behavior in situations where choices are to be made among a number of alternatives" (Blocher, 1966, p. 106). When the control of outcomes is divided among two or more players, we are dealing with decision problems that arise in games (Rapoport, 1969).

Levin and Des Jardins (1970) indicate that one of the major purposes of a gaming technique is to provide an environment whereby one can observe the process of decision-making as it occurs in a real life setting. They contend that gaming provides a setting for the study of the conflict the individual encounters in his environment and gives him practice in coping with it. Shubik (1964) suggests that game theory is a technique of studying decision-making which occurs in situations of conflict and that, in fact, the essence of a "game" involves decision makers with differing objectives whose fates are intertwined.

Game theorists contend that the theory of games actually applies to a very limited number of situations known as "games." These are cases where: (a) there is a source of conflict of interests between the participants; (b) there is a selection between alternatives, a choice, available to each participant; (c) there is a set of rules governing these choices; and (d) the choices of the participants affect the outcome of the game (Levin and Des Jardins, 1970). Shubik (1964) provides definitions of operations which must be present for an activity to be considered a "game" in the true sense of the word.

> A player in a game is an autonomous decision-making unit. A player is not necessarily a single person...
>
> Each player is in control of some set of resources... The rules of the game specify how the resources may be utilized...
>
> A strategy...can be defined as a general play of action...
>
> The outcome of a game will depend on the strategies employed by every player...(pp. 12-13).

He continues by suggesting that games can be employed for many purposes, the most common of which are: (1) teaching, (2) experimentation, and (3) operational purposes. Regardless of the purpose for which they are utilized they are invariably concerned with studying human behavior or teaching individuals in a realistic social setting (Levin and Des Jardins, 1970).

Developmental Counseling Theory

Because it is a uniquely individual process, the concept of counseling has as many definitions as it has practitioners. Specific techniques, goals and philosophical orientations traditionally vary among counselors--many times even among those that share similar theoretical perspectives.

The process of counseling employing a developmental approach served as the theoretical basis for this investigation. A general consensus of opinion among counselors sharing the developmental perspective is that the process be directly concerned with aiding the individual in conceptualizing alternatives, making decisions, estimating the consequences of courses of action, and establishing preferences

among alternatives and consequences in terms of some set of values (Blocher, 1966). Dinkmeyer (1966) summarizes the general orientation of the developmental counseling process when he states:

> Developmental counseling truly focuses on helping the individual know, understand and accept himself. This type of counseling, then, becomes personalized learning, not individualized teaching. The child learns not only to understand himself but to become ultimately responsible for his choices and actions (p. 264).

By focusing on the personal meaning of experiences, developmental counseling aims at (1) maximizing human freedom within the limits of self and environment; and (2) maximizing human effectiveness by developing behaviors that give an individual control over his environment (Blocher, 1966).

Counseling at the elementary school level is unique due to the specific needs of children at this particular developmental level. An important function of elementary guidance and counseling is to "...help children meet the future by coping with the present" (Royster, 1964, p. 6). Therefore, successfully meeting the challenges at each developmental level is of vital importance to the continued growth of the child.

In discussing the specific needs of each child as they relate to the counseling process, Dinkmeyer (1966) suggests that the elementary counselor

> ...assist the child to develop, to mature in social relationships, to belong, and to identify. The child needs to develop independence, to take on responsibility, to make choices, and to be responsible for these choices. He needs to mature in his ability to plan (p. 263).

To accomplish these goals, it is the counselor's responsibility to provide an appropriate environment in which the child can be independent, make choices, and become responsible for those choices.

Nelson (1971) contends that it is the elementary counselor's responsibility to help children find both socially acceptable and personally satisfying alternatives for behavior. She feels that effective counselors probably spend a good deal of their time opening doors to more realistic solutions and gently closing doors that will probably lead to dead ends. The socializing goal of the counseling process "...is not to reconstruct the child but to make him more assertive in respect to his own being and the external pressures that bear on him" (Kaczkowski, 1969, p. 252). To accomplish this goal, it is essential that the child develop an awareness of "who he is" in relation to his environment. Through one's interaction with the environment, the questions "Who am I?," "Where am I going?," and "What do I value?" seek answers. Without resolutions to these problems effective interaction with the environment is a difficult undertaking. Developing a sense of identity gives one the feeling of belonging to, of being in harmony with, and of caring about, other individuals, groups or ideals. Thus, it is the opposite of alienation and isolation (Blocher, 1966).

A basic goal of identity education has been to aid the child in recognizing that his self-concept is a part of a network of self-evaluation to which his feelings and emotions

are highly related. Weinstein and Fantini (1970) present a model which represents the elements involved in this cycle of self-judgment (Figure 1).

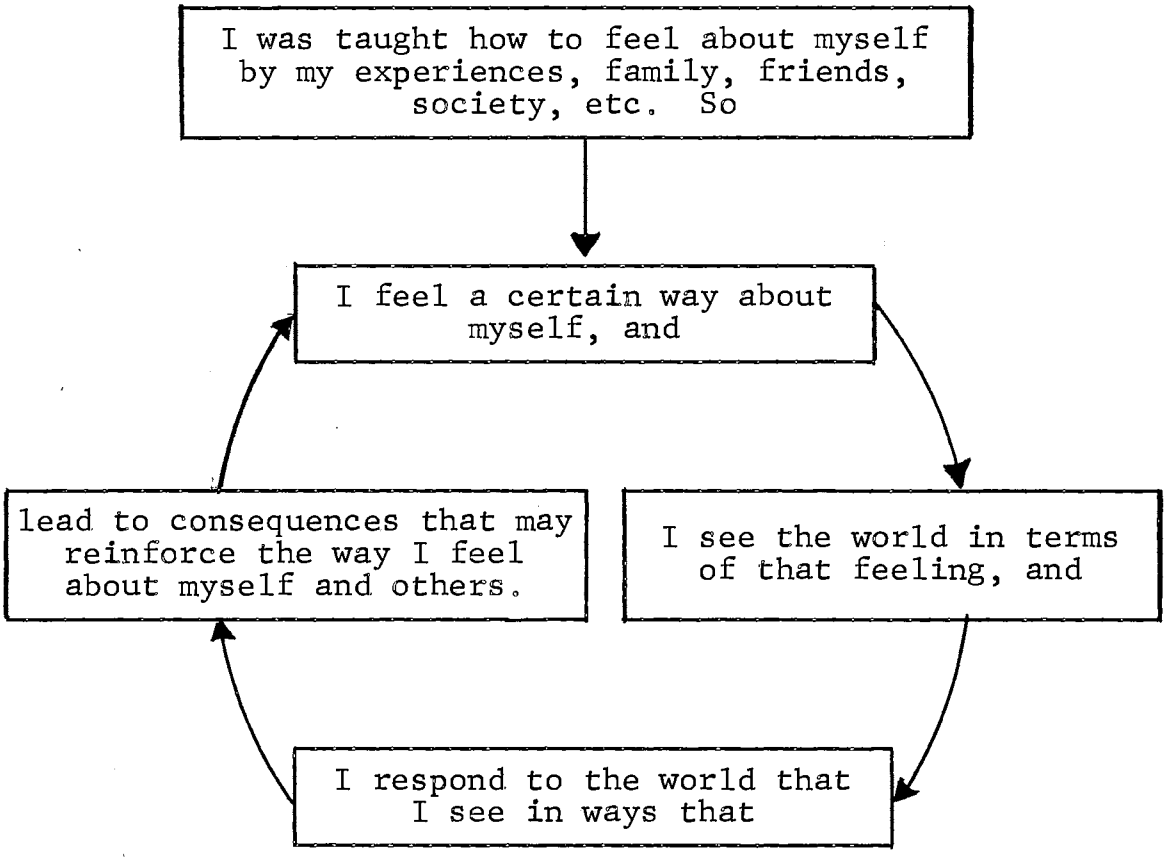

Figure 1. The Cycle of Self-Judgment (Weinstein and Fantini, 1970, p. 67)

The authors contend that we should begin with helping the child to recognize how he judges himself, what the consequences of this judgment are, where he learned the information he uses for self-judgment, and what alternatives are available to him.

Blocher (1966) states that "...people experience freedom when they perceive alternative courses of action open to them

and have available some kind of value system on which to choose between them" (p. 5). He suggests that individuals experiencing difficulty interacting with the environment may actually lack the sense of "freedom to choose" more appropriate behaviors because their sense of "self" has not created an adequate value system on which to base decisions.

Developmental counseling at the elementary level is designed to provide an atmosphere which will aid the individual to maximize his possible freedom within the limitations of his environment, realizing that "freedom is always relative; and is always bounded by norms and rules for behavior" (Kerlinger, 1960, p. 123). By providing this atmosphere of freedom, elementary counseling seeks to motivate the individual toward more effective interactions with his environment (Blocher, 1966).

Leacock (1968) has suggested that it is the counselor's responsibility within the school as a social system to effect increased communication between the parents, children and teachers. She contends that adjacent to this responsibility is the obligation to help children relate to schooling more positively. It is necessary, therefore, that the counselor intervene in the environmental milieu of the child as well as deal with him individually. A variety of techniques are available to the counselor to aid in this intervention both with the child and his environment. Three such techniques are investigated in this study as to their impact upon the ineffective behavior patterns of elementary school children.

An Analysis of the Techniques Under Investigation

Because the field of elementary counseling is relatively new and is still in the process of development, very little has previously been done to experimentally determine the most effective approaches for dealing with children in the elementary school environment (Muro, 1970). Peters (1968) suggests that much of the literature on elementary counseling merely assumes a transference of basic principles and procedures from college and clinical counseling. Brammer and Shostrom (1960) believe that "the goals of counseling are similar for children and adults, but because of the child's immaturity and dependence on others, modifications of techniques are necessary" (p. 332).

The role of the elementary counselor has been described as the "three C's"--counseling, consulting and coordinating (ASCES-ASCA Statement, 1966). Muro (1970) suggests that the number one priority of the counselor in the elementary school should be that of counseling and that this aid should be available to all children. The coordination efforts of the counselor should be directed toward leading the "guidance team" toward becoming a coherent unit. And, finally, the consulting functions of the counselor should be directed toward bringing about optimum classroom and home conditions by working for the child through the parents and teachers.

This investigation serves as a method of examining the effect of two of these "role dimensions" (counseling and

consulting) and their subsequent influence upon elementary school children. Through the vehicle of group counseling the techniques of simulation games and group discussion were employed and contrasted with the technique of minimal teacher/counselor consultation.

Technique I: Simulation Games

"A game may be defined as any contest (play) among adversaries (players) operating under constraints (rules) for an objective (winning, victory or payoff)" (Abt, 1966, p. 5). Gaming has been described as "...a process of learning to learn, of developing skills that increase one's ability to learn new facts and skills" (Raser, 1969, p. 115). Therefore, simulation games are simply games with simulated environments wherein social skills may be developed.

A few games which have been developed incorporate the aspect of social relations to such an extent that a special term has been used to describe them--social simulation games (Coleman, 1966). In games of this type "...we do not talk about children but about a child, a child we know very well. We do not talk about what might be but about what is" (Tansey and Unwin, 1969, p. 12).

A conclusion that can be drawn from the literature is that simulation gaming provides a potentially powerful tool for studying applied problems composed of many interacting variables. The process of human interaction is given a "stage" upon which to perform and through the use of a game

components of the interaction process can be isolated and observed (Coleman, 1966).

The games utilized in this study are "...designed to help teach children skills in making choices concerning interpersonal relationships" (Hawkins, 1970, p. 1). Because interactions with other people are some of the most crucial influences upon mental health, processes that provide successful experiences with these interactions seem essential to the healthy growth and development of the individual. Every person is confronted daily with innumerable choices dealing with many aspects of life; however, less time is spent in helping children learn to make these kinds of choices than in any aspect of the school curriculum (Hawkins, 1970).

Defense of the use of games in education is prevalent in the works of John Dewey. Two points seem significant here. First, in Human Nature and Conduct (1922), Dewey speaks of assigning a positive moral value to games, and claims that play and games fill a basic human need for activities that are make-believe in nature, and provide fresh and more profound meanings to life's usual activities. A second point is his basic assumption that games should be an integral part of the school curriculum. He purports that games are "active" occupations which are necessary for the student's active involvement in the learning process, a principle that is basic to Dewey's educational philosophy (Dewey, 1928).

One of the dilemmas of research in education has been a lack of sophisticated instruments which are sensitive enough to detect sometimes intangible changes in learners. However, "the tools and strategies appropriate for applied research and development are now beginning to emerge...one of these emerging strategies...[is] simulation in education" (Fattu and Elam, 1965, p. 2).

In studying the relationship between personality characteristics and decision-making skills employed in games, Raser (1969) generalizes that subjects become emotionally involved, they become goal-oriented, and they have at their disposal a variety of means for reaching their goals. Therefore, simulation provides a unique setting for the "practice" of behaviors needed in the daily environment. According to Simmel (1950), as a person plays a game he can in a sense "practice" real life without having to pay real life consequences for his behavior.

Boocock (1966) feels that by participating in a role-playing game, a participant develops an increased tolerance and understanding of those who play the role in real life. She also stresses that simulations give the participants a feeling of involvement, of being able to control the world around them, as opposed to a feeling of alienation from it.

Because of the multiple problems of human interaction confronting today's youth and with the expanded use of games in the educational environment, it seems logical to assume that "...there will be an increasing demand for games that

stress aspects of social living for school pupils of all ages" (Tansey and Unwin, 1969, p. 54). In light of this, Tansey and Unwin (1969) suggest the possibility that simulation exercises would have their greatest impact upon that part of the school society who, because of their environment, background, or parental attitudes, find themselves in conflict with the values of the school. They contend that simulation could be an instrument through which those individuals might develop an interest in and an involvement with the school environment.

Doverspike (1970) suggests that gaming is an area that needs exploration as it relates to elementary counseling, especially as it relates to group counseling with elementary children. Counseling groups have the advantage of serving as "miniature social situations" in which less transfer of training is necessary and most significantly provide direct experience in social interaction, a criteria of unique importance at the elementary level (Dinkmeyer, 1966).

Technique II: Group Discussion

Three patterns of group discussion emerge in the literature, these are (a) the "authoritarian" group; (b) the "democratic" group; and (c) the "group-centered" group. In the authoritarian group the leaders are considered to be more capable and knowledgeable than the group members. In the democratic group the capabilities of the members and the leadership do not necessarily vary and motivation arises from

"common concerns." In the group-centered group the members select the problem to be considered and carry out the particular method of progression (Kemp, 1964).

For the "common concerns" group leader, Hayes (1958) lists four major functions which must be performed as this type of group progresses. He suggests that the democratic leader (a) focus discussion, (b) regulate discussion, (3) guide discussion, and (4) interpret and draw together group conclusions.

To accomplish the above goals, the leader facilitates planning and aids members in clarifying their goals as they relate to "common concerns." This is usually accomplished through listening, questioning, reacting, and, if necessary, reflecting, clarifying and synthesizing (Kemp, 1964). Thus, the effective leader of group discussion must utilize a variety of communication techniques.

Certainly a major characteristic that must be fostered in a well-functioning group is its ability to communicate; and, it is the leader's responsibility to foster such communication in a democratic group. In the actual group counseling process, the counselor, as group leader, becomes more of a "facilitator" of interaction (Kemp, 1964).

The leader fosters group discussion by fulfilling certain responsibilities. Peters, Shertzer, and Van Hoose (1965) suggest the following keys to productive group communication: rapport, acceptance, extending understanding, listening, observing, and opening and closing procedures.

The aspect of the technique of group discussion has many interacting variables most of which are affected by the leader's ability to deal with the above responsibilities. He must assume the responsibility of structuring the discussion, and maintaining focus toward the direction of needs and concerns of the members.

> The function of the leader is to interpret and maintain his service, both in content of discussion and in his understanding of group process. He helps the individual members of the group to face problems and come to decisions...He watches the direction of the discussion with reference to the purposes or goal which brings the group together and the reactions of the individuals within the group. The leader helps by structuring the discussion and holding to the limits established by the specific need of the group and the skilled service he offers (Kemp, 1964, p. 254 and 256).

The process of group discussion has been purported to be particularly conducive to fostering wholesome human relations. As boys and girls talk over their "common problems," it appears that they learn to appreciate their own and each other's individuality (Peters, Shertzer and Van Hoose, 1965).

Technique III: Teacher/ Counselor Consultation

Previous discussion has centered around the two techniques employed in the counseling setting of this study, those of gaming and group discussion. This last technique, consultation, has a somewhat different focus.

Dinkmeyer (1968) defines consultation as "...a process by which teachers, parents, principals, and other significant adults in the life of a child communicate about him" (p. 106).

The child is generally not present at the discussion where joint-planning is emphasized and decisions as to future procedures to be utilized with the child are formulated (Muro, 1970).

General concensus of opinion suggests that educational specialists within a school setting work as much with teachers as with students. It is difficult to determine at this time whether the major part of the counselor's time should be spent consulting with teachers and parents about a child; whether it should be utilized counseling with the child; or whether it should, in effect, be a balance between the two (Dinkmeyer, 1968; Muro, 1970).

Faust (1968) contends that counseling and consultation differ in two basic ways. These differences are in (a) focus, and (b) the kinds of relationships that are developed. The consultant maintains a relationship which focuses on external rather than internal variables in relation to the consultee. Therefore, there is not as much personal "risk" involved to the "self" of the consultee. From Faust's (1968) point of view, the most significant consultation functions are those with people and conditions in the school. In this type of setting, "the counselor-consultant is one who collaborates with the teacher in both classroom activities and curriculum development" (p. 24). He continues by stressing that the consultive relationship is one within a <u>discussion</u> structure, wherein an atmosphere of <u>exploration</u> is created. The unit of focus is usually devoted toward analysis of

normal, or expected developmental behavior of children; but it is much more than simply supplying answers.

> The job of the consultant then, when seen in this light, is one of helping teachers and parents to restore or enhance their own confidence in working with children rather than one of dispensing computer punch cards chock full of wisdom with a magic prescription for a problem (Muro, 1970, p. 96).

Consultation can be viewed as a process of sharing with another person or group, information and ideas, of combining knowledge and making mutually agreed upon decisions. In this setting there is communication about the child and plans developed through a collaboration of concerned individuals as to future plans for the child (Fattu and Elam, 1968).

With the development of counseling services at the elementary school, the role of the consultant has become one the counselor is finding to be invaluable. Faust (1968) suggests that the reasons for the increased focus on consulting have been varied--the emphasis on developmental counseling for all children, the fact that counselors have limited time to work directly with all children, the significance of teachers, parents, and the community at large in the life of the child, and the needs expressed by teachers and parents for this service.

An excellent guidance program, according to Fattu and Elam (1967), hinges on the good relationship between the classroom teacher and the counselor. They feel it essential to recognize that the classroom teacher is the backbone of the school and that the student/teacher relationship in the classroom is of vital concern. In light of this, they

contend that the counselor exists to enhance this relationship between the student and the teacher and to help the student better understand and profit from the school program.

Related Experimental Research

Although proponents of the field of elementary counseling appear to be increasing in number, research evidence to support the view that counseling is beneficial is most notable by its paucity. This can be understood in view of the relatively recent entrance of counseling at the elementary school level (Muro, 1970).

Of the experimental studies that have been conducted, few have produced positive results. Fisher (1962) reports of a study utilizing individual counseling with underachieving students in grades 4, 5, and 6 which did not produce more realistic aspiration behavior. Hall (1963) reports similar results with underachieving elementary school children, whose grade-point averages and self-concept measures resulted in no significant changes after individual counseling sessions.

Gooves (1963) conducted an experiment utilizing matched groups of sixth-grade pupils receiving individual counseling over a period of one year. The students who had received counseling by a trained specialist earned higher mean grades than a similar group of children who had received teacher counseling. In adjustment, however, the two groups scored similarly.

Biasco (1965) reported no significant differences between counseled and non-counseled students in relation to their sociometric status as measured by the Syracuse Scales of Social Relations. More recently, Kranzler, et al. (1966) found in a similar investigation that counseled students showed a significant change in their sociometric status when compared to non-counseled students.

Obviously there is conflicting evidence as to the effectiveness of elementary counseling. Additional research is needed to clarify the confusion. Few counselors devote time to research, however, either at the secondary or elementary level. The reasons behind this lack of research initiative are difficult to determine. One can anticipate that the counselor of the future will indulge in more serious investigations to determine the impact of the counseling process.

Muro (1970) proposes a few suggested areas for future study. Asterisks have been placed by those that are conceivably explored through this investigation.

*(1) Investigations which attempt to measure the effectiveness of group counseling with children.

*(2) Process studies to help define counselor and client role in elementary school group counseling.

*(3) Research efforts to help determine whether or not the combined efforts of a counselor and other specialists are more effective in helping children learn than are the individual efforts of either.

(4) Studies to determine group composition with reference to size, sex, homogeneity versus heterogeneity, and age factors in group procedures with children.

*(5) Studies investigating counseling outcomes when matched groups are counseled under different experimental conditions. For example, is play media more effective than verbal techniques in attaining counseling outcomes with elementary school children? (pp. 161-162).

Numerous other possibilities for research studies are possible. It is essential that these be explored to determine what benefits children accrue as a result of an elementary counseling program.

Although there are few well-designed studies in the area of gaming, research as a whole points to several conclusions. First, games produce increased motivation, tend to focus attention, and generate interest. Second, learning and retention is as great from games as from other methods, sometimes more so. Third, games have a positive effect upon the student's sense of control of the environment (Coleman, 1966; Seaman, 1966).

It is important to note that almost without exception the studies utilizing gaming procedures deal with "academic" learning skills rather than "social skills" (McKinney and Dill, 1966; Boocock, 1966). One exception to this rule, however, is the Life Career game developed by Sarane S. Boocock of Johns Hopkins University.

The purpose of the Life Career game is to give students familiarity and practice with the decisions that they will ultimately have to make in their own lives about jobs, further education or training, family life, and use of leisure. The results of an experiment conducted by Boocock (1966) reveal no conclusive evidence of the social effects of this game.

Although there seems to be some evidence to support the potential of games as instructional tools, there is relatively little focus upon some of their most interesting functions--their social processes (Coleman, 1966).

The Encyclopedia of Education (1971) suggests that the following kinds of effects can be predicted from game theory, these effects are, as of yet, not substantiated by empirical research. An asterisk has again been placed by those investigated by this study.

> *(1) ...an understanding of the relative costs and rewards of alternative strategies...in a given situation...
>
> *(2) an understanding of the nature and relative merits of competition...in reaching solutions to problems...
>
> *(3) an understanding of the role of chance in human affairs and the degree to which one's luck can be controlled by good planning...
>
> *(4) an understanding of general principles and concepts...by actual experience of them rather than by simply learning about them (p. 110).

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

Introduction

This chapter is a presentation of the procedural approaches which were utilized in this study. The methodology of instrumentation and of sample selection is given, as well as a description of the experimental treatments. In addition, an analysis of the research design and a discussion of the statistical treatments to be applied to the data are included.

Instrument Selection

A number of factors were involved in the selection of instruments which were utilized in this study. Of major importance, of course, was that the instruments be valid measures of the variables critical to the investigation. In addition, the instruments needed to be appropriate for use by fourth and fifth grade children. Two instruments were selected which seemed to most effectively meet these criteria, the California Test of Personality, Forms AA and BB, (CTP), and the Rating Scale for Pupil Adjustment.

California Test of Personality, Elementary Series

The CTP was developed by Thorpe, Clark, and Tiegs (1953) and is published by the California Test Bureau as an instrument for identifying student problems in personal and social adjustment. It was specifically designed to identify the status of certain adjustment factors generally considered to be "intangibles;" that is, "factors that defy appraisal or diagnosis by means of ordinary ability and achievement tests" (p. 2). With knowledge of a person's characteristic "modes of response" in a variety of situations which significantly affect him, the counselor or teacher has information for guidance in the helping relationship. The CTP was designed to detect behavioral tendencies which reveal undesirable individual adjustments. The definition of "personality" as reflected in the construction of this particular instrument refers to "...the manner and effectiveness with which the whole individual meets his personal and social problems, and indirectly the manner in which he impresses his fellows" (p. 2).

The "intangible factors" are assigned names and are composed of groupings of more or less specific patterns of feeling, thinking, and acting. The first section of the instrument, "Personal Adjustment," is assumed to be based on feelings of personal security; and, the second section, "Social Adjustment," on feelings of social security. Each of these two sections is made up of six subsections. Scores

in each section are totaled by combining the six subsection scores. The following are the factor groupings and their accompanying descriptions for the two sections of the CTP.

Personal Adjustment

1A. SELF-RELIANCE--An individual may be said to be self-reliant when his overt actions indicate that he can do things independently of others, depend upon himself in various situations, and direct his own activities. The self-reliant person is also characteristically stable emotionally, and responsible in his behavior.

B. SENSE OF PERSONAL WORTH--An individual possesses a sense of being worthy when he feels he is well regarded by others, when he feels that others have faith in his future success, and when he believes that he has average or better than average ability. To feel worthy means to feel capable and reasonably attractive.

C. SENSE OF PERSONAL FREEDOM--An individual enjoys a sense of freedom when he is permitted to have a reasonable share in the determination of his conduct and in setting the general policies that shall govern his life. Desirable personal freedom includes permission to choose one's own friends and to have at least a little spending money.

D. FEELING OF BELONGING--An individual feels that he belongs when he enjoys the love of his family, the well-wishes of good friends, and cordial relationships with people in general. Such a person will as a rule get along well with his teachers or employers and usually feels proud of his school or place of business.

E. WITHDRAWING TENDENCIES--The individual who is said to withdraw is the one who substitutes the joys of a fantasy world for actual success in real life. Such a person is characteristically sensitive, lonely, and given to self-concern. Normal adjustment is characterized by reasonable freedom from these tendencies.

F. NERVOUS SYMPTOMS--The individual who is classified as having nervous symptoms is the one who suffers from one or more of a variety of physical symptoms such as loss of appetite, frequent eye strain, inability to sleep, or a tendency to be chronically tired. People of this kind may be exhibiting physical expressions of emotional conflicts.

Social Adjustment

2A. SOCIAL STANDARDS--The individual who recognizes desirable social standards is the one who has come to understand the rights of others and who appreciates the necessity of subordinating certain desires to the needs of the group. Such an individual understands what is regarded as being right or wrong.

B. SOCIAL SKILLS--An individual may be said to be socially skillful or effective when he shows a liking for people, when he inconveniences himself to be of assistance to them, and when he is diplomatic in his dealings with both friends and strangers. The socially skillful person subordinates his or her egoistic tendencies in favor of interest in the problems and activities of his associates.

C. ANTI-SOCIAL TENDENCIES--An individual would normally be regarded as anti-social when he is given to bullying, frequent quarreling, disobedience, and destructiveness to property. The anti-social person is the one who endeavors to get his satisfactions in ways that are damaging and unfair to others. Normal adjustment is characterized by reasonable freedom from these tendencies.

D. FAMILY RELATIONS--The individual who exhibits desirable family relationships is the one who feels that he is loved and well-treated at home, and who has a sense of security and self-respect in connection with the various members of his family. Superior family relations also include parental control that is neither too strict nor too lenient.

E. SCHOOL RELATIONS--The student who is satisfactorily adjusted to his school is the one who feels that his teachers like him, who enjoys being with other students, and who finds the school work adapted to his level of interest and maturity. Good school relations involve the feeling on the part of the student that he counts for something in the life of the institution.

F. COMMUNITY RELATIONS--The individual who may be said to be making good adjustments in his community is the one who mingles happily with his neighbors, who takes pride in community improvements, and who is tolerant in dealing with both strangers and foreigners. Satisfactory community relations include as well the disposition to be respectful of laws and of

> regulations pertaining to the general welfare (Thorpe, Clark, and Tiegs, 1953, pp. 3-4).

The intercorrelations among the test sections for the elementary level (Form AA) of the test, varying from .63 to .77, are sufficiently low to support the desirability of studying the individual from the standpoint of both personal and social adjustment. The items of each of the factors were made consistent between forms by matching each item on From AA with an item on Form BB as to level of difficulty, discrimination power and internal consistency. Therefore, the means, standard deviations, and reliability data are identical for both forms.

Tests of internal consistency are reported in detail and they indicate an adequate degree of reliability, particularly for the lower scores, for both the total score and the two main components, social and personal adjustment. Note should be taken that it is with these lower scores that this investigation concerns itself. Directions for use of this instrument suggest that persons with scores at or below the fiftieth percentile be referred for further study.

Sims (1959), in a review of the CTP in Buros' Sixth Mental Measurements Yearbook writes that "...as a measure of self-concept in the, as of now vaguely defined area called adjustment, this test is as valid as most such instruments" (p. 103). This point of view is supported by Strong and Feder (1961, p. 170) when they note:

> Every evaluative statement that a person makes concerning himself can be considered a sample of his

> self-concept, from which inferences may then be made about the various properties of the self-concept.

Sims (1959) summarizes by stating that the "norms on this edition are considerably better than those for the earlier test...and, as personality inventories go, the California test would appear to be among the better ones available (p. 103).

The validity of the CTP for use in this investigation must be determined by relating the purposes for which the instrument was designed with the purposes of the study itself. Among the purposes for which the California Test of Personality was designed are the following:

> (1) To provide a frame of reference (including a conceptual structure and a sampling of specific types of thinking, feeling, and acting patterns) regarding the nature of personality determinants and their relationships to each other and to the total functioning personality.
>
> (2) To provide information about individuals which is useful in understanding their problems and improving their adjustment.
>
> (3) To serve as an instrument of research for obtaining other types of information (Thorpe, Clark, and Tiegs, 1953, p. 9).

This investigation reflects, to some degree, all three of these criteria. The identification of maladaptive patterns of behavior as a basis for the counseling process is essential to the proposed research procedure. On the basis of the foregoing information the CTP was determined a valid and appropriate instrument for examining the adjustment patterns of the sample employed in this study.

The Rating Scale for Pupil Adjustment

The Rating Scale for Pupil Adjustment was originally designed for use as a validity criterion for the Michigan Picture Test, and is published by Science Research Associates, Inc. The instrument is intended for use by classroom teachers to aid them in locating poorly adjusted students. The eleven items which make up the Scale were selected on the basis of clinical judgment, and numerical values or weights ranging from one through five were arbitrarily assigned to them. The following is a list of the eleven items and their accompanying definitions as they appear in the Rating Scale (1953):

I. Over-all Emotional Adjustment
(Definition: Total emotional adequacy in meeting the daily problems of living as shown in school.)

II. Social Maturity
(Definition: Ability to deal with social responsibilities in school, in the community, and at home, appropriate to his age.)

III. Tendency Toward Depression
(Definition: Tendency toward pervasive unhappiness.)

IV. Tendency Toward Aggressive Behavior
(Definition: Overt evidence of hostility and/or aggression toward other children and/or adults.

V. Extroversion-Introversion
(Definition: Tendency toward living outwardly and expressing his emotions spontaneously vs. tendency toward living inwardly and keeping emotions to himself.)

VI. Emotional Security
(Definition: Feeling of being accepted by and friendly toward one's environment and the people in it.)

VII. Motor Control and Stability
(Definition: Capacity for effective coordination and control of motor activity of the entire body.)

VIII. Impulsiveness
(Definition: Tendency toward sudden or marked changes of mood.)

IX. Emotional Irritability
(Definition: Tendency to become angry, irritated, or upset.)

X. School Achievement
(Definition: Over-all evaluation of pupil's competency in school subjects, relative to his own age group.)

XI. School Conduct
(Definition: Conduct in the classroom situation as evidence of his ability to accept the rules and regulations of the school community.)

On the basis of item intercorrelations, the items were grouped into seven categories. The manual suggests that the category entitled "Total Emotional Adjustment," (Items I, II, VI, and VIII) represents the best index of over-all adjustment. This category with the weighted value ratings, was utilized for this investigation. In completion of the Scale, each of these items are evaluated on a five-point scale, to be assigned ratings from A (good) through E (poor). A weighting system is provided to permit the derivation of a total score for "Total Emotional Adjustment," the higher scores reflecting better emotional adjustment. Although no cutoff scores are available, it is suggested that pupils rated in the lower portion of scores in a class be referred for further study.

Buros' Sixth Mental Measurements Yearbook (1959) reports that research upon the validity of the Scale is reported to be in progress. Results of this study should be in forthcoming editions of the Manual. A reliability study is reported which provides a product-moment correlation of .84 between two sets of ratings of 23 children made a month apart by the same teacher. The Manual for The Rating Scale for Pupil Adjustment (1953) reports a major reliability study which is under way, the results of which should also be available in forthcoming editions of the Manual.

The usefulness of such an instrument clearly depends upon the training of the rater in its use. Therefore, each teacher cooperating in the study received training in the use of the instrument at a group meeting conducted by the investigator wherein the Scale and the appropriate techniques for its completion was discussed.

The Sample

The teacher responses on the Rating Scale for Pupil Adjustment were scored and tabulated, and the "Total Emotional Adjustment" scores were calculated for all fourth and fifth grade students attending an Edmond, Oklahoma, elementary school. Fifty of the seventy-one students' "Total Emotional Adjustment" scores on the Rating Scale placed them at or below the fiftieth percentile, and therefore rendered them potential subjects for the study. From these fifty students, twenty-four were randomly selected to serve as the sample

for this investigation. Each of the twenty-four subjects were randomly assigned to one of the four groups employed, with each group consisting of six members. Treatments were randomly assigned to the four groups.

The Experimental Treatments

The four experimental groups, consisting of six members each, which were utilized in this investigation received the following described treatments. The treatments were administered during the spring semester of the 1971-72 school year immediately following the pretesting procedure on the California Test of Personality.

Experimental Group 1

This group of students was involved in bi-weekly, thirty-minute group counseling sessions conducted by this investigator for a period of nine weeks, or eighteen sessions. The counseling sessions employed the use of simulation games developed by Hawkins (1970). These games were designed with the intent of allowing children practice in decision-making skills concerning interpersonal relationships. The content of the counseling sessions, although relatively flexible, revolved around the following general format.

Weeks 1 and 2. These sessions were designed for rapport building among group members and were conducted to acquaint students with the process of group relationships

and the responsibilities of being a group member. Because the students were personally acquainted before entering the group situation, these rapport building sessions could be held to a minimum. Major concerns during these sessions were confidentiality of information shared within the group meetings, and interest in activities planned for forthcoming sessions.

Weeks 3 Through 7. During these sessions the five simulation games designed by Hawkins (1970) were employed. Each group member played the first two games independently, making the decisions as to alternatives for the behavior for the child in the game situation on an individual basis. In games three and four, the children worked in couples, wherein compromises were essential to arrive at decisions between alternatives. Game five was organized so that the children worked in two groups of three each, where again practice was supplied in working together in a "team" approach to decision-making. During this time, the first session of each week was devoted to the actual game playing activity followed by a brief discussion of the outcomes; and, the second session was utilized as an opportunity for discussion of the game played at the last session and the results of the decisions that had been made at that time. This period of reflective activity seemed to be essential in helping the children organize their thoughts and reactions to the actual game play.

Weeks 8 and 9. These sessions were designed for closure with discussions centering around implementation of the

decision-making skills that had been practiced in the group setting into the lives of the children outside of the group environment.

The five simulation games employed for this experimental treatment are presented in Appendices C-G of this paper. The Manual for Use of Simulation Activities is included in Appendix B for further clarification.

Experimental Group 2

This group of students was also involved in bi-weekly, thirty-minute counseling sessions for a period of nine weeks, or eighteen sessions, which were conducted by this experimenter. These counseling sessions followed the same format as that for Experimental Group 1, with the exception of the activities employed during weeks three through seven.

Weeks 3 Through 7. During these weeks, activities centered around discussion of decision-making skills, but actual practice of these skills through the use of the simulation games was not provided. Discussions centered around problems that these students were experiencing in relation to their home and school environment. Alternatives for behavior were discussed and suggestions for implementation of these alternatives outside of the group setting were shared between group members.

Except for this five week period of time, where discussion was employed in lieu of the simulation activities, this group received treatment that paralleled that of Experimental Group 1.

Experimental Group 3

The CTP and Rating Scale results for these students were discussed with their respective classroom teachers. At this time, emphasis was placed upon providing classroom situations for these students that would allow them practice in decision-making skills. Following this initial introductory session, the experimenter talked with each teacher twice more as to the progress of these students and plans for providing future decision-making situations were formulated. The children in this group had no actual contact with the counselor and did not experience group counseling sessions. All of the experimental treatment was provided through their teacher as a result of the three teacher/counselor consultation sessions.

Control Group

The students in this group received no experimental treatment during the nine weeks that this study was conducted. Their teachers were not informed of their test results or that they qualified for inclusion in the study. This was done in an effort to maintain typical classroom interaction for these students. The children in this group had no actual contact with this investigator during the experiment.

Following the nine weeks during which the foregoing treatments were employed, the twenty-four students involved in the investigation were again tested on the CTP. Appropriate statistical treatments to the pre-post measures were

utilized to determine the effect of the experimental treatments.

The Research Design

The research design which is utilized in this study is one to which Kerlinger (1964) refers as the "classical design" of research for studies of change. He titles the design, "Before and After Control-Group Design (Pretest-Posttest)." Figure 2 represents the basic structure of this design.

	Pretest	Experimental Treatment	Posttest
Experimental Group	Y_b	X	Y_a
Control Group	Y_b	(No X)	Y_a

Figure 2. Before and After Control-Group Design (Pretest-Posttest)

This design offers the most adequate control of factors other than the experimental treatment; and because it can be expanded to more than two groups it was selected for this investigation. According to Kerlinger (1964) it:

> ...supplies a comparison control group against which the difference $Y_b - Y_a$, can be checked. With only one group, we can never know whether history, maturation (or both), or the experimental manipulation of X produces the change in Y. When a control group is added, the situation becomes radically altered...Similarly, the effect of testing--Campbell's reactive measures--should be controlled. For if the testing affects the members of the

> experimental group it should similarly affect the members of the control group (p. 310).X

Figure 3 represents the expansion of the "Before and After Control Group Design" to include the four experimental treatment groups for this particular investigation.

	Pretest	Experimental Treatment	Posttest
Experimental Group 1	Y_b	$X_1 + X_2$	Y_a
Experimental Group 2	Y_b	X_2	Y_a
Experimental Group 3	Y_b	X_3	Y_a
Control Group	Y_b	(No X)	Y_a

X_1 = Simulation Games/Practice of decision-making skills.

X_2 = Group Counseling Sessions/Discussion of decision-making skills.

X_3 = Teacher-Counselor Consultation/Stressing provision for decision-making practice in the classroom.

(No X) = No treatment.

Figure 3. Expanded Before and After Control Group Design (Pretest-Posttest)

Statistical Treatment

The major data from this study were analyzed via three statistical procedures, i.e., correlated t-tests, simple

analysis of variance, and estimation of amount of change for an individual pupil. Two of these procedures--the t-test and the F-test--are designed to measure significant differences between the distribution parameters--means and variance--of two or more groups; in this case, between the pre and post scores of the subjects. Supplemental data were analyzed via independent t-tests, F-tests and Pearson product moment coefficient of correlation techniques.

The simple analysis of variance--F-test (Ferguson, 1966) --was calculated on the screening measures of the Rating Scale to test the hypothesis of no difference between experimental groups which were selected for the study. Figure 4 represents the formulas utilized for this analysis.

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F-ratio
Total	N_T-1	$\Sigma X_T^2 - \frac{\Sigma(X_T)^2}{N_T}$		
Between	a-1	$\frac{\Sigma(X_1)^2}{N_1}+\ldots\frac{\Sigma(X_a)^2}{N_a}-\frac{\Sigma(X_T)^2}{N_T}$	$\frac{SS_{between}}{df_{between}}$	$\frac{MS_{between}}{MS_{within}}$
Within	N_T-a	$SS_T - SS_{between}$	$\frac{SS_{within}}{df_{within}}$	

N = Number
T = Total
a = Number of groups
SS = Sum of squares
df = Degrees of freedom
MS = Mean square

Figure 4. Simple Analysis of Variance

The correlated t-test (Ferguson, 1966) was utilized to test the hypothesis of no difference between the pre and post scores of each of the four groups. t-tests were calculated from the total adjustment scores of the CTP, and this generated a t-test result for each of the four groups. Figure 5 represents the formula utilized for this analysis.

$$t = \frac{\overline{D}}{s_{\overline{D}}}$$

$$\text{where: } \overline{D} = \frac{(\Sigma D)}{N}$$

$$\text{and: } s_{\overline{D}} = \frac{s_D}{\sqrt{N}}$$

Figure 5. t-test for Correlated Samples

The simple analysis of variance--F-test--was calculated for the pre and post scores on the total adjustment factor of the CTP. The pretest results of the F-test were compared with the posttest results to ascertain if a significant difference had occurred between the post scores after the application of the experimental treatments. The alternative hypothesis would suggest a significant difference between these post scores based on the impact of one or all of the experimental treatments. The previous analysis of variance formulas were utilized for this analysis.

The third method by which the data were analyzed was the "estimation of amount of change for an individual pupil" (Davis, 1964, p. 238). This method allows the investigator to look at the difference between the pre and post scores of each subject and determine if the change is significant. The individual change method was utilized on each of the twelve components of the CTP. Also, on the two major section scores and the total adjustment score. This yielded a total of fifteen individual changes for each subject on the CTP. Figure 6 represents the formula utilized for this analysis.

$$S_{meas}(X-Y) = \sqrt{S^2_{measX} + S^2_{measY}}$$

Figure 6. Individual Change Score Estimation

Supplemental data ascertained from the California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity were also examined. Intelligence test scores for the population were contrasted to those of the sample using the t-test for independent samples to examine differences. Figure 7 represents the formula utilized for this analysis.

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{SE_{(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2)}} \qquad \text{where:} \quad SE_{(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2)} = \sqrt{\frac{s^2_{X_1}}{N_1} + \frac{s^2_{X_2}}{N_2}}$$

Figure 7. t-test for Independent Samples

A simple analysis of variance--F-test--was calculated to determine the degree of difference between the total I.Q. scores for the four groups in the study. See Figure 4 for the formulas utilized.

A Pearson product moment coefficient of correlation was also employed to determine the relationship between the California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity scores and those of the California Test of Personality. Figure 8 represents the formula utilized for this analysis.

$$r = \frac{\Sigma xy}{\sqrt{(\Sigma x^2)(\Sigma y^2)}}$$

Figure 8. Pearson Product Moment Coefficient of Correlation

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

In this chapter the presentation of the data and their analysis will be reported as they pertain to the hypotheses of this investigation. The data will be presented in accordance with the two major instruments employed in this study--the Rating Scale for Pupil Adjustment and the California Test of Personality. Supplemental data from the California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity will also be presented for analysis.

The "Total Emotional Adjustment" scores on the Rating Scale are analyzed by a simple analysis of variance technique to determine any differences that may have been present between experimental groups prior to experimental treatments. This analysis is essential to establish that the groups shared "common concerns," thus scored similarly on the Scale.

Total Adjustment scores on the California Test of Personality are analyzed on a pre-post basis by the correlated t-test technique to determine differences that occur within each experimental group and the control group. These scores are also examined by the simple analysis of variance technique (F-test) to determine if a significant difference

resulted between groups on the pre and post measures of both instruments. The pretest results of the F-tests are compared with the posttest results to ascertain if a significant difference has occurred as a result of the experimental treatments. A third method of anlaysis is the examination of individual change scores for all of the scales of the CTP. Counseling concerns itself with the needs of the individual student, therefore, this analysis is most valuable to determine individual growth factors as a result of the experimental treatments. Supplemental data on the California Short-Form of Mental Maturity is presented and analyzed by three methods. First, an independent t-test technique is utilized to examine intellectual differences between the fourth and fifth grade population and the sample drawn for this study. Second, a simple analysis of variance technique is employed to examine differences in total I.Q. measures for the four groups in the study. Finally, a Pearson product moment coefficient of correlation is employed to determine the relationship between intelligence test scores and scores on the CTP.

The initial posttesting session utilizing Form BB of of the CTP was contaminated by extraneous variables in the testing environment, which resulted in negative change scores for all groups in the study. A second posttesting session was conducted utilizing Form AA after an interim of two weeks between posttestings. Therefore, the data analyzed from the CTP on a pre-post basis will be drawn from the same form (AA). There was a fifteen week interim between the

pretesting on Form AA and the final posttesting procedure on Form AA, therefore, practice effects should not be a factor in the results.

Rating Scale for Pupil Adjustment Findings

The scores ascertained from the teacher ratings on the Rating Scale for Pupil Adjustment for students who were selected as subjects for the four groups of this study were analyzed to test the hypothesis:

H_{o1}: There is no significant difference in the measures on the "total emotional adjustment" factor of the Rating Scale for Pupil Adjustment between groups established for this investigation.

A simple analysis of variance--F-test--was calculated to determine the degree of difference between the teacher ratings for the four groups. The calculated F-value for the screening criteria analysis was .24. With 3,20 degrees of freedom an F-value of 3.10 was needed for significance at the .05 level. Therefore, the hypothesis of no difference between groups was not rejected for the measures of the "total emotional adjustment" factor of the Rating Scale for Pupil Adjustment. The data analysis for this hypothesis is presented in Table I.

TABLE I

BETWEEN GROUPS ANALYSIS OF SCREENING MEASURES ON THE RATING SCALE FOR PUPIL ADJUSTMENT

Measures	F-value	df
Screening	.24	3,20

$p > .05$

The California Test of Personality Findings

Within Group Comparisons

The pre-post "total adjustment" scores on the California Test of Personality within the three experimental groups and the control group were analyzed to test the hypothesis:

H_{o2}: There is no significant difference in the pre-post "total adjustment" scores on the California Test of Personality within groups experiencing:

(a) simulation gaming in group counseling sessions (Experimental Group 1).

(b) group discussion in group counseling sessions (Experimental Group 2).

(c) treatment as a result of teacher-counselor consultation (Experimental Group 3).

(d) no treatment (Control Group).

A correlated t-test was calculated to determine the degree of difference in pre-post "total adjustment" scores of the California Test of Personality. The calculated t-value for each of the four groups respectively was: .35, -.40, -1.14, and -1.64. With 5 degrees of freedom a t-value of 2.57 was needed for significance at the .05 level. Therefore, the hypothesis of no difference on the pre-post measures of "total adjustment" within groups was not rejected for all groups. The data analysis for this hypothesis is presented in Table II.

Between Group Comparisons

The differences ascertained on both pre and post "total adjustment" scores on the CTP between the three experimental

TABLE II

WITHIN GROUPS ANALYSIS OF PRE-POST MEASURES ON THE CALIFORNIA TEST OF PERSONALITY

Group	t-value	df
1	.35	5
2	- .40	5
3	-1.14	5
4	-1.64	5

$p > .05$

groups and the control group were analyzed to test the hypothesis:

H_{o3}: There is no significant difference in the pre or post measures on the "total adjustment" factor of the CTP between groups experiending:

(a) simulation gaming in group counseling sessions (Experimental Group 1).

(b) group discussion in group counseling sessions (Experimental Group 2).

(c) treatment as a result of teacher/counselor consultation (Experimental Group 3).

(d) no treatment (Control Group).

A simple analysis of variance--F-test--was calculated to determine the degree of difference between the pretest "total adjustment" scores for the four groups. The calculated F-value for the pretest analysis was .64; for the posttest an F-value of .46 was obtained. With 3,20 degrees of freedom an F-value of 3.10 was needed for significance at the .05 level. Therefore, the hypothesis of no difference between groups was not rejected for both pre and post measures on the "total adjustment" factor of the CTP. The data analysis for this hypothesis is presented in Table III.

TABLE III

BETWEEN GROUPS ANALYSIS OF PRE AND POST MEASURES ON THE CALIFORNIA TEST OF PERSONALITY

Measures	F-value	df
Pretest	.64	3,20
Posttest	.46	3,20

$p > .05$

Individual Change Score Analysis

Experimental Group 1. The individual subject's pre-post scores on the fifteen scales of the CTP were analyzed for Experimental Group 1 to test the hypothesis:

H_{o4}: There is no significant difference in the pre-post scale scores for students experiencing group counseling employing simulation games (Technique 1) in the following aspects:

(a) self-reliance
(b) sense of personal worth
(c) sense of personal freedom
(d) feeling of belonging
(e) withdrawal tendencies
(f) nervous symptoms
(g) social standards
(h) social skills
(i) anti-social tendencies
(j) family relations
(k) school relations
(l) community relations
(m) personal adjustment (a-f above)
(n) social adjustment (g-l above)
(o) total adjustment (a-l above)

A technique was employed which provides an "estimation of amount of change for an individual pupil" (Davis, 1964, p. 238). This technique allowed the investigator to examine the difference between the pre and post scores of each subject to determine if the change was significant or simply a result of errors of measurement.

The hypothesis of no difference was rejected for those individuals whose change scores on the CTP sub-scales proved significant at the .15 level. Table IV presents data relevant to this hypothesis. An examination of the table reveals that the sub-scales measuring: (a) sense of personal freedom; (b) feeling of belonging; (c) social standards; and

TABLE IV

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP 1: PRE-POST CTP INDIVIDUAL CHANGE SCORE ANALYSIS

Subjects: / Scale	1#	2	3#	4	5#	6
	Individual Change Scores					
Self-Reliance	- 1	1	4*	-1	3	3
Sense of Personal Worth	- 4*	2	1	-1	8*	1
Sense of Personal Freedom@	2	- 4*	4*	3*	3*	1
Feeling of Belonging@	- 6*	- 3*	1	1	5*	2*
Withdrawal Tendencies	4*	0	1	2	4*	1
Nervous Symptoms@	- 1	2	3	-3	3	-1
Social Standards@	- 3*	0	0	-3*	- 1	-3*
Social Skills	- 2	4*	2	1	1	0
Anti-Social Tendencies	1	0	- 3*	1	1	-3*
Family Relations	- 1	0	0	-1	- 1	3*
School Relations	- 2	1	2	-3*	0	1
Community Relations@	- 2*	- 2*	- 2*	-4*	2*	1
Personal Adjustment@	- 6	- 2	14*	1	26*	7
Social Adjustment	- 9*	3	3	-9*	2	-1
Total Adjustment@	-15*	17*	17*	-8	28*	6

*$p < .15$

@Scales with high rate of pre-post change.

#Subjects with high degree of pre-post change.

(d) community relations; were most significantly affected by the experimental treatment. The scores for subjects 1, 3, and 5 indicate a high degree of change on these scales of the CTP.

Experimental Group 2. The individual subject's pre-post scores on the fifteen scales of the CTP were analyzed for Experimental Group 2 to test the hypothesis:

H_{o5}: There is no significant difference in the pre-post scale scores for students experiencing group counseling employing group discussion (Technique 2) in the following aspects:

(a) self-reliance
(b) sense of personal worth
(c) sense of personal freedom
(d) feeling of belonging
(e) withdrawal tendencies
(f) nervous symptoms
(g) social standards
(h) social skills
(i) anti-social tendencies
(j) family relations
(k) school relations
(l) community relations
(m) personal adjustment (a-f above)
(n) social adjustment (g-l above)
(o) total adjustment (a-l above)

The hypothesis of no difference was rejected for those individuals whose change scores on the CTP sub scales proved significant at the .15 level. Table V presents data relevant to this hypothesis. An examination of the table reveals that the sub-scales measuring: (a) sense of personal worth; (b) feeling of belonging; (c) anti-social tendencies; (d) family relations; and (e) community relations; were most significantly affected by the experimental treatment. The scores for subjects 7, 9, 10, and 12 indicate a high degree of change on these scales of the CTP.

TABLE V

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP 2: PRE-POST CTP INDIVIDUAL CHANGE SCORE ANALYSIS

Subjects:	7#	8	9#	10#	11	12#
Scale	Individual Change Scores					
Self-Reliance	0	0	- 2	1	-2	- 1
Sense of Personal Worth@	7*	-1	- 5*	- 5*	7*	4*
Sense of Personal Freedom	4*	2	- 2	- 4*	0	- 1
Feeling of Belonging@	2*	0	- 7*	- 5*	3*	3*
Withdrawal Tendencies	3	0	5*	- 2	-1	9*
Nervous Symptoms	2	2	- 5*	- 1	-1	- 2
Social Standards	- 1	-1	1	- 1	-1	- 2*
Social Skills	0	1	- 2	1	3*	1
Anti-Social Tendencies@	2*	1	- 4*	- 1	-4*	2*
Family Relations@	2*	2*	- 8*	- 4*	2*	- 1
School Relations	- 2*	4*	- 2	- 2	-2	1
Community Relations@	- 2*	-2*	2*	- 4*	2*	1
Personal Adjustment@	18*	3	-16*	-16*	6	12*
Social Adjustment@	- 1	5	-13*	-11*	0	2
Total Adjustment@	17*	8	-29*	-27*	6	14*

*$p < .15$

@Scales with high rate of pre-post change.

#Subjects with high degree of pre-post change.

Experimental Group 3. The individual subject's pre-post scores on the fifteen scales of the CTP were analyzed for Experimental Group 3 to test the hypothesis:

H_{o6}: There is no significant difference in the pre-post scale scores for students experiencing teacher/counselor consultation (Technique III) in the following aspects:

(a) self-reliance
(b) sense of personal worth
(c) sense of personal freedom
(d) feeling of belonging
(e) withdrawal tendencies
(f) nervous symptoms
(g) social standards
(h) social skills
(i) anti-social tendencies
(j) family relations
(k) school relations
(l) community relations
(m) personal adjustment (a-f above)
(n) social adjustment (g-l above)
(o) total adjustment (a-l above)

The hypothesis of no difference was rejected for those individuals whose change scores on the CTP sub-scales proved significant at the .15 level. Table VI presents data relevant to this hypothesis. An examination of the table reveals that the sub-scales measuring: (a) social standards, (b) social skills; (c) school relations; and (d) community relations; were most significantly affected by the experimental treatment. The scores for subjects 14, 15, 16, 17, and 18 indicate a high degree of change on these scales of the CTP.

Control Group. The individual subject's pre-post scores on the fifteen scales of the CTP were analyzed for the Control Group to test the hypothesis:

H_{o7}: There is no significant difference in the pre-post scale scores for the students in the Control Group in the following aspects:

TABLE VI

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP 3: PRE-POST CTP INDIVIDUAL CHANGE SCORE ANALYSIS

Subjects:	13	14#	15#	16#	17#	18#
Scale	Individual Change Scores					
Self-Reliance	7*	- 3	- 3	4*	- 2	- 3
Sense of Personal Worth	5*	- 2	- 2	3	0	- 5*
Snese of Personal Freedom	1	- 5*	2	1	4*	0
Feeling of Belonging	2*	- 5*	- 1	1	0	- 1
Withdrawal Tendencies	5*	4*	2	2	- 2	1
Nervous Symptoms	- 2	- 5*	- 2	3	- 4*	- 1
Social Standards@	- 5*	- 4*	- 1	2*	- 4*	0
Social Skills@	- 5*	- 3*	- 6*	1	- 3*	- 2
Anti-Social Tendencies	- 1	1	- 3*	- 2*	1	0
Family Relations	- 1	- 6*	1	0	0	2*
School Relations@	0	- 3*	1	5*	- 4*	- 4*
Community Relations@	1	- 5*	1	- 2*	- 2*	1
Personal Adjustment@	18*	-16*	- 4	14*	- 4	- 9*
Social Adjustment@	-11*	-20*	- 7*	4	-12*	- 3
Total Adjustment@	7	-36*	-11*	18*	-16*	-12*

*$p < .15$

@Scales with high rate of pre-post change.

#Subjects with high degree of pre-post change.

(a) self-reliance
(b) sense of personal worth
(c) sense of personal freedom
(d) feeling of belonging
(e) withdrawal tendencies
(f) nervous symptoms
(g) social standards
(h) social skills
(i) anti-social tendencies
(j) family relations
(k) school relations
(l) community relations
(m) personal adjustment (a-f above)
(n) social adjustment (g-l above)
(o) total adjustment (a-l above)

The hypothesis of no difference was rejected for those individuals whose change scores on the CTP sub-scales proved significant at the .15 level. Table VII presents data relevant to this hypothesis. An examination of the table reveals that the sub-scales measuring: (a) social standards, (b) social skills; (c) anti-social tendencies; (d) family relations; and (e) community relations; were most significantly affected. The scores for subjects 23 and 24 indicate a high degree of change on these scales of the CTP.

Supplemental Data

Intelligence Test Comparisons Between Population and Sample

The intelligence quotient scores for subjects in the total fourth and fifth grade population of the school and those of the students selected for the sample in this study were analyzed to test the hypothesis:

H_{o8}: There is no significant difference in the I. Q. scores as measured by the California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity between the population and the sample (Groups 1-4).

TABLE VII

CONTROL GROUP: PRE-POST CTP INDIVIDUAL CHANGE SCORE ANALYSIS

Subjects:	19	20	21	22	23#	24#
Scale	Individual Change Scores					
Self-Reliance	-1	-2	1	2	1	- 1
Sense of Personal Worth	3	0	-1	2	- 4*	4*
Sense of Personal Freedom	2	-2	0	0	0	- 7*
Feeling of Belonging	2*	-1	-1	-1	- 7*	- 1
Withdrawal Tendencies	0	6*	1	0	- 3	- 3
Nervous Symptoms	0	2	1	-2	- 1	- 3
Social Standards@	-1	-4*	0	-1	- 2*	- 3*
Social Skills@	-1	3*	2	2	3*	- 3*
Anti-Social Tendencies@	-1	-1	4*	2*	3*	- 1
Family Relations@	-2*	4*	-3*	1	- 2*	- 1
School Relations	1	0	-4*	0	- 1	- 1
Community Relations@	-4*	-4*	-2*	1	1	0
Personal Adjustment	6	3	1	-1	-14*	-11*
Social Adjustment	-8*	-2	-3	5	2	- 9*
Total Adjustment	-2	1	-2	4	-12*	-20*

*$p < .15$

@Scales with high rate of pre-post change.

#Subjects with high degree of pre-post change.

A t-test for independent samples was calculated to determine the degree of difference between these two groups. The calculated t-value for this difference was 4.23. With 81 degrees of freedom, a t-value of 3.43 was required for significance at the .0005 level. The calculated t-value exceeds the .0005 level of significance, therefore, the hypothesis of no difference on I.Q. measures between the sample and the population from which it was drawn was rejected. Table VIII is a presentation of the data analysis for this hypothesis.

TABLE VIII

COMPARISON BETWEEN I. Q. SCORES OF THE SAMPLE AND THE POPULATION ON THE CALIFORNIA SHORT-FORM TEST OF MENTAL MATURITY

Group	Mean I. Q.'s	t-value	df
Sample (Groups 1-4)	109.88		
Population	120.76	4.23	81

$p < .0005$

Intelligence Test Comparisons Between Groups

The intelligence quotients for subjects in the three experimental groups and the control group were analyzed to test the hypothesis:

H_{o9}: There is no significant difference in I. Q. scores as measured by the California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity between the four groups which composed the sample for this study.

A simple analysis of variance--F-test--was calculated to determine the degree of difference between the intelligence quotients for the four groups. The calculated F-value for the I. Q. differences between groups was .62. With 3,20 degrees of freedom, an F-value of 3.10 was needed for significance at the .05 level. Therefore, the hypothesis of no difference between the I. Q.'s of the four groups was not rejected. The data relevant to this hypothesis are summarized in Table IX.

TABLE IX

I. Q. DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE FOUR GROUPS AS MEASURED BY THE CALIFORNIA SHORT-FORM TEST OF MENTAL MATURITY

Group	Mean I. Q.'s	F-value	df
Group 1	104		
Group 2	112		
Group 3	112.5		
Control Group	111	.62	3,20

$p > .05$

CTP and I. Q. Score Comparisons

The "total adjustment" scores on the CTP and the intelligence quotient scores on the California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity were analyzed to test the hypothesis:

H_{o10}: There is no significant relationship between "total adjustment" scores on the CTP and I.

Q. scores on the California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity for those students serving as subjects for this study.

A Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was calculated to determine the relationship between the total scores on the CTP and the California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity using the subjects in this investigation. The calculated r-value was .41. The conversion to a t-value for determining significance resulted in a t-value of 2.32. With 22 degrees of freedom a t-value of 2.07 was needed for significance at the .05 level. Therefore, the hypothesis of no relationship was rejected. Table X is a presentation of the relevant data for this hypothesis.

TABLE X

RELATIONSHIP OF I. Q. SCORES AND ADJUSTMENT SCORES

r-value	t-value	df
.41	2.32	22

$p < .05$

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Overview of the Study

The problem investigated in this study was whether or not experience with the decision-making process would significantly alter the ineffective behaviors of fourth and fifth grade boys and girls. The experiences of the investigation were provided through the utilization of three counseling techniques--simulation gaming, group discussion, and minimal teacher/counselor consultation.

The study was originally based upon the assumption that the ineffective behaviors of children may simply be manifestations of a lack of an awareness of more appropriate alternative behaviors. The contention was that this lack of awareness might be based in an inability to effectively utilize the decision-making process to ascertain more satisfying behaviors. The intent of this investigation, therefore, was to provide children exhibiting ineffective behavior patterns in the school environment with experiences in decision-making and to analyze the effect of these experiences upon their behavior.

The subjects of the study were twenty-four fourth and fifth grade children from a selected school in the Edmond, Oklahoma, public school system. These children were identified as exhibiting ineffective behavior patterns by virtue of their scores on the Rating Scale for Pupil Adjustment. They were randomly assigned to experimental groups and received treatment for nine weeks in the form of: (a) group counseling employing the use of simulation gaming; (b) group counseling utilizing the technique of group discussion; and (c) teacher/counselor consultation stressing decision-making experiences. A control group was employed to contrast any differences that might have occurred as a result of the experimental treatments. Pre-post measures were collected and statistically analyzed for the four groups (see Chapter IV). This chapter presents and analyzes the findings of this investigation from which conclusions and implications are drawn and recommendations for future areas of study are cited.

Review of Findings

The findings of this study will be reviewed as they relate to the previously stated hypothesis under investigation.

(1) The hypothesis of no difference between groups in "total emotional adjustment" scores on the Rating Scale for Pupil Adjustment was not rejected on the screening measures. The calculated F-value on the ratings by the teachers was

.24. This was expected as all students included in the study were to have scored similarly on this rating instrument. It is supported, therefore, that the selection procedure and the random assignment process for the sample were successful in controlling extraneous variables.

(2) The hypothesis of no pre-post difference within groups in "total adjustment" scores on the California Test of Personality was not rejected for all groups. Those students experiencing the simulation gaming technique showed a positive change in pre-post scores. All other groups, including the control group, displayed negative t-values on the pre-post measures (see Table II, p. 62).

(3) The hypothesis of no difference between groups in "total adjustment" scores on the California Test of Personality was not rejected on both pre and post measures. The calculated F-value on the pretest for the groups was .64. This low F-value supports the contention that the selection procedure and the process of random assignment were successful in controlling extraneous variables. The posttesting procedure revealed an F-value of .46, indicating a negative difference of .18 between pre and post F-values. Table XI presents mean changes in the four groups from pre to posttesting. Those students experiencing simulation gaming showed positive improvement in "total adjustment" scores. The students in Experimental Group 3 that received treatment through the means of minimal teacher/counselor consultation show a marked decrease in scores.

TABLE XI

MEAN CHANGE SCORE ANALYSIS OF PRE-POST MEASURES ON THE CALIFORNIA TEST OF PERSONALITY

Group	Pre Mean	Post Mean	Mean Change
1	86.50	88.67	2.17
2	92.17	88.50	-3.67
3	94.17	85.67	-8.50
4	81.67	75.83	-5.84

(4) The hypothesis of no difference in the pre-post CTP scale scores of subjects in Experimental Group 1 was rejected for those subjects whose change scores were significant at the .15 level (see Table IV, p. 65). Subject 1 displayed a significant degree of over-all negative change scores while subjects 3 and 5 indicated significantly positive over-all change scores. Subjects 2 and 6 projected improved results, and subject 4 had somewhat negative over-all results, although these were not effected to a significant degree. The scale measuring the "sense of personal freedom" had a high rate of positive change on pre-post measures, while the scale measuring the "feeling of belonging" had approximately equal positive and negative rates of change. The scale concerned with "social standards," and "community relations" had higher rates of negative pre-post changes. These four scales composed the major portion of the significant change scores

for the subjects experiencing the simulation gaming technique in group counseling sessions.

(5) The hypothesis of no difference in the pre-post CTP scale scores of subjects in Experimental Group 2 was rejected for those subjects whose change scores were significant at the .15 level (see Table V, p. 67). Subjects 7 and 12 displayed a significant degree of over-all positive change scores while subjects 9 and 10 indicated significantly negative over-all changes. Subjects 8 and 11 projected improved over-all scores although not to a significant degree. The scales measuring "sense of personal worth," "feeling of belonging," and "family relations" had a high rate of positive change on pre-post measures. Scales measuring "anti-social tendencies," and "community relations" had a high rate of negative change scores. These five scales composed the major portion of the significant change scores for the subjects experiencing the technique of group discussion in group counseling sessions.

(6) The hypothesis of no difference in the pre-post CTP scale scores of subjects in Experimental Group 3 was rejected for those subjects whose change scores were significant at the .15 level (see Table VI, p. 69). Subjects 14, 15, 17, and 18 displayed a significant degree of over-all negative change scores while subject 16 indicated significantly positive over-all results. Subject 13 projected an over-all improvement in scores although not to a significant degree. A close analysis of his scores reveals that his improved

scores result from scales dealing with "personal adjustment" while scales relating to "social adjustment" are negatively effected. Scales measuring "social standards," "social skills," "school relations," and "community relations" all indicate a high rate of negative change from pre to post measures. These four scales all fall within the subcategory of "social adjustment" and compose the major portion of the significant change scores for the subjects receiving treatment through minimal teacher/counselor consultation.

(7) The hypothesis of no difference in the pre-post CTP scale scores of subjects in the control group was rejected for those subjects whose change scores were significant at the .15 level (see Table VII, p. 71). Subjects 23 and 24 displayed a significant degree of over-all negative change scores. Subjects 19 and 21 displayed somewhat improved over-all scores although not to a significant degree. Scales measuring "social standards," "family relations," and "community relations" all indicate a high rate of negative change from pre to post measures. Scales dealing with "social skills," and "anti-social tendencies" indicate improved change scores. An analysis of these findings again reveals high rates of significant negative changes in the "social adjustment" subscales. The five scales previously listed compose the major portion of significant change scores for subjects receiving no experimental treatment.

(8) The hypothesis of no difference in total I. Q. scores between the total population of fourth and fifth

children at the selected school and the sample drawn from these grades for this study was rejected at the .05 level (see Table VIII, p. 72). It was determined that the mean I. Q. for the population (120.76) and that of the sample (109.88) were significantly different to reject the null hypothesis. The t-value of the difference was 4.23 which proved significant at the .0005 level. Although the mean I. Q. for the sample was within the average range of scores on the California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity, the typical scores for this particular school proved significantly above the average, so that these children, when compared to others in the school environment, would not be classified as "average" achievers.

(9) The hypothesis of no difference in total I. Q. scores between the four groups utilized in this investigation was not rejected at the .05 level (see Table IX, p. 73). The mean I. Q.'s for the four groups respectively were: 104, 112, 112.5, and 111. The calculated F-value of the differences was .62 which was not significant at the .05 level. It is assumed, therefore, that the subjects which served in the four groups were of equivalent intellectual capacity and were within what is usually referred to as the "average range" of ability. This factor, as others previously indicated, supports the contention that the sample selection procedure and the process of random assignment were successful in controlling extraneous variables.

(10) The hypothesis of a nonsignificant relationship between total scores on the CTP and the California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity was rejected, as the relationship proved significant at the .05 level (see Table X, p. 74). The adjustment measure utilized for this investigation was highly correlated with intelligence for this particular sample of students.

Analysis of Findings

An analysis of the previous findings allows the formulation of the following propositions with due consideration to the limitations and constraints of this study:

(1) Children experiencing behavioral difficulties tend to display improved patterns of behavior following group counseling sessions employing simulation gaming techniques.

(2) Children experiencing simulation gaming in group counseling sessions indicate improvement in their "sense of personal freedom."

(3) Children experiencing group counseling display positive changes in their "personal adjustment" behaviors.

(4) Children experiencing treatment through teacher/counselor consultation display higher rates of ineffective behavior patterns of a social nature following minimal consultive treatment.

(5) Children manifesting behavioral difficulties will show an increase in inappropriate behaviors if no treatment is administered.

(6) Children of average intellectual ability may be judged by their teachers as "below average" pupils when they are compared with a school population scoring significantly above average on intelligence measures.

(7) Adjustment measures may in fact be incorporating an intelligence component.

(8) The sample selection technique and random assignment process were successful in controlling extraneous variables for this study. The groups were equivalent in the variables under investigation.

Conclusions and Implications

The following conclusions and implications can be drawn from the previously stated findings of this investigation:

(1) Simulation games should continue to be utilized and analyzed in group counseling sessions in the elementary school to aid children in selecting more appropriate behaviors. Therefore, elementary counselors should be trained in their development and utilization.

(2) The process of simulation gaming should be analyzed more extensively in the elementary school setting in conjunction with other techniques of counselor behavior when dealing with ineffective behaviors of children.

(3) Simulation games aid children in developing decision-making skills which affords them a sense of "freedom to choose" among alternatives for behavior. Games

should, therefore, be utilized with children indicating a need for these particular skills.

(4) Group counseling processes enable the child to develop an improved sense of "self" in relation to his environment. Children exhibiting difficulties in self-acceptance and self-worth should benefit from group experiences.

(5) Minimal teacher/counselor consultation may tend to be ineffective, particularly where teachers view the majority of their class as being maladjusted and/or where the consultant is not a member of the school faculty. Such treatment must be given much more intensive utilization and analysis in the future.

(6) Counseling has the function in the elementary school of aiding children to develop appropriate behaviors and in preventing the increase of ineffective behavior patterns. The logical emphasis, therefore, would seem to be upon prevention rather than remediation.

(7) Educators may have a tendency to "classify" children on a basis relative to the performance of the "majority" in the school setting. Therefore, children representing average intellectual ability may suffer from this classification in a population composed of highly capable students. The counselor's function may be one of discouraging this classification tendency among staff members in the school environment.

(8) Adjustment and intelligence may be highly interrelated. If, however, they are unique components of behavior we have, thus far, been unsuccessful in isolating them for examination. Work must continue on the development of increasingly valid instrumentation.

(9) The sample selection technique and the random assignment process successfully indentifed and isolated the variables investigated by this study. This suggests that we are able to identify and deal with common concerns of children by utilizing such techniques.

Recommendations

This study brings to light several questions which suggest future exploration.

(1) What effects, other than the ones explored by this investigation, do the experimental treatments have upon the behaviors of children?

(2) What environments (classroom vs. counseling sessions) and what leaders (teachers vs. counselors) utilizing the experimental treatments have the greatest impact upon the behavior of children?

(3) What social skills, other than decision-making, can be improved through the use of the experimental treatments?

(4) What effect do the experimental treatments have upon the development of feelings of self-confidence in children?

(5) What effect does intense teacher/counselor consultation have upon ineffective behavior patterns?

(6) How might elementary counselors most effectively aid others in the school environment to accept children on an "individual" basis rather than in relation to a "norm?"

To answer these and other pertinent questions, elementary counselors must receive training in the development and utilization of counselor functioning techniques. Counselors must also become more efficient researchers to determine those behaviors and techniques that are most beneficial in helping children learn to deal with their environment. It would seem essential that we ultimately deal with the perplexing question, "Is it the 'person,' the 'technique,' or their unique combination, that makes the difference in the life of a child?" Perhaps when this question finds an answer other questions will seem insignificant. Until that time it seems we must keep searching, keep observing, and keep exploring the process of child development and our responsibilities in relation to it.

Should this study be replicated in future research, the following modifications and revisions are suggested:

(1) Increase of treatment time to allow more in-depth group work.

(2) Development of additional simulation games of varying lengths and involvement.

(3) An in-resident counselor that is unaware of the variables under analysis, who is already established as a staff

member in a school, and who is previously acquainted with the students and teachers to administer treatments.

(4) Formulation of all-male or all-female groups for the intermediate grades.

(5) Selection or development of instruments more effective in isolating the variables under analysis.

Summary

The original theory base that was established for this investigation purported that children require successful interpersonal experiences within their environment to establish feelings of competence and effectiveness. The capacities that seem most essential in assuring successful interactions are those of solving, of coping, and of choosing. The child who is capable of solving problems is an actor upon his environment as opposed to a reactor to circumstances. A child capable of coping with the external demands of his world becomes able to control and eventually master his environment. The child possessing a feeling of choice experiences a true sense of freedom which is uniquely human. The challenge to us as educators is to foster and maintain this "freedom to choose" so that the child can effectively contend with his most pressing need "to know"--to know about himself and his world as he experiences it.

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APPENDIX A

SOME QUOTATIONS FOR DISCUSSION:

THE ROLE OF EDUCATION*

The purpose of education is to prepare students for complete living (Herbert Spencer).

A major function of liberal arts colleges is to help students learn the art of making rational decisions (George R. Taylor).

Education should direct students to courses of action which tend most effectively to promote their greatest happiness (Francis Hutcheson).

Education should include the formation of wide-awake, careful, thorough habits of thinking. Students should be trained to guide action by thoughtful decisions (John Dewey).

Students should be trained to apply scientific habits of thought to both civic and personal problems. This training can best be developed by leading the students to apply these habits of solving policy problems both inside and outside the classroom (President's Commission on Higher Education).

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*Excerpt from Gordon Fulcher's, Common Sense Decision Making, "Appendix B," (Evanston, Illinois: Northwestern University Press), 1965.

APPENDIX B

MANUAL FOR USE OF SIMULATION ACTIVITIES

Introduction

The games or simulation activities developed here are designed to help teach children skills in making choices concerning interpersonal relationships. All of us are faced daily with numerous choices concerning every aspect of living. Some of the most crucial choices in terms of mental health are those involving our interactions with other people. We spend less time, however, in helping children learn to make these kinds of choices than any aspect of the school curriculum. Human relations teaching is most often left to chance through example, moralizing, and rewards or punishments following a particular behavior.

Many teachers have utilized role playing and open ended stories to help children develop alternative ways of behaving. The use of these simulation activities combines elements of both role playing and open ended stories and adds the further element of being a game in which a choice is made, the consequence of the choice is determined, chance factors are involved and the player can either win or lose.

Coleman (Boocock and Schild, 1966) describes a simulation game as a play upon life in a restricted context. The factors in the game that facilitate learning are the

requirement for action, looking for simple elements in a complex situation, and being rewarded for mastery.

As part of a program in helping children learn interpersonal skills these games would emphasize most the skills of decision making. Bross (1953) includes these elements in decision theory: (1) a list of actions (2) a list of outcomes for each action, (3) a probability associated with each outcome, (4) a desirability associated with each outcome. Stressing the fact that we do make choices in social situations and that these choices have certain outcomes is emphasized in these games.

The element of chance is built into these games. A decision may have a good or a bad outcome. This is not done to provide an out or a scapegoat if things don't work out well, but to recognize the fact that we do not have complete control over events in our lives. When chance events affect the situation then the player must consider these in the next choice he makes.

Directions for Use of Games

(1) The games may be used with a whole class or in a small group setting. The discussion period following the actual playing of the game is important in the learning that takes place. When the games are first used it is necessary to discuss terminology used such as alternatives, consequences, outcomes, etc. Since the element of chance is a factor in determining the outcome of the game it would be

helpful to have a discussion of chance or "luck." Perhaps beginning with something such as--Did you ever plan a picnic and then on the day of the picnic have it rain? How did you feel when that happened? What did you do? Can you think of other times when chance has changed your plans? Are there some people that you have felt are lucky--that no matter what they do things seem to turn out well?

(2) Though players may work alone, there is value in working in pairs as they select the alternative behavior and look at possible outcomes.

(3) The game is played in two rounds.

(a) Each player or pair of players is given the sheet that represents the situation, the rules, and the list of alternatives.

(b) After reading and answering questions about the situation or rules players are given the record sheet and are then to select an alternative and write why this was selected.

(c) After they make their selection they are awarded points for the particular selection. This is done because they may make an appropriate decision but receive a bad outcome. A reward is given for the appropriate decision.

(d) Players rotate the spinner and receive the outcome for their decision. The points are added to or subtracted from the ones gotten for the decision.

(e) In round two players may either decide to take no further action, select another alternative from those given, or write an alternative of their own. The players risk some of their points on the second round. The game administrator determines the outcome on the second round based on the reason given for making the choice. Players either double the points risked or lose the points risked.

(f) Points for both rounds are added. Those with the highest points are winners.

(g) A discussion should follow the playing of the game. Look first at satisfaction with the outcome, differences in choices made, and the different outcomes. As players relate their feelings and reactions tie these into their own experiences. It is important in these discussions that children be able to express their values and attitudes freely and for the leader to be a facilitator of discussion.

RECORD SHEET

Round 1

Choice_____ Points for Choice___

Points for Outcome___

Total Points___

Is the outcome O.K.?_____

What makes you feel this way?_____

_____

Round 2

Alternative_____

_____

Reason for choice_____

_____ Points Risked _____

Outcome_____

_____

Points____

Total Points Round 2____

Points in Round 1, Not Risked in Round 2____

Total Points-Game____

How do you feel about the way the game turned out?

APPENDIX C

GEORGE

Rules of the Game

You are to make choices for the person that will lead to a satisfactory outcome.

(1) Read the list of possible ways that the person could behave. Select one and tell why you choose it.

(2) Bring your selection to the "outcome table." You will get points for making a decision.

(3) Read the consequences of the decision. It may be a good outcome or it may be one that is not good. You could get more points or lose points.

(4) If you are satisfied with the outcome and the points you have earned you may stop. If you are not satisfied you may select another alternative from the list or write one that is not listed.

(5) Decide how many of your points you will risk in the second round. If the outcome is a good one you may double the points you risk. You may be given only part of the points or you might lose them all.

(6) Take the second selection to the "outcome table" to find the results. Players with the most points are winners of the game.

Situation

George is in the fifth grade at Samson Elementary School. His best subject in school is science but he does okay in his other subjects though he doesn't really like language. George gets along with the kids at school but isn't

chosen first on teams for games. He would like to be popular with the boys in his room. During the past month George has been walking home from school with Tom and Bill. He likes these boys very much and wants to keep them for his friends.

The boys are wanting to work together on a project to enter in the school science fair. George has thought of an idea that they think might win a prize. As they are going home from school they stop to watch the workers who are building a new house. Tom thinks that they could find material for their project. Bill suggests that they tell their parents they are going to meet at his house to work and that they come back after the workers leave and look for stuff. The boys turn to George to see what he thinks. George thinks this would be wrong but wants to win the prize and is afraid Tom and Bill will no longer like him if he doesn't go along with them.

In making plans for George try to help him keep the boys as his friends (or get new friends?) and to find a way to get materials for his project.

Alternatives

(1) George will tell Tom and Bill that he won't meet them that night. (6 points)

(2) George will agree to meet them but won't go back. He'll say that his parents wouldn't let him out. (5 points)

(3) George will call Bill later and tell him he thinks it's wrong to go there. (6 points)

(4) George agrees to go into the house that night. (5 points)

(5) George decides to talk it over with his parents. (5 points)

(6) George decides to do the project alone. (6 points)

(7) George suggests that they try to find some other way to get materials for the project. (6 points)

(8) George thinks he might find someone else to help on the project. (5 points)

Outcomes

(1) a. Tom and Bill call George a chicken and tell him to run on home to his mother.
(Tom realizes that he is right but he is very unhappy. Friends and project still a problem).

Subtract 3 points.

b. Tom and Bill listen to George but tell him he'd better come up with a way to get the materials.

Add 3 points.

(2) a. Bill suggests that maybe they could do it tomorrow night. (George still has the same problem).

Subtract 3 points.

b. Bill says that if Tom would come by maybe his parents would change their minds.

Subtract 4 points.

c. Bill says Tom couldn't come either but they've got to figure someway to get some materials.

Add 4 points.

(3) a. Tom and Bill call George a chicken and tell him to run on home to his mother.
(Tom realizes that he is right be he is very unhappy. Friends and project still a problem.)

Subtract 3 points.

b. Tom and Bill listen to George but tell him he'd better come up with a way to get the materials.

Add 3 points.

c. Bill says he agrees with George but what are they going to do about Tom?

Add 4 points.

(4) a. A watchman catches the boys and their parents are called.

Subtract 6 points.

b. The boys find the materials they want and take them to Bill's house.
(George feels they have done something that is wrong.)

Subtract 6 points.

c. George goes to Bill's house but Tom doesn't show up. (What do George and Bill do now?)

Do not add or subtract points.

(5) a. George's parents realize this is a problem and try to help him think of ways to get the needed materials. His father suggested that he ask Tom and Bill to come over there.

Add 5 points.

b. George's parents tell him that he should stay away from Tom and Bill or he will get into trouble.

Subtract 5 points.

c. George's parents are going out that night and have arranged for a neighbor to check on him so they don't really have time to talk.

Subtract 4 points.

d. George's parents decide to call the other boys' parents and talk about the problem with them.

Add 4 points.

(6) a. George is glad not to have to go to the house that night but he is very unhappy about the boys because they were his good friends.

Add 3 points.

b. George comes up with a good idea for the project but needs some help working it out.

Add 3 points.

(7) a. The boys listen to George but Tom says he is saving from his allowance to buy a banana seat for his bike.

Add 5 points.

b. His friends don't think their folks would give them the money. (What other ways are available to get the material: Do they need money?)

Subtract 3 points.

(8) a. George calls another boy but he already is working with someone.
(Can he use that same project with someone else?)

Subtract 3 points.

b. George calls another boy who wants to work with him. (He calls Bill to tell him and Bill becomes quite mad at George.)

Add 4 points.

APPENDIX D

NANCY

Rules of the Game

You are to make choices for the person that will lead to a satisfactory outcome.

(1) Read the list of possible ways that the person could behave. Select one and tell why you chose it.

(2) Bring your selection to the "outcome table." You will get points for making a decision.

(3) Read the consequences of the decision. It may be a good outcome or it may be one that is not good. You could get more points or lose points.

(4) If you are satisfied with the outcome and the points you have earned you may stop. If you are not satisfied you may select another alternative from the list or write one that is not listed.

(5) Decide how many of your points you will risk in the second round. If the outcome is a good one you may double the points you risk. You may be given only part of the points or you might lose them all.

(6) Take the second selection to the "outcome table" to find the results. Players with the most points are winners of the game.

Situation

Nancy had liked school pretty well until this year but now she is beginning to hate to come to school. She is most unhappy on the playground or at other times when there are no teachers around.

Nancy had grown much taller during the summer and someone has said to her the first week of school, "Hey Beanpole, would you get that book off the top shelf." Nancy had tried to laugh with the others but she was embarrassed and her face turned red. Now the others started calling her Beanpole too and she really is mad at them and doesn't want to come to school anymore. She knows that some of the other kids are called names too but she doesn't think they can be as hurt about it as she is. Sometimes Nancy feels that nobody likes her anymore. If only she wasn't taller than the others so that she wouldn't look so different.

In this game see if you can help Nancy so that she will have friends again and not be so unhappy with school and with the way she looks.

Alternatives

(1) Nancy will take a book with her to the playground and not pay any attention to the others when they call her names. (5 points)

(2) Nancy decides to talk to her teacher about the problem. (6 points)

(3) Nancy decides to ask her mother to let her stay in at recess for awhile--she can think of some excuse to give her. (4 points)

(4) Nancy decides that she will think up some names to call the others and do the same thing to them that they do to her. Then they will know how she feels. (5 points)

(5) Nancy will talk to some other girls who have been called names and see if they can all think of something to do. (4 points)

(6) Nancy thinks she might try to slouch down so that she won't look so much taller than the others. (5 points)

(7) Nancy decides to talk to one of the girls who was her friend last year who has been calling her "Beanpole" this year. (6 points)

(8) Nancy decides to try to find some friends in the next grade since they are more her size. (5 points)

Outcomes

(1) a. No one bothers Nancy or calls her names. (Does this solve her problem?)

Do not add or subtract points.

b. The kids leave her alone for a while, but then come over and make fun of her for reading on the playground.

Subtract 3 points.

c. The teacher sees her start out with the book and tells her she can't take it to the playground.

Subtract 2 points.

(2) a. The teacher sees that this is a problem and asks Nancy if she would be willing to talk about this in a class meeting.

Add five points.

b. The teacher tells Nancy that she will keep the ones who are calling her names in at recess and talk to them.

Do not add or subtract points.

c. The teacher tells Nancy that if she wouldn't show that she was upset that the others would probably stop calling her names.

Subtract 2 points.

d. The teacher decides to plan several things to try to help the class accept people who seem to be different.

Add 4 points.

(3) a. Nancy's mother will not let her stay in.

Subtract 3 points.

b. Nancy's mother does write a note to let her stay in for the rest of the week.

Do not add or subtract points.

c. Nancy's mother finds out why Nancy doesn't want to go out and calls her teacher.

Add 2 points.

(4) a. When Nancy calls the others names they just laugh and go on calling her Beanpole.

Subtract 4 points.

b. Nancy calls Betty, one of her classmates, a name and causes her to cry.
(Betty realizes how Nancy feels.)

Add 2 points.

(5) a. The other girls want to try to do something about the name calling and ask Nancy if they can meet at her house after school.

Add 5 points.

b. The other girls think that if they try to do anything that it will just make the others call them more names.

Subtract 2 points.

(6) a. When Nancy slouches her teacher and her mother begin getting on to her for her poor posture.

Subtract 3 points.

b. When Nancy slouches her mother and father wonder if something is wrong and ask her about it.

Do not add or subtract points.

(7) a. Nancy's friend from last year tells her that several of them thought that Nancy was acting different and stuck up this year.

Add 3 points.

b. Nancy's friend from last year won't talk to her.

Subtract 4 points.

c. Nancy's friend from last year says she knows they have been wrong and says she will try to help.

Add 4 points.

(8) a. The girls she goes up to in the next grade tell her to find some friends her own age.

Subtract 3 points.

b. Two girls in the next grade began to start playing with her on the playground.
(Does this help in the room?)

Add 2 points.

APPENDIX E

TOM

Rules of the Game

You are to make choices for the person that will lead to a satisfactory outcome.

(1) Read the list of possible ways that the person could behave. Select one and tell why you chose it.

(2) Bring your selection to the "outcome table." You will get points for making a decision.

(3) Read the consequences of the decision. It may be a good outcome or it may be one that is not good. You could get more points or lose points.

(4) If you are satisfied with the outcome and the points you have earned you may stop. If you are not satisfied you may select another alternative from the list or write one that is not listed.

(5) Decide how many of your points you will risk in the second round. If the outcome is a good one you may double the points you risk. You may be given only part of the points or you might lose them all.

(6) Take the second selection to the "outcome table" to find the results. Players with the most points are winners of the game.

Situation

Tom is in the fourth grade and this is his first day at Wilson School. He wants very much to make friends and was happy when Jack and his buddies asked him to eat lunch with

them. The boys seemed to feel from the beginning that Tom would belong to their gang.

Tom really felt lucky to have found friends so soon. By the end of the next week, though, he began to feel that he was not so lucky because these boys seemed to be in trouble much of the time. They were always teasing other kids and breaking rules. They didn't show much interest in school work and Tom had really enjoyed school before. Tom didn't go along with this kind of behavior but the other kids thought he was part of it. His teacher, Mrs. Franklin, was also beginning to think that he was one who caused trouble.

Tom wanted to make friends with some of the other kids in the room but each time he tried to someone in the gang would laugh at him. Tom liked to collect stamps and he saw another boy named Larry showing some stamps to the teacher. He went over to talk to Larry and Jack and went by and said "What are you hanging around with that creep for?"

In making plans for Tom remember these things:

(1) Tom does want friends very much. He's afraid to give up the friends he has because he is afraid that he might not make new friends.

(2) He is anxious to make new friends who like to do the same things he does. He is afraid of what Jack's gang might do if he does leave the gang.

The goal of the game is to help Tom so that he has friends and is able to do the kind of work he wants to do in school.

Alternatives

(1) Tom decides to ignore Jack and go ahead and talk to Larry. (6 points)

(2) Tom leaves Larry and goes with Jack and says he will talk to Larry later. (6 points)

(3) Tom asks his teacher if he can talk to her and doesn't stay with Larry or Jack. (5 points)

(4) Tom goes back to his desk and decides to talk to his parents. (5 points)

(5) Tom goes to his desk and decides not to talk with either bunch. (5 points)

(6) Tom goes with Jack and decides he will try to change the group. (6 points)

Outcomes

(1) a. Larry and Tom enjoy talking about the stamps but Jack tells him he'll get him after school.

Add 5 points.

b. Larry doesn't act like he trusts Tom when he comes up to him.

Subtract 3 points.

(2) a. Tom still has Jack's gang as friends but Larry and the teacher really think he is part of the gang.

Subtract 5 points.

b. Tom doesn't contact Larry later and Larry says he would like to talk about stamps with him but asks him if Jack will let him do this.

Add 5 points.

(3) a. The teacher says she will be glad to talk to him after school. Jack overhears this and asks Tom what he's going to talk to the teacher about.

Add 5 points.

b. The teacher asks Tom in front of the other boys what he wants to talk about.

Subtract 4 points.

(4) a. Tom's parents think he should try to make new friends and tell him they will help him do so.

Add 5 points.

b. Tom's parents ask him if he would like for them to come up to school to talk with the teacher.

Add 4 points.

c. Tom's parents tell him that he should talk to his teacher.

Add 2 points.

(5) a. Unless Tom thinks of something else to do this does not help him with his problem.

Subtract 5 points.

b. A couple of other boys in another room ask him to play with them at noon.
(He feels better on the playground but he's still uncomfortable in the room.)

Add 4 points.

(6) a. Tom now has to think of some ways to get the boys to start changing the way they act.

Add 4 points.

b. When he tries some suggestions, the boys tell him they like the way they are.

Subtract 5 points.

APPENDIX F

SARA

Rules of the Game

You are to make choices for the person that will lead to a satisfactory outcome.

(1) Read the list of possible ways that the person could behave. Select one and tell why you chose it.

(2) Bring your selection to the "outcome table." You will get points for making a decision.

(3) Read the consequences of the decision. It may be a good outcome or it may be one that is not good. You could get more points or lose points.

(4) If you are satisfied with the outcome and the points you have earned you may stop. If you are not satisfied you may select another alternative from the list or write one that is not listed.

(5) Decide how many of your points you will risk on your second alternative. If the outcome is a good one you will get double the points you risk. If the outcome is not satisfactory you will lose the points you risk. You may borrow up to 5 points if you need to.

(6) Take the second selection to the "outcome table" to find the results. Players with the most points are winners of the game.

Situation

Sara is a fifth grade girl. She has usually gotten along well with her teachers, but this year is having a lot of trouble with her teacher. Last year the teacher would

have the children in the room help make rules, decide on special interest areas to study, and seemed to be pleased when they offered suggestions. Sara tried to do this again this year, but Mrs. Brown didn't like for her to do this. She feels that she should make the decisions in the room and that children should generally do what adults ask them to do. For example, the fifth grade students had been getting into many arguments on the playground. Sara suggested that the class should talk about the problem and decide on ways to solve it. Mrs. Brown said that she could take care of the problem and suggested that Sara should spend her time doing her school work since she seemed to be falling down in her work.

Sara is not doing as well in school and she is very unhappy. It seems to her that no matter what she tries to do it is wrong in the teacher's view. How can you help Sara so that she is able to do her work again and is not so unhappy?

Alternatives

(1) Sara decides to stop making suggestions and do as the teacher asks so that she won't be in trouble with the teacher. (4 points)

(2) Sara decides to talk to some of the others in the room who she thinks are leaders and see if they can all talk to the teacher sometime after school. (5 points)

(3) Sara decides to ask the principal if she can move to another fifth grade room in the school. (6 points)

(4) Sara feels that Mrs. Brown is being unfair so she and some of her friends begin doing things to irritate her. (5 points)

(5) Sara decides to talk to her teacher from last year to see if she can get some help. (4 points)

(6) Sara decides to talk with her parents to see if they can help her by either talking to the principal or the teacher. (5 points)

Outcomes

(1) a. When Sara does this she isn't in trouble with the teacher so much but she does not enjoy school.

Subtract 2 points.

b. Mrs. Brown asks Sara why she has quit volunteering to answer questions in class.

Add 2 points.

(2) a. The others want to talk to the teacher and they want to meet and plan a good way to talk to her.

Add 5 points.

b. The others say they would like to talk to the teacher but they are afraid that will make Mrs. Brown mad so they don't believe they will.

Subtract 4 points.

(3) a. The principal says that he can't move Sara to another room.

Subtract 5 points.

b. The principal says that he will consider moving her, but that he wants to talk to her parents and to Mrs. Brown. He asks Sara if she wants him to do this.

Add 3 points.

(4) a. Sara feels that she is getting back at Mrs. Brown, but she is not any better off in her work or the way she feels.

Subtract 5 points.

b. Sara and her friends are sent to the principal for causing trouble.

Subtract 5 points.

(5) a. Sara's teacher from last year tells her she will be glad to help her think of some things to do but she doesn't want to interfere with another teacher's room.

Add 5 points.

b. Sara's teacher from last year talks to Mrs. Brown, but Mrs. Brown is upset because Sara talked to another teacher.

Subtract 5 points.

(6) a. Sara's parents tell her they will help her try to think of some things to do but they think it best for them not to go talk to the teacher.

Add 5 points.

b. Sara's parents decide to go talk with the teacher.

Do not add or subtract points.

APPENDIX G

TONY

Rules of the Game

You are to make choices for the person that will lead to a satisfactory outcome.

(1) Read the list of possible ways that the person could behave. Select one and tell why you chose it.

(2) Bring your selection to the "outcome table." You will get points for making a decision.

(3) Read the consequences of the decision. It may be a good outcome or it may be one that is not good. You could get more points or lose points.

(4) If you are satisfied with the outcome and the points you have earned you may stop. If you are not satisfied you may select another alternative from the list or write one that is not listed.

(5) Decide how many of your points you will risk in the second round. If the outcome is a good one you may double the points you risk. You may be given only part of the points or you might lose them all.

(6) Take the second selection to the "outcome table" to find the results. Players with the most points are winners of the game.

Situation

Tony is in the fifth grade. He has been having some trouble with his school work and because he talks so much to the other boys in the room his teacher has had to talk to him quite a bit. He thinks that most adults treat him like

a baby. Tony would like very much to have a paper route. When he asked his mother and father about getting a route they said no. His mother told him that he was not responsible enough to take care of the route and that she would probably have to end up delivering the papers for him.

In this game you are to see if you can make it possible for Tony to get the paper route. There is a counselor in the school and Tony's teacher has asked him to talk with the counselor about his problems in school, but Tony is really more interested in trying to get the paper route. There are two rounds in the game and though he may not actually get the route you may help him get closer to his goal.

Alternatives

(1) Tony decides to study for an hour or two every night to show his mother that he can do his work and is responsible. (5 points)

(2) Tony talks with his teacher and asks her to move him up by her desk. He thinks he will not talk to the others so much and do better in school. (5 points)

(3) Tony tells his mother that he was talking with the counselor at school and the counselor said he should have the paper route to learn more responsibility. The counselor didn't tell him to tell his mother that they should let him have the route. (6 points)

(4) Tony asks his mother to let him be a substitute carrier for his friend who is going to be away for two weeks. (5 points)

(5) Tony decides to go to the newspaper and ask for the paper route job. He thinks that if he gets the job that his parents won't make him give it up. (6 points)

Outcomes

(1) a. Tony does work hard for a couple of weeks but when softball season begins he finds it hard to study every night. His grades were better for those two weeks.

Add 2 points.

b. Tony was studying every night and doing some better in school but he wasn/t sure that his parents knew how hard he was working.

Add 3 points.

c. Tony worked for one week but he wasn't doing better in school and he was beginning to think that it was a waste of time.

Do not add or subtract points.

(2) a. The teacher does move him up and he begins working better. Some of the boys call him a teacher's pet though.

Add 4 points.

b. The teacher won't move him. She thinks he needs to learn to do better without moving away from the other boys.

Subtract 4 points.

(3) a. Tony's mother says she'll think about it but she is still afraid that she'll have to end up doing all of the work.

Do not add or subtract points.

b. Tony's mother decides to call the counselor to talk about this. She really doesn't think that an outsider should tell them what to do.

Subtract 5 points.

c. Tony's mother decides to let him try a route.

Add 4 points.

(4) a. Tony's parents let him work as a substitute. His mother says she is pleased with the way he did those two weeks but wonders if he would keep it up.

Add 4 points.

b. Tony's parents won't let him serve as a substitute.

Subtract 4 points.

(5) a. The newspaper carrier manager tells Tony that they cannot let anyone have a job unless their parents sign a permission blank.

Subtract 3 points.

VITA

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Doctor of Education

Thesis: THE EFFECT OF THREE COUNSELING TECHNIQUES UPON THE INEFFECTIVE BEHAVIOR PATTERNS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILDREN

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