DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 052 401 AA 000 722

TITLE	Exceptional Children Conference Papers: Diagnostic and Resource Teaching.
INSTITUTION	Council for Exceptional Children, Arlington, Va.
SPONS AGENCY	Bureau of Education for the Handicapped (DHEW/OE), Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	Apr 71
NOTE	105p.; Papers presented at the Annual International Convention of the Council for Exceptional Children (49th, Miami Beach, Florida, April 18-24, 1971)
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF-$0.65 HC-$6.58
DESCRIPTORS	*Behavior Problems, Conference Reports, Crisis Therapy, *Diagnostic Teaching, Discipline Problems, Educational Diagnosis, *Exceptional Child Education, *Resource Teachers, Study Habits

ABSTRACT

Nine papers concerning various aspects of diagnostic and resource teaching deal with the impact of crisis-resource teaching on the Falls Church, Virginia public schools, the role and requirements of the diagnostic teacher, the effectiveness of resource rooms for children with specific learning disabilities, basic problems in diagnosis, an overview of school disruption, and the intervention teacher and aide as contemporary educators for resolving and preventing school disruption and violence. Also discussed is a thematic approach to include literary works by black writers into the regular English curriculum to make English material meaningful for high-potential youth, a psychoeducational approach to specifying and measuring the competencies of personnel working with disturbances in schools, and the use of peer attention to increase study behavior. (KW)

Exceptional Children Conference Papers:

Diagnostic and Resource Teaching

Papers Presented at the

49th Annual International CEC Convention

Miami Beach, Florida

April 18-24, 1971

Compiled by

The Council for Exceptional Children

Jefferson Plaza, Suite 900

1411 South Jefferson Davis Highway

Arlington, Virginia 22202

PREFACE

Diagnostic and Resource Teaching is a collection of six papers selected from those presented at the 49th Annual International CEC Convention, Miami Beach, Florida, April 18-24, 1971. These papers were collected and compiled by The Council for Exceptional Children, Arlington, Virginia. Other collections of papers from the Convention have been compiled and are available from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service. Other collections may be found by consulting the Institution Index of Research in Education under Council for Exceptional Children or the Subject Index under Exceptional Child Education. Titles of these other collections are:

Deaf-Blind, Language, and Behavior Problems
Gifted and Developmental Potential in Women and the Disadvantaged
Infantile Autism
Local, State, and Federal Programs
Physical Handicap
Pre and Inservice Teacher Preparation
Specific Subject Programs for EMRs and TMRs
Trends and Issues in Special Education

Table of Contents

Black-White Literary Relations: Thematic Parallels

Gwendolyn Cooke
University of Connecticut

A number of years ago my precocious junior high school brother came home from school and asked me if Claude McKay were black. I told him yes and asked him why did he ask me that question. He responded that Claude McKay's poem "If We Must Die" had been discussed in his history class that day and the teacher had not made mention of McKay's race. She had discussed the poem in terms of Winston Churchill's use of it as a challenge to soldiers in World War II. My brother left the room, but a few minutes later he returned to ask if Gwendolyn Brooks was black. Once again I said yes, and asked him why he had asked the question. "Well," he said, "one day in my English class we read a poem by Gwendolyn Brooks from our poetry anthology; there was no mention in the text about her race and the teacher didn't say if she was black or white. I remember reading somewhere," he continued, "that she was black but I wasn't sure and so I thought I'd ask you. By the way," he added, "they could have put a picture of her in the book, like they did of some of the other poets, couldn't they?" I explained to my brother why I thought the editors hadn't included a picture.

I couldn't concentrate on my work after the brief talk with my brother. How immoral it was, I thought, that yet another generation of potentially gifted and creative black youngsters would grow up ignorant about the literary contributions that black writers have made to American literature. If the parents or families of these youngsters do not provide this important information about the cultural contributions of black writers, I said to myself, in all probability they will not get this information

in the schools. I wonder if editors of short story anthologies, poetry anthologies, American literature anthologies, essay anthologies, etc. -- realize the possible effects they could have on the self-concepts of youngsters by identifying the ethnic background of writers included in their anthologies? I ask you - don't we owe it to all of our youngsters and especially youngsters who may have thepotential to make great literary contributions themselves, to tell them the ethnic background of the writers they study? Or should we allow our high-potential youth to think ethnicity isn't important? How can a student feel proud to be Mexican-American, Puerto Rican, Oriental, Italian, Jewish or Black when he asks his teacher, "Where do my ancestors fit in this set up? What contributions have we made to American literature?", and the teacher gives him a blank stare? Indeed, ethnicity does matter when we are concerned with the development of high-potential youngsters' self-concepts and when we consider these youngsters as reconstructionists who will become the leaders of our society and transmit the representative thoughts of the time.

I know many of you in the audience are saying to yourselves that there is a wealth of race-related materials available now. I admit the response for meaningful materials for our youth has been speedy; however, it is the nature of this response that causes some educators to have grave doubts about its sincerity. Let's take English materials which focus on black writers' contributions as an example.

When the English curriculum has been modified to include literary works by black writers, it has too often been aimed at the reluctant reader or it has been compiled as "supplementary materials." It would appear that only reluctant readers

need to know that there are black writers who have contributed to American literature. Or -- has it erroneously been concluded that only black boys and girls are reluctant readers, and this gesture indicates that they are not being denied the knowledge that black writers have made literary contributions to American literature?

The materials for the reluctant reader include those by the Macmillan Gateway English program, the Scope books published by Harper and Row, and Holt, Rinehart and Winston's Impact series. All include a fair amount of material by and about black people, excerpts from biographies, stories, photographs. None, however, are intended to replace the big, expensive bound, lavishly illustrated literature textbooks which are used in most schools. Don't think for one minute that the more perceptive black youngsters are not aware of the fact that these materials were not designed for them. They know when they are being short changed. Their apparent lack of interest in these materials would seem to be one sign of their awareness.

The future of the "supplementary materials" is nebulous. The word supplementary implies that it is an expendable, rather than necessary, part of the curriculum and given the day when educators lose interest in black materials (and some do see it as another fad to be weathered), these lessons and units may well disappear.

High-potential youth are "hipped" to supplementary materials, too. They know that the materials are for temporary use only, and that they "really aren't important."

For those curriculum specialists who are truly interested in making English material meaningful for our high-potential youth, two courses of action remain open.

Separate courses covering the canon of literature by black writers can be the step taken, or literature by black writers can be included in the regular curriculum utilizing the thematic approach. The latter course of action, utilizing the thematic approach, is advocated here. The thematic approach enables our youth to study American literature in its proper perspective. To see certain themes recurring in the works of both black and white writers who have sometimes lived in separate worlds and decades apart, and to observe man questioning the meaning of life, searching for values and responding to human relationships should enhance young people's personal, social, and moral adjustments as well as their self-concepts. Moreover, this method insures that all students will be exposed to literary works by black writers.

To help the teacher who is interested in including literary works by black writers on a permanent basis in his American literature class, I wrote a curriculum package entitled "Black-White Literary Relations: Thematic Parallels." This package is no panacea; it is a beginning which the creative teacher can enlarge upon. There are four units in the package and each unit includes literary works by black and white writers. The units focus on the themes of "Dreams vs. Reality," "Sensitive Man vs. Violent Society," "Conformity vs. Individualism", and "Loneliness." Black literature as a regular part of the curriculum is a godsend to the teacher who wants to deal with genuine communication problems in the classroom. Black writers like James Baldwin, William M. Kelley, Richard Wright, and Gwendolyn Brooks confront deeply, honestly, and humanly the issues that our students fearfully struggle with in their inner worlds. For example, A Raisin in the Sun and Go Tell It On The Mountain

portray young people struggling to assert their own independence and identity against their parents. Go Tell It On The Mountain also gives our youth a chance to talk about the touchy subjects of religion and illegitimacy.

Some of you are still probably saying "But why the thematic approach?" My answer is the thematic approach to literature in a vital way is a point of view -- a point of view that shapes the material of an artistic work. It may act strongly, as a positive assertion, or more subtly and pervasively, as an unobtrusive but controlling attitude. This approach allows one to group works of different genres into a bond which enables each work to gain in the sense that each work has power beyond itself by being one of a group. Juxtaposing several selections with the same theme provides a basis for discussion of the content that develops the theme in one selection, as well as a comparison and contrast of the use of content to develop the theme in the other selections. This kind of discussion will, of necessity, focus attention on the literary techniques by means of which development of theme is made possible. Looking at the technique then, the potentially gifted and creative student is able to see lucidly the parallels of good and bad techniques employed by black and white writers. Moreover, it should become unequivocally clear to students that there is no justifiable reason for many of the excellent writings by black writers to have been excluded from the canon of acceptable American literature which they read daily.

The thematic approach also enables the potentially gifted and creative student to experience the chief purpose of reading literature -- the enlargement of life itself through the physical, mental, spiritual, and emotional experiences of others as they appear on the printed page. Moreover, this approach capitalizes on these students'

curiosity about themselves and about life in general. They are able to view the characteristic behavior of man as opposed to the ideal behavior. It also makes possible a more effective teaching of both form and content.

Example proposed:

During the fall semester of this school year, I field tested the first unit of the package with an integrated honors class at the Hartford Public High School. The students you are now looking at were in that class. Class discussions were lively and students often drew from their personal experiences when making a point about the plays being discussed or assignments in conjunction with the plays.

Brenda, the young student in the slide you are now viewing made the following comment:

"Never before in an English class or any class for that matter, have I had to deal with issues which really bothered me. Writing the skit moved me deeply. I disliked writing the skit very much, not because I hadn't chosen the topic, but because it was so meaningful and I knew that I could not write a lie. The hate that came from my pen was symbolic of the hate I see in the eyes of whites when they see me on the streets and when they wait on me in stores."

Laura wrote:

"I really liked the unit! Comparing works by black and white writers makes it easier to think. The lessons were less formal, but much more meaningful. I learned a lot about the way writers write, too... style, I think you call it. Last year's English was so boring."

Sonja commented:

"Last year I dozed in English. The unit "Dreams" was interesting so I was attentive. I read the plays twice. I enjoyed the units very much."

Sheryle added:

"White folks say black folks can't write. I am glad we studied the plays; at least the white kids in our class now know that black folks can write. I was so glad you

asked us about the use of figurative language and symbols in the play by Lorraine Hansberry. My mama has often pointed out the beautiful expressions and some points that weren't clear to me in works by blacks. I think she would have been pleased with the way you taught the unit. (I told her about you, smile.)"

David replied:

"Last year we read The Learning Tree in my English class. The teacher didn't do anything with it. She didn't even tell us the author was black! I wish you were my teacher all the time."

JoAnn gave the following comment:

"Miss Cooke, the unit was excellent. I liked the way you let us carry the discussion by ourselves sometimes. Last year we had to discontinue discussing The Fire Next Time because the teacher couldn't deal with the issues in it. She said we couldn't continue the discussion because some white kids feelings' were getting hurt, but it was really her. I am white and the discussion wasn't hurting me."

John's response was:

"I think it was a good idea to choose the two plays you did and for us to study them from a comparative approach. I think justice was done to both of the works using this approach, too."

Yoke states:

"I would like to read another play by Tennessee Williams. Also could you recommend a "good" novel by a black writer. I thought the unit was great."

Wilhelmenia noted:

"The way you taught the unit made us think, not just answer insignificant questions. I liked that and I think I learned something about the way writers write, too."

Each of us will interpret these comments differently. What they said to me was as follows:

1. The students read the plays. From some of the comments I got the impression that in the past they had not always read assigned literary works for other English classes.

2. The students learned something about an author's style of writing.

3. The students enjoy discussions which are not dominated by the

teachers. They enjoy sharing ideas with their peers.

4. The unit generated interest in the reading of other works of authors studied in the unit.

5. Black and white students are aware that literary works by black writers have not been taught in their schools and one of the reasons has to do with their teacher's hang-ups.

Finally, hopefully, by utilizing the thematic approach to include literary works by black writers into the regular curriculum, youngsters of the 70's, black and white, will never utter the following words which many educated men and women have been known to say (and I quote), "But Negroes haven't written anything, have they?", or "They haven't written anything good, have they?"

As Frank E. Rose notes, and I quote, "Absence of a segment of society in a sense falsifies literature, for a major merit of literature is that it broadens and deepens experiences. Furthermore, a great literature is meaningful to people and to society as they are, and American literature surely is not meaningful if it ignores 10 percent of the Americans.

Crisis-Resource Teaching: Its Impact upon the Falls Church Public Schools

Lundi S. Mansfield
Falls Church Board of Education, Virginia

It's now an established fact that anyone associated with crisis teaching, or resource teaching is known as an evangelist. In Falls Church, Virginia, we both acknowledge this, and even encourage it.

I would like to share a little with you of the school district in which I'm involved, and in which we got involved totally with crisis teaching. Falls Church is a suburb of the District of Columbia, a bedroom community if you will. It is uniquely small, geographically only two (2) square miles, with a population under 12,000. The total school population is only 2,000. We have three elementary schools and one junior-senior high school. The percapita income has been reported to be the highest of any jurisdiction in the State of Virginia. So you can see we do have a unique situation. I feel this is important for you to know, so that as I discuss what we have done to implement our philosophy about educating children, you will have a better perspective in terms of some of the advantages involved -- and I might add, disadvantages. For the past six years we have become increasingly concerned about the general area of "exceptional children". We do not have the numbers problems that many school districts have, and therefore the day to day functioning of these children in the programs we were providing for them was quite visible, along with some fairly significant indications that emotional and behavioral problems were somehow becoming exacerbated during their years in these programs. We had a fairly typical special education program for a small system. We had three self-contained classrooms, primary, intermediate and secondary. We happened to have a fantastically effective and sensitive teacher on the secondary level who worked hard to see that children who reached her in the special education program were assimilated into the regular program to the degree that they could handle, and in fact, often took on the Goliaths of bureaucracy in her efforts to see that except-

ional children did not therefore become disenfranchised children, but generally our program was fairly typical. The children were all learning disability children, some with lowered ability - perhaps within a high educable to show learned range. If you are interested specifically - some with mild to moderate neurological problems, some with mild to moderate physical handicaps, and many with emotional problems to the point that learning in the usual sense was impaired. They would have been fairly easy to identify. All had been adjudged to have needs over what could be afforded in the regular classroom, and to need special programming.

We had spent a good bit of time looking carefully at these children, how they functioned, how they progressed while in special education and what happened to them when and if they "graduated" out of the program. We were not pleased with what we saw happening. We could not justify an increase in emotional problems, in problematic behavior on the aging process alone. We had special education teachers well trained in the field, so we felt it totally unjustified to institute a "purge" of the entire teaching staff. In the spring and summer of 1968 we became involved in a three-system consortium Title III program that involved the roles of Diagnostic/Prescriptive and Crisis/Resource Teachers. We had two of these specially trained people assigned to our system through this program. At that point we had a diagnostic teacher in one of our elementary schools and a resource teacher on the secondary level. Then, during the Fall of 1968, we found that we were losing both the primary special education teacher and the intermediate, due to husbands being transferred. This for us constituted a crisis. We decided that the time for action was now, and took advantage of both the crisis and our experience with the Title III program in giving us a handle, a technique

that seemed to fit what we were seeing as needs within the system. On February 1, 1969 we disbanded all three self-contained special education classrooms, placed all of the children back in regular classrooms - placed within one year of chronological age placement - and provided resource teachers in each of our other two schools. So this is the background, the move that at that point represented somewhat of a trauma to a "smoothly running", typical and traditional program of dealing with exceptional children.

I would like to tell you a little of the way these people have been operating in Falls Church, how this role was implemented. We found for Falls Church the resource teacher model to be the most effective, and to meet the needs of our children most specifically, so in the Fall of 1969 we replaced the diagnostic teacher with a resource teacher, now giving us a resource teacher in all four schools. The resource teacher operated out of a central room, generally working with children on referral from classroom teachers, principals, other specialists, or even in some cases on a self-referral basis from the child himself. However, the resource teacher is not confined to this room. He may, and often does, go directly into the classroom, observing, working with teachers, working with other consultants, etc. Generally, the resource teacher is a specially trained, building-based person available to both children and teachers whenever there is a need for help in working with a child or children. His role is in essence, crisis intervention. The word crisis may not necessarily involve acting-out behavior, but rather should be defined as any point at which a child finds he is unable to function within the larger group context. The crisis, then may be emotional, behavioral, social, or academic. It may even be a crisis

for the teacher rather than the child. So the resource teacher, then is the person within each school most available for classroom teachers to call upon to work with children experiencing difficulties. Upon working with the situation the resource teacher has available a variety of techniques he may use. Additionally, he is in a position to determine if further more specialized service is needed, whether in reaching a more effective educational plan, or in determining more specifically the nature of the problem. He, therefore, can, and often does, request assistance from people such as the psychologist, the speech and hearing consultant, the reading consultant, etc. These services may offer specific help, according to the need, or may work as a team if a multidisciplinary effort is needed to help the resource and classroom teachers in working with a situation. But, the resource teacher remains the liason person, the on-site person to implement suggestions and recommendations, to carry the responsibility for working with the referring person in order to resolve the problem in the most effective way for the child.

The primary goal of the program, of course, is to create an atmosphere in which all children can learn; to find ways of helping those children experiencing academic and/or behavioral problems without isolating them totally from their regular school activities. When one child in a classroom is referred to and worked with by the resource teacher, the work done within the classroom setting around this specific problem results ultimately in helping that classroom teacher develop better techniques for dealing with all of the children in her classroom. So, in addition to the direct service function of the resource teacher, we have found this program to be the most powerful preventative force we have operating within our system.

Two years later we are short on hard data, although we have standard evaluation data available, but long on the view that this concept is basic and vital to any effective change in a system - and here I'm speaking both locally and universally - long overdue for change. We found after the first six months of the program that teachers and even principals lost just who the former special education students had been without checking the records. They were serviced heavily during the initial couple of months by the resource teacher, but are rarely referred today. They have all experienced significant gains in academic achievement levels. There has not been a referral of any one of them for psychological service based on emotional or behavioral problems. We have seen significant growth in self-image, in feelings of adequacy, and in a lessening of their previously manifested feelings of isolation and alienation from their peers. The resource teachers are averaging from 60 to 150 referrals a school year, depending on the size of the school. And yet, the number of referrals for service from other system-wide specialists has been cut 75%. And, speaking as a psychologist, prior to the time of having this program in effect, we regularly received as much as 75% inappropriate referrals for service --- usually due simply to the fact that classroom teachers needed help with children, and often felt frustrated as where to turn for that help. It has been a tradition in public education, that if a child is experiencing problems showing up in academic areas, then it is automatic to first request an evaluation of intelligence. Also speaking from experience, it is a far more valid observation that most classroom teachers have a good idea of ability level in their students, and that problems children experience are never, or at least rarely, as simple as a Binet score.

We have come to the realization both subjective and objectively that only in a very small minority of cases does a child need isolation and removal from the mainstream of education. We acknowledge that those situations do exist, and such placement is necessary and beneficial to the child. But special education as it has traditionally been programmed, has become something quite different. It has become a place to put any child that does not fit into the squared off standard lesson.plan. We believe even that, even the concept of having a curriculum, a program for the total class is a serious fallacy. Within any "normal" classroom, you do not have a bunch of kids, all at grade level, all responding to teacher directed education. You have 20, 25, or 30 individual children, with different talents, different needs, and different learning styles. So where do you draw the line as to exceptionality. In the recent years the areas of exceptionality have reached a point that blue-eyed, right-handed children will need a class to meet their needs also. I happen to be blue-eyed and right handed, and I have some skills and some deficiencies. But education means something quite different to me. The resource teacher program has been the vehicle for us in Falls Church, but the philosophy is basic. That each student is an individual and education can only have meaning if we meet the needs of that individual, not the needs of the larger system, the administrators, or other involved personnel.

I gave you some idea in the beginning of the uniqueness of our schools system in terms of size. This means obviously that any philosophical committment to a resource teacher concept has to be implemented differently in systems larger and with different school populations and different

economic standards. We also have a unique political system in our city that results in vast changes in school policy when there is a change in the political power structure - one of the disadvantages of being small. At the present time we are experiencing serious problems in all service programs due to such a political situation. All of this, however, does not to me in any way reflect on the validity of the basic concepts we are discussing here today. No matter what the present administrative philosophy in a system may be, no matter what size the system, or the economic makeup of the community, or the sociological and cultural complexion, some concepts remain stable. The individual worth of the child, the existance of the educational system for the child and his right to develop into a healthy, adequate sensitive human being, and finally, and perhaps difficult to stress enough, the concept that education should not under any justification be allowed to in fact harm or in any way act to impair the child in such development. In Falls Church we felt strongly that the trend toward more and more isolation and labeling of specific learning and emotional problems, did, in fact, only act as a destructive force in the lives of children. We are not, nor would we ever advocate lack of attention and programming for emotional, behavioral and academic problems. We merely say that instead of pressuring for more and more self-contained classrooms, filled with children with similar problems, all conforming to the expectations that we are thus putting on them, wouldn't it make more sense and be much more human, to be putting that same amount of pressure, time, resources and planning into creating an atmosphere in regular classrooms where those same needs can be met, without such isolation, using whatever resources may be necessary in terms of teacher training, paraprofessional help, materials, and flexibility of planning.

You may choose to see such a philosophy as idealistic and totally lacking in any practical sense of what schools are all about. All I can say is that this is why I'm here today - to say it can be done. All that has to be done is to set some priorities on what it's all about - and to whose needs come first.

The Diagnostic Teacher: The Role and the Requirements

Eleanor R. Levi
Alexandria City Public Schools, Virginia

When in the process of writing this speech, I found myself moving in rather slow motion. Finally, I came to a complete halt, asked myself what the problem was, and decided I, frankly, wasn't very inspired to just sit down and write plain ordinary words about my job. I had to choose words and phrases and expressions, but how can grammar and rhetoric reflect the excitement of the job itself?

What could I do? I switched gears completely -- threw down my pencil, crumpled my last piece of paper, tossed it in the wastebasket, jumped up from my desk, headed for my car, and took off for the country.

My driving time has always been my thinking time, and this day was no different. While driving, certain questions kept entering my mind, but they all boiled down to this: what can I speak about that will prove most informative and interesting?

I realized, during this little drive of mine, that in planning this talk, I was actually analyzing my own learning style. What I discovered proved to be revealing and illuminating: I have to have a plan of action exciting to me, and if I'm not excited, any results I may obtain will end up as dull as

a dead fish. I realized also that before I could begin any project, my ideas first have to be conceptualized.

After coming to these great conclusions, I turned around and headed for the city again, hoping I had gotten enough inspiration about myself to write this speech. But it wasn't until I started the drive home that I figured out that after spending so much time studying children's learning styles, I rarely took a look at my own. Adults, just as children, have individual learning styles; I have mine -- you have yours.

Just as I was pulling my car into the driveway, I finished outlining in my own mind exactly what my learning style, as a diagnostic teacher, was.

This is what I ~~discovered~~ reflected about myself in my role as a diagnostic teacher. I'm always interested and involved with the learning styles of children, aiming to share my understanding of the child's learning styles, with the classroom teacher for implementation. I stay in constant touch with the referring teacher from the time of referral until the case is closed. I remain on the scene to help determine the abilities, strengths, needs, interests and learning modes of each child.

Maintaining the attitude that what's right rather than what's wrong with the child is very important to me.

Consequently, I try many different experimental approaches of teaching to decide what can be done to solve academic and behavioral ~~"problems"~~ troublespots through careful observation of the child's learning or behavioral style.

I coordinate all services available for the child within the school, school system, and the community -- this is done to insure that all available muscle is mustered up for the benefit of the child, and his needs are most effectively met.

I'm always on hand to determine which materials and techniques will be most successful for each referred child. And, I also stay close to the case to help meet the needs of the school staff, assisting them in implementing new ideas and working out solutions to the "problems" of the students they refer.

To work with children on a referral basis, I've found it necessary ~~best~~ to learn to know the school setting. I observe the classroom interaction to understand the academic and social dynamics of the child's present environment. And, until both the classroom teacher and I are convinced the problem is resolved, I stay in constant communication with the classroom, and doing follow-up observation.

Also, as my drive out to the country convinced me, I always keep in mind the fact that child or adult, every individual's learning style is more unique than the next person's, and no student should be made to feel different. So I encourage the classroom teacher to make her definition of the "Norm" and response to it educationally as wide as possible, to keep the majority of her students in the mainstream.

Mr. Pouty has already discussed the specific steps of the model and the diagnostic teacher's mode of functioning within it.

You have already gathered, I imagine, that the rapport between the classroom teacher and the diagnostic teacher is almost of prime importance. So, at the beginning of each school year I send a letter to each teacher which may interest you:

Dear Teacher:

1. This year, the diagnostic classroom will have books and literature on hand which are up to date, potentially helpful and amazingly enough, INTERESTING! Some of the books housed in the Diagnostic classroom are 36 Children, Black Rage, Letter to a Teacher, Growing Up Absurd, Summerhill, Growing Up Black, Schools Without Failure, etc. If you'd like a book that I don't have here, I'll do all I can to get it. Too, if you'd like further information about the above-mentioned books, I'll be glad to expound.

2. The Diagnostic classroom will again serve to set up a student tutoring-tutee service for those who desire it. If you have a child interested in tutoring or a child that you feel would respond positively to a

tutor, just whistle. Please keep in mind the fact that some of our best tutors have had either behavioral or academic troubles in class, and too, that improvement in class was noted in many cases when these children were given the opportunity to tutor - especially when the classroom teacher set her particular requirements for the tutor.

3. The Diagnostic classroom door is always open. Feel free to drop in on a class when the mood strikes you, to borrow materials or just talk. When observing a class, be sure to ask any questions you have about what my plan of action was, aims, etc., when class is over.

4. Listed below are some activities that you may be interested in. Please check any areas that you are interested in. If the demand is great enough, the below mentioned will be set up.

a. Teacher Workshops where mutual concerns, insights, particular trouble spots can be shared and aired.

b. Workshops set up to demonstrate Glasser's (Schools Without Failure) open-ended classroom discussions. His class discussions deal with either the academic or behavioral areas in a problem solving way.

c. Material Center Demonstration Preferably we can set this up here at school. If not, we can use the G. W. University facilities. P.S. - materials, too, can be borrowed from the G. W. material center for 2 or 3 weeks for your classes.

d. Films - There are lots of new films available which deal with many areas and issues in education. A list of films that I can get will be on hand in my room. Please add names of those films that you have heard about and would be interested in me getting.

e. Speakers. These speakers will be people from the community who work in the areas of mental health, community, reading relations, drugs, discipline, dissent, and also those people in the schools and out who are experimenting with

new ideas and approaches.

As I've already said, I have to be personally excited about my mission to make it successful. So, I have decided "WHAT IT TAKES TO MAKE IT", and, I should add, this is a purely personal bias.

I'm a constant experimenter. I get bored with sameness; I like change. How often have I said to myself: "The furniture has to be rearranged again -- it bores me the way it is". I often do things differently, and this aspect of my personality is also reflected in the classroom. I could not possibly do the same things day by day and year by year. Repetitious activities and sameness turn me off just as quickly as they turn off the children I'm trying to help.

I'm also a fighter. I'm used to functioning in rough situations, and, for better or worse, I always stay in and fight.

Even though I think quitting is the easy way out, I'm introspective. Somehow, in the middle of my fights I always end up asking myself: "Could it be that I'm the one out of step, and not the other guy?". So, I often look at myself, question my methods, try to honestly assess my strengths and troublespots, and move from there to effect a change within myself.

But, don't think I'm so introspective that I fail to move. I'm a constant striver, waking up some mornings and saying to myself: "Today I'll tackle Mount Everest". I try to do more and more to make things better and better, but I'm rarely fully satisfied with things as they are -- even after I've just finished doing something myself. I am constantly refining and readjusting what I'm doing.

And although I'm always questioning and changing styles, and although I'm hardly ever content with the way things are, I can also honestly say that I'm a true people liker -- not a Garbo at all. I make friends easily, and I always try to put others quickly at ease perhaps because I know what it is like to feel uncomfortable. In my role as a diagnostic teacher, I continually try to see the value and worth in others, and stay aware of my own imperfections. But, although I know others can do many things better than I can, I accept myself for what I am, even when I goof, ~~and I've accepted myself for what I am --~~ always trying to be as true to myself as possible.

I feel competent enough to carry out my role as a diagnostic teacher, and, I'm a real job lover -- something I think every one who teaches, especially diagnostic teachers, must be able to say.

With all this, add a pinch of compulsiveness. I've got to make a new list of current things to do, and check them off right now. And when everything on the list is checked off, there's always a new list to take its place. With this compulsiveness, I feel every diagnostic teacher should be driven to finish everything that is started.

So these qualities -- being a constant experimenter, a fighter, introspective, striving, a people liker, a job lover, and compulsiveness -- all add up, I think, to making a good diagnostic teacher.

I remember my intern teacher told me, jokingly, that my compulsiveness and list-keeping was one thing about me she'd never forgot. She also realized that without my lists I'd be completely lost. The lists help me know where everything is--a most important prerequisite for any diagnostic teacher.

Now, to show you what I mean, here's a list of my activities during a recent day of teaching. I've titled this "One Page From the Diary of a Mad Diagnostic Teacher".

8:00 a.m. -- Prepare for the day.

1. Check out previewer from library.
2. Get art paper from art room.
3. Design a sound worksheet.

4. Check with Miss Avender concerning need for upper grade helper today.

8:40 -- Write notes of day to teacher re:

1. Setup conference time to discuss how a finished prescription is working with one of the students referred to me.

2. Sharing of information gathered in diagnostic class so that the teacher can try it out.

3. A convenient time to observe a boy with whom I had worked earlier to see why in the last two days he has refused to do his math; better have a follow-up conference with the teacher about my observations and suggestions.

4. A follow-up form that hasn't been handed in by a teacher.

5. A time to discuss a trouble spot stated on a follow-up form.

With the letter writing over with, at 9:15 a group of students comes in. I check my list again to see what my plan of action with these children is.

At 10:50, I'm busy writing reports on how the students reacted, and if they didn't, why not. I stress their strengths, their academic interests and other interest areas. From my written comments, I plan for tomorrow, and formulate the approaches I'm going to use. From my files and plans and lists and test results and observations, the prescription will be written for the classroom teacher. Being a former classroom teacher myself, I try, when possible, to make suggestions easily adaptable to the normal class framework. At times, however, the idea is new and unique, so I plan to stay on hand to help

the classroom teacher implement it when necessary.

Finally, 11:50. Where did the morning go? Time for one of those delicious school lunches.

12:20 is follow-up time. Here's what my list says:

1. Check on last graduating group's progress.
2. See if the classroom teachers are actually implementing my prescriptions.
3. What's the student's responses and reactions in the above-mentioned classrooms like?
4. Are any readjustments necessary?

Not much more time in the school day by now, at 2:00 I'm busy with an observation of a newly referred child, in his classroom setting. I check the student's responses, see what turns him on, note the teacher's method of working with the child.

Of course, as you might have gathered, after my observations, I'm busy again writing lists -- noting in writing (so I won't forget) what I've just finished during the observation and follow-ups.

At 2:50 I'm involved with a teacher in a follow-up conference. After that session, naturally, I'm jotting down a list of troublespots and alternative solutions. If the teacher makes any suggestions, that gets noted also.

It's 3:15, prescription writing time. I gather all my notes together and write my recommendations. About two hours later, I give my report to the office secretary to type. There will be three copies: one for the principal, one for the teacher, and one for my files.

Finally, I'm in my car, driving home. Driving time for me, you'll recall, is my thinking time. And, after a day's work, I usually ask myself: "how did I get into this job anyhow?".

After seven very enjoyable years as a classroom teacher, nearing the "untrustable" age of 30, I took a course in crisis response teaching offered to Alexandria teachers. There I heard there would be openings in this position in Alexandria. So, of course, I started calling the personnel office to find out whether I could get the job. Finally, after being tired of hearing my voice over the phone, I was granted an interview for the job.

They called the position a "Diagnostic Teacher", and, of course, I didn't realize that that wasn't the same thing I just finished my course in. I did finally get the message that I was in a totally different bag after I formally accepted the job.

I was in my car again, driving home from the personnel office, thinking, and getting a wonderful case of palpitations because I wasn't sure I could handle the requirements of my new job. So, using the logic I have formulated for solving such ideas that hit me while driving, I decided to call Mr. Prouty at George Washington University -- figuring that if I couldn't solve the problem, maybe someone else could.

Mr. Prouty was a great help. He told me he doubted that I could handle the job without further training. Just what I needed. I called another teacher in the Alexandria School System who was already acting as a diagnostic teacher, and she was specially trained for the job.

Many hints were given, but few concrete answers. The other diagnostic teacher whom I had called proved to be my savior! She pointed out that diagnostic teachers not only teach experimentally and creatively, they must think creatively and innovate on their own. ~~So, I decided to finesse the courses and rely on my own wiles~~.

Would I do it again without special training? Unequivocally NO! It's nice to know what it's all about before it hits you square between the eyes. And with the training, you are initially far more effective.

MY TRAINING NOW

A Master's in Diagnostic teaching earned in the evenings, afternoons and summer. The training program for Diagnostic Prescriptive Teachers at George Washington University involves 3 major componants. First, training in perceptual psychology and humanistic education; second, training and experience in educational diagnostic and individual instruction; third, extensive field work as a diagnostic prescriptive teacher under supervision and operating independently as a diagnostic prescriptive teacher. Basic goals of program are to train a school based educational consultant who can function as a charge agent to assist regular classroom teachers in providing successful educational experiences for a broad spectrum of children, including many who would heretofore have been viewed as exceptional, requiring special education services and placement outside the regular classroom. The program leads to a Master of Arts and can be completed in one academic year of full-time study or approximately two years of part-time study.

Do I like the job. It's really my thing!

In September of 1967, my first month of diagnostic teaching, I found myself with the worst case of stomach cramps imaginable. But, at least I wasn't in my car, and I didn't have to think about my fate too much -- I just made up a little list of things I had to do, and got to work.

Effectiveness of Resource Rooms for Children with S.L.D.

Lawrence H. Weiner
Barrington Public Schools, Rhode Island

ABSTRACT:

Children diagnosed as having specific learning disabilities were placed in a resource room structure to attempt to alleviate their learning problems. Four teachers constituting four separate methodologies were utilized on a tutorial basis so as to emphasize the program structure and not, particularly, the specific techniques. Academic skills, visuo-motor perception and self-perception were evaluated by test-retest. Favorable significant differences were found supporting the resource room tutorial plan rather than specific methods.

SUMMARY

This study attempts primarily to investigate the value of resource rooms approach to the problem of education of neurologically impaired as opposed to the special class. A resource room is a specially staffed and equipped room designed to lend supportive assistance to students and teachers and not designed to function as a full-day classroom.

An artifact of this study was to establish, also, that through this method, more children may be served just as effectively and that specific techniques are not the sole answer to methodology; but, rather,a widely varied or pragmatic approach is more useful.

Seventy-two children were placed in this program on the basis of screening procedures which included the following aspects: 1) psychological diagnoses, 2) social case work-up, 3) an educational evaluation, 4) pediatric neurological examination, and 5) psychiatric diagnosis.

Children selected for this program displayed the classis symptoms of neurological impairment: 1) hyperactivity, 2) disassociation, 3) figure background reversals, 4) distractibility, 5) perseveration, and 6) behavior disorders. Further, each child had at least average or better intellectual capacity but was seriously underachieving at a minimal rate of one grade below age-grade placement. Finally, all children placed in this program had failed the last grade attended due to specific learning disabilities. Children ranged in chronological age from 7--12, in grade placement from 1--6, I.Q.'s from 90--130.

An additional major aspect of procedure was to estaulish the functional role of the resource room. The resource room was designed to serve as a supportive method of treating learning disabilities. The rooms were staffed with a teacher certified in the education of neurologically impaired. Children were seen on a tutorial and semi-tutorial basis for one-half to one hour periods, ranging from as little as one a day up to as much as a similar amount of time five times a week. The subjects were seen singly or in groups of two or three but not in excess of this number. Emphasis in the resource situation was placed on: 1) highly individualized and "tailor-made" teaching techniques, 2) supplementary instruction in areas of diagnosed learning disabilities, 3) reduction and remediation of the symptoms of neurological impairment and their effect on learning, and 4) successful achievement in school. Methods utilized by teachers were specifically not prescribed so as to make it possible to evaluate the effectiveness of the resource room technique rather than a specific teaching technique.

Evaluation was designed so as to measure differences in three basic areas: achievement, visuo-motor perception, and body image/self perception. Achievement measures utilized the spelling, arithmetic, and reading sections of the Wide Range Achievement Test. The Bender-Gestalt Test was administered to evaluate changes in visuo-motor perception. Finally, the Draw A Person Test was utilized as a test of body image and self-perception. All three tests were given at the onset and close of the school year, providing a ten-month

interval between test-retest.

Favorable significant differences in performance were found in all academic areas and perception. No difference was found in body image/self-perception skills. Thus, the conclusion was drawn that a resource room tutorial plan, without regard to methodology, is an effective and economical means of working with the learning-disabled child.

Grass Root Problems in Diagnosis

Marjorie Crick
Palm Beach County Schools

My assignment today is "Grass Root Problems in Diagnosis" with instructions "to tell it as it is."

In trying to work through this paper, I felt I wanted opinions from our administrators in different parts of our country. I sent S. O. S. messages to 15 administrators in 15 different states and everyone of them responded with their ideas. I wanted to mention this as an example of cooperation and dedication of the personnel heading Exceptional Child Education Programs. This went out in the fall which is one of the busiest times of the year. Nothing is too much for these fine people. All found time to respond.

Recently I found this story which explains to me how and why these people always come through. There were two trees. Their root systems could have been quite similar. They were about the same size and age. One grew in an area where violent wind storms were rare. One grew in an area where strong winds were commonplace. The trees responded by sending their roots down to withstand the area winds. One day there were very severe wind storms in both areas. The tree where violent winds were rare blew down at the beginning of the storm. The second tree with the strong deep root system, which it had developed, rode through the storm. It lost a few branches but basically it was intact. To me this demonstrates our administrators. All have deep root systems developed. They have weathered many violent storms, but this has made them strong. Even they can survive an opinion poll sent to them just before the Christmas holidays.

Following is a summary of what they are telling us:

The problems were quite similar whether the program was in the east, west, north, or south. The dedication of administrators was the same. Not one said anything about giving up, or I am just going to let everything slide. All had positive ideas.

There were concerns about I. Q. scores. The following is from Exceptional Children Education's Operation Assistance, published and edited by Dr. Horace Mann. This jewel is from the April 1970 issue:

"The meaning of I. Q. scores.....The long debate on these topics still continues. Here is an 8-point refresher course on current views:

1. More and more psychologists now say that I. Q. (Intelligence Quotient) tests are misnamed. They do not measure a mystical factor called intelligence, with which a child is supposedly endowed at birth. They test a child's ability to perform tasks required of him in school. That is why Robert L. Thorndike, co-author of the Lorge-Thorndike tests, calls them "scholastic aptitude" rather than I. Q. tests. Yet many laymen are convinced that a low I. Q. means a child was born stupid -- that his "intelligence" is as fixed as blue eyes or curly hair. They don't realized that an I. Q. can change and be changed.

2. Laymen are not alone in their tendency to over-stress the meaning of I. Q. test results. Teachers and school administrators often base their thinking and feeling about youngsters on their I. Q.'s ....even though the I. Q. is a weak measure of ability to achieve, grow, and make a contribution to society.

3. Labelling of students has a direct effect on their learning progress. Recent studies have shown this quite clearly. In one experiment, low-I.Q. children were placed in a class with a teacher who knew nothing about them, and so projected no negative feelings about their ability to learn. Student I. Q.'s went up markedly.

4. J. P. Guildord, top authority in this field, believes he can identify 80 different kinds of abilities involved in human intelligence...and says that today's scholastic aptitude tests measure very few of them. Such qualities as leadership, creativity, and enthusiasm, for example, are not revealed by I. Q. tests. Point to remember: An I. Q. test is a severely restricted measure of a child's capabilities.

5. In spite of their weaknesses, scholastic tests give educators valuable clues. They measure the ability to see relationships between abstract ideas, which is important for academic success. One expert says he has found them to be "extremely good predictors of success not only in school but also in society."

6. Many have attacked I. Q. tests as unfair to disadvantaged youngsters because their language experiences are meager. As a result, attempts have been made to give minority children a fair chance by presenting questions pictorially, or in nonverbal forms. These, too, are criticized. One test director said that a test that was completely "culture-fair" to black or poor children would have little to do with language or learned skills, so would have little value for teachers.

7. Is intelligence inherited or developed? On this point -- hot controversy. A professor of psychology at the University of Illinois sees two kinds of intelligence: fluid intelligence, which he believes may be innate; and crystalized intelligence, which is shaped by the individual's experiences.

8. New ways of discovering a student's intellectual abilities have been suggested. One authority says we need tests that will show teachers what kinds of instruction each child responds to best: discovery or rote learning, visual or oral. Another wants a test that will reveal why some children have low scholastic aptitude, so their problems can be corrected....."

Near the top of the list of concerns cited in the survey was the scarcity of diagnosticians. There just were not enough. To help solve this were some suggestions:

1. Differentiated diagnostic personnel.

Several years ago when Dr. Lloyd Dunn was still with George Peabody College, he said Special Education teachers must know more about testing. They should be able to do some testing.

Then we have the psychometrist who has his part. Then we have the school psychologist who heads the school testing team. Each must learn more about their job and learn how to support the other.

There must be the team approach with respect for all disciplines. The teacher must have confidence in the testing and diagnostic personnel and likewise the testing and diagnostic personnel must have confidence in the teacher. Each wishes to do his or her job well, but basically many times each feels he is fighting this battle alone.

To help overcome this, we must set up in each community an on-going inservice training program. By working together toward a common goal, there will be better understanding and respect. Some of the things they will find out is that both have good training, both know what they are talking about, and both have a common goal to help the youngsters they are working with.

In this training our universities will become involved. This gives us an opportunity to show them what we truly need, and what they need to do to better prepare their graduates to meet this challenge.

After the testing, the report must be written in meaningful educational terms. The teacher must have something on which she can base her planning. Many times she just receives in the report a repeat of the problems she related when she requested the testing. These same problems are just rewritten in psychological terms. This shows the importance of keeping the pipe line open. The teacher should have no hesitancy in conferring with the testing specialist and telling him the report is of little help to her in planning an educational program for this youngster. The testing specialist truly wants to help and get to the teacher reports that will help. The teacher must be able to tell him the type of a report that will assist her. The teacher may need more training to be able to do this.

The psychologists and other testing personnel have their problems, too. We mentioned before the time limitations and scarcity of personnel. On top of this, many have a type of quota placed on them, such as requiring them to see "x" number of students in "y" number of hours and writing "xy" number of evaluations.

Another item which revealed itself many times in the survey was the conflicting reports from evaluating personnel. This confuses people working with these children. Again, I feel working and studying together will lessen this problem.

One very crucial item is the time delay between the referral and the time the testing is done and the report received. The teacher has the child every day and if the report comes in six months later, its value is lessened. Again, this brings home the point that the teacher needs help now. The teacher must know what will help her. She still has to meet and solve most of the problems. No one can wave a magic wand and change the student in a day.

All teachers, not just Exceptional Child Education teachers, need experience in exceptional child education in their training. This can't start too early. While students are in high school, they can profit from experience with these youngsters. When they go to college, they should have scheduled time with this program in freshman, sophomore, junior and senior years, regardless of the area of teaching they enter. In this way, perhaps we can put over the idea of early diagnosis for children with problems. We can do more with prevention and have less to do with solving problems.

In teacher training we should have more emphasis on theory of learning, how children learn, and how we can foster a climate conducive to learning, then learn how to apply what they have learned. We would improve services to children 50% if we used what we know about them. The theory and practice are still not

one. They should be melded and come out with a positive plan.

Another common concern was the failure of parents to carry through on their part of the planned program. Sometimes they feel helpless, lost, and very frustrated. We cannot expect them to do everything at once, but if we can zero into a few simple principles at first we may make progress. We must keep communications open between school and parents. Be sure the parent understands what you expect him to do. The parent must feel secure in the school situation. You, the teacher must do this. Keep the confidences of the parents. Respect the parents' ideas. You must know what they expect of you. You may not always agree, but keep an open mind and explore what they are saying. Basically, you have the same goal - to help youngsters.

Another item of concern is research. There is a lack of research at the grass roots. It is felt too much comes from the university level and the incidence is often small and has little bearing on the problems in public schools.

Again, we need the combination of skills of the team to accomplish better research. Research is often fragmentary. It should be on-going, moving into follow-up and accountability. This is the only way we can be sure we have worthwhile programs. The day is over when we can make glib statements such as "We have programs which develop better citizens" or "My students are very happy." We need something more tangible.

All of us know we should have early diagnosis. We know there should be better diagnosis in the low prevalence exceptionalities, such as the deaf blind. We know rapid program growth has given us some poorly trained personnel who have come through crash training programs. We also know the tools in the hands of the diagnostician are not the best but they do tell us many things about youngsters.

I believe it is our responsibility to have a plan for diagnosis. In this

plan we should put all the "know how" that is available. Then we should take a hard look at our community and dig in. If we don't have everything available, let us study closely every resource we do have and use it. Then take another look and see what can be done to get the rest of our plan.

I would like to tell you about a project we worked out in Palm Beach County using the resources we had available. We were finally able to expand our programs for Educable Mentally Retarded students to the secondary level.

The average drop-out level in the secondary school was about 20%. We felt we must know what this new program for Educable Mentally Retarded was really doing. We felt it was good; the teachers and administrators liked it; the parents were encouraged and we seemed to detect a new interest in our students.

In the fall of 1968 we checked out every student who had been enrolled and found out if he were back in school this September. We found out the drop-out percentage was 12%. This involved 16 schools and 342 students. This looked pretty good when placed side by side the average drop-out of 20%.

We then took a closer look and found there was a big difference in the numbers who dropped out in certain schools. We visited these schools, talked with the administrators and deans, teachers, and students. We studied the curriculum for the Educable Mentally Retarded and how it related to the rest of the school program. We used the know-how of every staff member we could solicit. We had parent meetings and explained what we were trying to do, and explained to them their sons and daughters could succeed in this program and could graduate. All the time we were working with the students. The students were not quite so sure we really meant what we were saying. They were afraid at the last minute they would be caught short and would not graduate. We had to reassure them, not only at the end of each semester, but sometimes week by week and some few needed daily reassurance.

These youngsters were in the cooperative program of Vocational Rehabilitation, Exceptional Child Education, and regular school programs. It was truly a great day when the first group graduated with the regular graduating class.

We have continued this study. In the 1969-70 school year, our drop-out rate was 2.7%. In 1970-71, it is 2.3%. This is an example of using the resources at hand, pooling every professional we could find, hours of inservice training for teachers, psychologists, principals and deans. Each student was studied in his home school setting.

Why was this experience in accountability useful to us?

1. We improved programs and kept students in school.
2. They were holding down jobs when they graduated. (This was part of the plan.)
3. The citizens were aware of the program. They were providing the jobs.
4. A big help at budget time. Money is scarce in our county. Every dollar is scrutinized. With this report, we expanded our program.
5. We were able to get good recognition with the plant planning people, both local and state. We have well-planned suites in plans of each new building to be built in Palm Beach County.
6. We are definitely a part of the County School System, and not something over in the corner.

We do not have Utopia. We are showing how a little better diagnosis, a little better team plan and action can bring positive responses.

In closing, I would say:

1. Make your Master Plan.
2. Plan for inservice for all disciplines working with you.
3. Bring your universities in. Show them what you need and why.

With the talents and hard work of many people, we shall be able to do more for these students who have special needs.

The Intervention Teacher and Aide: Contemporary Educators for Resolving and Preventing School Disruption and Violence

Herbert L. Foster
State University of New York, Buffalo

Increasingly, each day brings additional reports of uncontrolled aggression and violence in our public schools. And, each day uncontrolled aggression and violence interrupts instruction, thereby depriving innumerable youngsters of their right to an education. According to Owen B. Kiernan's Forward to Stephen K. Bailey's report of urban school disruption, "The disruption of education in our high schools is no longer novel or rare. It is current, it is widespread, and it is serious."[1]

Unquestionably, some of the aggression and violent behavior is caused by classroom and school processes. However, reporting also suggests that some of the aggressive and violent behavior exhibited in our schools by a minority of youngsters is of an extra-territorial nature and originates with outside of the school fears, conflicts, and frustrations.

Additionally, school personnel vary in their ability to cope with negative aggressive behavior. The amount of aggressive and violent disruptive behavior varies from school to school and area to area. It also appears as though some school administrators and teachers have the ability to minimize the negative effects of aggression and violence on the teaching and learning in their schools. Consequently, in some schools, problems of aggression and violence can be minimized, while in others the problems are too great.

We educators appear to respond with either of three traditionally punitive alternatives to these increasing problems of physical attacks on school personnel and students, school disruptions, racial disruptions and confrontations, shakedowns, false fire alarms, bomb scares, stealing, and the various other discipline concerns that interfere with instruction.

The first response is the increasing cry for the return to "corporal punishment," more school suspensions, in-school detentions, and expulsions. The second response is to ignore all preliminiary signs of impending disorder in the hope that the problem and/or what is causing it will dissipate. The third response, usually after the disruption and violence has erupted, is to call the police.

The police presence, however, in turn, often creates additional problems. Their presence may not only provoke further disorder, but, and more importantly, regardless of how unsafe and unmanageable the school situation that required police, the students', and, often, the community's esteem for the school staff deteriorates when the police arrive. It is analogous to the teacher who could neither discipline nor motivate his class and had to call for help with discipline. Any respect students had for this teacher dwindles every time the outside authority arrives.

"In the present school setting, except in the case of the most calamitous emergencies, adoption of unimaginative and traditional control devices seems to produce perverse and contraproductive results. Tensions and violence tend to be increased rather than reduced; basic constitutional rights, involving both substantive and procedural 'due process,' tend to be violated, thereby increasing the feeling of all too many young people that they are victims of authoritarian whim, not subjects of the equitable law that in civics classes they are asked to reverence."[2]

As a consequence, and because we just do not have enough personnel who can cope with either aggression and violence or lower-class physilness, it is imperative that we develop new staff and techniques

to positively prevent and/or cope with this negative aggression and violence that has been interfering with instruction and for which we have been calling the police. Some urban schools, such as the New York City public schools, have school guards in civilian dress with the right to make arrests. These security guards receive 30 hours of training but do not carry guns.[3] At Detroit's Kettering Senior High School specially trained youthful and better educated "Detroit Rangers" are assigned permanently.[4] In California, at Berkeley High School's West Campus, community aides dress youthfully and casually, patrolling the Hallways, outside yard areas, and bathrooms.[5] Boston has plainclothes firemen, policemen, and truant officers patrolling certain schools as a "last resort" to deal with school disruption.[6] Unarmed security guards dressed in brown blazers with breast pocket identifying insignia patrol the halls of certain Detroit public schools.[7] Chicago employs a 450-man security force that tries to be a "preventive" rather than an "oppressive force."[8] Recently, a "Safe Schools Act" was introduced in the House. "The bill proposes that Federal funds be channeled directly to school districts, where they would be used for expansion and training of security guards, patrols, parent patrols, surveillance and alarm systems, student identification badges and other measures."[9]

These positions appear to be based upon a police-oriented security guard model and their supervision and direction appears to come from former police officers. To offset this trend, we educators must develop an educational professional - The INTERVENTIONIST AND INTERVENTIONIST AIDE - based on an educational model. It is imperative that this personnel model be developed from an educational model rather than from a police-oriented model. Although based on an

educational model, the Interventionist must be capable of intervening, preventing, and/or coping with the most wanton act of student or non-student, but school centered, disruption and violence.

We do have the beginning of such an educational model in special education and in innumerable inner-city schools. The Interventionist is a more contemporary educator and para-professional developed from Morse's Crisis Teacher's role.[10] Although there is little in the literature that deals with educator's coping with and preventing real violence,[11] we have many years of unreported expertise and experience developed by those working with aggressive acting-out youngsters.

The meager reporting appears to have come about because too many in leadership positions in special education and education in general have either been unaware of or refused to recognize the reality of the negative aggression and violence in many of our classrooms. Whether they have acted from political, psychological, or for other reasons is an area ripe for speculation and research. Typical of this inability to recognize and come to grips with reality was Bosley Crowther's 1955 review of the movie "The Blackboard Jungle" wherein he wrote:

> "Evan Hunter's 'Blackboard Jungle,' which tells a vicious and terrifying tale of rampant hoodlumism and criminality among the students in a large city vocational training school, was sensational and controversial when it appeared as a novel last fall. It is sure to be equally sensational and controversial, now that it is made into a film.
>
> "For this drama of juvenile delinquency in a high school, which. . .is no temperate or restrained report on a state of

affairs that is disturbing to educators and social workers today. It is a full-throated, all-out testimonial to the lurid headlines that appear from time to time, reporting acts of terrorism and violence by uncontrolled urban youths. It gives a blood curdling, nightmarish picture or monstrous disorder in a public school. And it leaves one wondering wildly whether such out-of-hand horrors can be. . ."[12]

At the time of the review, I had started my teaching career in the New York City "600" schools and was experiencing the incidents depicted in the movie. Soon afterward Ambassador Luce prevented the movie from being shown in an Italian film festival. It is also interesting to note that in all of the school upheavals these past few years, the vocational high schools have been relatively free of disruption. Possibly, despite the movie and we academicians, the vocational school people recognized and solved their problems.

Ignoring the reality of school violence was continued when Fred Hechinger, who also should know better, reviewed the movie version of "Up the Down Staircase" in 1967, when he and wrote:

"Perhaps part of the answer is that school people are relieved to see that earlier motion picture image of 1955 - 'Blackboard Jungle' - superseded by something less sensational, more honest. At the time of this violence-packed 'portrayal' of an alleged vocational school, the 'New York Times' film critic Bosley Crowther said: 'And it leaves me wondering wildly whether such out-of-hand horrors can be.'"[13]

What is even more startling is that in the literature on the preparation of teachers for the emotionally disturbed, there is

an absence of any realistic mention of educating teachers to cope with aggressive and violent behavior.

Hence, the subject has been denied and hidden and many workers have developed feelings of guilt and despair, not to mention the millions of children who have been denied an education as a result of classroom disruptions. And, because the problem persists and is not recognized, we have not been able to work toward its resolution. I must emphasize that the Interventionist's education and responsibilities will emphasize early intervention and resolution of problems before they escalate into crisis.

I have developed the Interventionist concept from 16 years of almost daily personal experience with negative aggression and violence in the New York City "600" day and institution schools as well as a short period with the Junior Guidance Classes Program. In the past three-and-one-half years at the State University of New York at Buffalo, I have spent at least one day per week in inner-city secondary schools.

In my last two years in the "600" schools, I acted in the role of an Interventionist and helped eradicate corporal punishment. Today, in that particular "600" school through the Interventionist philosophy, the level of negative aggression and violence has been lowered if not erased. Additionally, at the State University of New York at Buffalo, we conducted a course to prepare professionals to work with aggressive and violent youngsters and helped develop further the Interventionist prototype.[14]

The Interventionist's responsibility would include: a) getting to know staff and students; b) becoming sensitive to the early warning signals of impending overt aggressive behavior; c) calming and talking

with children on the verge of losing control or who have lost control and are interfering with instruction or becoming a physical threat to themselves, a teacher, or peer; d) replacing police in the halls and/or, hopefully, making their presence unnecessary; and e) developing reciprocal communication links with all community groups. The emphasis will be on intervention and resolution of problems and returning the youngster to class and/or preventing any interruption of instruction.

The education of the Interventionists involves expertise in the two broad areas of: 1) verbal, non-verbal, psychological and philosophy; intervention and management concepts, techniques, and 2) non-punitive physical intervention techniques. The Interventionist's education will emphasize amelioration and resolution through verbal and psychological intervention techniques rather than through physical intervention.

Intervention Teachers and Intervention Aides should operate in integrated teams of two or three. The teams should be integrated as to sex, and the ethnic or racial background reflected in the school's student population. Interventionists will neither carry sidearms nor clubs. Additionally, they will be in civilian dress.

The responsibilities and expectations of the Interventionist's role will depend upon each school situation. Obviously, the professional capabilities and expectations required of inner-city school Interventionists will differ, to some extent, from the capabilities and expectations required of an institutionally based Interventionist or an Interventionist working in a day school for the emotionally disturbed. Interventionists should be teachers or guidance counselors.

Verbal, Non-Verbal, and Psychological Intervention and Management Concepts, Techniques, and Philosophy.

In working with others, the Interventionist's feelings, emotions, and attitudes will play an important role in the way he relates to each situation. Therefore, the first step to educating the Interventionist to work with others is to help him recognize and understand his emotions, feelings, and attitudes.

The Interventionist's education will include discussions and readings of student problems and incidents, worker introspection, and the emotional aspects of his role in working with normal, disruptive, and aggressive students. An overview of the professional literature related to counseling, emotionally disturbed and socially maladjusted students, and life space interviewing will also be included. Particular emphasis will be placed upon historical and contemporary discussions of how one man or woman's action either calmed or exacerbated a particularly volatile situation. Additionally, the history of American violence will be studied as related to ethnic, religious, political, economic, racial, and anti-radical violence, as well as violence in the name of law, order, and morality. Also role playing to discuss and discover the many behaviors that can be used in preventing, managing, and mediating crisis situations. In addition the Interventionist will also be educated to differentiate between ghetto rhetoric and a real threat, as well as becoming conversant in black dialect or any of the standard or non-standard dialects spoken by the ethnic, religious, or racial minorities located in his school.[15]

The Interventionist will be well versed in first aid techniques. He will also be educated to "sniff out" the pot smoker and also

educated to differentiate between the alcoholic, drug or acid high. Interventionists will also be educated to counsel and refer students on any of a myriad of problems. Some Interventionists should also be certified teachers, for the need may arise for the Interventionist to remain with the class while the teacher leaves to talk with the disruptive child. The history of the contributions to America of the religious, ethnic, and racial minorities also will be included. Particular emphasis will be placed upon the life style of the group in the assigned school.

Non-Punitive Physical Education Techniques

It must be realized that no matter how experienced and expertly the Interventionist tries to resolve the anxieties causing the child or adult's out-of-control behavior, a student may continue to demonstrate behavior that will have to be contained physically. For example, the need may arise to remove a student physically to protect another child, to prevent contagion, and/or for his own safety.

Therefore, because the Interventionist may have to use non-punitive physical force to restrain someone who has lost control of his behavior, he will have to be educated in non-punitive physical intervention techniques and philosophy. However, it must be emphasized that the Interventionist will use non-punitive physical intervention techniques only as a last resort.

Much of what is perceived as threatening and illegitimate violence is nothing more than the testing of the worker's ability to non-punitively control and set limits. Therefore, the Interventionist will also be educated to differentiate between out-of-control behavior and lower socio-economic class norm violating behavior that is too often perceived as threatening and/or illegitimate violence or behavior.

Another important objective in the use of non-punitive physical intervention techniques is to lower the level of violence by reducing

a child's anxiety and need to retaliate. When a child loses control of his surface behavior he often seeks controls from an outside source. However, when the outside physical controls are punitive, most often, the child's anxiety and aggression is escalated even though the surface behavior may be controlled momentarily because of the fear of further physically punitive retaliation.

However, when the Interventionist non-punitively holds the child, he demonstrates a number of concepts and feelings to the child. First, because of the Interventionist's willingness to "get physical," with the child, he demonstrates that he is not afraid of the child. Secondly, by getting physical, the Interventionist demonstrates that he is stronger physically than the child; hence he is strong enough physically to help the child control his impulses. Thirdly, and conversely, the Interventionist also demonstrates that because he is stronger physically than the child, he could have hurt him had he chose to do so. Elliot Shapiro in describing an incident with a youngster gives an example of these feelings and concepts that are transmitted when a warm adult is willing to become "physical" with a youngster.

> "A few weeks later, he challenged me to box him. He had to reassure himself that physically I could take care of him. That way, if I were going to help him, my help would be worthwhile by his criteria. In other words, was I 'soft' only because I was helpless? You know, the man who lived with the 'mother'who took care of John before she died was very cruel, but John missed his beatings in a way because he felt a man as strong as that could give him some kind of security. So he came into my office, I closed the door, and

we boxed for about three minutes. Mostly I outfeinted him, although occasionally I'd hit him lightly on the face. He was really trying, but he was quite pleased that he lost, because now he felt I could take care of him."[16]

Another important point is that the black disadvantaged youngster equates the workers willingness to use physical force with caring and warmth and perceives fear of him as being prejudice toward him. Please understand, I am not suggesting hitting children with that statement. Also, the way the Interventionist helps the out-of-control youngster cope with his acting-out anti-social or testing behavior may be the most important factor in helping the youngster to cope with his anxieties.

The Interventionist's willingness to become physical can also help the child who has been forced into a fight to save face. This youngster may be too fearful to stop because he is afraid of his peers who forced or manipulated him into the fight. Here the youngster can use the Interventionist's superior physical strength as an excuse for stopping the fight until his own controls are sufficient for him to withstand the verbal and physical onslaughts and manipulations of his peers.

Often, I have observed anxious, supposedly out-of-control youngsters steer a bee-line to the Interventionist or worker they knew was not afraid to control them physically. Conversely, I would suggest that when the professional shows fear, he provokes an already frightened youngster to act out further.

Therefore,

because we do have children who become violent and aggressive and interfere with instruction and/or become a physical threat to themselves or others, we must educate the Interventionist in the

following last resort non-punitive physical intervention techniques:

1. Mastery of methods and techniques of separating students who have lost control and may be fighting.
2. Mastery of methods and techniques that use a minimum amount of non-punitive physical force for disarming students or unauthorized visitors who may be threatening or attacking others with non-deadly or deadly weapons.
3. Mastery of methods and techniques of physically but non-punitively restraining students or unauthorized visitors who are physically attacking someone, "ripping off" school equipment, "trashing," attempting to burn or blow up a building, or in some way physically interfering with instruction or threatening a student or worker with physical harm.

It is further suggested, based on this writer's experience, that the Interventionist's awareness and confidence in his physical capabilities, secured through the mastery of the above techniques, will provide him with the following psychological set which will enable and help him to non-punitively resolve potential crisis situations:

1. Removal of the fear of physical contact, violence, aggression, falling, and/or injuring oneself, having one's clothing torn, glasses or watch broken, or of broken limbs.
2. The retention of composure in an aggressive confrontation or violently physical situation.
3. The knowledge that if the situation gets out of hand, he can handle it physically, if necessary.

The student who has underdeveloped controls or lacks control of his behavior gains strength to control his behavior from: 1) the inner strength of the worker; and 2) if necessary, the willingness

of the worker to non-punitively restrain him physically. Furthermore, in most cases of disruption, the disorderly student usually gives innumerable warning signals or clues that, depending upon their reading by the worker, can exacerbate or ameliorate the impending situation.

In any situation, the emphasis is on the Interventionist's not panicking and the positive education and psychological intervention and management that ameliorates and prevents incidents from deteriorating into crisis. However, it will also be discussed and planned for realistically that, in some cases, no matter how expertly the Interventionist tries, a student may still demonstrate behavior that will have to be contained and/or controlled physically. Or, the need may arise to remove a student physically to prevent contagion and/or for his safety.

Ongoing Staff Articulation

When the Interventionist is introduced into the school a certain amount of time must be expected to elapse within which the professional staff tests to see whether the Interventionist will really provide the assistance he has been billed to provide. The Interventionist will probably have to work hard to substantiate his worth before he is accepted.

Additionally, to increase the proficiency and acceptance of Interventionists, it is imperative that ongoing articulation be scheduled between the Interventionists and the staff to resolve issues that may arise. This articulation would, hopefully, also overcome the tendency of the professional staff and the Interventionists to develop inaccurate expectancies of each other's roles, i.e.,

discipline. A deep trust and respect for one another's roles must be developed between the professional staff and the Interventionists.

Mutual trust is particularly important in relation to the removal and returning of children to class or to school. For example, the teacher must have faith in the Interventionist's decision that the child is calm enough to be returned to class. Similarly, the Interventionist must trust that the teacher seeks his aid because he needs it.

Teachers and Interventionists must also become used to the nuances of one another's professional styles so that they may use these hardly noticeable verbal and non-verbal signals to resolve potentially volatile situations. It is imperative that the professional worker and the Interventionist develop a trust in one another.

In-Service Education

The Aide

The aide should have on-the-job or released time career ladder opportunities to enable him to advance toward a college degree and/or teacher certification, if he so desires. Summer stipends should also be available to the aides so that they may take college course work.

Physical Aspects

The Interventionists should keep in a high state of physical condition. His mastery of non-punitive physical intervention techniques should be ongoing.

Affective Aspects

Educational programs should be developed to effect positively changes in the feelings, emotions, and attitudes of the Interventionists. For example, much discussion in the literature has centered upon teacher understanding of student aggression. However, there appears to be little literature related to helping teachers cope with their aggressive feelings that may build up after hours of working with aggressive and violent children. Included in the continued in-service program, therefore, must be a system to help the Interventionist understand, and, if necessary, positively release his pent-up emotions and feelings of aggression.

Help-Seeking System

Many systems have been suggested for use in securing the assistvon the gamut from sending a child ance of the Interventionist. These systems have included a buzzer to using a buzzer or light system activated by a key or push button to sending a child.

The system I would suggest would provide each teacher with a small transmitter with its own frequency. These transmitters would be small enough to be hooked onto a belt, hung around the neck or placed in a pocket. Because of the size of the transmitter, the teacher could carry it on his person and actuate the transmitter which could activate a buzzer and light regardless of where he is. The lights and buzzer system would be located strategically.

Intake and Parents

Upon intake, the role of the Interventionist must be explained to parents, particularly the Interventionist's last-resort non-punitive physical role.

Unquestionably, the Interventionist will not solve all our school's or society's problems. However, his presence in the schools is tantamount to admitting to the reality of our inner-city schools and to the reality of some of our programs for the emotionally disturbed, and reacting in a positive way. Once we are capable of facing and dealing with the reality of school violence and aggression, we may be taking the first step toward improving the mental health of our teachers and students. And we may be taking the first realistic step toward educating more disadvantaged black children, for we must realize that the teaching and learning processes take place only when school personnel and students feel safe, secure, and relaxed in their classrooms and schools.

Finally, although the Interventionist's expertise will go a long way toward helping us solve school problems of negative aggression and violence, we must still solve problems of overcrowding, relevant curriculum, improved school human relations, white racism, and get-even black racism, to name a few. Unless we also recognize and deal with all of these problems too, crisis administration and teaching as well as a police presence in our schools may continue to be with us for quite a while.

REFERENCES

1. Kiernan, O.B. Forward. In S.K. Bailey, Disruption in Urban Public Secondary Schools, Washington, D.C.: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1970, pp. v.

2. Bailey, S.K. Disruption in Urban Public Secondary Schools, Washington, D.C.: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1970, p. 34.

3. Buder, L. Schools seeking 300 more guards to curb disorders, New York Times, Sept. 27, 1970, pp. 1, 63.

4. Bailey, op. cit., p. 35.

5. Ibid.

6. School patrols ordered, New York Times, March 22, 1971, p. 5.

7. Salsinger, H. Student rebellions, race, deficits spell trouble for Detroit, Buffalo Evening News, March 17, 1971, p. 47.

8. As violence spreads in high schools. . .U.S. News & World Report, Nov. 30, 1970, 69 (22), 18-20.

9. Fosburgh, L. Bill set to curb crime in schools, New York Times, Feb. 2, 1971, p. 41.

10. Morse, W.C. The crisis teacher, In N.J. Long et al. (Ed.), Conflict in the Classroom: The Education of Emotionally Disturbed Children, Belmont, Cal.: Wadsworth, 1965, pp. 251-261; Morse, W.C. The crisis teacher, Bulletin, Mich.: University of Mich. School of Ed., April, 1962, pp. 37, 101-104.

11. Foster, H.L. Teaching industrial arts to the emotionally disturbed student, Industrial Arts & Vocational Education, 1964, 53 (1), 22-23 Foster, H.L. Some suggestions for action research, New York State Journal of Health, Physical Education & Recreation, Fall, 1968, 21 (1), 21-32; Foster, H.L. The inner-city teacher and violence: suggestions for action research, PHI DELTA KAPPAN, 1968, 50, 172-175; Research in Education, Vol. IV, #4, April, 1969, p. 100. ERIC Index #ED 024 631; Foster, H.L. The inner-city school: violence, fear, failure, Colleague, Oct. 1968, 5 (1), 4-8; Foster, H.L. The inner-city school: a different drumbeat, University Review, 1969, 2 (2), 29-32.

12. Crowther, B. Delinquency shown in powerful film, New York Times, March 21, 1955, p. 21.

13. Hechinger, F. Schools, teachers, and images, New York Times, Aug. 20, 1967, p. E.19.

14. Foster, H.L. Educating personnel to work with out-of-control, aggressive and violent surface behavior. Paper presented at the 48th Annual International Council for Exceptional Children Convention, Chicago, April 23, 1970; Research in Education, ERIC index (in press).

15. Foster, H.L. Black and White teacher-student verbal and non-verbal communication problems; a white educators perspective. Paper presented as second speaker of the Special Education Department of B.O.C.E.S., Nassau County, N.Y., 1970-71 Distinguished Lecturer Series, Jan. 22, 1971; Foster, H.L., & Newman, A. Language problems of inner-city children, Encyclopedia of Education, New York: Macmillan, 1971, in press; Foster, H.L. Dialect-Lexicon and listening comprehension, (Doctoral dissertation, Columbia University, Teachers College) Ann Arbor, Mich.: University Microfilms, 1970, No. 70-13, 770; Foster, H.L. A pilot study of the cant of the Negro disadvantaged student in four secondary schools for socially maladjusted and emotionally disturbed, C.E.C. Selected Convention Papers: 1967, Washington, D.C.: C.E.C., 1968, pp. 139-143; Foster, H.L. A pilot study of the cant of the socially maladjusted, disadvantaged, secondary school child. Urban Education, 1966, 2, pp. 99-114; Kotchman, T. Toward an ethnography of black American speech behavior. In N.E. Whitten, Jr. & J.F. Szwed (Ed.), Afro-American Anthropology, New York: Free Press, 1970, pp. 145-162.

16. Kentoff, N. Our Children Are Dying, New York: Viking, 1967, p. 23.

A Psychoeducational Approach to Specifying and Measuring the Competencies of Personnel Working with Disturbances in Schools

Stanley A. Fagen
Montgomery County Public Schools, Maryland

"Psychoeducational": Concept or Confusion?

The title of this paper presumes that the term "psychoeducational" conveys meaningful attributes or referents rather than ambiguity or confusion. It would be natural to assume the author selected the word because of its established usage in special education. Not so. The term has been first adopted because of its personal appeal, and then subjected to scrutiny as a coherent concept. It appeals to me in that it is not pathology-oriented (contrast "clinical education") or exclusively affective (contrast "affective education"). At the same time the term accents the connection between education and psychology--the teaching of human beings and the study of human behavior.

The concept takes amorphous shape as it lights on and off in the literature. Morse, Cutler, and Fink (1964) talk about it as a balance between educational and clinical emphases, with educational decisions made upon consideration of the underlying motivation of childre- Glavin (1970) characterizes the approach as focussing on the role of unconscious processes, stating that ventilation and acting out of conflicts are encouraged so that new learning can occur in the presence of a crisis teacher. Knoblock and Reinig (1971) point to the coordination of clinical and educational data to adequately understand the child's present functioning level; the learning climate as placing equal emphasis on affective and cognitive development; the recognition that group processes and dynamics are factors needing attention; and the premise that all learning takes place within the context of a relationship with teachers. Morse (1966) has discussed the psychoeducational team as a mechanism for collecting and interpreting information about a child, and providing consultation and support to the teaching efforts.

Perhaps the most complete statement regarding the psychoeducational model is contained in the revised edition of Long, Morse, and Newman's book (1971). These authors perceive the model as embracing several major assumptions: (1) an educational milieu must be developed in which attention is given to everything effects pupil interaction with school, staff, peers, and curriculum, (2) it is important to understand the teacher-pupil relationship, (3) learning must be

invested with feelings to give it interest, meaning, and purpose, (4) conflict can be used productively to teach new ways of understanding and coping with stress, (5) collaborative skills are essential, (6) creative arts are vital forms for learning and program, (7) each pupil is different in style and functional level, (8) the same behavior can have many causes, while the same cause can be expressed through many behaviors.

These excerpts illustrate the varied ways in which the term has been used. "Psychoeducational" has been interpreted as theory, methodology, and viewpoint. As has been noted by Joyce (1969) in describing the work of Bruner, Goodnow, and Austin, concept attainment is "the process by which we discriminate the attributes of things, people, events and place them into categories."

Attainment of "psychoeducational" as a concept should be facilitated by a statement of attributes which appear to be common to those applying the term. Such a statement of conceptual attributes does not lessen the probability that translations of concept into practice may vary between organizational settings (e.g., primary responsibility for assessment of problem areas may rest with the psychologist in one setting, the teacher in another). Furthermore, while this statement of attributes seeks to capture the spirit of the psychoeducational concept as it has been developed by others, it also reflects the author's desire to extend the concept for more flexible application. Specifically, it is believed that the tendency to interpret the psychoeducational perspective as implying an exclusive cause-effect relation from emotional dysfunction to learning dysfunction severely limits appreciation for the concept's value.

The position taken here is that the psychoeducational approach postulates a circular, interacting relationship between thoughts and feelings such that cognitive experience affects emotional experience affects cognitive experience, etc.

The child who cannot learn to read develops intensely adverse emotional responses, just as the child with severe anxiety over performance experiences difficulty learning to read.

Krathwohl, Bloom and Masia (1964) graphically depict this closely interactive relationship between cognitive and affective spheres in their Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Affective Domain.

> "Perhaps it is analogous to a man scaling a wall using two step ladders side by side, each with rungs too wide apart to be conveniently reached in a single step. One ladder represents the cognitive behaviors and objectives, the other the affective. The ladders are so constructed that the rungs of one ladder fall between the rungs of the other. The attainment of some complex goal is made possible by alternately climbing a rung on one ladder, which brings the next rung of the other ladder within reach."

Conceptual Attributes of a Psychoeducational Approach

1. Cognitive and affective processes are in continuous interaction at each moment in time.
2. Behavior comprises verbal and non-verbal expressions of a total functioning person, and it is that person that is important.
3. Behavior is a source of concern when it promotes or perpetuates personal unhappiness, conflict, and self-depreciation, or when it creates serious disturbance with existing social norms resulting in feelings of rejection and alienation.
4. Understanding behavior means understanding phenomenally relevant aspects of a child's life space. For the teacher, this means appreciating transactions between self and the child, the curriculum, the peer group, and the educational system.
5. Understanding behavior requires awareness of cognitive, affective, and motivational processes in self and others.
   (a) Self-awareness enhances awareness of others.
   (b) Understanding grows with increasing awareness of the functions associated with each of the above elements.
6. Understanding behavior is achieved through assessment of and communication with and about the learner and significant others in his life space.

7. Changing or modifying self-defeating behavior involves a process of establishing identifiable objectives set in relation to total personal functioning.
8. Understanding behavior facilitates creating conditions for optimal behavior change.
9. The ultimate criterion for personal growth is the extent to which positive behavior derives from self-control rather than external control.
   (a) Shifts in subjective thoughts and feelings are primarily responsible for gains in self-control.
   (b) Measurement of change should be in relation to one's life space and functions, rather than to isolated, unitary variables.
10. Emotions are critical personal events that must become understood, accepted and valued.
11. The scope of learning involves increasing understanding and satisfactions in relationship to things, symbols, self, and others.

The Psychoeducational Environment

Inherent in the psychoeducational approach is the necessity for placing the conceptual attributes within the broad framework of a psychoeducational environment. This environment provides the canvas within which the form and color of daily interaction evolves. The integration of experience, both conceptually and practically, is seen as a key for movement toward greater stability and self-realization. Children are all too often stressed beyond their powers to cope by a bombardment of conflicting demands and expectations. It is surely hard enough for adults to process the multiple pressures and responsibilities of modern living. Without some sort of unifying thread to our existence we are all subject to the threat of helpless floundering in a sea of uncoordinated and sometimes overwhelming events. A sense of active mastery only emerges when we have a handle on how the

pieces of our life endeavors fit together to form a cohesive whole.

The perspective of a psychoeducational environment provides the means by which the multiple transactions of a child's life space may be placed into a set of ordered events. Figure 1 depicts the relation of parts of the psychoeducational environment to the process of change in life pattern.

INSERT FIGURE 1

Figure 1 represents the psychoeducational environment as a stream consisting of four currents which flow and mix with one another. The currents are the basic components of the environment which the learner negotiates as he moves through time. If the mix of teacher, curriculum, peer group, and school system is rhythmic and warm the stream facilitates movement ahead, buoying up the learner as he goes. However, if the mix is antagonistic or icy the learner gets swept under, sinking deeper as the currents battle one another for supremacy.

Admittedly this anology does gross injustice to mother nature's environment. It does, however, portray the psychoeducational environment's potential for facilitating or hindering progress, albeit melodramatically.

Such a presentation is undoubtedly visually engaging and, perhaps, mentally agreeable as well. But, is it at all central to the teaching-learning process? Few professionals would even question the meaningfulness of any of the four components. Yet marked differences in approach to working with children appears as one focusses on the degree of attention paid to planning and arranging for a facilitating or therapeutic or "synergistic" environment.

There is much written in the literature on therapeutic milieu, organization development, and ecological environments to suggest that the milieu or environment surrounding the learner has a strong influence on behavior; an influence generated from a complex of social-structural factors having an integrity and reality beyond

the parts immediately touching the learner (cf. Redl, 1959; Hobbs, 1966; Morse, Finger and Gilmore, 1968; Beckhard, 1969; Gross, Giacquinta, and Bernstein, 1970; Seashore, 1970). Thus, in a fascinating study on the negative relationship of school size to student participation Barker and Gump (1964) found that "ecology is a powerful factor in determining participation", outweighing the factor of individual motivation.

Many special class settings concentrate on the teacher and curriculum to the exclusion of peer group and educational or family system components. Frequently children gain in skill and confidence within that protective setting, only to find later on that peers do not accept them or system expectations are incompatible with those of the special program (e.g., a child pleased by his increasing ability to concentrate and work with care is laughed at when the others are bursting to play ball; Mark begins to find it possible to express independent, critical ideas only to discover that these are unacceptable to his new teacher or his parents).

When the focus is shifted to the basic functional transactions of a psychoeducational environment it becomes clear that both learner and teacher are expected to engage all the facets of this environment at some point in the process of change (Fig. 2).

INSERT FIGURE 2

As the learner is affected by the group, curriculum, school and family system, and teacher, so must the teacher be cognizant of these effects. And, in so far as it is feasible, the teacher should be capable of modifying or regulating the nature of these effects on the learner. Naturally, some aspects of the psychoeducational environment are more directly under the teacher's control than others, and greater responsibility is assumed for transactions closer to the teacher, i.e., curriculum, teacher-learner relationship, classroom group.

Planning For Development of Teacher Competencies

In the preceding sections of this paper we have dealt with the theoretical (conceptual attributes) and structural (transactions within psychoeducational environment) underpinnings of a psychoeducational approach. Any program commitment to developing teacher competencies within this approach should build upon, as well as contribute to, these earlier ideas.

Table 1 provides an overview of conditions which appears to facilitate constructive change in each area of functional transaction.

INSERT TABLE 1

The purpose of summarizing facilitating conditions under Table 1 is to set the stage for specifying the teacher competencies needed to create such conditions. The psychoeducational approach calls for a definite set of training goals, the attainment of which should enable the teacher to implement favorable conditions in each area of the psychoeducational environment.

The Issue of Regular Teachers vs. Special Teachers (or Should the Tail Wag the Dog?)

It is important to observe that the discussion so far has avoided any specific reference to the role or responsibilities of special education teachers. The omission is deliberate and is based on the belief that a psychoeducational approach is as appropriate for all children as it is for those who are problems.

We propose that the essential difference between teachers of problem youngsters and regular teachers is that the former should have a greater capacity to create favorable learning conditions within the psychoeducational environment. The point becomes obvious when we reflect on the type of children for whom the special teacher is responsible--children that have experienced persisting failure and frustration, that have intensely negative attitudes about selves and others,

that are commonly distrustful or antagonistic towards schools, teachers, curriculum, and their peers.

The "disturbing" child has typically experienced intense emotional turmoil. Feelings are generally conflicted, highly stressful, and poorly integrated. Teachers of these youngsters must be able to face the full range and force of human emotions--in themselves and in their children. Because regular educators have been unable to handle or help the child with emotional problems the special educator is called upon to exercise leadership in the reeducation of affective experience.

An alternative view of special education considers the helping impetus to spring from increased opportunities for individualization of instruction and behavior management, thus leading to new satisfactions and heightened self-esteem. This viewpoint implies that conflicted feelings are extinguished in the process of administering a positive orientation towards desirable behaviors. For example, ignoring tantrums gradually eliminates guilt or shame over loss of control, while pride is developing because of new accomplishments. However, one should not overlook the fact that even though the prescription for teacher influence involves adherance to a positive orientation, the teacher still radiates a non-punitive, accepting attitude towards emotional outbursts.

The drawback to this alternate approach is that while ignoring emotional reactions avoids the prospects of power struggles and perpetuation of disruptive behavior through attention getting, it also avoids the opportunity to increase mastery over very real, intense affect. Behavior may indeed improve, with fewer and fewer outbursts or upsetting emotional events so that the child does in fact approach the functioning of other children in regular settings. Unfortunately, the level of emotional mastery is grossly inadequate in most children, and, as might be expected, in their parents.

Paradoxical as it may seem, we offer the hypothesis that an effective psychoeducational program returns children to their regular environments

at a level not merely comparable to normal peers but superior in some ways. The thesis garners credibility from the clinical observation that many people who seek help for personal problems learn to cope more effectively with life stresses than many who would not be caught dead in a helping relationship.

To our way of thinking it is quite conceivable that many special education programs offer attitudes, opportunities, and experiences that are not only good for troubled children, but that would be helpful to large numbers of youngsters in regular classes. This statement appears to fly in the face of disquieting reports of no demonstrable differences between exceptional children placed in special education classes and those placed in regular classes (cf. Dunn, 1968; Christoplos and Renz, 1969). Like Engel (1969) and Nelson and Schmidt (1971), however, we are not convinced that available research methodology has satisfactorily elucidated the contribution (or lack of same) of special educational efforts with disturbing children. More importantly, it seems to us that studies comparing the relative benefits of special vs. regular class placements for problem youngsters miss the point since the crucial parameters relate to program quality rather than program labels.

Specifying Competencies for A Psychoeducational Approach

The staff development program at the Mark Twain School translates the psychoeducational approach into practice by focussing on six competence goals:[1/]

A. Skill in psychoeducational assessment and programming.

B. Personal sensitivity and interpersonal effectiveness.

C. Skill in implementing a psychoeducational curriculum.

D. Skill in individualizing instruction.

E. Skill in behavior management.

F. Skill in systems analysis.

1/ These competencies are very similar to those emphasized in another psychoeducationally oriented training program with which the author has been affiliated, i.e., the American University-Hillcrest Children's Center special project (Long and Fagen, 1969).

Table 2 presents the relationship of these competence goals to teacher-oriented transactions within a psychoeducational environment.

INSERT TABLE 2

The filled cells in Table 2 denote those competencies which relate directly to enhancing a particular transaction. By scanning the table it can be seen that: (1) Each area of teacher transaction is mediated by at least half of the six competencies emphasized in staff development, (2) Each competence goal, with the exception of systems analysis, relates directly to more than one area of teacher transaction. We interpret these observations as further evidence that multiple abilities are involved in establishing facilitating transactions, and that components of a psychoeducational environment are functionally interconnected. For example, the ability to complete a psychoeducational profile, including learner strengths and weaknesses, enhances teacher prospects for positively relating to the learner, allows for discriminative curriculum planning, stimulates expectations and preparedness for group dynamics, and identifies aspects of the system that might become resources or problems.

Each competence goal is comprised of several sub-goals which represent a somewhat greater degree of specificity (see Table 3). For example, goal B, "To develop personal sensitivity and interpersonal effectiveness" is divided into five sub-goals: (1) Ability to comprehend and communicate effectively with others (on both the cognitive and affective levels); to perceive accurately one's reaction to and effect upon others, (2) Ability to interact with warmth, openness, empathy, flexibility, and self-confidence, (3) Ability to express freely positive and negative emotions, (4) Ability to use and provide supervision constructively, (5) Ability to promote mutual understanding and resolution of problems.

These sub-goals are more towards the abstract than the operational level of measurement (Bloom, Hastings and Madaus, 1971). However, our staff is currently in process of preparing more precise knowledge, attitude, and skill objectives for each competence sub-goal.

It is important to mention that in seeking to develop staff mastery of the six competence goals we apply guidelines very similar to those used for furthering the growth and learning of children. That is, milieu conditions which are seen as facilitating for youngsters are also seen as beneficial for teacher trainees. In developing the staff development program at Mark Twain three main guiding principles have been used:

(1) The training system must strive to create a psychoeducational learning environment in which cognitive and affective dimensions are interwoven and correlated with the needs and motivation of the learner,

(2) Learning experiences must be relevant to skills needed for on the job performance, and

(3) Didactic (classroom), practica (laboratory or applied experience), and independent study activities must be thoroughly integrated.

Measurement of Psychoeducational Competencies

In a recent report to the U. S. Office of Education, Bureau of Handicapped Children, evaluating the first year of the American University-Hillcrest Children's Center special project, Nick Long and I presented a model for evaluation of teacher training programs. The model is particularly well suited to programs developing teachers for practice within a psychoeducational approach, but is also applicable to any training program with explicit goals and objectives. Because of its pertinence for the present discussion I would like to excerpt some remarks from that report:

> "The task of evaluation within any complex, multi-dimensional, demanding teacher training program. . .presents an enormous challenge. . . The evaluation effort must blend itself with the ongoing spirit and purpose of the training system. It can neither be aloof nor tangential, superior nor disengaged. Instead it must be viewed as an appreciative partner--a resource for constructive feedback and progress. With this as its charge, evaluation is compelled to develop with heart and sensitivity. No simple, mechanistic framework can be viable; no alien arsenal of instruments, forms and figures is acceptable. To squarely face its profound responsibility in an alive and completely human training enterprise, evaluation must evolve as a responsive and integrative component within the total system of people, plans, and principles. To accomplish this responsibility requires a commitment to flexibility, compassion, and above all, a genuine respect for the complexity of human behavior." (pp. 1-2)

The model delineates three major parameters for evaluation, namely: (1) Competence Objectives, (2) Trainee Dimensions, and (3) Function of Evaluation Source. Its basic purpose is to offer a mechanism for assuring a balanced, comprehensive, and penetrating analysis of program effectiveness.

Table 4 presents this overall model for evaluation, using the Mark Twain staff development program as a case in point.

INSERT TABLE 4

-Trainee Dimensions

The intent of sectioning the trainee into three levels of function is to insure an integrated approach to evaluating competence attainment. Without so doing, goal-related performance (e.g., system analysis) is apt to be slanted toward one or another of these dimensions. For example, system analysis can be expressed through a person's attitudes, knowledge, or behavior. That is, a trainee can strongly advocate a system approach to problem-solving, know a great deal about conceptualizing system phenomena, or engage actively in collaborative work throughout a system. And, quite possibly, a suggestion of competence drawn from one mode can be contradicted by negative data from a different mode. Thus, a systems advocate may be completely ineffectual in communicating his beliefs and understandings to others.

-Function of Evaluation Source[2/]

It appears that measurement can play two important, and independent functions in the overall evaluation system. One function involves the relationship of the source to the trainee dimension, and can be referred to as either a Direct or Indirect function. The second function involves the relationship of the source

---

[2/] By source for evaluation we are referring to the sample of behavior enacted, observed, or recorded, which may be used for assessment of trainee performance. Thus, the act of teaching in the classroom, supervisory ratings of that act, and written trainee responses to questions pertaining to that act, may all serve as sources for evaluation.

to the ongoing training program, and can be identified as either a Dynamic or Static function.

(a) Direct-Indirect Function

Certain classes of data may be seen as clear and direct reflections of a dimension of trainee expression. Few would question the directness of the relation between one's conscious attitude towards authority, and results deriving from a questionnaire tapping feelings about authority figures, or between one's behavior in situations requiring leadership, and teaching performance on a day when the kids are high.

On the other hand, many data sources are indirectly related to trainee expression. Such sources are characterized by a marked degree of inference, interpretation, or assumption. Some examples might be highly subjective rating scales, paper and pencil personality tests, or self-evaluations of knowledge or skill.

It appears that the behavior dimension offers the best prospect for selecting a measure which functions directly. If one is interested in evaluating a trainee's capacity for giving affection to children there is a clear option to choose a direct source (e.g., videotape samples, observation by an experienced co-teacher) over an inferential one (e.g., estimates of nurturance from a need-inventory). This option invariably exists for the realm of behavioral expression, but is much more cloudy for the dimensions of attitude and knowledge.

(b) Dynamic-Static Function

The common role for data collected within an ongoing program has been a static one. That is, information gathered is held in reserve pending completion of the full program cycle after which it is used to estimate program influence on the departing trainees. Data that might be pertinent to a prior objective is carefully guarded lest it trickle

into the self-contained training process and contaminate the product. Thus, the static function is essentially irrelevant to ongoing program events, although it may hopefully play some part in determining events for the next group of trainees. In effect, when evaluation has a static function it is meant to measure an already determined outcome.

A different approach to data utilization entails an interaction between evaluative material and ongoing program development. Evaluation is regarded as a source of prompt feedback which can become instrumental in shaping the training experience to further trainee needs and program goals. Thus, evaluation has a dynamic function when it is intended to immediately affect and interact with the program process. This contrast between static and dynamic functions closely parallels the distinction mode recently between summative and formative evaluation (Bloom, Hastings, and Madaus, 1971).

The realization that evaluation sources may function in either a dynamic or static manner has far-reaching implications. Practitioners and trainees alike hope for something personally valuable to emerge from the research office, while fearing "deep down" that this will never happen. The precious time spent in lengthy research meetings, the additional burdens imposed by evaluation procedures, the intrusions upon customary administrative and professional processes, all can begin to take on the smell of necessary evils if "the evaluated" experience strange, uncommunicative vibrations nervously produced by "the evaluators". What happens when tests and questionnaires get filed into the deep recesses of cabinets; behavior gets coded, quantified, and sterilized; calculators go clicking and typewriters ripping; and the research people disappear under mountains of paper? Any wonder then why research is often so cooly received when it walks in the open

doors of some introspecting, interacting, child-and people-oriented setting.

The element of staff resentment for frustrated hopes, giving and not getting, and unshared concerns are real threats to progressive research, and must be taken seriously. Clearly, applied research must find a mechanism to avoid an image as a one-way street from classroom to computer. It is our contention that the inclusion of a dynamic function for evaluation will substantially improve prospects for genuine research support and cooperation.[3/] Without the opportunity for some current feedback provided through a dynamic use of data, staff and trainees cannot help but lose both interest and respect for the evaluation system, particularly since our profession deeply cherishes honesty and openness in human relationships.

Concluding Remarks

We live in an era of threat. Never before have we been so massively confronted with the heaviness of the human condition. The electronic symbols of man's amazing proficiencies captivate our attention, and bounce us like superballs from one pressure point to another--from war to crime to racial strife to environmental pollution to drugs to poverty to. . .

In the midst of pain and worry we seek ways to find purpose and meaning to it all. Fortunate are those who lift up above the grimness to see love and joy and growth. Teachers of handicapped children stand on the threshold of enlightenment. Whether they cross beyond the fears and doubts into a world of building and becoming, hinges on their faith, competence, and desire.

3/ In a general sense, this dynamic function of data appears to be inherent in the proven success of operant or contingent approaches to behavior modification. For such approaches, performance data is immediately used by both the learner and trainer for decisions regarding new behavior.

I am reminded of a piece contained in a paper written by a former student of mine. It is entitled: Greeting His Pupils.

"Greeting his pupils the master asked:

What would you learn of me?

And the reply came:

How shall we care for our bodies?

How shall we rear our children?

How shall we work together?

How shall we live with our fellowmen?

How shall we play?

For what ends shall we live?

And the teacher pondered these words, and sorrow was in his heart, for his own learning touched not these things."

Principles of Education, 1924

Our field of work with troubled children and families holds great promise for learnings that touch human dilemmas. We need not sorrow for having missed the heart of things. For me, the psychoeducational approach gets to what is real for people--teachers and learners alike, for we are all both at the same time.

REFERENCES

Barker, R. G. & Gump, P.V. Big School, Small School. Stanford: Stanford University, 1964.

Beckhard, R. Organization Development: Strategies and Models. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1969.

Bloom, B. S., Hastings, J. T., & Madaus, G. F. Handbook In Formative and Summative Evaluation of Student Learning, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1971.

Christoplos, F. & Renz, P. A critical examination of special education programs. J. Spec. Educ., 1969, 3, 37'-379.

Dunn, L. M. Special education for the mildly retarded--is much of it justifiable? Except. Child., 1968, 35, 5-24.

Engel, M. The Tin Drum revisited. J. Spec. Educ., 1963, 3, 381-384.

Fagen, S. & Long, N. The American University-Hillcrest Children's Center Research Report to U. S. Office of Education, Bureau of Handicapped Children, 1970.

Glavin, J. New directions in research on emotionally disturbed children. Paper presented at Special Study Institute on "Planning Research on Education of Disturbed Children," Peabody College, Sept. 24-26, 1970.

Gross, N., Giacquinta, J. B., & Bernstein, M. The Implementation of Educational Innovations. New York: Basic Books, 1970.

Hobbs, N. Helping disturbed children: Psychological and ecological strategies. Amer. Psychol., 1966, 21, 1105-1115.

Joyce, B. R. Alternative Models of Elementary Education. Waltham, Mass.: Blaisdell, 1969.

Knoblock, P. & Reinig, J. E. Special Project Report: Preparing Psychoeducators for Inner City Teaching, Division of Special Education and Rehabilitation, Syracuse Univ., 1970.

Krathwohl, D. R., Bloom, B. S., & Masia, B. B. Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Affective Domain. New York: McKay, 1964.

Long, N., Fagen, S. & Staff. Request for Participation in the Program for the Preparation of Professional Personnel in the Education of Handicapped Children: Second Year Proposal, 1970.

Long, N., Morse, W., & Newman, R. Conflict in the Classroom. (2nd ed.) Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth, 1971.

Morse, W. Public schools and the disturbed child. In P. Knoblock (ed.): Intervention Approaches in Educating Emotionally Disturbed Children. Syracuse: Syracuse University Press, 1966, pp. 113-128.

Morse, W., Cutler, R. L. & Fink, A. H. Public School Classes for the Emotionally Handicapped: A Research Analysis. Wash., D.C.: Council for Except. Child., 1964.

Morse, W. C., Finger, D. C. & Gilmore, G. E. Innovations in school mental health programs. Rev. Educ. Res., 1968, 38, 460-477.

Nelson, C. C. & Schmidt, L. J. The question of the efficacy of special classes. Except. Child., 1971, 37, 381-386.

Redl, F. The concept of a 'Therapeutic Milieu'. Amer. J. Orthopsychiat., 1959, 29, 721-736.

Seashore, C. Taking A Look at Organization Development. New York: Young Men's Christian Assoc., 1970.

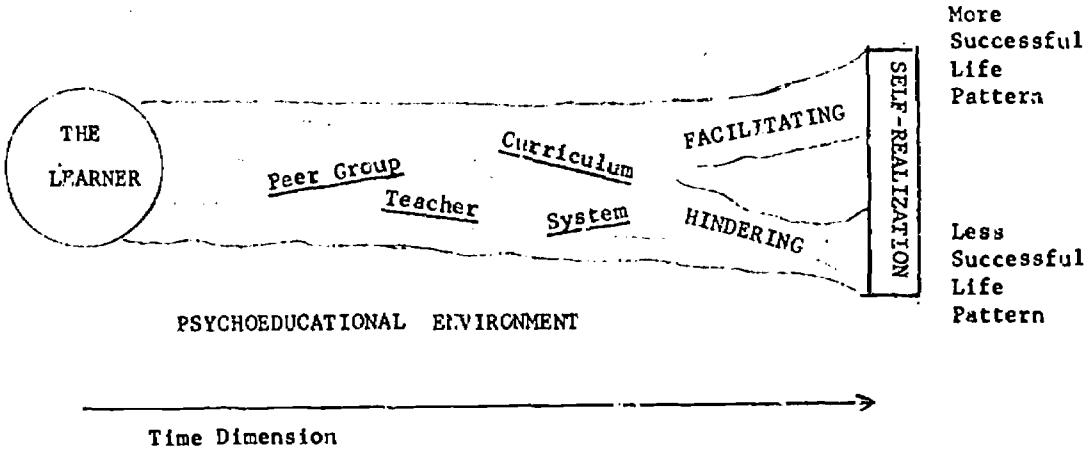


Figure 1. The Psychoeducational Environment in Relation to the Process of Change in Life Pattern.

From "A Psychoeducational Approach to Specifying and Measuring Competencies of Personnel Working with Disturbance in Schools."
Stanley A. Fagen, Ph.D., Supervisor of Professional Development, Mark Twain School, Montgomery County Public Schools, Maryland

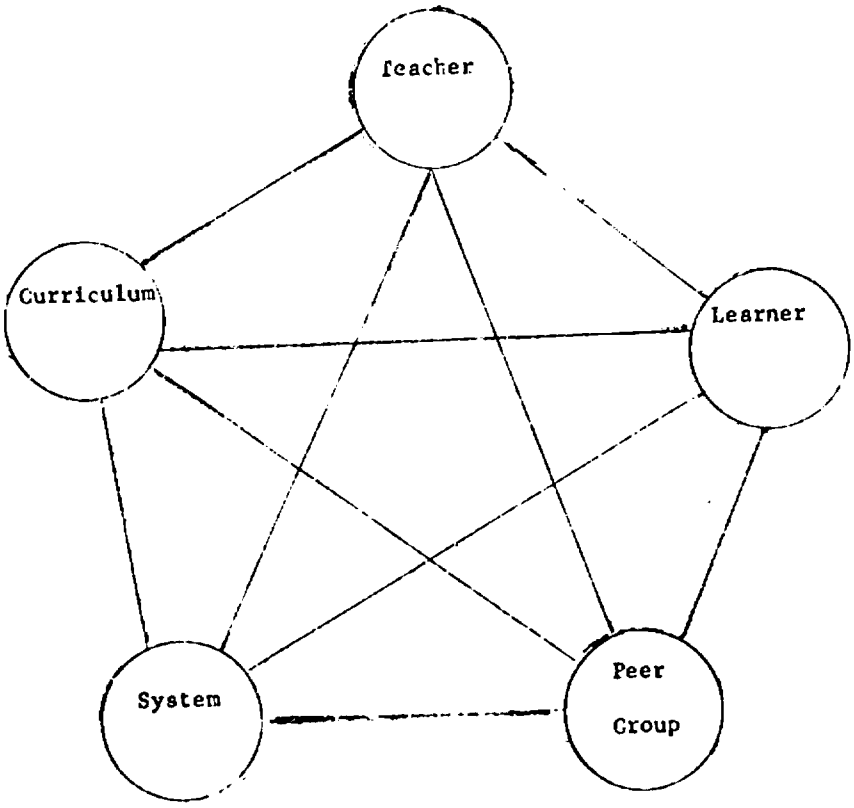


Figure 2. Basic Functional Transactions of a Psychoeducational Environment.

TABLE 1

FACILITATING CONDITIONS FOR TRANSACTIONS IN A PSYCHOEDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

Transaction	Focus of Learner's Transaction	Facilitating Conditions
Learner-Teacher	Person(s) responsible for interacting with learner to effect positive change	Reality orientation; Flexibility; Respect; Empathic understanding; Support; Protective limits; Consistency; Appreciation of feelings; Positive modelling & Expectations; Involvement
Learner-Curriculum	Tasks, materials, and problems planned for mastery	Reasonable challenge; Relevance; Relatedness; Self-direction; Meaningful choices; Feedback
Learner-Peer Group	Other students interacting with learner on regular basis	Mutual respect & sharing; Openness; Cooperativeness; Appreciation of differences; Balanced groupings; Stability; Support; Feedback
Learner-School System	Rules, attitudes, values, and people organized to support the teacher, curriculum, and students	Cooperativeness; Interdependence; Openness; Mutual respect & sharing; Clarity of responsibilities and policies; Self-renewing; Orderly change mechanisms; Participatory decision-making; Appropriate consequences for deviant behavior; Positive modelling and Expectations

TABLE 2

RELATIONSHIP OF COMPETENCE GOALS TO TEACHER TRANSACTIONS IN A PSYCHOEDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

TRANSACTION	COMPETENCE GOAL					
	Assessment & Programming	Personal/ Interpersonal Sensitivity	Curriculum	Indiv. Instruct.	Behav. Manag.	Systems Analysis
Teacher-Learner	X	X	X	X	X	
Teacher-Curriculum	X	X	X	X		
Teacher-Group	X	X	X		X	
Teacher-System	X	X				X

TABLE 3

FUNCTIONAL GOALS AND SUBGOALS OF MARK TWAIN SCHOOL STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

Goal A	To develop skill in psychoeducational assessment and programming.
Subgoal 1.	Ability to complete a psychoeducational profile, including learner strengths and weaknesses, style, and interpersonal functions.
Subgoal 2.	Ability to interpret and integrate diagnostic findings.
Subgoal 3.	Ability to use assessment information for psychoeducational programming and planning.
Goal B	To develop personal sensitivity and interpersonal effectiveness.
Subgoal 1.	Ability to comprehend and communicate effectively with others (on both the cognitive and affective levels); to perceive accurately one's reaction to and effect upon others.
Subgoal 2.	Ability to interact with warmth, openness, empathy, flexibility and self-confidence.
Subgoal 3.	Ability to express freely positive and negative emotions.
Subgoal 4.	Ability to use and provide supervision constructively.
Subgoal 5.	Ability to promote mutual understanding and resolution of problems.
Goal C	To develop skill in implementing a psychoeducational curriculum for adolescents who have problems in academic tasks, human relationships, and self-organization.
Subgoal 1.	Ability to develop or utilize curriculum to meet explicit psychoeducational objectives.
Subgoal 2.	Ability to employ a variety of educational techniques and methods in implementing curriculum.
Subgoal 3.	Ability to employ curriculum and teaching procedures to meet the cognitive and emotional needs of the learner.

Table 3 continued

Goal D - To develop skill in individualizing instruction for adolescents who have problems in academic tasks, human relationships, and self-organization.

Subgoal 1. Ability to present educational material and tasks at a level of reasonable challenge for each child in the classroom.

Subgoal 2. Ability to foster student initiative in planning and directing an individualized learning program.

Subgoal 3. Ability to develop individual performance objectives and evaluate student progress.

Subgoal 4. Ability to stimulate independent study and responsible participation in the teaching-learning process.

Subgoal 5. Ability to implement remedial and programmed instruction approaches to individualized learning.

Goal E - To develop skill in behavior management.

Subgoal 1. Ability to establish and model realistic behavior standards in an educational setting.

Subgoal 2. Ability to identify, support, and promote positive group and individual behavior.

Subgoal 3. Ability to develop and use techniques of teacher intervention to protect the group and individual from disruptive school behavior.

Subgoal 4. Ability to use inappropriate school behavior to teach new skills for coping with interpersonal, work, and academic tasks.

Goal F - To develop skill in systems analysis.

Subgoal 1. Ability to formulate and communicate concepts of how family, social, and educational systems influence school behavior and adjustment.

Subgoal 2. Ability to relate individual characteristics and behavior to group and system transactions.

Subgoal 3. Ability to identify institutional policy and practices, and their effect on student behavior.

TABLE 1

OVERALL MODEL FOR EVALUATION OF STAFF DEVELOPMENT

2. TRAINEE DIMENSIONS	1. COMPETENCE OBJECTIVES					
	Assessment and Programming	Personal Sensitivity and Interpersonal Effectiveness	Curriculum Implementation	Individualizing Instruction	Behavior Management	Systems Analysis
Attitudes	3. FUNCTION OF EVALUATION SOURCE A. Direct - Indirect B. Dynamic - Static					
Knowledge						
Behavior						

School Disruption - An Overview

Henry E. Colella
Board of Cooperative Educational Services, Nassau County, New York

The major problems of our society are reflected in its schools, and in the lives of its young people. Teenagers are living with the pressure of an unpopular war and draft, with the pain of poverty and the guilt of affluence, with racism's mutual corrosion of black and white people and with the constraining effects of adult-run bureaucracies. Young people are naturally restive, with their need for change, for increased liberty and with society's frequent estrangement from its own young people.

Our schools are a vulnerable and accessible focus for some of these disaffections. They also heighten and trigger such issues in particularly volatile ways. Student concerns with societal and school issues are always present, but they gain broad public attention when expressed in ways that disrupt orderly school processes. Student frustration and anger erupt and create "crisis" for school authorities.

The existence of certain conditions constitutes continuing crises in the lives of students attending secondary schools.

Recent events make it plainly evident that repressing, suppressing, denying or not responding to key educational issues only offer rapid escalation of tension and conflict. It is the context of seeing disruption as an opportunity for change and of seeing change as vital, that permits more creative response to school crises. Reducing the level of overt conflict in the midst of crisis is the primary goal of the school administrator whose role is rapidly becoming that of "a manager of conflict".

In April of 1969, Robert Finch, former Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare, warned that "we must be prepared for much greater disorders in secondary field than in the colleges".

According to a report of over 1000 principals queried at random by the National Association of Secondary School Principals, sixty (60) per cent of all the high schools of America have experienced some kind of student protest within the past year. In fact, no greater social issue disturbs teachers more profoundly than youths' challenge to the established order in a country where outside agitators cross state lines to incite riots, desecrate the American flag and violently disrupt a legitimate political process.

If we examine the newspapers and listen to media reports, we find that high school students are indeed learning from their college brethren that disruption brings results. The majority of high school students are angry, frustrated and increasingly becoming alienated by the school. They are asked to form an allegiance to a democratic system in their daily lives ~~in schools~~ when they do not experience democratic action. Needless to say, when currents of frustration are prevalent in our schools, we should not be surprised when students withdraw through drug abuse or disruptive attacks on school and society.

Disruption in our schools is current, is widespread, and it is serious. It is best defined as any event which significantly interrupts the education of students. Most common among school disruptions are student boycotts or walkouts, property damage including arson and vandalism, rioting and fighting, physical confrontations between students and staff, picketing and unauthorized parading, the presence in school of unruly, unauthorized, non-school persons, and lastly - abnormal unruliness among students.

It is noteworthy that, to date, few articles appear in professional journals on the subject of disruption. Much of the more relevant work appears

in newspapers and television.

In a comprehensive survey study conducted by the House Sub-Committee on General Education for the school year 1968-69, of 29,000 high schools, the major issues of protest were disciplinary rules, dress codes, school services and facilities and curriculum policy.

The survey considered racial issues in a separate category and found that this was a factor in more than fifty (50) per cent of the protests in schools with more than 1000 students and in thirty (30) per cent of the smaller schools. Racial issues were involved in city school protests about four times as often as in suburban or rural schools.

Of all the schools responding, twenty (20) per cent had had a significant increase in minority group enrollment in the past five years. Of this group, twenty two (22) per cent had experienced student protests compared to only sixteen (16) per cent in schools who had not had a significant increase in minority group involvement.

A study conducted in 1970 by Syracuse University of 27 high schools in 19 states serving 60,000 students indicated that property damage and presence on school property of unauthorized, unruly persons was prevalent in over fifty (50) per cent of high schools.

Especially important among the conclusions of this survey were the following:

1. the size of the student body is a more important variable than the size of the city in which the school is located. Larger schools have more problems.

2. Disruption is positively related to integration. In other words,

schools which are almost all white or all black are less likely to be disrupted.

3. Integrated schools with higher percentages of black students are less likely to be disrupted if such schools also have high percentages of black staffs. Conversely, schools with high percentages of blacks, but with predominantly white staffs are more likely to be disrupted.

4. Disruption and average daily attendance are directly related. Where average daily attendance is lower, disruption is higher and vice versa; and

5. Principals with the least experience in their office

a. report greater black enrollments

b. endorse a more active response to disruption

c. report a greater concern for positive preventive training programs, and

d. are more hesitant to project the blame for disruption onto external non-school factors.

Urban riots have become almost commonplace since the first serious eruption in Watts in the summer of 1965. Legitimate violence in the form of the war in Southeast Asia is part of the daily media diet of high school students.

The medium of television has brought violence into almost every home in the nation. A high school riot in Brooklyn has been vividly portrayed to T.V. audiences in California and Georgia.

Moreover, nobody in America knows violence more directly than the urban poor, black or white, because the incidence of physical crime is the highest in large cities. Poor urban youth between the ages of 15 - 24 are the most crime-prone segment of the American population.

The success of the Civil Rights protests of the 1960's, the visability and apparent success of college protests, slum life styles, black revenge, white racism, the television generation, and a new public permissiveness have all been external factors contributing to the anxieties of high school youth.

Within the school itself, student involvement in policy, especially concerning social codes of dress and grooming regulations, curriculum planning, restrictions on behavior and the politicalization of schools all contribute to school unrest.

Restrictions on smoking continue to annoy students who smoke. Hall passes irritate students. Rules such as automatic expulsion from a class after a maximum number of absences have produced serious quarrels. In addition, students who feel compelled to become involved in the political issues of the day expect the school to take a stronger stance on community, social activity.

This latter point has particular significance because politicized students can wield little leverage in broad politics but can turn to the school to ventilate their political feelings on salient social issues. The management of these important social conflicts within a school is probably the toughest problem administrators face. Again, the high school principal of today must become "a manager of conflict".

The most traditional ways of dealing with school disruption are punitive, for example suspension, expulsion, police arrest, detention and referral to parental discipline. The use of these measures to control disruption appears to produce minimal results.

The use of uniformed police is often a cause rather than a deterrant of school disruption.

Reduction of academic rigidities, understanding and honoring cultural differences, recruitment of black staff in a predominantly black school,

enlarging student involvement, decentralized decision making, expanding the knowledge of administration through in-service training in conflict resolution - all appear to produce positive results in curbing school disruption.

The role of the high school principal has dramatically changed. The traditional authoritarian "who sits behind a desk issuing ultimatums and disciplining students and staff in his office" is obsolete. In striking contrast is today s principal who must become personally involved with many people within and outside of his school.

Perhaps, the times are best reflected in a comment of a high school principal;

> "I have an endless number of face to face, one to one relationships They never stop. And I want to be warm, sincere and sharp for every one of them. There are only 24 hours in any day, and I am really pooped.
>
> Can't you get me a grant to go off and study something somewhere?"

USE OF PEER ATTENTION TO INCREASE STUDY BEHAVIOR.[1]

Saul Axelrod,[2] R. Vance Hall, and Anthony Maxwell

University of Kansas

Previous studies (Hall, Lund, and Jackson, 1968; Becker, Madsen, Arnold, and Thomas, 1967) have demonstrated that contingent teacher attention can effect significant increases in appropriate student behavior. The technique involves the teacher making social responses toward the pupil (e.g. smiling, eye contact, and verbal praise) when he is behaving properly and ignoring him when he is not. The senior author has found, however, that many teachers have difficulty carrying out the necessary procedures. The problem may result from the fact that students often provide an external stimulus (e.g. a loud noise) for the teacher's attention when they perform inappropriate behaviors, but do not provide such a stimulus when they are involved in study behaviors.

In the present investigation the first and second authors devised a technique which was intended to increase the probability of the teacher attending to a student when he was engaged in study behavior. The teacher, however, did not carry out the procedures. The experimenters then decided to determine the effect of having an outstanding student administer contingent social reinforcement to a classmate who was performing non-study behaviors at a high rate. It was found that peer attention produced a significant increase in study behavior compared to the baseline rate and that the removal of attention resulted in the frequency of the behavior returning approximately to its original level.

METHOD

Subject and Setting

Jimmy, a 10 - year - old Negro boy, was chosen as the subject for the study due to his teacher's complaint that he "didn't settle down and do his work." The experimenter observed that Jimmy frequently fought with his classmates and that the school principal often reprimanded him for his misbehaviors. The study was conducted in the regular fourth - grade classroom of an elementary school in Kansas City, Kansas. All students in the school were Negro. Measurements were taken approximately between 10:15 and 11:15 a.m. and between 12:00 noon and 1:00 p.m. During the morning sessions the students were usually involved in reading and arithmetic tasks, whereas the afternoon sessions involved geography and history lessons. A t test indicated a nonsignificant difference ($p > .05$) between the number of study behaviors during the morning and afternoon sessions for each experimental condition.

Observations

Study behavior was defined as orientation toward appropriate object or person: assigned course materials, lecturing teacher, or reciting classmates, as well as class participation by the student when requested by the teacher and out of seat with permission (Hall et al., 1968). The experimenters initially intended to obtain an absolute frequency of the contingent social reinforcements which the teacher exhibited toward Jimmy. As a result, Jimmy's behavior was only rated at two-minute intervals. The data sheets consisted of 30 blocks with a "2" appearing above the first block, a "4" above the second block, a "6" above the third block, etc. At each two - minute mark Jimmy's behavior was rated as plus if he was engaged in a study behavior and a minus

if he was not. During the first 10 sessions a record of the number of social reinforcements which the teacher exhibited toward Jimmy following a study behavior was noted. The observers tabulated the time the event occurred according to stopwatches which were synchronized at the beginning of the period. The same procedure was employed when a classmate, Anthony, was administering social reinforcement.

A second observer performed reliability checks eight times during the study. Except for one session the observers were separated form each other by the wall of the clockroom. One observer sat in a corner of the room, whereas the other observer was located about two feet inside the cloakroom. This arrangement prevented the observers from seeing each other and was intended to increase the likelihood of independent scoring. The reliability index on Jimmy's study behavior was tabulated by dividing the number of agreements by 30. Reliability indices ranged from 83.3 to 100 % with an average of 85%. The reliability on contingent social responses was calculated by dividing the number of agreements by the total number of agreements and disagreements. An agreement was defined as a case in which one observer noted a contingent social response as occurring within five seconds of the record of the other observer. Sessions in which neither observer recorded a contingent social reinforcement were considered to have a reliability index of 100%. Reliability indices on contingent social reinforcement ranged between 70.0 and 100% with a mean of 84.2%.

Experimental Phases

Baseline. For the first five sessions the experimenters requested that the teacher respond to Jimmy in her usual manner and that she attempt to ignore the presence of the observer (s). During Sessions six, seven, and eight the teacher was asked to attend

to Jimmy with praise, a smile, a pat on the back, or some other social response when she noticed he was engaged in study behavior. When it was observed that the teacher did not carry out the instructions, the experimenters obtained the teacher's permission to cue her, by raising a pencil in the air, at a time when she should respond to Jimmy. This procedure produced no change in the teacher's behavior during Sessions 9 and 10. The experimenters then decided not to attempt their original experimental technique, and considered Sessions 6 through 10 to be an extension of baseline. During Session 10 Jimmy completed a class assignment and brought it to the teacher for grading. When the teacher ignored him, he brought the paper to Anthony, a student considered to be outstanding and who had scored highest in the class on the Stanford Achievement Test. Anthony graded the paper as 100% correct and Jimmy went back to his seat. Moments later Jimmy returned to Anthony and asked him to write "Very good" on the paper.

The experimenters hypothesized that Anthony's social responses had reinforcing value for Jimmy, and decided to determine what effect these reponses would have on Jimmy's study behavior. During Sessions 11, 12, and 13 Anthony was asked to sit next to Jimmy and baseline measurements were continued. It was found that the new seating arrangement did not produce a change in study rate as compared to previous baseline level.

Peer reinforcement. Anthony accepted the experimenters' request to "help make Jimmy a better student." During Sessions 14 through 22, the senior author sat behind the two boys. Several times during a session the experimenter tapped Anthony on the back at times when Jimmy was engaged in study behavior. Anthony would then place his hand on Jimmy's shoulder and make a comment such as "Jimmy, you're doing a good job," or "Keep up the good work." Anthony was urged to vary the content of the praise and

to make his remarks appropriate to the situation in which Jimmy was engaged. Gradually, Anthony was encouraged to administer social reinforcement in situations which he himself considered appropriate. Beginning with Session 23 cueing was discontinued and the senior author returned to his original observation site. During Sessions 23 through 33 Anthony reinforced Jimmy without assistance.

Baseline$_2$. Commencing with Session 34 Anthony was told that it was no longer necessary to praise Jimmy when he exhibited study behaviors. Anthony was asked to treat Jimmy in the same manner as he did before the Peer Reinforcement stage of the study. This condition was in effect for six sessions.

No return to the Peer Reinforcement phase was carried out due to the close of school for summer vacation.

RESULTS

The data for the three phases of the experiment are depicted in the upper portion of Fig. 1. During Baseline$_1$ the median rate of study behavior was 60.0%, whereas the mean rate was 60.3%. During Sessions 11, 12, and 13 when Anthony's seat was moved next to Jimmy's, the rate of study behaviors was 60.0% each session. The median percentage of study behavior increased to 83.3 % during Peer Reinforcement with the mean rate increasing to 81.0%. Thus by either measure of central tendency the frequency of non - study behaviors decreased to less than half of the baseline rate. The consistency of the effect was demonstrated by the fact that the rate of study behavior on 19 of the 20 Peer Reinforcement sessions exceeded the median rate under Baseline$_1$ conditions. During Baseline$_2$ the median rate of study behavior was 56.7% and the mean rate was 54.5%.

Insert Fig. 1 about here

The lower portion of Fig. 1 indicates the number of contingent social reinforcers administered to Jimmy. During the 10 sessions in which teacher behavior was measured and the 3 sessions in which Anthony's behavior was being measured, no contingent social reinforcement was observed . The mean rate during Peer Reinforcement was 9.2, with an average of 8.7 when cueing was used, and 9.7 after cueing was discontinued. During the six sessions of $Baseline_2$ only one contingent social reinforcement was recorded.

DISCUSSION

An important factor in the present study was the skillful manner in which Anthony applied the reinforcement procedures. Although he received a minimal amount of instruction, he demonstrated an excellent mastery of operant conditioning techniques. Several times during Peer Reinforcement, the senior author signaled Anthony to reinforce Jimmy. As Anthony began to lean over and praise Jimmy, however, he noticed that the subject ceased his study behavior. At these times, Anthony declined to carry out the reinforcement procedures and instead waited until an appropriate occasion arose. In addition, Anthony repeatedly ignored Jimmy when the subject attempted to talk to him at improper times. Another example of Anthony's skill occurred during Session 25, when Jimmy was engaged in non-study behavior during most of the first few minutes. Anthony waited until Jimmy performed study behaviors and then reinforced him three times in less than three minutes. This rate of reinforcement was considerably higher than the previous average rate (which was approximately one reinforcement every six minutes).

Anthony was frequently informed of the progress of the study and was complimented and paid for his performance after a good session. In addition, Anthony often turned toward the senior author after he complimented Jimmy at which times the senior author would nod and smile at him. Thus it is possible that the success of the experiment was partly under the control of the reinforcement that Anthony received for performing appropriately.

It is also likely that the outcome of this study depended on the relationship that already existed between Anthony and Jimmy. The initial indication that Anthony's responses had reinforcing value for Jimmy was given when Jimmy asked Anthony to grade his paper and write "Very good" at the top. Other evidence of their relationship occurred when the teacher announced that Anthony's seat would be moved next to Jimmy's. Jimmy responded by clapping his hands and yelling "Oh, man, that's great!" It was also found that the boys were friends outside of school and that they frequently took trips with each other's families. Whether a similar effect on study behavior could have been achieved with a less reinforcing or outstanding classmate, remains a question for further study.

As has been previously noted by Broden, Hall, and Mitts (1970) and Kuypers, Becker, and O'Leary (1968) it is sometimes difficult to induce teachers to carry out systematic procedures designed to increase appropriate classroom behavior. In such cases it is important to attempt to devise alternate strategies that are effective. The results of this study indicated that use of classmates to carry out systematic reinforcement procedures might be one such approach.

References

Becker, W. C., Madsen, C. H., Jr., Arnold, R., and Thomas, D. R.

The contingent use of teacher attention and praise in reducing classroom behavior problems. Journal of Special Education, 1967, 1, 287 -307.

Broden, M., Hall, R. V., and Mitts, B. The effect of self - recording on the classroom behavior of two eigth-grade students. Paper presented at the University of Kansas Symposium on Applied Behavior Analysis in Education, Lawrence, Kansas, June, 1970.

Hall, R. V., Lund, D., and Jackson, D. Effects of teacher attention on study behavior. Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 1968, 1, 1 - 12.

Kuypers, D. S., Becker, W. C., and O'Leary, K. D. How to make a token system fail. Exceptional Children, 1968, 35, 101 - 109.

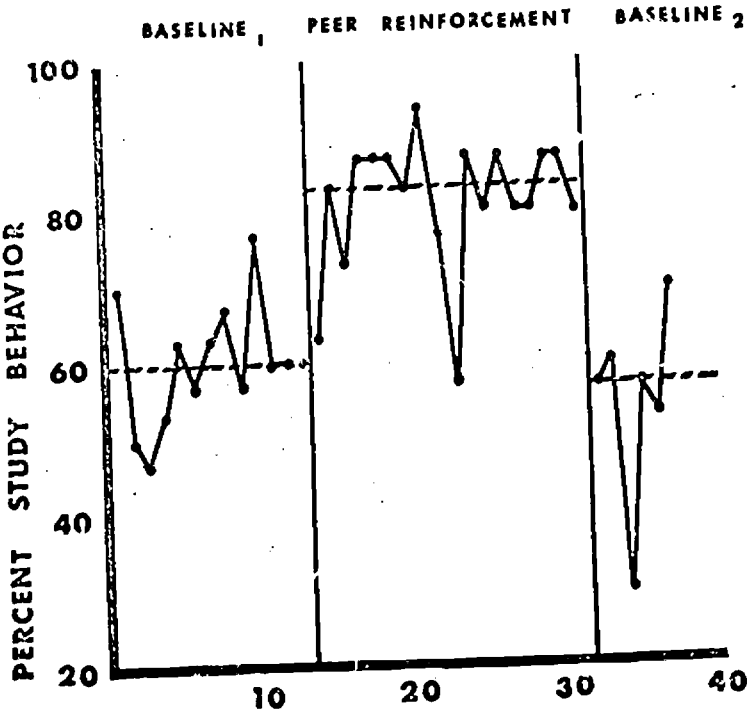
Footnotes

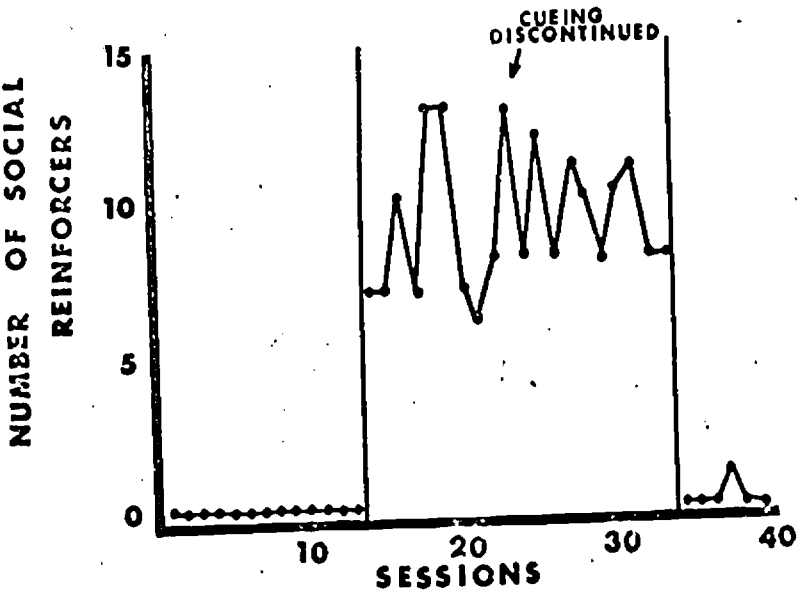
1 The authors wish to thank Mr. Nolen Porcia, Principal of Stowe Elementary School, Kansas City, Kansas for making this study possible. This research was supported in part by Grants HD00183 and HD03144 from the U.S. Public Health Service, Department of H E W, National Institute of Child Health and Human Development. Reprints may be obtained from R. Vance Hall, Juniper Gardens Children's Project, 2021 North Third Street, Kansas City, Kansas 66101.

2 Now with the Department of Educational Psychology, University of Connecticut.

Figure Caption

Fig. 1. The upper portion of the figure depicts the percentage of times in which Jimmy engaged in study behavior during each experimental session. The horizontal lines indicate the median rate of study behavior for each phase. The lower graph represents the frequency of social reinforcers which the teacher (first 10 sessions) or Anthony administered (remaining sessions) while Jimmy was engaged in study behavior. The experimental conditions were: $\underline{\text{Baseline}_1}$ - no contingencies in effect; $\underline{\text{Peer Reinforcement}}$ - social reinforcement from Anthony when Jimmy was behaving appropriately; $\underline{\text{Baseline}_2}$ - return to Baseline_1 conditions.


BASELINE 1
PEER REINFORCEMENT
BASELINE 2
PERCENT STUDY BEHAVIOR
100
80
60
40
20
10
20
30
40


CUEING DISCONTINUED
NUMBER OF SOCIAL REINFORCERS
15
10
5
0
10
20
30
40
SESSIONS