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ABSTRACT

Faculty members in various Illinois universities work cooperatively in implementing and refining a program of teacher identification of problems of pupils which limit and handicap their progress in school. The Student Needs Assessment Program (SNAP) requires a high level of professional commitment from both teachers and the principal. Teachers use a survey instrument which lists 48 problems under 7 categories. Teachers study this list and agree on a definition of what is meant by a pupil having a problem to an unusual degree. Teachers are then given an alphabetized list of pupils they teach and/or know well and are to put the number as a problem from the survey instrument opposite a pupil's name if it is believed that the pupil has the problem or need to an unusual degree. The pupil lists are then collected and tallied. The question teachers then ask is what can be done about these problems and the focus of attention switches from diagnosis and observation of overt behavior to looking for causes of behavior, to developing strategies and intervention procedures designed to find solutions to these problems. The articles and reports in this publication give descriptions and results of various techniques, approaches, and activities undertaken by teams of teachers in four Illinois laboratory schools as they attempt to help pupils resolve their problems. (Author/AM)

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INTRODUCTION

STUDENT NEEDS ASSESSMENT PROGRAM: AN APPROACH TO MEETING SERIOUS NEEDS OF CHILDREN

H. Lautenschlager, Director, Laboratory School
Indiana State University
V. Replogle, Director, Metcalf School, Illinois State University

Although educators agree that "schools should meet the needs of children" few have come to grips in any serious way with more than a token implementation of this goal. Consequently, a distressing number of children end up on the educational "scrap heap" while others find the classroom a modern chamber of horrors; many more operate far below their potential. The problems and/or needs of children cannot be met in general; they must be identified and particularized for each child who attends our schools. For example, which pupils are seriously handicapped because they feel unsuccessful? Which ones feel rejected and have a low self-concept? Which ones are excessively withdrawn and lonely? Which ones are seriously retarded in school achievement? Which ones are handicapped by using a conflicting value system? We know that an individual is not "ready to learn" until learning roadblocks in the form of a variety of pressing needs have been removed. The Consortium of Laboratory Schools of the Academic Affairs Conference of Midwest Universities has been working for more than two years on an approach which we feel is both simple and powerful, that will help the classroom teacher(s) to identify and ameliorate needs which prevent children from achieving their potential in both school and society. The approach provides an instrument whereby teachers who know the children well in a school may pool their perceptions of which pupils have what problems to an unusual degree. After pupil needs have been identified, intervention programs are developed and implemented. Thus, a faculty is forced to recognize and to work together to handle problems which they say exist.

If a faculty diagnoses the real needs of pupils, as suggested above, will such information make teachers more responsive and sensitive to the needs of all pupils? Will such information help teachers to prescribe treatment, implement ideas, and evaluate progress made by individual pupils? There were positive answers to these questions by faculty members who were in the pilot testing of this approach, the Student Needs Assessment Program (SNAP), during the last two years.

Faculty members in the Metcalf School at Illinois State University, the University School at Western Illinois University, the Burris School at Ball State University, and the Laboratory School at Indiana State University worked cooperatively in implementing and refining a program of teacher identification of problems of pupils which limit and handicap pupil progress in school.

The program (SNAP) is relatively simple and inexpensive to use. However, it does require a high level of professional commitment from both teachers and the principal. Teachers use a survey instrument (see page 8) which lists 48 problems under 7 categories. Teachers study this list and agree on a definition of what is meant by a pupil having a problem **to an unusual degree.**

Teachers are then given an alphabetized list of pupils they teach and/or know well by virtue of, perhaps, having taught them in prior years. Teachers are to put the number of a problem from the survey instrument opposite a pupil's name if it is believed that the pupil has the problem or need to an unusual degree. The pupil lists are

collected and tallied, preferably through the use of the computer.

Tabulated data are given teachers showing the frequency by grade levels. Each teacher receives a list of his or her pupils along with those problems for each pupil identified by the faculty. For example, in one school with an enrollment of 630 pupils, teachers identified the following:

119 pupils who were lonely
120 who had poor work habits
60 who seemed rejected by their peers
77 who were perceived to be potential school dropouts.

In another school with an enrollment of 425, including approximately 20 percent who were handicapped according to categories used in Special Education, the faculty identified the following frequencies of needs which children had to an unusual degree:

34 pupils who had a low self-concept
33 pupils who had poor work habits
30 pupils with physical defects
27 pupils who were difficult to motivate
22 pupils who were underachieving.

Problems which were practically non-existent included "repeatedly tardy," "harbors self-pity," "undernourished," "untrustworthy," and "undependable."

These were needs as seen by teachers. The question they asked of themselves was, "What can we do about resolving these problems?" The focus of teacher effort and attention then shifted from diagnosis and observation of overt behavior to looking for causes of behavior, to developing strategies and intervention procedures designed to help children satisfy their pressing needs and find solutions to their problems. The articles and reports which follow in this publication give descriptions and results of various techniques, approaches, and activities which were undertaken by concerned individuals and teams of teachers in each of the four laboratory schools as they attempted to help pupils resolve their problems. A variety of remedial approaches were used in the schools. They included, for example:

a. one or more teachers working intensively with a single child
b. one or more teachers working intensively with a group of children with similar or identical problems
c. using peer ideas and suggestions for helping a child
d. teacher(s) and parents working cooperatively to help a child
e. counseling and group therapy
f. altering the curriculum to meet the needs of specific pupils
g. counselor training teachers to become more effective leaders in classroom meetings and/or discussion groups for purpose of building self-esteem on the part of all pupils.

The degree of effectiveness of the various approaches in meeting the needs of individual children varied from pupil to pupil. The reader may learn how different approaches were applied in each of the pilot programs in the four laboratory schools. Descriptions and evaluation of various phases of the total program and activities that were undertaken will be of interest and particular concern to educators of young people. We believe that teachers who are concerned with helping pupils meet their needs may find much help and many ideas in the reports which represent the collective experience of some 240 faculty members who worked with 2,000 pupils in four laboratory schools.

This publication is being widely distributed throughout Indiana and Illinois. In-

quiries for additional information will be received by each of the four laboratory schools.

DEVELOPING THE SNAP SURVEY INSTRUMENT

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From the inception of the SNAP project, the development of a suitable evaluation was regarded as essential. Without measuring scales, it would be impossible to carry out a meaningful assessment of student needs and formulate corrective activities. In keeping with the focus upon the teacher as the central person for identifying, correcting and evaluating students' needs, the measuring scale would have to be easily used by teachers. Preliminary statements of educational needs also indicated the necessity for the scale to survey a wide range of behaviors and traits; otherwise a large battery of measuring scales would be required to cover all the variety of school adjustment difficulties.

Once teachers had formulated a definition of "significant educational need" that was agreeable to all, teachers were requested to prepare a list describing all "significant educational needs" observed in their students. This resulted in a return of more than 600 such needs. Working in small groups, teachers combined and clarified the wording of these statements, producing a substantially reduced list of about one-tenth the number of statements on the original list. Items were grouped into major adjustment areas, including health, emotional, home, work habits and social.

Results from Indiana State University Laboratory School

The collation procedure had reduced the behavior problems to a manageable list, but there was reason to be concerned about the range of behaviors now covered (extensivity and range), and the associated possibility that, as now constituted, the descriptions would merely be slight variations of a general statement, such as "student has a problem." If the range of behaviors was too narrow, many school adjustment problems could not be included. If the listed statements were too general, the problems would not be identified with sufficient specificity for prescribing an effective corrective procedure. In order to answer these concerns, the problems checklist was administered by teachers, and results studied by a tetrachloric correlation procedure since the data appeared well suited for this type of analysis. Each trait was matched with the other 51 traits to ascertain commonality of relationship. Table 1 presents a summary of the results obtained at Indiana State University in February, 1973.

Table 1. Summary of Tetrachloric Correlations Between Each Item and All Other Items (Indiana State University)

Correlations	Frequency
+.90 to +.99	17
+.80 to +.89	125
+.70 to +.79	247
+.60 to +.69	74
+.50 to +.59	32
+.49 to -.99	14

These figures suggested that the behaviors sampled might be slightly more varied than would be desirable for planning effective intervention strategies.

Results from Ball State University Laboratory School

Accordingly, teachers working in small groups made a second revision of the items on the checklist, rewording and reorganizing the brief behavior descriptions. The revised list was administered to all pupils, and the results were subjected to the same procedure of comparing frequency with which each trait was associated with every other trait on the checklist. A summary of the results of this tetrachloric correlational analysis using data collected at Ball State University Laboratory School in September, 1973, is presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Summary of Tetrachloric Correlations Between Each Item and All Other Items (Ball State University)

Correlations	Frequency
+.90 to +.99	8
+.80 to +.89	170
+.70 to +.79	252
+.60 to +.69	56
+.50 to +.59	12

The value of the checklist was considerably improved in that the number of weak relationships (correlations below +.49) was substantially reduced. On the other hand, only 35.7 percent of the traits had a high degree of association such as would be reflected in correlations of +.80 and higher.

Results from Illinois State University Laboratory School

It was believed that the degree of relationship between the items on the checklist should be increased if possible since this would materially strengthen the possibilities for devising some effective intervention procedure to correct more than one problem at a time. A third revision was undertaken with the objective of obtaining 50 percent or more correlation values in the +.80 and higher range. After preliminary modifications by teachers, this revision of the checklist was administered at Metcalf School in January, 1974. A summary of the correlations obtained from the analysis at Metcalf School is presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Summary of Tetrachloric Correlations Between Each Item and All Other Items (Illinois State University)

Correlations	Frequency
+.90 to +.99	139
+.80 to +.89	225
+.70 to ‡.79	80
+.60 to +.69	30
+.50 to +.59	6

The results were consistent with the objective of 50 percent or more correlations of +.80 or higher since 75.8 percent of the correlation coefficients were +.80 and higher. Most of the values were in the +.80 to +.89 range indicating a highly desirable association. Such traits were sufficiently related so as to facilitate the use of a single intervention approach for several problems, yet the behaviors were more discrete than might be so had the correlations been in the +.90 to +.99 range. When identified in a student, these clusters of highly correlated traits (correlations of +.80 to +.99) suggest a certain consistency and thereby reality basis or validity for the problems. Such problems should also be given some priority for correction. There was general satisfaction with this revision of the problems survey checklist, and this is the form that has continued in major use (see below).

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

TO THE TEACHER: Please select from the list below those terms which apply to an **unusual degree** to each of the students you know. The definition of "to an unusual degree" for using this instrument is: **A problem which the teacher feels seriously affects the adjustment of the child to the school situation and seriously handicaps him from reaching his full potential.**

1. Physical problems: Pupil appears to

   1A. have a height problem
   1B. have a weight problem
   1C. be undernourished
   1D. have poor fine muscle coordination
   1E. have poor big muscle coordination
   1F. have chronic medical problems
   1G. have speech disorders

2. Emotional problems: Pupil appears to

   2A. be withdrawn
   2B. lack emotional control
   2C. be suspicious, not trustful of others
   2D. be moody, often depressed
   2E. be hyperactive, nervous
   2F. be overly anxious

3. Social problems: Pupil appears to

   3A. be lonely, an isolate
   3B. be inconsiderate of others
   3C. be rejected by peers
   3D. use a conflicting value system
   3E. be belligerent, aggressive
   3F. be overbearing
   3G. be untrustworthy, undependable
   3H. have a negative attitude

4. Self-concept: Pupil appears to

   4A. have a low self-concept, feel unimportant
   4B. feel "I can't"
   4C. have too low a level of aspiration
   4D. have too high a level of aspiration
   4E. harbor self-pity

5. Behavior in school: Pupil appears to

   5A. have absences without good reasons
   5B. be repeatedly tardy
   5C. make little effort to succeed
   5D. disturb the learning environment
   5E. use poor work habits
   5F. need continuous supervision
   5G. be unable to delay gratification

6. Achievement in school: Pupil appears to

   6A. be difficult to motivate
   6B. work below capacity
   6C. lack sufficient reading skills
   6D. be weak in oral expression
   6E. be poor in writing skills
   6F. need changes in his school program
   6G. be a potential school dropout
   6H. have difficulty in following directions

7. Home situation appears to
   7A. be non-supportive of school
   7B. overindulge and overprotect child
   7C. reject this child
   7D. provide too little supervision
   7E. lack skill in helping child
   7F. exert excessive pressure
   7G. lack positive stimulation

METCALF SCHOOL, ILLINOIS STATE UNIVERSITY, NORMAL, ILLINOIS

Introduction

Metcalf School is a laboratory center for Illinois State University, dedicated to teaching, scholarship and research. Since both research and teacher education are functions of the total University, all University departments may be served by the school. Metcalf School is administratively responsible to the Office of Educational Research Services. The primary functions of the school are (1) research and development, (2) demonstrations-observations, and (3) service to and retraining of public school personnel.

Metcalf School currently enrolls 420 children from the early pre-school age level through eighth grade, including approximately 95 children with low-incidence handicapping conditions. Special education children are integrated in regular class groups when appropriate.

The emphasis on research and developmental activities requires the maintenance of a pupil population representative of the wider community.

Full services (including psychological, social welfare, physical therapy, and nursing) are provided by 80 professional staff members who occupy 62 full-time equivalent positions. The composition of the professional staff includes 24 tenured career teachers, 34 temporary but highly qualified faculty associates, 14 experienced graduate assistants, and 8 teaching aides.

The role of the Metcalf School in the Special Needs Assessment Program centered around two major kinds of activities. They are described in the section which follows.

(1) The development and evaluation of four intervention approaches designed for the amelioration and remediation of special problems identified through the use of the special needs assessment instrument are described in a series of four articles, each reporting on a different approach.

(2) A second activity, unique to Metcalf School, was the adaptation and testing of the basic needs instrument for use by parents to identify special needs and problems which they perceived their children to have. The report of this investigation includes a description of procedures used, comparisons of problems as seen by teachers with those perceived by parents, and other significant observations which emerged from the analysis of data obtained.

MEETING THE SPECIAL NEEDS OF CHILDREN: WORKING WITH AN INDIVIDUAL CHILD

Louise Farmer
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Meeting identified special needs of pupils by concentrated work with an individual child was the Approach I component of the Metcalf Laboratory School contribution to the Special Needs project.

Twelve staff members, including regular and special education classroom teachers and special area instructors, elected to become involved in the Approach I project.

Orientation to the Project

The orientation and planning session for the 12 participants was held January 21, 1974. The nature and scope of the project were outlined, the survey forms, the pre- and post-test measure forms, a Teacher's Journal of Anecdotal Records and a Progress Summary were distributed and discussed. Ideas were shared about possible strategies to use in attacking children's problems. Participants were urged to choose a problem(s) with which they felt they had a reasonable chance of making some improvement in the relatively short time to be devoted to the study. Participants were encouraged to place in a resource room any personal relevant materials such as books, magazines, monographs, or tapes which could be shared, and they were urged to make use of these materials in designing strategies.

A regular schedule of subsequent meetings was arranged to keep all participants informed about the entire project, to answer questions, allay fears and reservations, and to exchange ideas. Meetings were held every other Monday through April 29.

Selection of Subjects

Each participant selected an individual child and designed and put into effect strategies to aid in overcoming a previously identified problem of the selected child. The principle resource for selecting a child with whom to work was a special needs profile summarizing the results of the SNAP survey made the preceding year. On it were listed special problems and the tallies of teachers in the school who had checked a child as having any one of those problems "to an unusual degree." * In some instances, however, participants chose to work with a child new to the Metcalf School or one who had a problem not reflected in last year's survey.

Procedures

Each participant was asked to write a description of the student drawn from his own observations of the child, observations of other teachers and from an assessment of permanent record information. The data included a specific statement of the problem or need and a general description of the child's physical appearance, emotional feelings, relations with peers, relations with family members, ability to communicate, and school interests and achievements.

*The definition for "to an unusual degree" was: A problem which you as a teacher feel seriously affects the adjustment of the child to the school situation and seriously prevents him from doing his best work.

After the description of the child was completed, the pre-evaluation was marked. The pre-evaluation included a statement of the problem and a rating of its observed frequency. A seven-point rating scale like the one below was marked for each problem selected for study.

Pre- and Post-Test Measures

Problem*

/	/	/	/	/	/
never	rarely	seldom	sometimes	frequently	usually	always

The teacher's description of the student and the pre-evaluation were placed in sealed envelopes and returned to the co-chairpersons. It was felt that turning in the pre-test might help participants to be more objective in marking the post-test measure.

Implementation of Strategies

By January 25, 1974, participants were ready to begin implementing their strategies. They were encouraged to seek advice and support from other sources such as the school psychologist, the nurse, and special area teachers in the formation and implementation of strategies. As regular assessments of progress were made and new approaches seemed advisable, the participant was free to initiate new strategies.

Each participant kept an anecdotal record noting the date of each entry, the technique used, reaction and assessment, and possible next steps. Each participant developed his or her own method for keeping the anecdotal record. For example, some did a day-by-day recording while others found it easier to tape each day's happenings with respect to the project and then to record from the tape.

The Post-Test and Evaluation Procedures

The post-evaluation was completed by April 12, 1974. Following this, each participant wrote a progress summary. The progress the child made with respect to the specific problem was indicated by checking "improved," "no change," or "regressed." A brief explanation for each rating was given. A paragraph about the positive or negative changes which occurred in the child's life and a summary of the log were included. There was also a place on the progress summary for comments about the approach and recommendations for making the project more meaningful and for improving the overall structure.

Analysis of Data and Assessment

The 12 participants in the Approach I group dealt with a total of 25 problems. An analysis of the data revealed that, with 18 problems, positive gains were made; with six problems, no change in behavior occurred; with one problem, a negative change occurred.

*The problem must be one of the problems listed on the Special Needs Profile Form I.

Of the positive changes which occurred, one change represented a three-point increase, eleven changes represented a two-point increase, six changes represented a one-point increase, and one change represented an increase of "slightly less" than one. The one negative change represented a decrease of one point.

When one considers that participants had only 11 weeks to work with their subjects, the amount of positive growth would seem to be commendable.

Description of a Typical Study

"Participant C" worked with an academically capable child on these identified problems: (1) poor work habits; (2) weak in oral expression. Most of the effort was concentrated on the first problem. It was hoped that, if the subject could be helped to organize her materials and schedule her time, there might be a transfer effect to oral communication skills. (The subject was frequently distressed by inability to locate needed papers and by failure to have work done on time. It was thought possible that these difficulties might contribute to too rapid speech and failure to communicate clearly.)

The first strategy used was that of offering positive reinforcement: private talks, praise and teacher help in getting organized.

A second strategy was to utilize some peer pressure by delegating responsibility for checking on desks and clean-up work in each "island" arrangement of desks to an island chairman. The subject would have her desk checked by the chairman and be urged to help her island earn "honor roll" status. The chairmanship was rotated so that, in turn, the subject was also a "checker."

A third strategy was the "dangling plum" idea. The subject was granted the privilege of having free time to work on a project of her own choosing when she was able to show on charts designed for her identified needs that she had finished work tasks on time and/or had had a tidy desk and work area for a prescribed number of times.

The participant evaluated the project as moderately successful. The subject responded best to praise and reinforcement in personal conferences and to reward. She completed one of the two charts prepared and earned the opportunity to work several periods in the science laboratory preparing a project to share with her peers. The subject reacted negatively to the peer pressure strategy.

The participant marked a one-point positive change in work habits and also in oral expression. It was not possible to ascertain whether there was a correlation between the pupil's improved work habits and her oral communication skills.

Some Cautions and Concerns

Participants, at the conclusion of the project, indicated that adults must be subtle and cautious in working too frequently with one child. In a few instances the child became overly concerned about the need-problem and the problem became more intense. In several cases, peers became somewhat resentful of the time spent with one child. Unless teachers are sensitive to this possibility, a backlash effect could result.

All information about the subjects and their needs should be treated with the utmost confidentiality. General dissemination of personal information should be strongly discouraged.

Participants in such a study should select a child they see on a rather regular basis so that some degree of alteration of the child's need can reasonably be expected.

A few participants felt the project was too time consuming to be practical. There

was insufficient time for enough communication with other staff members who worked with the child or for alternate and additional strategies to be developed. Special area teachers, in particular, were concerned about the limited amount of contact time with their subject.

Some Recommendations

The following suggestions were made by one or more of the twelve participants.

The time span of the project should be extended to permit more realistic expectations for change.

More time in the group meetings of the participants should be allotted for presentation and discussion of strategies that seem to be helpful. This might engender more immediate alternatives to meeting the needs of the subjects.

It might prove helpful in working on some needs of some children if parents were alerted and asked to observe the child's behavior at home and, if possible, to be supportive of the strategies being used at school.

Careful choice of a need should be made. If a need is psychologically based or deeply entrenched, probably no significant alteration can be expected to result in a short time.

Log keeping should be on-going and immediate, yet in a format neither uncomfortable to the participant nor too time consuming. Therefore, it would seem that the log keeping might very well take different forms as long as it is meaningful to the participant.

All participants working with the same subject should meet as often as possible to compare and coordinate strategies.

Why Such a Program?

Good teachers who have always concerned themselves with special needs of the boys and girls they teach may well ask, "What makes the Special Needs Project any different from what we have always tried to do?"

The response to that question is that such a program requires the teacher to carefully identify the needs of a particular child, to thoughtfully organize a plan of action, and to evaluate the results. Such a focus of attention on an individual child and his particular needs seems more likely to obtain results than teachers' well-meaning but less intensive and more haphazard approaches have done. In a society where so many pupils seem to have so many needs to be met, such a program may offer a last chance for many children now pointed in the direction of becoming educational casualties.

MEETING THE SPECIAL NEEDS OF CHILDREN: THE CLUSTER APPROACH

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Illinois State University

The purpose of this study was to assess the effectiveness of five different cluster approach-intervention programs to meet the needs of children identified as part of the Special Needs Assessment Program (SNAP). The objectives of each of the five programs follow:

Program 1. To enable three boys to distinguish between appropriate and inappropriate behavior.
Program 2. To improve oral expression and articulation of two boys.
Program 3. To assist three girls who were lonely and rejected by peers.
Program 4. To reduce aggressive behavior of three boys in the lunchroom.
Program 5. To assist three pupils who were rejected by peers gain acceptance.

Methods and Techniques

Five teachers each planned and implemented a cluster approach-intervention program to meet the needs of a cluster of (two or three) pupils having a common need that was severe enough to significantly handicap the pupil(s) in their achievement within the school program(s). Prior to implementation of the intervention program, the teacher rated the severity of each pupil's need using the seven-point scale referred to on page 8. In addition, the teacher recorded additional information about each pupil's skills, interests, social adjustment, behavior and school achievement upon a form titled "Teacher's Perception of Child."

Immediately following the completion of the intervention program, the teacher again rated the severity of the need.

All teachers also maintained a journal of anecdotal notes and descriptions of activities and techniques used during the intervention program.

A brief description of each of the five treatments tested is included below.

Treatment I

Two college males, both athletes and experienced camp counselors, served as models for three physically handicapped boys to help enable them to distinguish between appropriate and inappropriate behavior and allow them to talk about problems during the noon hour following lunch. The pre-program and post-program ratings by the teacher are shown in Table I below. The lower the rating, the less severe the problem.

TABLE 1
Treatment I—Data Summary Table

Subject	Pre-Program Rating	Post-Program Rating	Change in Rating
1	3	3	None
2	4	4	None
3	4	3	-1

One of the boys, Subject 3, improved his ability to differentiate by one full rating while the other two boys did not show any improvement. The teacher's journal indicated that it appeared that the boys preferred to be engaged in play activities as opposed to talking with the college students.

Treatment II

The program employed a number of techniques to aid two seven-year-old boys to improve their oral expressions. The boys read orally, taped a story and listened to themselves, and were sent on errands requiring them to give oral messages to others; a special effort was made to include them in adult conversation at lunch time. Suggestions from the speech therapist were also utilized throughout the program. The pre-program and post-program ratings by the teacher are shown in Table 2 below.

TABLE 2
Treatment 2—Data Summary Table

Subject	Pre-Program Rating	Post-Program Rating	Change in Rating
1	5	4	-1
2	6	5	-1

Both boys exhibited noticeable improvement reflected in their improved ratings. The teacher indicated that the boys became more interested in speaking and were more aware of the need to slow down and to speak distinctly.

Treatment III

The program provided three girls who were lonely and rejected by peers with prestigious tasks within the class group. The teacher made an effort to compliment them in front of the class for work well done or upon their appearance, dress, and appropriate behaviors. Activities were selected to encourage a close rapport between the girls and the teacher such as discussion with girls about manners, pride in oneself, and general attitudes. The pre-program and post-program ratings by the teacher are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3
Treatment 3—Data Summary Table

Subject	Pre-Program Rating	Post-Program Rating	Change in Rating
1	6	5	-1
2	6	3	-3
3	6	3	-3

All three girls indicated noticeable progress in achieving a higher level of acceptance by peers.

Treatment IV

The program attempted to provide help for three junior high school boys who were overaggressive and disruptive in the lunchroom. The teacher initially tried to better understand the individuals and expressed an interest in each one of them as a person. Conferencing individually or in groups immediately following problem behaviors in the lunchroom was the primary method used. The pre-program and post-program ratings of the severity of the need by the teacher are presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4
Treatment 4—Data Summary Table

Subject	Pre-Program Rating	Post-Program Rating	Change in Rating
1	6	5	-1
2	6	5	-1
3	7	6	-1

All subjects made noticeable improvement. The teacher observed that the number of incidents of a problem nature noticeably declined.

Treatment V

The program was designed to enable three pupils to be better accepted by their peers in their physical education class. The program focus was upon the use of positive reinforcement and support individually in front of the rest of the class. The children were encouraged to come to special help sessions in officiating before school and to function as referees during class activities. They were given responsibilities in areas of their own strengths such as serving as basketball captain for a day, group organizer for a shuttle relay and demonstrator of a skill. The teacher was careful to be sensitive to unjust criticism of the children by their peers and conferenced with them when they antagonized their classmates. The pre-program and post-program ratings by the teacher of the severity of the problem are presented in Table 5.

TABLE 5
Treatment 5—Data Summary Table

Subject	Pre-Program Rating	Post-Program Rating	Change in Rating
1	6	7	+1
2	7	6	-1
3	5	4	-1

One student exhibited an increase in the severity of the problem while two children appeared to be better accepted by their classmates in the physical education class.

Discussion

Five cluster approach-intervention programs (treatments) including 14 children were tested during the study. Two children improved three units each upon the seven-point scale, nine children improved one unit each, two children exhibited no change and one child regressed one unit.

The cluster approach provides a viable plan for meeting the severe needs of children. A variety of methods can be successfully employed in the school setting by classroom and/or special area teachers. It is interesting to note that the teachers using the cluster approach indicated that many of the techniques employed in the treatment programs were not new or different.

Teachers indicated that one dimension of working to meet the needs of several children within the same class group usually involved an attempt to change and/or influence the attitudes of the rest of the pupils in the class. This is a slow and difficult task, and the teachers suggested that one should not expect too much too soon.

In summary, the cluster approach for meeting the severe needs of children possesses a great potential for successful application within the classrooms and/or school setting.

MEETING THE SPECIAL NEEDS OF CHILDREN: TEACHER WORKS THROUGH PARENT

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One of the approaches for correcting adjustment difficulties identified by the Special Needs Assessment Program problem checklist entailed teachers contacting parents and seeking to organize parental resources for helping the student. This approach attempted to make full benefit of the important role the parent normally plays in the child's development. Potential advantages envisioned for this system included:

1) Capitalizing on an already existing strong favorable relationship
2) Extending the parent's technical skills for helping the child
3) Establishing greater consistency between home and school
4) Increasing the connection between ordinary behavioral consequences (reinforcers) and school adjustment.

It was anticipated that involvement of the parents to aid their child might also have some unfortunate outcomes because:

1) Parents may feel put on the spot when they lack technical skills for helping the child
2) Parents may resent the added amount of time they would have to give for helping the child
3) Parents may regard the teacher's report of school failure as justification for intensifying their rejection of the child
4) Parents may be unwilling to cooperate because they feel the school is already acting prejudicially toward their child

Four of the staff members were voluntarily involved in working with parents (Approach Four, SNAP) as a way to help a student choose the method by choice, and three were assigned to the group by a random drawing. Although the entire staff group are collectively referred to as "teachers," of the total (seven), five were teachers, one a school nurse, and one a school psychologist.

Selection of Students

The choice of students to be worked with was influenced to some extent by the relatively short time available for completing the study, but efforts were made to select a somewhat representative group of students, problems and parents. The 11 students chosen were identified as having a total of 35 educationally significant problems on the survey developed for the SNAP project, or an average of 2.9 problems for each student. Problems with social ramifications (Area 3) were most prevalent (N=12). Emotional, academic and school behavior problems also were common, with five problems identified in each of these areas. The students tended to be from the middle grades (grades 3-8) and to be in the older age ranges for the laboratory school population (average age, 11.8). Seven boys and four girls were included in this group. Characteristics of the student group closely paralleled those of the larger problem group identified in screening the Metcalf School population. Availability but not compatibility of the student's parent(s) was also considered in the selection.

Methodological Considerations

The common objective underlying the attempt to make use of parental assistance can be stated as that of securing parental supplementation but not supplantation of the teacher. Thus, the teachers maintained control of the intervention procedures and assumed responsibility for scheduling, instructing parents, recording progress, and evaluating outcomes. After rating the severity of each problem on a seven-point scale, the teacher arranged a conference with the student's parent(s). In this conference, the teacher asked parental cooperation for carrying out specific activities with their child. Consistent with the child's identified needs, parents were advised and shown ways to carry out objectives such as:

- Show an interest in the child's school adjustment by encouraging the child to talk about school
- Materials were given the parent to use in pointing out progress child had made in school
- The importance of regular and continued school attendance was explained to parents in terms of potential job earning power
- Dietary requirements and trim physique were discussed from personal health and social acceptance standpoints
- Parental assignment of the tasks for fostering responsibility
- Parents were shown ways for training children to "listen for learning"
- Procedures for promoting friendships by having a party and inviting classmates for overnights
- Techniques for advising children about developmentally normal concerns ("no one likes me," "death," "loyalty," "honesty," "boy-girl relationships")
- How to reward roles of being an able reader, listener, or speaker
- Necessity of consideration for others including respect for property and personal rights.

The student concerned was a participant in about half the initial planning conferences with teacher and parents. Once the plan was started, the teacher continued a monitoring function while supporting and offering technical assistance to the parent. Communication through personal conferences, notes or telephone was deemed essential. In discussions with parents, teachers tried to follow an approach which would minimize the parents' feeling inadequate, at blame, or put "on the spot." Technical and emotionally-laden terms and negative aspects of the problem were avoided to help the parent feel more at ease. Parents were encouraged to believe a positive outcome would follow over time.

Results of Teachers Working with Parents

The relatively brief time available for resolving problems posed a major limitation on intervention efforts. The average time for working with parents was approximately nine weeks and only two students' problems seemed to be well resolved. Six of the students showed an improved school adjustment, two made essentially no change, and the school adjustment of three students actually seemed to worsen. Characteristics of the students, kinds of problems identified, and initial and final ratings of the degree of severity of the problem are summarized in Table 1.

TABLE I. SUMMARY OF APPLICATION OF APPROACH FOUR: TEACHER WORKS WITH PARENT

Pupil No.	Sex	Yr.-Mo. Age	Need Assessed on Survey Checklist	Degree of Severity Initial	Final	Mean Change in Severity
1	M	8-4	wighdrawn	6	5	
			weak in oral expression	7	6	
			lonely, an isolate	5	6	-0.3
2	M	8-7	lack sufficient reading skills	6	6	
			have a negative attitude	6	4	-1.0
3	F	13-5	rejected by peers	6	5	
			feel "I can't"	6	6	
			difficult to motivate	6	6	-0.3
4	M	9-10	Moody, often depressed	6	5	
			low self-concept, feels unimportant	6	5	
			makes little effort to succeed	6	4	-1.3
5	M	10-3	uses a conflicting value system	7	6	
			home lacks skills for helping pupil	7	5	-1.3
6	F	11-8	a weight problem	6	7	
			lonely, an isolate	5	6	
			home lacks positive stimulation	5	5	+0.7
7	M	10-11	undernourished	6	6	
			hyperactive, nervous	6	4	
			belligerent, aggressive	6	4	-1.3
8	F	10-9	moody, often depressed	6	3	
			lonely, an isolate	5	4	-2.0
9	F	13-2	suspicious, not trustful of others	5	3	
			poor work habits	5	5	-1.0
10	M	14-2	inconsiderate of others	6	7	
			overbearing	5	6	
			untrustworthy, undependable	7	6	
			potential school dropout	5	6	
			home provides too little supervision	6	7	+0.6
11	M	14-6	distrubs the learning environment	6	5	
			makes little effort to succeed	6	6	
			home overindulges and overprotects pupil	6	7	
			inconsiderate of others	5	6	
			uses a conflicting value system	5	5	
			absences without good reasons	5	7	
			potential school dropout	5	7	+2.0

Although six of the students apeared to improve in school adjustment during the short time for intervention, coordination of the treatment program made continual demands upon teachers' time. In addition to conferences with parents, teachers found it necessary to have frequent conferences with other persons to secure technical information for showing parents. Some of the problems could not have been resolved without parental assistance.

Conclusions

Even though the study was of short duration and involved a rather small number of students, carefully maintained records permit some generalizations as to the outcomes of securing parental assistance for troubled children.

1) The very act of identifying a problem, discussion of the problem with parents and student, and sharing a plan for amelioration may have a beneficial effect

2) A longer period of time is required to evaluate the effectiveness of working with parents to improve students' problems
3) The approach may work more effectively for recent and acute problems and be less effective for chronic, long-standing problems
4) The correction of problems of a social nature does not necessarily demand daily intervention sessions
5) Dealing with academic deficiencies requires daily intervention.
6) A positive parent attitude toward the school facilitates but is not essential for securing parent support for assisting a child
7) Planned cooperative effort seems to be the key factor for making any intervention program successful.

MEETING THE NEEDS OF CHILDREN: USE OF PEER SUPPORT

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One of the methods explored as part of the Special Needs Assessment Program at Metcalf School was that of using classmates and other pupils in the school for helping students identified as having educationally significant needs. The school is a highly social situation, and most school adjustment difficulties have obvious social concomitants. A majority of the students attending a school are normal, intact personalities capable of effectively performing most tasks. Expecting able students to render substantial contributions for assisting those students who are encountering adjustment difficulties is reasonable because:

1. Students hold the sources of recognition and approval, the bases of social status
2. Students may be closer to student school adjustment problems and able to see them more clearly and in greater perspective
3. Students may discover innovative techniques for correcting school adjustment difficulties
4. A concentration on school problems can have the consequence of students becoming more sensitive to difficulties and thus facilitate the prevention or early treatment of problems.

Method of Organizing Peer Resources

Nine teachers (1 p.e., 1 art, 1 science, 1 math, 2 librarians, 3 homeroom) from the Metcalf School chose to investigate the use of peer resources for helping troubled students. The project intended to conduct an assessment of the efficacy of peer centered intervention for alleviating various school adjustment problems after first collecting intervention suggestions from all students. The project was to proceed in two phases; Phase I would be given to generating and collating students' statements of techniques for improving school adjustment. In Phase II, the student suggestions would be carefully tried out. Initial and final evaluation would be made for gauging their effectiveness with a variety of school adjustment problems.

This report covers the first phase of the project, that concerned with eliciting and organizing students' ideas for dealing with problems as listed on the SNAP checklist. The nine teachers worked with four groups of students meeting weekly for approximately 40 minutes. The students came from grades 5, 6, 7, and 8 (ages 10 through 14 years), and were taken on the basis of joining a special interest group, one of a number of such "interest" or activity groups available to students. Each of the four groups enrolled about 12 students.

In order to minimize teacher influence, teachers shared supervision on a rotating schedule. Teachers made no direct input of ideas but strove to keep discussion going. Problems assigned for each group were randomly selected from the SNAP checklist. Each group was informed that they were to "brainstorm" a particular problem at school, first discussing why and how the behavior would be a problem. The group was then to suggest ways for alleviating the problem in the following order:

1. How teachers can help

2. What parents can do to help
3. Action students can take to help other students.

Each group elected a student recorder. Teachers had occasional meetings, without students, for evaluating progress. Each of the four groups met a total of five times—1 orientation, 3 working, and 1 evaluation-summary session. Suggestions made for each area are summarized in the following section.

Group I: Feelings of Rejection and the Overbearing Child

Group I considered the needs of children who feel rejected by their classmates, who seem to be overbearing or are always picking on other students. The pupils brought out the idea that overbearing children may lack ability and that they "goof off" to gain attention, bragging about the visit to the principal's office for their negative behavior. They further suggested that many rejected children are intelligent and seem to study more than most other pupils.

How Teachers Can Help. According to the members of the discussion groups, teachers can help the overbearing and/or rejected child by talking with him privately, trying to identify what is bothering him. Encouragement in various forms such as positive remarks on papers, stressing strengths, and helping the child become part of the group were considered most important. Punishment for the overbearing child, such as sending him to the principal, keeping him after school, or paddling him were not felt to be effective, although removal from athletic teams or intramurals or taking away certain privileges could help. Teachers should work with the parents in trying to help these children.

What Parents Can Do. Parents should refrain from spoiling the child, since this often causes him to have difficulty with classmates. Further, they should set good examples for their child, since children usually seek to emulate parents. Sibling rivalry often causes personality problems, and parents should help to effect good relationships between brothers and sisters. Lack of consistent discipline, as perceived by the child, absence of parents from the home, and failure to include all members in family activities can create and help aggravate problems for the child; parents can help by seeing that such situations cease to exist.

Action Students Can Take. Pupils can help their peers by talking with them and by encouraging positive behavior, by congratulating them on accomplishments, or by being friendly. Including the student in activities, discussing points of disagreement in a pleasant way, or asking the person to do something they can do well can help a student to feel liked and capable. Some students weren't sure that they could do anything themselves that would be effective with the overbearing child except to ignore him for a while or to avoid him completely.

Group II: Poor Work Habits, Little Motivation

A second student group was concerned with students who have poor work habits, who need continual supervision, who are disinterested and difficult to motivate.

How Teachers Can Help. The pupils called for the exercise of good teaching techniques, with emphasis on individualization and variation of methods. Communicating evaluating procedures is also important. The teacher should try to understand the pupils, listen to them, and give them individual attention.

What Parents Can Do. Parents should provide adequate study facilities and should encourage and help the pupil when necessary, but should not put too much pressure on the student by setting unreasonable goals for him. Understanding and cooperating

among the student, teacher and parents are especially helpful.

Action Students Can Take. The major technique offered for students' use in helping other students with these problems involved talking with them about the reasons for academic difficulties, the relevance of material studied, or the need for budgeting time. Action might involve tutoring another pupil, praising his accomplishments, or working on homework with him in the evenings at a specified time. Other students setting a good example by being enthusiastic and actively involved in classroom discussions and projects was deemed a good possibility in eliciting better response from the disinterested student.

Group III: Poor Self-Concept

Group III discussed the problems and needs of students who are lonely, have a low opinion of themselves, and who may feel unimportant.

How Teachers Can Help. More than any of the other areas considered, students felt that teachers could help most with these problems by modifying their behavior. Elimination of embarrassing pupils, of making grades public, and of evidencing preference for certain students are important. Inconsistency in discipline and making students feel stupid were also cited as reactions that increase a poor self-concept.

What Parents Can Do. Parents can help by spending more time with their children, by treating all siblings equally, by not embarrassing children, and by not always emphasizing faults. They should not interfere too much in their child's social affairs by forcing or denying friendships, but rather can help by encouraging friendships and participation in activities. They should listen to children and should take their concerns seriously.

Action Students Can Take. Pupils can help their peers by focusing attention on the strengths of the children, sharing time with them, inviting them to participate in activities, and expanding their friendship circle to include those students who are lonely.

Group IV: Conflicting Value Systems

The final group discussed the needs of students who have conflicting value systems. To more effectively deal with this, attention was focused on an attitude of "I Don't Care," copying, and conflicting values in a general sense.

How Teachers Can Help. Pupils felt teachers could help meet the needs of students with these problems by providing constructive guidance, by working with parents in determining and clarifying family values, and by helping parents to set realistic goals with their children. Teachers could talk with students and could plan class discussions focusing on values. They could also help by using effective seating and grouping arrangements.

What Parents Can Do. Parents can help by respecting the individuality of the child and by talking with him about values. Consistency in discipline, clarifying expectancies, and providing good examples were suggested by students as positive ways parents can assist.

Action Students Can Take. The group urged that all students should participate in a variety of activities, observe other value systems, and share an understanding of their own system. They can help other students to understand class assignments and can keep their test papers covered when taking a quiz. Pupils' discussions of conflicting values with each other informally might be one way to alleviate problems.

Results of Students' Suggestions for Helping Classmates

Although student contributions in helping to meet the needs of children included many suggestions already familiar, those perceived by pupils to be most effective might not be deemed so by teachers and parents. Further, actions of the adults frequently were not considered constructive by the children.

Most noted suggestions involved a need for understanding, consistency in discipline, effective communication, a recognition of the individual, respect for student opinions, and peer talks. Certainly, pupils became more aware of the needs of their fellow students and better understood the causes of children's problems.

The major suggestions made by each group are summarized:

Good communication, individual attention, encouragement, and effective interaction are deemed by the students to be the ways most helpful in dealing with the overbearing or rejected child, with punishment of any sort considered to have little real meaning.

Goal-setting, study facilities, understanding and counseling, and good teaching techniques were the major suggestions for helping students with poor work habits or who lacked motivation.

The discussion group participants seemed to feel teacher and parent attitudes and behavior are significant factors in a student's being lonely and having a poor self-concept. Recognizing and respecting the individuality of a child and making him feel that his opinions and contributions are worthwhile are important to improving self-concept.

Guidance by parents and teachers and an attempt by pupils to understand other pupils' values were considered to be the most important ways to meet the needs of students who have conflicting value systems.

In these preliminary discussion sessions, students required nearly three sessions to become accustomed to the nature of their task and were often at an explanatory-supportive level. Students saw themselves as better able to help with problems involving Rejection/Overbearing and Poor Work Habits/Low Motivation, moderately able to assist problems of Conflicting Values, and least able to "give a boost" to students having a low Self-Concept. The ideas proposed by the students are not exceptionally novel or innovative. The outstanding feature, particularly for implementation of student assistance to help troubled students appears to be the students' feeling of confidence in being able to help another student having some problem. For example, students seemed to feel a surprising capability for dealing with problems involving Poor Work Habits/Low Motivation but had little to offer for resolving a problem centering about Low Self-Concept.

Summary

Students have potentials and skills for coming to the aid of troubled students and "give 'em a boost" in several important ways. For the individual classroom teacher, the suggestions indicate several ways to improve effectiveness in working with students. The fact that the participants are aware that individualization and variation of methods are needed to help students who have poor work habits and little motivation implies that teachers, although they may have the professional background to do so, do not always employ the best teaching techniques. Further, the ideas that poor self-concept is fostered by teachers who embarrass students, who make grades public, and who play favorites may be understood by teachers despite the fact that they sometimes make such practices standard procedures in the classroom. Other such criticisms found

in student comments suggest that self-evaluation by teachers is critical to real classroom effectiveness.

Contributions of students may also lay the bases for classroom guidance programs and/or discussions. An understanding of problems can be fostered in such situations, particularly in dealing with conflicting value systems. Not only can children develop a tolerance or acceptance of differences of others but also they can better understand their own behaviors and needs and can profit from the suggestions of their peers in such discussions.

For the Special Needs Assessment Program, the student input seems particularly appropriate as a resource for teachers to work with individual children who have needs that interfere with academic progress. Direction is provided by indications that emphases on positive actions, such as praise, individual attention, effective communication, goal-setting, trust, and understanding and counseling are the most effective ways of helping the child meet his needs, while negative action accomplishes little and may intensify the problem. Therefore, planned programs for individuals should capitalize on opportunities to use positive strategies.

These suggestions also can serve effectively as a resource for teachers who are working with parents to help a student to better adjust to classroom situations. Not only can direction be given in planning effective strategies, but also parents as well as teachers can use student comments to evaluate their own behavior toward the child and can identify those which may be adversely affecting the child. A check-list could be developed and/or discussions of each of the suggestions could be organized as a basis from which to plan an effective teacher-parent cooperative program for helping the child meet his needs.

Students appear to hold important resources for assisting other troubled students. The extent to which students can be used effectively to "give 'em a boost" can only be ascertained by studies which research the suggestions collected.

A COMPARISON OF PARENTS' AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF CHILDREN'S PROBLEMS

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The importance of common teacher and parent agreement is emphasized by the definition of conflict or problem as a divergence in perception. A mutual teacher and parent agreement is basic for establishing and maintaining optimal school benefit for each pupil. Despite the acknowledged advantages of agreement and cooperation, there are subtleties which can cloud the relationship between the school and home. It is easy for teachers to assume that a child's problem at school is just an extension of something rooted in the home. In the same way, parents pressured to keep the ship of family afloat can find a ready explanation for their child's problems in the school situation. Even when there is agreement as to the fact that a child is experiencing adjustment problems, parents and teachers may disagree as to whether the problem is essentially one pertaining to social factors, physical health, or work-study habits. Differences associated with roles of being teacher or parent may contribute to variations in the expectations made of children and thus be a source of differences in perceived problem areas. Such variations might be compounded with discrepancies in the status of children as to sex, age, or position in the sibling constellation; factors which may themselves be the root of disagreements as to expectations.

If left untended, discrepancies in teachers' and parents' perceptions of children's problems can impede, if not aggravate, attempts to correct the difficulty. Clarification of parents' and teachers' perceptions of children's problems can facilitate correction of the difficulty. Relationships between parents' and teachers' perceptions of children's adjustment needs can be explored according to the following areas:

1. How do perceptions of both parents compare with teachers' perceptions of children's needs as to:
   a. Type of problems most frequently identified?
   b. Type of problems most frequently identified for boys and for girls?
   c. Type of problems most frequently identified for various age groups of children?
   d. Type of problems most frequently identified as related to occupation of household head?
   e. Type of problems most frequently identified as related to the child's position in the sibling group?
2. How do individual parents compare with teachers in the identification of children's needs as to:
   a. Type of problems most frequently identified?
   b. Type of problems most frequently identified for boys and for girls?
   c. Type of problems most frequently identified for various age groups of children?
   d. Type of problems most frequently identified as related to the occupation of the household head?
   e. Type of problems most frequently identified as related to the child's position in the sibling constellation?

Procedures for Collecting Data

A survey instrument previously developed by the Midwestern Universities Laboratory Schools Consortium (see p. 8) was used as the basic measure for identifying children's needs. In devising the checklist, a special need was defined as a problem which affected school performance to an unusual degree. The condition of "to an unusual degree" was defined as follows: "A problem which the teacher feels seriously affects the adjustment of the pupil to the school situation and seriously handicaps him from reaching his full potential."

Both parents and teachers were asked to rate all pupils in Metcalf School. An unusual 83.6 percent return was obtained from parents. Mothers and fathers were asked to submit a separate evaluation for each of their children attending the school. Other data for each pupil identified by a teacher or parent as having a school problem to an unusual degree were taken from school records and included age, sex, occupational status of head of household, and position in the sibling group.

Results

Tabulation of the responses revealed that teachers and parents tended to agree more than to disagree regarding perceived problems. Teachers and parents identified nearly twice as many problems in boys as for girls. Agreement between teachers and parents was absolute for almost half the 48 problems on a checklist. For most others, there was agreement as to major problems area. Parents and teachers identified problems in the school achievement area with greatest frequency. This tendency was not altered by pupils' sex, age, or position in the sibling group or occupational classification of the head of household. It was also true for combined (both agree) parents' responses and for individual mothers' and fathers' (parents disagree) observations.

Important for applying information obtained from this investigation is the fact that problems in areas sampling mutual home and school support were consistently the least frequent of all problems reported. This finding was not influenced by any of the other variables considered in the study and held firm even though parents and teachers reported more than three problems, on the average, for each child identified. This suggests a much greater degree of harmony between the school and the home, at least with regard to educationally significant problems, than is often assumed.

Differences in teachers' and parents' perceptions of problems were sometimes subtle and required mothers' or fathers' reports for boys and girls separately. The most obvious variation was the teacher identification of social problems with a frequency equal to that for school achievement problems, whereas parents reported school achievement problems twice as frequently as for the next highest problem area. Teachers and fathers saw a peak incidence of problems for pupils in the 9-11 year age group, but mothers reported the highest number of problems for children in the 12-14 year age range. When their responses were examined separately, individual fathers named behavior problems as the most frequent difficulty for boys only. Individual mothers saw almost three times more problems for boys than for girls. The small number of individual father responses makes it impossible to accept all the findings without reservation.

Findings tended to agree with those from other studies in showing a greater number of position in boys than in girls and in finding that children in terminal sibling positions are the most often identified as having problems, but there are some unanticipated variances. The differences are largely centered about the importance teachers and parents assigned to school achievement, the most frequently identified problems in this study. Social-emotional adjustment problems are often cited in other studies as

the most prevalent of children's difficulties. Such beliefs may have been established from studies carried out by mental health workers or from investigations with a mental hygiene orientation. Studies with an educational orientation could be expected to produce different findings. It is possible that educational problems appear earlier in development and later give way to social-emotional adjustment difficulties. This may account for the tendency of teachers and parents in this study to report educational problems peaking at a preadolescent age, several years earlier than the generally accepted peak age for social-emotional adjustment difficulties.

A final variation from usual findings is the higher frequency of educationally significant problems found to be associated with children coming from homes where the head of the household is in the highest occupational group. Studies have consistently related the highest incidence of adjustment difficulties to lower socio-economic standing. It seems probable that such studies have had a mental health reference which may not be suited for the investigation of educational difficulties. Follow-up investigation by other educationally oriented researchers exploring similar school adjustment situations is needed to clarify findings of this study.

LABORATORY SCHOOL, INDIANA STATE UNIVERSITY, TERRE HAUTE, INDIANA

Introduction

The Laboratory School at Indiana State University enrolls pupils from age three through seniors in high school. About one-half of the 750 children or pupils come from a low socio-economic attendance district, and the other one-half from outside the attendance district through application. Eighty pupils are in the pre-school unit, 45 in special education, 380 in the elementary and junior high school unit, and 235 in grades 9-12. Since the school enrolls many pupils with serious learning, emotional, and social problems, the faculty has worked long and hard to develop a curriculum based upon the apparent needs of the pupils enrolled in the school. It was out of this setting that the Student Needs Assessment Program developed.

"The Case of Anne," written by Dr. Walter Bartell, who died suddenly last year, illustrates one of the striking changes in behavior that has resulted from faculty members working intelligently to help the girl learn to handle her serious problems. The article by Dr. Robert Curtis, "On Leading Horses," stresses the point that all people have needs and that certain needs have priority over certain other needs and must be resolved first.

The article by Janet Shrum, "SNAP Promotes Curricular Modification," describes the exciting program that has developed in the elementary area and has been named SCOOP, State's Consumer Orientation and Occupational Program. Dr. Harry Leader, in his article "Administrators Can Humanize Their School," stresses the point that all pupils need to be treated with dignity and respect, and he emphasizes the importance of the school's atmosphere and climate, which are necessary to help pupils with serious learning problems.

ANNE: A CASE STUDY

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Anne, a student at the Indiana State University Laboratory School, was one of many students benefited by the Special Needs Assessment Program (SNAP). This extensive special study project was concerned with facilitating the identification of students having educationally significant problems and then arranging for delivery of assistance to the student. Participation in the SNAP project appeared to foster a discernible change in the mood and atmosphere of the school which will be evident in the trust and belief in Anne's ability to improve her school adjustment. Staff persons at the school have acquired a new sense of confidence in being able to help a troubled student. As a consequence, teachers are more interested in identifying student needs.

Anne, a 14-year-old girl whose home had only limited advantages, had been placed in a special class for students of limited school learning ability. She had made little academic gain in the special class, but seemed to benefit from the security inherent in the sheltered environment. An awkward, stockily built girl with heavy, rounded shoulders, Anne had no friends. Each day she entered and left her classroom by the shortest route possible, always alone in her activities at school. Although it was conceded that Anne seemed comfortable and caused no problems in the special class, her increasing age and physical development dictated movement to a regular high school program.

Identification of Anne's Problems.

Anne had just celebrated her 15th birthday when she entered high school. The first few weeks found her clinging desperately to her accustomed behavior in an attempt to get by. She went quietly from one class to the next and sat with head bowed over her desk, staring at the desk top, her face completely hidden by her long hair. Gradually the hustle and bustle seemed to overwhelnf Anne. Her classmates, reacting to her newness as "difference," soon began to tease her. In the larger classes, the teachers were unable to provide the protection she needed, and Anne became desperate. On occasion she would strike out, screaming at her antagonists and weeping in frustration and rage.

At about this time, teachers were making assessments of students' school adjustment with the problems checklist from SNAP. The severity of Anne's school adjustment is emphasized by this initial profile in which the seven teachers who had contact with her at school listed a total of 26 educationally significant problems, as summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. PROBLEMS IDENTIFIED FIRST YEAR FOR ANNE

Needs Identified	Grade 9 NTR*
Home Lacks Affection	3
Withdrawn	2
Unhappy in School	2
Lonely and Isolated	2
Feels Unimportant	2

Low Self-concept	2
Difficult to Motivate	0
Needs Supervision	0
Retarded in Reading	3
Weak in Oral Expression	2
Poor Writing Skills	3
Interest not met in School	0
Potential Dropout	3
Rejected by Peers	2
Underachieving	0
Suspicious of help	0
TOTAL	26

*NTR = Number of times teachers identified the problem
Number of teachers evaluating = 7

Moved by the increasing severity of Anne's school adjustment, the homeroom teacher requested a detailed child study and scheduled a conference to be attended by all school persons working with Anne. The exchange of information at the conference indicated a number of procedures would be needed for helping Anne achieve a better school adjustment. These included:

1. All teachers making a special effort to respond to Anne
2. Permanent counseling, ideally from a young woman
3. Making Anne "Special Friend of the Week" to insure her being shown around as a new student
4. Special sessions in P.E. to increase her coordination
5. Conferences with parents for ways to improve Anne's personal appearance
6. Regular remedial reading instruction

Implementation of Corrective Efforts

As soon as possible, the recommended procedures for helping Anne were put into effect. Fortunately, a young woman doing graduate work in the counseling area was available for working with Anne. The remedial reading teacher felt enthusiastic about prospects for helping Anne and predicted that she would make rapid gains in the Reading Clinic. Within a short time, several adults were able to communicate a real sense of caring for Anne, and things began to happen. In a few weeks, Anne would respond to those persons working with her by raising her head and smiling when they spoke to her in passing in the halls. A few more weeks and Anne would walk down the hall looking at people. By the end of the school year, Anne would occasionally initiate a greeting and several times was observed in the hall talking to other girls.

Table II. PROBLEMS IDENTIFIED SECOND YEAR FOR ANNE

Needs Identified	Grade 10	NTR*
Home Lacks Affection		0
Withdrawn		1
Unhappy in School		1
Lonely and Isolated		2

Feels Unimportant	2
Low Self-concept	2
Difficult to Motivate	1
Needs Supervision	1
Retarded in Reading	2
Weak in Oral Expression	2
Poor Writing Skills	1
Interest not met in School	1
Potential Dropout	1
Rejected by Peers	0
Underachieving	1
Suspicious of help	1
TOTAL	19

*NTR = Number of times teachers identified the problem.
Number of teachers' evaluations = 8

As is apparent from Anne's rated school adjustment at the start of grade 10, presented in Table II, she had made some improvement. During the second year, the same correction program was continued.

Anne's progress, while rapid, was not even. As she began to respond, conflicts which she could not handle arose and we made many mistakes in dealing with them. For example, one morning the teacher left the room for a few minutes. One of the other students was teasing Anne, and the teacher returned just in time to witness Anne's tirade against her tormentor. The teacher scolded Anne for her behavior and she ran from the classroom. A few minutes later, her former teacher telephoned to report that Anne had shown up at her earlier sanctuary, the special class, with tears streaming down her face. Aware of the work going on with Anne, the teacher had put an arm around Anne and led her into the office where she sobbed out her story. Later, Anne's present teacher spoke to her by telephone offering her apologies and inviting Anne to return to high school. Anne returned to class as if the incident had not occurred.

The following fall Anne returned to school appearing happier and more confident. She consistently initiated greetings and had formed a circle of friends. The realization that Anne had arrived as a social being was apparent in the deft way she approached an adult and made a sale for a class money-making project. The change in adjustment was also apparent in the evaluation teachers made with the SNAP problems checklist at the start of grade 11, and summarized in Table III.

Table III. PROBLEMS IDENTIFIED THIRD YEAR FOR ANNE

Needs Identified	Grade 11	NTR*
Home Lacks Affection		0
Withdrawn		0
Unhappy in School		0
Lonely and Isolated		0
Feels Unimportant		0
Low Self-concept		0
Difficult to Motivate		0

Needs Supervision	0
Retarded in Reading	2
Weak in Oral Expression	1
Poor Writing Skills	2
Interest not met in School	0
Potential Dropout	0
Rejected by Peers	0
Underachieving	0
Suspicious of help	0
TOTAL	5

*NTR = Number of times teachers identified the problem
Number of teachers evaluating = 7

Problems identified by teachers were now limited to specific reading and writing deficits, low in comparison to most students in her class, but probably consistent with Anne's lower school learning ability. In recognition of the improvement, it was decided to curtail all corrective interaction efforts with the exception of continued regular participation in remedial reading.

Review of Intervention Procedures

Perhaps the most gratifying result of our efforts with Anne was the unexpected improvement demonstrated in all areas. Only limited improvement had been anticipated in academic areas. The first year she attended regular classes, our assumptions seemed verified when Anne scored well below the fifth percentile on standardized achievement tests. However, at the end of the following year, she scored at approximately the 30th percentile on the same, nationally normed test. In fact, her subscore in social studies placed her in approximately the 60th percentile!

Why did we succeed with Anne? What helped her to become a happy, confident, social being? What helped her to learn to take the risk of interacting with others and forming interpersonal relationships? First, sympathy was replaced by empathy and constructive expectations with necessary support were planned for her. Second, she was responded to as an important human being; and, more important, we were not afraid to show how much we cared. She was always greeted in a positive way and praised for every accomplishment. An adult was found who would really listen to her and who cared about the things for which Anne cared. Third, we were not afraid to show that we are human, and that we make mistakes, that we become angry and frustrated, that we need to apologize, and that to apologize increases rather than diminishes our stature. Fourth, we communicated to Anne in every way possible that we had confidence in her as a person of worth and dignity, an individual unique and precious among humans. Each teacher who worked with Anne could observe the improvement taking place. The SNAP evaluation and checklist forms made a record that could be easily and quickly reviewed. Teachers became more aware of their relationships with all students and the possibilities for identifying and serving those needs. They are working with many of these students now—and the most gratifying thing is that it gets easier as they go along. Once a teacher is able to take that first risk, to accept without reservation, to make a commitment, the rest is easy.

ON LEADING HORSES: PRIORITIES IN MEETING NEEDS

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"Johnnie is intelligent enough; he just lacks motivation. You know what they say, that you can lead a horse to water, but you can't make him drink." This is one of the great cliches heard in teachers' lounges and in parent-teacher conferences.

How many of us in education really believe in this rather simplisitic view of classroom motivation? It is the belief of this writer that many educators do believe that their job is to lead pupils to subject matter, but if the student refuses to partake, the teacher's responsibility ends.

Let us return to our analogy about the horse; it is a well-known fact that horses need water to survive; thus, the horse refuses to drink for some reason other than pure stubbornness. Perhaps he has had his fill of water or he might be interested in the filly in the next pasture, or just plain frightened. In short, at the present time the horse's needs which are motivating and directing him are greater than his need for water. Like the horse, young people who come to us for an education have a system of needs priorities which is more complex than the horse analogy would suggest.

The Role of Needs

Educators are also often overheard to say, "A good school program should be built around student needs." This statement sounds great, and it may be true. But, how does one go about implementing such a statement? What are student needs, and who decides which ones are most important?

This writer believes that Maslow's hierarchy of needs applies to all human beings, and since pupils are human beings, his system of needs priorities applies to them. Maslow's theory regarding motivation can give educators a clue as to why the horse refuses to drink or the pupil refuses to learn.

Maslow proposes that human beings need to know and understand, like the horse needs water. The need to know and understand is an innate need which we in education must capitalize upon. However, the error that many educators have made in the past is to assume that this need should have top priority. For many students this need can be given top "billing," but for many others the need to know and understand should be given a lower priority.

Maslow sets forth the following hierarchy of needs which energize and direct human behavior:

Needs to Know and Understand -	A desire for cognitive information, understanding, wanting to systemize, analyze, etc.
Self-Actualization Needs -	A need to be or to become the person one can be, become what one is potentially.
Esteem Needs -	A desire to receive recognition as a worthwhile person and to develop self-confidence.
Love and Belonging Needs -	A desire for affectionate relationships with people in general and for a place in the group.
Safety Needs -	A preference for routine and rhythm rather than disorder, and assurance of physical and emotional safety.
Physiological Needs -	Those necessary to maintain life such as the need for food, oxygen, rest, etc. (Maslow, 1954)

The above needs normally must be met in the order of the physiological needs first and then progressing upward to the need to know and understand. The most important goal at a given point in time will tend to monopolize the individual's consciousness and use the various energies that are available. The less prepotent needs are minimized, forgotten, or denied. When a need has been fairly well met, the next higher one emerges to dominate conscious effort. The dominant need becomes the focal point for the organization of behavior and directs the individual until the need is satisfied (Maslow, 1954). Many students come to our schools with one or more of their lower order needs unmet; thus these students expend much of their energies attempting to meet their high priority needs. In fact, if a student is hungry, hasn't slept enough, feels unloved at home, and has a poor self-concept, it is highly unlikely that he will have much desire to learn the subject matter to which the teacher leads him.

It is the writer's contention that when a student refuses to learn, it is because the needs which motivate and direct his behavior are unmet needs found on the lower end of his hierarchy of needs. The question then becomes: What are his unmet needs and, once identified, what can we do about them?

SNAP and Maslow's Hierarchy

The Laboratory School Consortium which is a part of the Academic Affairs Conference of Midwestern Universities has developed a Special Needs Assessment Program (SNAP) which seems to have potential for helping teachers focus attention on the kinds of needs Maslow described. The vehicle used to identify student needs is an instrument developed by the Laboratory School of Indiana State University in Terre Haute. The instrument includes the six areas of need that Maslow postulated in his hierarchy, and it enables teachers to focus their attention on the diverse needs of students. (See page 36.)

The survey instrument developed was based upon the assumption that teachers live and work within their own perceptions of a given situation and that teachers are capable of analyzing and formalizing their perceptions of student needs. A second assumption which undergirds this program is the belief that once teachers formally identify student needs they will devise new approaches to meet the needs of students. For, the teacher's feeling of worth is enhanced by more adequately meeting the needs of students.

The Terre Haute Experience

The above stated assumptions have been shown to be true at the Laboratory School in Terre Haute. During the time the program has been in use, teachers have focused their attention on the specific needs of pupils and have devised effective new approaches to meet student needs other than merely leading them to subject matter.

Teacher Perceptions

There have been a number of studies done to determine the accuracy of teacher perceptions of students. Lake (1970) concluded, after reviewing the available research regarding the accuracy of the perception of another human, "Given the tenuousness of these judgments, about the only conclusion one might confidently make is that there seem to be individual differences in the ability to judge other people." He further concluded, however, that the trained observer seems more accurate than the untrained; and the more emotionally adjusted an individual is, the more accurate the individual perception becomes.

Most of the research that has been done regarding teacher perception was done in the field of sociometry. Moreno (1953) found that when teachers were asked to select the two highest and two lowest status students in a class, they were accurate 48 percent of the time. He further concluded that, "The teacher judgments concerning the extremes is positive. The average position of individuals are, it is evident, far more difficult to estimate accurately." Bonney (1943) found that approximately 90 percent of the children were placed accurately by teachers when compared to pupil placement.

The research regarding teacher perception seems to indicate that teacher perception is accurate some of the time. The SNAP assessment method does ask for the rating of extremes; in fact, the instructions given on the instrument read:

> Please select from the list below those terms which apply "to an unusual degree" to each of the students you know. The definition "to an unusual degree" for using the instrument is "A problem which the teacher feels seriously affects the adjustment of the child to the school situation and seriously handicaps him from reaching his full potential."

It is the belief of those working with the SNAP method of assessing pupil needs that the accuracy and preciseness of teacher perceptions is of secondary importance; the primary goal of the program is to get teachers to focus their attention on the many diverse needs of students. The act of analyzing student needs, in and of itself, tends to change the teacher's view of his/her role as a teacher. The teacher becomes more aware of the many obstacles that hinder learning for many of the students who come to them as a "captive audience."

Conclusion

Thus, the cliche, "You can lead a horse to water, but you can't make him drink," may be true, but not as an excuse for not asking why. The horse will drink when a particular need is dominant, and kids will learn when we as educators in cooperation with parents devise means of fulfilling the basic needs of our students so that their need to know and understand can become dominant in school.

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ADMINISTRATORS CAN HUMANIZE SCHOOLS

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Society is currently beset with a host of perplexing problems—problems which threaten to erode and even shatter the quality of life for all of us. Problems of immediate concern to schools include a rising trend in school dropouts due in part to disillusionment over an irrelevant curriculum, the violation of student rights, the growing alienation of pupils and parents to schools in general, the failure to provide adequate financial support to maintain school facilities and adequate school staff, and crime in the streets which often spills over into the schools. Finally, the collapse of our core social values leaves society with a lack of concensus and the schools with a blurred sense of direction. The one area about which there seems to be essential agreement is that schools should be more humanistic. Contemporary educational writers, speakers from the nation's educational platforms, parents, labor, churches, the courts, and social workers point out the need for schools to become actively committed to a more democratic, a more personalized, and a more humane philosophy. In this paper, it is argued that the primary responsibility for a democratic and human-centered school climate rests with the leadership of the individual school.

If schools are to become more caring, more concerned with individuality, and the application of democratic value to every child, they must in short be committed to a more humane philosophy. This is not to suggest that much current leadership of our school lacks sensitivity or humaneness, since many of the educational leaders already practice democratic principles of administration. What it does suggest is that administrators need to examine their role and actions to determine if they are truly providing the leadership that promotes a democratic institution and that reflects a humanistic philosophy.

At the Laboratory School of Indiana State University, humanistic philosophy has been practiced for many years, but recently it has been formalized and promoted through the *Student Needs Assessment Program* (SNAP). Teachers were encouraged to critically examine the school program to identify how the pressing personal needs of students could be better met. Since this particular faculty was quite professional, the principal listened to their responses and joined in a total team effort which included developing an instrument which would identify the needs of children—more specifically, the needs of individual children.

When individual needs were identified, teachers, collectively and individually, began searching for ways to help the child with specific needs. Some teachers visited the child's home and worked with the parents, others spent out-of-school time with the youngster. A more personalized curriculum was adopted for some children. Total curricula revision resulted in some areas. A lunch program, which had not previously existed, was instituted. Children were encouraged to assist other children; others became teacher assistants. Mutual respect between students and teachers was applauded. Individual progress was acclaimed and rewarded. Children began to really care. Teachers became extremely excited about SNAP and the process then was self-motivating. The administrator provided the democratic leadership through group involvement.

What was the result of SNAP? In a school which has a mobile student body and a

high population, it is difficult to measure change for such a program through a quantitative instrument or with readily accepted statistical procedures. However, at different intervals, such as fall and spring, one can measure the change in the needs of each individual and thus determine whether the school environment has tended to be positive or negative for the student. In SNAP, it was found that the number of unmet needs was reduced significantly for many students. Dropouts still occur, but students do not demand a school transfer. Many return at a future time. What is a better measure is that students think highly of the school, and high risk students from other parts of the city try desperately to enroll.

Many isolated examples could be cited. For instance, one recent graduate was withdrawn, an isolate, rejected by peers, and previously academically unsuccessful. In this atmosphere dedicated to human values, the boy became a student leader, self-confident, academically and athletically successful, developed strong friendships, and is now enrolled in college planning to become a teacher.

SNAP: A Program for Humanizing Your School

A humanistic atmosphere may be instituted in other schools beginning with a program such as SNAP. Society demands it, and it would be welcomed in any community. Since leadership is an essential component, let us now examine that leadership role, the relationship of the principal with his staff, the nature of the student population, and some of the necessary attributes of a humanistic principal.

The classroom teacher and the public expect the principal to provide the leadership in the professional improvement of the staff and in the improvement of classroom instruction. How the principal accomplishes the major tasks becomes extremely important. One conception of the principal's task was summarized over 50 years ago by Milo Stuart. This outstanding administrator's views are even more appropriate today. He stated:

> The relation of the principal to his teachers should be the most intimate of any. If a teacher fails, the principal fails; if the teacher succeeds, the principal succeeds. To sum up what the principal's job is, I should call him a referee—the captain of the ship—the boss of the firm—a juvenile court judge before whose tribunal come not only the culprits but the adults who frequently contribute to the pupils' shortcoming. He is a friend-in-need to pupils and to all the homes in which misfortune comes. His power, his activities, even the good he does, cannot be measured by a material yardstick (1).

There is little doubt that what is needed today is concerted effort by everyone in contact with youth. Stuart implies that the principal must have a unique relationship with his total staff, the parents and, particularly, the pupils. The building principal is the one person who can channel the actions of many toward the development of a student body that is happy, well-adjusted, productive, secure—in short, the democratic citizenry in the future. The introduction of SNAP provides an ideal opportunity to begin working towards achieving these objectives.

One might ask whether the children entering our school today are different from those in the past. Children with problems have existed probably throughout time, but the number and seriousness of the problems have intensified. SNAP provides an instrument for problem identification. Many of the problems require personalized and

unique solutions which demand new approaches. Let us consider some of the different problems faced by present-day educators.

One problem that was rare a generation ago was the drug-orientation of the drug-susceptible child. There has been little success in redirecting this child back into the mainstream of American society. It is fairly well accepted, however, that an arbitrary, authoritative attitude seems to be fruitless, and a program that will discourage a child's entry into the drug world is more desirable.

An imaginative approach would be welcome in handling the child who views the world as a hostile place. The reasons for this view may be many and varied such as race discrimination, poverty, punitive home environment, etc., yet each is important in the mind of the oppressed. Children should be treated with love, patience, encouragement and understanding; an authoritative climate only tends to increase the student's hostility. Love, encouragement and experiences that strengthen the child's confidence are essential ingredients of a curricular program for a child with a low self-concept. Individual attention should be given to the educationally gifted and academically disadvantaged child; some state legislatures have mandated special programs in these areas. Many approaches to meet the needs of the above children can be developed and tested using SNAP.

With these responsibilities, a special kind of educational leadership is mandatory. If the many types of children with their attendant problems are to be served, a new climate within the school must soon evolve, and it must begin with the building principal, if not the school board and superintendent. One cannot expect the teachers and non-professional staff to change if first the chief administrator does not possess certain qualities.

What are some of these qualities? First, the principal must be flexible. An arbitrary set of rules will not suffice. Each of the many concerns of children cannot be handled in the same manner. The curriculum must be changeable to meet the specific needs of a particular child. The physical plant may need to be altered, or, at least, the arrangement of furniture. Disciplinary procedures will vary with the individual and the incident.

Second, patience is an essential virtue. The behavioral pattern of a troubled child does not change in a dramatic or a quick way. The child may show progress and then regress before any significant behavioral pattern is demonstrated.

Third, understanding the nature of human behavior has become more and more important. There are more ramifications in the personality of the individual in the complex and pluralistic society of the 20th Century.

Fourth, trustworthiness is an important attribute of a modern educational leader. He must be confident that his faculty really desires and wants leadership in the instructional process. When an administrator is successful, it is usually because his staff has achieved success. In addition, he must trust the pupils and have confidence that the basic nature of the individual is good and that goodness only needs to be cultivated for the fruit to reach full maturation.

Finally, the principal must have courage to follow a humanistic philosophy. Many will resist change. Frustration will be commonplace. It will take time and patience before he attains a total staff that also will be committed to a more humane approach to education.

When it is finally attained, the rewards perceived or felt by the staff and the administrator will be well worth the effort. The real benefit, however, will be realized by the children attending the institution.

The SNAP programs provide an excellent opportunity for the local school administrator to maximize the applications of the qualities characteristic of a humanistic climate.

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(1) *American High School Administration*, 3rd edition, Austin, French and Hull (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1962), p. 134.

SNAP PROMOTES CURRICULAR MODIFICATION

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Educators have long been talking about teaching the "whole child," rather than teaching a content area to the child. The Student Needs Assessment Program at the Laboratory School of Indiana State University has helped teachers look more clearly at the "whole child." If we look at the particular "needs" of each unique child, we can see him more easily as a "whole person."

As an elementary counselor, the author has often heard it said that parents must be made to do thus and so for their child—the student in school. This action could be considered worthwhile or of value by educators, but frequently is not considered valuable by the parent of the student. Each particular family has its own standards and values, its own way of life that is based on those standards and values, as well as its own unique experiences. Every student has a family relationship but often it is not the stereotyped or organized family expected. He occupies a specific position in that family and plays a specific role. One of the agencies with which the family must interact is the school.

In this frame of reference, the student duplicates and, in a real sense, brings the family and his role in the family to school. At school, as well as at home, each student needs acceptance, understanding and recognition. He needs to feel that he belongs. Additionally, in school he needs to gain status through goals or purposes, assistance, and feedback regarding his performance. In other words, a child's feeling of his own personal worth, his evaluation of his competence, and his sense of personal inferiority or superiority are conditioned, frequently to a critical degree, by the status which he is accorded in his school environment.

SNAP Encourages Relevancy of Goals

Schools generally provide a curriculum suitable to the majority of students which may or may not be relevant to many students who attend. Students who are unable to perform within the present structure of our schools become educational casualties; they drop out. Other students struggle along, some bored, some chafed and hostile as they progress through traditional programs.

A careful application of the Special Needs Assessment Program promises to eliminate many problems early in the student's life. When teachers are able to diagnose the student's needs, prescribe, and implement a program to delete or minimize the perceived needs, then the student may well make progress and continue life, not just school, more successfully.

Once the student's needs have surfaced in a school, changes begin to take place in teachers, programs, curriculum, administration, rules, and regulations. As students experience success, they become more positive in attitude toward school. This positive attitude is reciprocated by teachers and administrators.

SCOOP: A Major Curricular Adaptation Meets Needs of Selected Students

As Indiana State Laboratory School teachers looked at the needs of students and considered what they could do about meeting those needs, there evolved a new

program, an "off-shoot" to SNAP, an outgrowth called SCOOP. This was State's Consumer and Occupational Orientation Program.

SCOOP started with a small group of special students unable to achieve in the regular elementary program. They had been identified through the SNAP program as having many of the emotional, social, and behavior problems identified in the SNAP Survey Instrument. Self-concepts were generally low, and there had been little achievement in school. In attempting to provide successful experiences for these elementary students, a modified program was begun in one classroom, and later extended to include a second classroom.

Other students expressed interest in the activities provided for the SNAP students, and the SNAP students extended themselves to include their classmates. The teachers of these two classes soon began to involve all their students in the special program one afternoon each week. A modified open classroom schedule of various activities was extended during this time to other teachers who became interested in providing similar experiences to the pupils in their classes. This modified program continued for the remainder of the school year, and progress was noted for the SNAP students in all areas. Growth in student interest was greater than growth in the willingness of teachers to spend extra organizational time or to develop tolerance for noise. Nevertheless, through a long, irregular process, there evolved a group of teachers interested in building a more responsive and relevant program for students organized around the concepts of consumer education and career orientation. Thus, SCOOP was born by a group of dedicated teachers from multiple disciplines who were able to work together and who were willing to give extra time. These teachers drew upon the strengths of one another to minimize the weaknesses of each in order to make this program a reality for the students and their parents. SCOOP, now in its second year, focuses on students becoming better consumers and becoming more aware of the variety of occupations and their functional interdependence necessary in the real world.

Concepts from these areas are used in the elementary grades as a vehicle for the coordination of experiences in mathematics, language arts, social studies, science, home economics, and guidance. The program is organized around the following units: the World of Food, the World of Money, the World of Leisure, the World of Education, the World of Shelter, the World of Communication and the World of Clothing. Through an interdisciplinary approach on a multi-grade level basis, student teams evaluate products and prices, write to manufacturers, keep logs, examine the economic system, prepare food, and gain experience in decision making.

Pupils study the prerequisites and skills needed in many related occupations as they participate in "discovery trips" for career orientation. Small groups of multi-age level pupils, accompanied by parents, visit various industries and service establishments to observe and talk with workers on the job. The program promotes and develops close cooperation between parents, teachers, and children. Parents meet on a regular basis with teachers, and together they plan their respective roles in the program.

The achievement at the end of the year, as measured by the usual achievement tests in the regular content areas, was equal to the achievement of students not in the SCOOP program. SCOOP students made better than usual achievement in math concepts. As in all teaching, many things learned are not measured by achievement tests, and it was felt that this was particularly so for the students in SCOOP.

Students who had needs to an unusual degree were identified prior to the beginning of the SCOOP program. The severity of the need was rated by the teacher before

and after participation in SCOOP, using the seven-unit scale of the Individual Pupil Progress Profile, and the mean of the teacher's ratings was recorded (see Table I).

TABLE I

Comparison of Needs Assessment Before and After SCOOP Program

Student	Initial Assessment	Final Assessment	Change	% of change
A	7.0	5.0	-2.0	-28%
B	6.2	6.0	- .2	- 3%
C	6.2	5.8	- .4	- 6%
D	5.5	4.5	-1.0	-14%
E	5.8	5.0	- .8	-11%
F	6.0	4.7	-1.3	-19%
G	6.0	4.2	-1.8	-26%
H	5.5	3.0	-2.5	-36%
I	5.1	3.0	-2.1	-30%
J	5.0	3.3	-1.7	-24%
K	6.0	4.6	-1.4	-20%
L	6.2	3.8	-2.4	-34%
M	5.6	3.4	-2.2	-31%
N	2.8	1.0	-1.8	-26%

An examination of the data in Table I indicates that all students experienced some reduction in the severity of their need ranging from 3 to 36 percent, with a mean reduction of 22 percent.

It is remembered that progress is slow and seldom consistent. The greatest gains were in the areas of self-concept, social, and emotional problems. The multi-grade level organization of SCOOP allowed students to work together and to help each other as experiences for success were provided. Students accepted responsibility and experienced feelings of social success and accomplishment. Behavior in school was markedly improved for the students identified through the SNAP instrument and participating in SCOOP. Several students were able to carry over good behavior to other classes. Other students exhibited the improved behavior only in SCOOP. There was also progress in the area of "Achievement in School" on the SNAP Survey Instrument. The students were not difficult to motivate, SCOOP was a change in the school program, and the ability to follow directions was improved through the peer pressure during the multi-grade level approach.

The home situation was improved by the close cooperation of school and home through monthly meetings for the parents of the SCOOP students, through the involvement of parents as supervisors on the discovery trips, and as resource people and project helpers in the classrooms. During these parental activities, there was economic and social cross strata interaction. Through the close working of school and home, some physical problems of some of the students were given more attention by both the school and the home. Improvement in self-concept, empathy for others, and ability to work in groups was especially noted for all students.

SCOOP is one organized way of working with children, many of whom had multiple problems identified by SNAP. Because of needs and interests, entire classrooms were organized in the manner described. However, other schools might use similar techniques for a smaller number of children who have special needs. The figures in Table I certainly reflect that the designed program helped meet identified needs for most of the children involved.

WE KNOW THE NEEDS: NOW WHAT DO WE DO?

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The Student Needs Assessment Program furnishes each teacher a list of special needs which faculty members have identified for each of the pupils he or she teaches. The question facing the teacher is, "What do I do now that I have this information?"

There is no one answer to this question. Faculty members may each select a student for special attention and help. Small groups of faculty may meet in seminar situations to pool their thinking about ways of helping pupils with certain kinds of problems or helping pupils taught by all of the involved teachers.

The Laboratory School faculty members at Indiana State University accepted the challenge of developing projects or strategies to try out in individual classrooms. At the end of the year, descriptions of these projects were collected into a booklet for distribution to the faculty and other interested professionals. This procedure gave recognition to those faculty members who were active participants and gave ideas to all faculty members.

A few of the projects are listed to clarify for the reader the kinds of ideas teachers developed and carried out. The form used in gathering data from teachers and in writing the booklet are illustrated in the following reports.

Strategies for Helping Pupils With Special Needs

Project: "Breakfast Club"
Directed by: Dot Elmore and Janet Shrum
Problem: Many children come to school without breakfast. It is believed that their school achievement would, or at least could, improve if they were given a hot breakfast.
Participants: The intermediate special education students were responsible for preparing and serving a hot breakfast to twenty-six primary children identified as having poor nutrition.
Purpose: The main purpose of the Breakfast Club was to provide the special education class with a practical approach to consumer buying and with an opportunity to improve personal and family relations. The Club also provided a hot breakfast for the special needs primary students. The improvement of personal relationships between the regular school children and the special education class also was a goal of this project.
Procedure: The children of the special education class were involved in daily planning, purchasing and preparing the breakfast. An average of one to two hours a day was required to complete all the details from the planning to the cleaning up.
Progress: The project provided an effective means of relating school subjects to everyday knowledge. Special education students could see immediate goals in their school work. Personal relations among students noticeably improved in both groups. The primary teachers observed improved performance in school subjects by those receiving breakfast.
Proposal: It is recommended that this project be continued in a way similar to the one used.

Project: Charm Group Project

Directed by: Sharon Beddawi and Janet Shrum
Problem: Intermediate students frequently need instruction in grooming and personal hygiene. Many of the girls identified as special needs students mature early and usually do not get much instruction at home about "growing-up."
Participants: Fifth and sixth grade girls were in charm groups for two six-week periods.
Purpose: The development of the "whole person" was the aim of this project. This was done by helping students become aware of physical, mental and social needs.
Procedure: Groups were motivated by discussions, notebooks, mannequins, and dieting. Field trips interspersed throughout the twelve weeks were made to a department store, a restaurant and a beauty shop. Films and filmstrips were shown, and speakers from the community added to the learnings.
Progress: Interest was very high in this project. It was easy to motivate the girls in the Charm Group Project. Most of the girls knew the requirements for good grooming and personal hygiene, but few of them knew how to apply the principles to themselves.
Proposal: More time should be allowed for this project. Since many of the girls come from deprived homes, more time should be used to discuss ways to use the facilities and materials they have to the best advantage.

Project: Extended Drama and Music Project
Directed by: Gertrude Slack and Jane Adams
Problem: Can identified special needs students, if given the opportunity, perform successfully in musical productions?
Participants: Most students from grades four, five and six plus the high school drama class were involved.
Purpose: The aim was to develop pride in performance, group responsibility, vocal independence, performance discipline, and an appreciation for the performing arts.
Procedure: Students were given the opportunity to try out for the leading roles by singing, acting and/or dancing. Regular rehearsals were held during music class plus before school and on Saturday mornings for six weeks. The program concluded with the performance.
Progress: Some students were accepted socially for the first time, and many thrived on their new accomplishments. Parents who have never before been to this school attended the performances. A new self-image was gained through this success by students who seldom experience success.
Proposal: Recommendations include allowing one hour a day for five weeks to rehearse, and considering the possibility of performing for other schools.

Project: Girls' Council Project
Directed by: Frances Williams
Problem: In what ways can the Girls' Council help identified girls develop social skills?
Participants: The Girls' Council was made up of girls who are officers of activities in the school. Seven shy or socially reluctant girls were chosen to be helped.
Purpose: Getting the seven above-mentioned girls to become more active in school and to feel that they had friends was one aim of this group.
Procedure: An effort was made by the Girls' Council members to see each girl and speak to her daily. This included greetings, conversations, and making special efforts to encourage the girl to go places. One of the "special" girls was encouraged to help another such girl.
Progress: The "special" girls have become more friendly and seem to have more

positive attitudes. Great satisfaction was realized by the director when the "special" girl who helped the other "special" girl became much more outgoing. A special effort to be friendly to a girl who feels alone can make a difference.
Proposal: Girls' Council will "adopt" girls early next year.

Project: Junior High School Concessions Project
Directed by: Beverly Spear
Problem: Can operating a concession stand at junior high ball games be one way to improve the self-confidence of junior high special needs students?
Participants: Approximately 20 junior high students, most of whom were classified as special needs students, were involved.
Purpose: The purpose was to provide practical application of such pre-employment skills as practical use of money, reliability, and good peer and adult relationships.
Procedure: Special needs students were selected on the basis of their own interests. The director of the project ordered the soft drinks and candy, and supplied change. The arranging of goods, selling, making change and cleaning-up were handled by the students.
Progress: There were more applicants for the project than could be used. Junior high special needs students worked very well at the project.
Proposal: It is recommended that junior high special needs students continue being responsible for the concessions at the ball games.

Project: Junior High School Social Studies Project
Directed by: Barbara Bradley
Problem: What kinds of materials and activities could be provided in a social studies class which would assure a greater degree of participation and involvement among special needs students?
Participants: Twenty seventh and eighth grade students academically below average were involved.
Purpose: The purpose was to devise a junior high social studies program, learning activities, and study materials which would be relevant to special needs students.
Procedure: Several different kinds of materials were used. Positive rather than negative behavior and achievement were emphasized, while grades and formal tests were de-emphasized. Students were encouraged to contribute whenever possible.
Progress: Activities were geared to student interest, and the program was of necessity very flexible. Students' response, understanding, and retention were greater when learning activities were based on discussions, films, and records as opposed to reading assignments.
Proposal: Recommendations include using more resource people, placing more emphasis on local community problems, setting up a junior high social studies project exhibit, and continuing to use audio-visual materials.

Other projects by title and statement of the problem only include the following:
Project: Volunteer Shower Program
Problem: What provisions can a school provide for students who come to school unclean?

Project: Special General Mathematics
Problem: The problem was to determine if grouping students according to ability, in-

terests, attitudes, and sex would improve their self-motivation toward academic achievement in the area of mathematics.

Project: Junior High School Home Economics
Problem: Can seventh and eighth graders operate a lunch program and achieve basic skills necessary for future employment?

Project: Individualized Reading and Writing Instruction
Problem: Can students develop independent learning skills if they pursue, in depth, a project of their choice? Can slow-learning students progress to a greater degree if they are given assignments on an individual basis and if they help to set their own goals and make evaluations?

Project: Body Management Project
Problem: What is the correlation between the reading ability of students and their perceptual motor skills?

Project: Clinic Reading Program
Problem: What kinds of programs can be provided for special needs students who are not achieving at their optimum level in reading?

Project: Cross Line Theater
Problem: Can children with special needs be helped through participation in a program of dramatizations and readings?

Project: High School Foods—Elementary Project
Problem: Can high school girls learn more about the food habits of young children by being responsible for the actual preparation and serving of a simple luncheon to selected elementary students?

Project: Junior High School Program for Slow Learning Students
Problem: Does an individualized program meet the needs of slow learners better than an ordinary traditional classroom situation?

Project: United States History—Special Class
Problem: What kind of instruction is most effective for teaching special needs students United States history?

Project: Junior High School Visitation in the Home
Problem: Can home visitation improve relations between the school and the home of the slow learning students?

It is hoped that these examples will illustrate the point that any faculty will have ideas of strategies that may be helpful to special needs students once teachers study the lists of needs as determined by the diagnostic survey.

UNIVERSITY SCHOOL, WESTERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY, MACOMB, ILLINOIS

Introduction

University School enrolls approximately 240 children of ages three through thirteen. The school is organized into four multi-aged units, where teachers work together as teams to plan the instructional program in language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies. College student aides assist in the facilitation of the educational program within the units.

Teacher specialists in art, music and movement education work as a team to provide an instructional program in the "allied arts." Children with special education needs are assigned to the prescriptive teaching center for intervals of time commensurate with their needs. The center is staffed by faculty with preparation in the various special education areas.

For three years, the primary objective of University School's instructional program has been to provide a setting where each pupil's individual needs are given emphasis in a manner that allows maximal achievement according to the child's ability. For some children, the open classroom environment is most effective; for others, a more structured setting is deemed more desirable. In all instances, varied media and instructional methods have been utilized to maximize the child's educational development. The ability of the educational program at University School to accomplish its primary objective has been greatly enhanced by the more positive attitude of the parents and the flexibility and open-mindedness of the faculty and administration.

The role of the University School in the Special Needs Assessment Program included (1) participation in the refinement of the instrument used to identify pupil needs, (2) utilization of the needs testing instrument to identify the critical needs of children in our laboratory school and (3) the investigation and adaptation of the Special Needs Assessment Program to the Individually Guided Education instructional programming model.

Dr. Hahn's article describes the I.G.E. model and cites contributions which SNAP makes through a systematized procedure of identifying pupil needs. Vesta Reynolds tells of the pitfalls and difficulty of assessing the needs of very young children; she feels that the SNAP problems checklist is both effective and easily administered in an early childhood program. Illustrations are given. Mrs. Kowal, in her article "Meeting the Needs of Children in an Open Classroom Environment," describes how the Special Needs Assessment Program enhances the effectiveness of the open classroom environment. Examples of the application of SNAP findings are given.

ADMINISTRATIVE CONSIDERATIONS FOR IMPLEMENTING AN INDIVIDUALIZED SPECIAL NEEDS PROGRAM

L. Donald Hahn, Ph.D.
Director, University School
Western Illinois University

During the past 20 years, there has been greater change in the organizational structure and staffing patterns of the elementary schools than during any comparable period in American education history. The primary emphasis of these changes has given attention to altering the traditionally graded program that has persisted through the years and has given limited recognition to the individual differences and needs of children.

Research studies of recent years and studies made by educational theorists and practicalists alike have increasingly indicated that children possess many individualized characteristics. Any educational program designed to provide for these variations must take into consideration children's varying intellectual, emotional, social, cultural, and environmental differences. Failure to acknowledge these individualized attributes in children and failure to provide a positive instructional setting in response to these needs make the curriculum less effective in meeting the needs of *all* children.

Many of the newer organizational and staffing plans being developed seek to alter or even eliminate the age-graded arrangement. As schools offer instructional programs designed for greater individualization, it soon becomes evident that the graded organizational pattern tends to deter the more personalized educational approach. Support for altering the more traditional elementary programs is coming from many sources beyond the school faculty and administration. Societal emphasis upon the school's responsibility to the individual, popular critics and parents are placing ever-increasing demands upon the schools to provide a more relevant program for the individual child. In Illinois, the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction in a 1972 publication, "Action Goals For The Seventies," has established an "Action Objective" that states, "By 1980, every school district in the state will have an individualized instruction curriculum."[1]

As a school considers the establishment of a more individualized curriculum, it becomes evident that the many facets of the instructional program must undergo change. It has been appropriately stated that individualization *per se* is primarily an attitudinal or philosophic matter that, if "subscribed to" by a teacher or administrator, will cause him/her to view children in a different manner and to design the educational program accordingly.

University School Implements Individually Guided Education Plan

In 1970, the faculty and administration of University School, Western Illinois University, after extensive study and visits to exemplary model programs, dedicated themselves to designing an elementary school instructional program that would maximize individualization in a manner that would permit each child enrolled in the school to achieve according to the maximum of his ability. After considerable study of various individualizing systems, Individually Guided Education (IGE) was implemented, the school being one of the first 33 established in Illinois under the guidance of the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Using the IGE model at University School as the guide for program change, grade

levels were abandoned in favor of units, where children of two or three age levels worked with a team of two or three professionals and teacher aides. More flexible time modules were established with the unit faculty and special subject teachers primarily responsible for setting up the schedule. A more objective system for reporting to parents gave way to parent-teacher conferences. Instructional objectives were written and published for faculty and students to use as a guide. Less emphasis was placed on the basic textbook in favor of multiple texts and other media, giving recognition to the multi-sensory characteristics of the children. Tutorial and small and large group learning modes were organized, varied according to the nature of the learning task. A variety of teaching techniques was utilized in hopes of finding the proper one to most highly motivate each child.

Special Needs Assessment Program Supplements IGE Plan

The above-mentioned, more objective, factors seemed to have been implemented or accomplished quite simply. However, as the faculty at University School reviewed the various facets of the program it became increasingly evident that the overall program objective of individualization demanded that the children be viewed in a new and perhaps more intensive manner. For the program to be designed according to their needs and interests, it was going to require the faculty and administration to look at children more individually. Those responsible for developing Individually Guided Education emphasize that one of the general conditions to effect change in a school is when "attention is focused on the individual learner as a person with unique characteristics, concerns and motivations."[2] Most professional educators would agree that is a noble objective and one considered in every teacher's program planning. However, as a total faculty or group of teachers confer to develop and organize an instructional program for *each* child, it soon becomes evident that more comprehensive and individual information is needed.

The Special Needs Assessment Program (SNAP) of the Illinois-Indiana Laboratory Consortium has been a valuable aid to the faculty of University School in helping them to become aware of and to identify with children who have special or unusual needs. The four phases of SNAP—diagnosis, prescription, implementation, and evaluation—articulate harmoniously with the instructional programming model of IGE that emphasizes the means for an individually guided instructional program: (1)to assess the child's learning level of achievement, learning style, and motivation level; (2)to set specific instructional objectives; (3)to plan and implement an instructional program suitable for each child and (4)to assess the pupil for attainment of the initial objectives. The articulative relationship of the SNAP and the IGE instructional programming model is serving as a meaningful base for the faculty and the administration at University School to plan a more individualized educational program for children.

The systematized procedures established for the Special Needs Assessment Program allow a school to efficiently obtain the personalized needs information on children and compile it in an easily accessible form for faculty use. As an elementary school moves toward offering more varied programs, there is always a danger that the child may get lost "in the shuffle." An annual assessment of the children's needs, using a technique such as the SNAP instrument, gives the faculty pertinent information regarding any evidenced changes pertaining to each child's needs, as viewed by the faculty who are responsible for making the appraisal.

Implications of SNAP for the School Administrator

Not to be overlooked, in a school where the instructional program places emphasis on the special needs and interests of children, is the prominent role of the principal (administrator) in establishing the proper milieu. To paraphrase an oft-quoted statement, "Teachers tend to teach in the same manner as the principal administers unto them." The administrator who is accepting of this viewpoint will soon find the operational policies and guidelines for his/her school more general and flexible, giving greater recognition to the individual strengths and needs of the teachers. As faculty work in this more open environment, it soon becomes evident that they, both consciously and unconsciously, tend to establish a more "allowing" learning setting for their children. It is the author's opinion that no greater responsibility rests on the shoulders of the principal than that of working to assure that teachers' professional expectations complement the educational expectations and capabilities of each child.

Individualizing the instructional program has pronounced new expectations and role changes for all concerned—children, teachers, and principals alike. Failure to recognize this factor will tend to minimize the positive results that can be attained in a program change that has the primary objective of providing for the unusual needs of *each* child.

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MEETING THE NEEDS OF CHILDREN IN AN OPEN CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENT

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A phase of the Special Needs Assessment Program carried out in Unit A of the University School at Western Illinois University examined the suitability of the open classroom for serving special needs of students. Such features as a humanistic and personalized approach and the concomitant necessity for the teacher to know a student's individual needs and interests suggest that the open classroom may be especially well suited for the Special Needs Assessment Program. A rigorous test of the efficacy of the open classroom would be the adequacy in serving a pupil identified as having educationally significant social and emotional problems.

The classroom selected for preliminary testing of this question contained a multi-aged group of 5-, 6-, 7- and 8-year-old regular and special education children. Freedom to move, explore, create, and work individually or in small groups, and personal choice in selection of learning activities were available to all students. Although each student's day was unique and different, students were encouraged to set daily self-goals and to find first-hand experiences for attaining the goals. Chilren were free to communicate as they worked. Materials consistent with individual learning styles and current capacities for achieving were available for each child.

Teacher Assessment of a Pupil's Special Needs

As one step in collecting information from which to plan classroom activities, the teachers evaluated each student using the Special Needs Assessment checklist. Bill, a seven-year-old boy, was one of several students identified as having a cluster of difficulties which significantly limited the benefit he received from the instructional program. Bill was noted as lacking in emotional controls with associated hyperactivity and over-anxiousness. In the classroom, Bill's poor work habits often made him a disturbing factor in group learning activities, and he required more than ordinary amounts of teacher supervision. The detailed examination of Bill's school adjustment with the Special Needs Survey checklist also revealed a number of positive features such as a strong desire to please other persons, a wish for peer approval, a love of adventure and an interest in manipulative materials. The parents also appeared to have a positive and supportive attitude toward the school.

Teacher Application of Special Needs Assessment Findings

Guided by the profile of educational capability provided by the Special Needs Assessment checklist, the teacher was able to match features of the open classroom with Bill's unique requirements. The teacher's trust and encouragement provided the support which Bill required in order to make choices and set goals for himself. Once involved in a learning activity, Bill was free to control the pace of his work, which tended to encourage a longer span of attention. His reduced level of anxiety actually enabled him to work for longer periods of time on his own.

Opportunities for freely moving about the classroom to explore and select learning activities provided an excellent setting for coupling Bill's restless tendencies with his love of adventure and mechanical gadgets. Bill was soon expert in the operation of

the film-strip projector, the record player, and tape recorder. Assured of his skill in operating these learning tools, Bill gained status in small group learning activities which made use of these machines. In daily conferences with Bill, the teacher recognized indications of growing self-esteem and promoted Bill's building a sense of accomplishment and adequacy by reading to younger children. The responsibility of these assignments resulted in improved work and study habits. His quest for self-improvement led to his imitating older classmates, thus enhancing his acceptance and approval by his peers. Toward the end of the school year, Bill was actively participating with other students his age, assuming responsibility for organizing learning activities for younger children, and gave every indication of a healthy respect for himself and of enjoyment of school.

Teacher's Role in the Management of Assessed Special Needs

The detailed evaluation made of each pupil permitted the teacher to plan and respond to each pupil positively and with assurance. The capacity for independence and self-direction possessed by many pupils in the room freed the teacher to concentrate on giving support to pupils who were most in need of help, such as Bill. The teacher's responses to Bill were based on the assurance of knowing what was best for him. Alternative learning activities were directly related to his interests and to his special needs. Teacher control of choices and regular evaluation of Bill's changing status insured experiences which would add to his feeling of self-worth, promote improved work habits, and increase his feelings of accomplishment and satisfaction with the school.

Information provided by the Special Needs Assessment checklist enabled the teacher to include the parents in activities for improving Bill's school adjustment. Bill's mother was invited to visit school to work with the children. Teachers discussed Bill's need for friends and mentioned community programs (YMCA, parks and recreation) which might be helpful. Bill's peer relationships at school increased when his mother shared her artifacts and experiences from home with the class. The father's participation with Bill in community recreation programs added to Bill's feeling of importance. The teacher sent frequent "Happy Grams," notes describing Bill's school accomplishments, to his parents.

Preliminary Results

Toward the end of the school year, Bill had changed from a restless, anxious and impulsive boy to being resourceful, reliable, and well accepted by his classmates. These positive changes resulted in removing barriers which limited his self-esteem and his profiting from school learning activities. His school achivement increased as his feelings toward himself, his peers, and school became more positive.

When carefully developed, the open classroom appears to be a situation which can be conducive to helping the child with educationally significant problems of a socio-emotional type. This outcome can be facilitated when the teacher makes use of the Special Needs Assessment Program, focuses on carrying out a detailed evaluation of each pupil and works with the child to plan subsequent classroom activities utilizing the information supplied by the assessment checklist.

IDENTIFYING A PUPIL'S SPECIAL NEEDS IN EARLY CHILDHOOD

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The inclusion of early school programs on a regular basis has been a major development in recent years. While there is general recognition that participation in early school programs can be of significant benefit for most children, a certain amount of difficulty is associated with attempts to provide an effective program. Chief among the barriers are those related to adequate assessment of young children. Few of the available psycho-educational measuring devices are suitable for use with children younger than five years of age. The general lack of information from which a useful individualized educational profile can be constructed makes it difficult to develop and provide for classroom activities that have a high probability of helping a given child. Obtaining parental support and parental follow-up of classroom objectives in the home, essential for the success of an early school program, is also jeopardized by the unavailability of specific measures showing initial deficits and improvement in the deficit areas.

Problems in Assessment in Early Childhood

The early school-aged child, usually less than five years old, does not have the command of language demanded by many psycho-educational measuring scales. Not only is his vocabulary and expressive skill restricted, but his as-yet-limited experiences make him uncertain as to what he feels and what is happening to him. These developmentally normal characteristics can, in casual assessment, be mistaken as evidence of various deficits including lack of conceptual ability, language disorder, or emotional maladjustment. Available psycho-educational assessment techniques are, for these reasons, not suitable for use with early school-aged children.

Even when a scale is suitable for administration to early school-aged children, the behaviors assessed can be expected to be limited to a particular aspect of the child. One scale may sample motor coordination, another examines social maturity while a third scale measures control of emotional feelings. In order to obtain a complete picture of the child's adjustment, it is necessary to administer a group of five or six measuring scales. The various tests used in such a battery provide information in a jumbled mixture of centiles, mental age, social age or quotients. This combination can be difficult to interpret and translate into uniform terms for each child.

Assessing the Early School Aged Child with SNAP Materials

The inappropriateness of existing measuring scales for use with the early school-aged child and the great variation in behavior normally associated with young children constitute serious barriers in assessing these children. Yet assessment is essential for adequate programming, evaluating outcomes and communicating about the child to other persons, especially the parents.

Teachers in the Early Childhood Education Program at University School, WIU, have found that the problems checklist developed in the Special Needs Assessment Program has proven to be effective and easily administered. Ratings of the children are made on the basis of actual classroom behavior and are, therefore, highly related to school adjustment. The teachers have many samples of behavior for use in making the assessment, thus increasing the reliability of the problems identified. The inclusion of

seven major areas of behavioral adjustment on the checklist provides a comprehensive evaluation of the child (Physical, Emotional, Social, Self-Concept, School Behavior, School Achievement, and Home-School Relationship).

Each of the seven major areas covered on the checklist is divided into a number of sub-areas which teachers are able to recognize and relate to the child being evaluated. The school adjustment problem areas are specific and suggest possible intervention strategies for the teacher. The checklist can be used for ascertaining the progress in response to intervention efforts by the simple procedure of reassessing the child. This avoids delay while the teacher waits for some outside evaluator and permits the teacher to continue direct and immediate service to the child.

Encouraging parental cooperation and support, a primary objective for early school programs, is greatly facilitated by the checklist survey. The checklist makes a convenient but comprehensive list of behaviors for easy review in initial parent conferences and is always available for follow-up discussions. Ratings made at the end of the school year give the parent a clear picture of the child's progress and form a guide for the next teacher's work with the child. In some instances, parental involvement can be speeded up by having the parents rate their child using the checklist. Parent and teacher ratings of the same child can be compared as a way of beginning a discussion of the child's school adjustment. Parents welcome the simplicity of the checklist and seem to "get the message" much more quickly than sometimes happens when confronted with a maze of social age, mental age, percentile, IQ, etc.

Illustration of the Use of the SNAP Problems Checklist in an Early School Program

Jimmie was just three years old when he entered the Early Childhood Education Program at University School, Western Illinois University. He had an extensive vocabulary in comparison with other 3-, 4-, and 5-year-olds in the program and could read by sight, but he was helpless in removing his jacket or buttoning his shirts. Completely unused to "taking turns," he continued to talk, his voice becoming weak and high-pitched to a degree that turned everyone away from him. Rather than listen to other children "talk and tell," Jimmie would move to a corner of the room and read a picture book.

Jimmie avoided such physical activities as running, skipping, and riding trikes. He walked on his tiptoes and, when excited or nervous, he danced about on his toes. He showed no interest in initiating activities or in manipulating puzzles, toys, scissors, beads, clay and crayons. Jimmie made no effort to join other children already working at activities, but became very angry if he thought he had missed something. He was unconcerned about the wants and needs of others and was completely absorbed in himself.

Jimmie's special needs, as identified by the teachers utilizing the survey instrument of Special Needs Assessment Program, were severely handicapping his adjustment to school and prevented him from "growing" to his full potential. He had poor fine muscle and big muscle coordination. Emotionally and socially, he had been observed to withdraw from his peers. When confronted with a new situation, he had the "I can't" attitude and had difficulty following directions. He had difficulty in successfully expressing himself orally before his peers or sharing information with them. Jimmie had need for continuous supervision.

In order for the school to provide the best environment for Jimmie's continued growth and development, the teachers worked with the family as well as with the child,

recognizing that his family and home were the greatest influence on learning conditions which helped or interfered with what he learned or failed to learn. The teachers looked to his parents as a source of information to facilitate the effectiveness of the program. His parents needed to be involved in his school experiences if they were to become more knowledgeable about their child in the school. The profile of Jimmie's "special needs" and subsequent individual help to improve his school adjustment seemed to please the parents.

In a series of conferences, teachers learned that the parents were in their thirties when Jimmie, their first child, was born. His mother enjoyed music and literature and spent hours listening to recordings and reading to Jimmie. Soon her favorites became Jimmie's, and he learned to recite poetry and parts of stories. He even tried to move his hands over the keyboard to emulate a contemporary pianist. His mother was very happy that she had taught Jimmie "to read" before he was three years old.

The family did very little entertaining, and the home was arranged for Jimmie's pleasure. Anything that was a threat to him was removed. There were no pets in the household. The backyard was enclosed with a steel fence and situated so that he had no contact with other people. There was a swing set with a swing for Jimmie and one for his mother. His mother was his constant companion at Sunday school, shopping trips, and about the community.

The less formal environment of University School provided a secure, pleasant, and relaxed atmosphere where Jimmie could reach out to interact with a world from which he had been shielded. He was encouraged to be successfully independent. Teachers helped Jimmie to set his own standards and provided him with opportunities for decision-making. A wide range of appropriate, commercial and teacher-made materials and equipment were available during uninterrupted blocks of time. The multi-age grouping provided models and peers who fostered Jimmie's social interaction.

Jimmie was encouraged to grow in autonomy through successfully deciding and doing. If he put his belongings in his locker, he could find them when he wanted them. The easels with paints invited him to paint if he got his paint shirt and asked someone to help him put it on. The open shelves were full of toys and materials to explore, to use and to put back before he went on to something else. He liked the workbench, and he learned that only two could work there at one time. He wrote his name and went to the library because he wanted to select the books he took home. He remembered to return the books if he wanted to check out more. Jimmie learned to dress himself and to tie shoes because it was important to him to get to the gym equipment and to the pool to swim. Jimmie enjoyed snack time. He helped his mother prepare treats so he could serve them to the children.

Imaginative expression of thought and feeling were represented in the stories Jimmie dictated to a teacher or recorded for others to hear. He selected paint, clay, wood, cloth, paper, paste and crayons to manipulate and create freely his feelings. He used the piano and the musical instruments to explore sound and repeated those that pleased him. He had the opportunity to imagine himself in a multitude of roles with a few simple props in dramatic play. He enjoyed an audience and was encouraged to act with others as well as contribute to the plot. Role playing was encouraged to help Jimmie communicate and develop empathy. Initiative and imagination were stimulated by stories, music, trips, resource persons and experiences.

The materials and equipment which were avilable for looking and manipulating also were encouraging Jimmie to think. Math concepts were developing in life situations as he was using blocks, measuring at the workbench, counting treats for

snacks and matching shoes and socks. Intellectual development was being promoted through sensory experiences as he was working with pegs and peg board, lacing shoes, sorting colors, using musical instruments, baking cookies and using books.

Fine muscle coordination was developing as Jimmie was using the games and materials and learning to dress himself. He was using his big muscles as he was pounding nails, constructing with large blocks, using the trampoline, and swimming. Through movement and music he was expressing his understanding of the world and his relation to it.

Jimmie's feelings about himself began to reflect the approval of others. He usually behaved as he felt he was expected to behave, according to the self-concept built out of responses of other people to him. Being accepted by the group was necessary if he was to become a self-directing individual. Dependency is natural for a child until his needs have been met and he feels secure and free from conflict. Teachers tried to understand Jimmie and free him to develop at his own rate in accordance with his own growth. The early identification of Jimmie's special needs, through the use of the SNAP survey instrument, has helped teachers focus attention on ways for helping him solve his problems and to grow in achieving his potential.

BURRIS SCHOOL, BALL STATE UNIVERSITY, MUNCIE, INDIANA

Introduction

Burris School, a department of Teachers College, is the professional teacher education laboratory for Ball State University. University students in various teaching curricula are assigned to professional laboratory courses in the Laboratory School. University faculty assigned to the Laboratory School are concerned primarily with providing forward-looking instructional programs which will permit the university student to participate in an effective learning environment of a type that could and should be developed in the public schools. In fulfilling this objective, many Laboratory School faculty members are engaged in research designed to test hypotheses about learning styles, learning environments and teacher-pupil relations, and in the development of various curricular materials for use in the classroom. Some currently accepted educational practices which have had their origin in this school include a unified arts program, a problem-centered core program, an approach to modern mathematics which currently is being used in more elementary schools than any other program, and the oral-aural-visual approach to teaching composition.

The role of Burris School in the Special Needs Assessment Program focused on a comparison of special needs of students as perceived by themselves with those needs as reported by their teachers, coupled with an experimental intervention program. The program consisted of the formation of discussion groups which encouraged a maximum of permissive group interaction. A training session to enable staff members to conduct group therapy discussion also was offered.

The following significant articles were written by Frances Bronnenberg, Director of Pupil Personnel Services at the Burris School. "Increasing Self-Esteem: Let's Let the Children Speak" describes procedures for setting up permissive and open pupil discussion groups and procedures for training teachers to conduct discussions which encourage maximum pupil interaction. In her second article she presents a detailed analysis of the effectiveness of the two intervention approaches as related to age and grade-placement of students.

INCREASING SELF-ESTEEM: LET'S LET THE CHILDREN SPEAK!

Frances H. Bronnenberg
Burris Laboratory School
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School personnel often overlook the fact that all children in our schools have deep feelings about themselves and the world in which they live. Open expression of these feelings leads to sincere caring for one another, to cooperation and to mutual help for one another. The most valuable outcome can be an increase in self-esteem to the students which, in turn, unlocks abilities and attitudes previously unexplored which then bring about improvement in school performance and social relationships in school.

During the last five months of the 1973-74 school year, Burris Laboratory School conducted a research project investigating student perceptions of student self-esteem. The purpose of the study was to ascertain student self-perceptions and to develop a program which would meet students' needs based on their expressed views of themselves and of the persons and the atmosphere around them.

Intruments Used

The Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI), developed by Dr. Stanley Coopersmith of the University of California at Davis, was administered to all students in grades four through twelve in January and again in May *.

The Behavior Rating Form (BRF), also developed by Dr. Coopersmith, was completed by two teachers for each student in grades four through twelve, and averages of the two ratings were computed for each student. (The BRF contains two sections: ten items on general behavior and three which indicate lie-defensiveness.) It must be noted that the SEI and BRF do not contain the same items; the teachers are rating observed behavior in school, while the students using the Self-Esteem Inventory are rating themselves in five categories: general self, social self-peers, school-academic, home-parent and lie-defensive scale.

Discussion Programs

In an effort to give students an opportunity to voice their concerns, their likes and dislikes and, in general, to share themselves with others, a comprehensive program of discussion groups or classroom meetings was organized for students in grades four through twelve.

The Director of Pupil Personnel Services initiated the classroom meetings in four classrooms containing multiple groupings of fourth-, fifth- and sixth-graders. The openness of the students, the self-disclosure by some, the problem-solving processes and the offers of help to others suggested that the group discussions were productive.

In the seventh and eighth grades, the most successful procedure was to allow the students to volunteer for mini-courses called "Group Interaction." These sessions met daily for two-week periods, three courses for seventh graders and two courses for eighth graders.

It was felt that high school students could be involved only on a strictly voluntary basis. The Director of Pupil Personnel Services led one discussion group once weekly from February until the close of school. Two graduate students in Counseling Psy-

chology conducted a discussion group for high school students which lasted for two hours weekly.

Another contact with high school students occurred when the teacher of a ninth-grade English class requested help in lessening feelings of animosity and distrust among students. In a series of three sessions held with the class, students became unusually supportive of each other, and the level of animosity was reduced.

In recognition of the importance of "psychological safety" in promoting discussion, every effort was made to establish an atmosphere of relaxation and freedom. The discussants knew that they could tell another student or other students how they felt about them. Those spoken to always had a chance to respond, to accept or deny the expression of feelings and to decide whether they cared to make any changes. In situations where the confrontation seemed to become a little too "heated," the Director interceded with a remark such as, "_____ has heard what was said; let's give them a chance to think it over with no more talk about it right now." It was interesting how often uninvolved students tried to help other students in such situations. The students were also cautioned that if any one of them flet upset or "unfinished as to topic" at the end of the half-hour, they should, *please* and *absolutely*, talk over the feelings immediately at the end of the meeting either with the Director or with the teacher. Several children did just this at the end of the meetings and were allowed to talk until they felt more comfortable.

Teacher Training

Another aspect of the total project was a training program for teachers. Under the leadership of the Director of Pupil Personnel Service, training in the role of discussion leaders for small group meetings and following the principles outlined in Dr. William Glasser's book "Schools Without Failure," was provided. Eighteen teachers participated, coming from these teaching assignments: grades 1-3—two; grades 4-6—five; grades 7-8—two; grades 9-12—five; special teachers—music (7-12)—two, library—one, speech and hearing—one.

Meetings were held after school once a week from March 7 through April 18, with final guidelines and suggestions circulated on April 25. It was urged that during the week of April 1 those in training try out the method of conducting classroom meetings. Five teachers did conduct their own meetings, one a music teacher, the others the fourth-, fifth- and sixth-grade teachers.

Presentation of the training program had to contend with common problems in that: 1) Burris teachers have such varied responsibilities that it is impossible to find a time when all interested persons are available and 2) teachers are tired after a full and energy-consuming school day. Despite these drawbacks, 18 teachers *did* attend the training sessions and showed enthusiasm for the program. Teachers who could not attend were sent the materials from each meeting, and several came in to discuss the content and ideas with the Director.

The analysis of the data from the January and the May administration of the Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) is presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Changes in Self-Esteem Scores

Grade	SEI Jan. Mean Percent	SEI May Mean Percent	Differences Between Jan. Mean and May Mean
4	62.9	65.3	+2.4
5	68.7	69.7	+1.0
6	67.3	73.3	+5.0
7	67.7	66.0	-1.7
8	68.3	67.4	- .9
9	67.0	71.0	+4.0
10	72.2	74.0	+1.8
11	67.5	72.3	+4.8
12	69.8	72.0	+2.2
Grand Mean	68.0	70.0	+2.0

The average increase of +2.0 suggests that the discussion groups and modification in the general atmosphere of the school associated with teacher attitude were effective in increasing student self-esteem. The relatively small decreases made by students in seventh and eighth grades are atypical from the general pattern. This may be a consequence of students in these grades experiencing initial conflicting emotional feelings in the discussion sessions, and increases in self-esteem will not appear until more time has elapsed and more integration of views of self has taken place.

The difference between the mean of the scores for the January SEI and the mean of the scores for the May SEI was tested for statistical significance using the t-test for related samples, and the results are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2
Analysis of Means for January and May SEI Scores

Mean Score Jan. SEI	S.D.	Mean Score May SEI	S.D.	Difference Between Means	t
68.39	16.5	70.03	16.9	1.64	2.68*

The required t value for the P=.01 level of significance for 431 degrees of freedom is 2.60. Although the difference between the mean appears small (1.64), such a result would occur by chance less than one time in a hundred chances. Dr. Coopersmith in-

*In his research studies, Dr. Coopersmith used the Self-Esteem Inventory only with fifth graders.

dicated that a student is considered high in self-esteem if he registers in the upper quartile, medium if he is between the first and third quartile and low if he is below the first quartile. A comparison of the Burris students with the above classifications places them in the medium-high category. Perhaps the higher initial status of self-esteem is due to the Burris humanistic philosophy which endeavors to emphasize the worth of the individual, but it would be expected to be more difficult to improve something aleady good.

The mean for the Behavior Rating Form which reflected the teacher perception of self-esteem of the students was 69.5 with a standard deviation of 11.0. It is interesting to note the very close relationship between student self-perception and teachers' perception of the students.

Discussion

Many changes were evident among the students and seemed related to the discussion group experiences and changed teacher attitudes. Students became more caring toward each other; they offered helpful suggestions to others; they accepted things others did not like about them and often changed behaviors and appeared more happy; they "blew off steam" about their concerns related to teachers and the school situation; they especially enjoyed telling others the things they *liked* about them. Most of the high school students indicated that the discussions were very helpful and requested that they be continued in the future.

Burris Laboratory School will expand the program during the 1974-75 school year to include grades one to three and to involve more faculty members as discussion leaders. In addition, the program will be tried out in several public schools in the local community.

The preliminary results indicate that modification in the school atmosphere resulting from discussion group programs led by trained teachers can materially increase students' self-esteem. It is probable that when conducted over a longer period of time, this program can promote substantial and permanent increases in student self-esteem, for it does pay to let the students speak!

Note: Copies of the report of the Study on Student Perceptions and Personal Involvement Experiences at Burris Laboratory School are available upon request.

EFFECTIVENESS OF DISCUSSION GROUPS FOR INCREASING SELF-ESTEEM

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As a part of the Special Needs Assessment Program (SNAP), a study of student perceptions of self-esteem and a follow-up program for increasing self-esteem were carried out at Burris Laboratory School at Ball State University. Findings obtained in the study were reported in detail in "Let the Children Speak," by Frances Bronnenberg.[1] Students' perceived self-esteem, measured by the Self-Esteem Inventory (Coopersmith), was found to be significantly increased following a program of planned discussion groups. This finding was based on analysis of pre- and post-treatment changes in Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) questionnaires completed by students in grades 4 through 12. A summary of these results is presented for review in Table 1.

Table 1

SEI January 10			SEI May 21-23			Increase/Decrease	
Grade	Percent	N	Grade	Percent	N	Grade	+/-
4	62.9	44	4	65.3	39	4	+2.4
5	68.7	50	5	69.7	45	5	+1.0
6	67.3	46	6	72.3	40	6	+5.0
7	67.7	61	7	66.0	57	7	-1.7
8	68.3	63	8	67.4	58	8	- .9
9	67.0	65	9	71.0	64	9	+4.0
10	72.2	54	10	74.0	53	10	+1.8
11	67.5	52	11	72.3	53	11	+4.8
12	69.8	50	12	72.0	42	12	+2.2
Average	68.0	485	Average	70.0	451	Average	+2.0

The scores in Table 1 are for all students at the school without separation into those participating in the treatment program (discussion groups) and those not participating in the discussion groups. The increase in self-esteem found for the total student population was attributed to combined effects of participation in discussion groups (for the participants) and to changes in teacher-pupil interaction by teachers as a result of being trained to conduct discussion groups (for the non-participants).

Need for Ascertaining Efficacy of Treatment Program

Although the outcome and explanation offered seemed sufficient from a general consideration, students at some grade levels were not typical of the pattern. The data, as presented, offered no indication as to the relative effect of direct participation in groups as contrasted with changes which resulted more indirectly as a consequence of teacher training for conducting group discussions. A clearer understanding of the capability of discussion group participation in comparison with changed teacher attitudes for modifying student perceptions of self-esteem was needed. Such information

would strengthen the confidence with which recommendations for increasing self-esteem could be made to other student populations. A detailed analysis of data obtained from selected grade levels was carried out in order to answer the following questions:

1. Was participation in discussion groups more effective than changed teacher response to students for increasing self-esteem?
2. Did students at particular grade levels respond differently to the treatment methods?

Sources of Variability Associated with Design of Study.

All students in grades 4 through 12 at Burris Laboratory School, Ball State University, were included in the study of changes in self-esteem. Students in lower grades were not included because of their limited reading skill and consequent inability to respond to the measuring instrument. The subjects appeared typical with respect to distribution of school learning ability, sex ratio, age-grade placement, and socio-economic status. Students were grouped by grade level.

Participation in discussion groups was essentially on a voluntary basis, but there was possibly less choice open to students in grades 4-6 than for those students in grades 7-12. The discussion groups were held in the classrooms of students in grades 4-6, but students in grades 7-8 met in small groups as part of a regular "interests and aetivities" program, and students in grades 9-12 met in small groups after the end of the usual school day. The number of times groups met varied from 3 to 17 sessions. All students did not attend all sessions. Students absent when initial and final SEI measures were collected are not included in the paired data.

The mean changes in SEI percentage scores obtained ranged from a low -1.7 (grade 7) to a high +5.0 (grade 6). Two groups (grades 7 and 8) had negative SEI score changes of -1.7 and -0.9 respectively. It could be anticipated that one of the nine grade groups might show small negative mean changes in such a study, but finding two negative changes of sizable amounts was unexpected. In addition, the range of changes in SEI score profiles was extensive (-54 to +54 percentage score points). The variability in the data was taken as a point for detailed examination in order to obtain partial answers to the questions of relative efficacy of the treatment sources and the possible greater impact of participation in discussion groups as compared to changed teacher attitudes for influencing student self-esteem. Accordingly, one grade group from each of the treatment conditions having the highest amount of score variablity was selected for the detailed study, a total of three grade groups.

Data and Discussion

Changes in SEI percentage scores (final-initial) for students in grades 5, 8 and 9 are presented in Table 2 for the two treatment conditions (Discussion group participation and teacher attitude change). Changes are classified as "no change" and by magnitude of increase or decrease. The SEI measure includes a subscale which measures the lie-defensiveness of the individual. The patterns of responses to items on this subscale are interpreted as indicators of tendencies for the individual to make open or guarded reponses. Since behaviors assessed by the lie-defensive subscale seemed to have a direct bearing on the questions being investigated, percentage score changes for this subscale were subjected to the same analysis. Changes in total SEI percentage scores and the lie-defensive subscale are summarized in Table 2 and Table 3.

Table 2

Changes in SEI Percentage Score

Level	Range of Decreases	Magnitude of Change: More than -3	-3 to 0	0	0 to +3	More Than +3	Range of Increases	n
Grade 5 (All)	-4 to -32	16	0	5	5	19	+2 to +50	45
Discussion Group	-4 to -14	12	0	4	4	16	+2 to +50	36
Teacher Attitude	-4 to -32	4	0	1	1	3	+2 to +16	9
Grade 8 (All)	-2 to -54	21	4	3	3	27	+2 to +26	58
Discussion Group	-2 to -52	12	1	2	1	11	+2 to +22	27
Teacher Attitude	-2 to -54	9	3	1	2	16	+2 to +26	31
Grade 9 (All)	-2 to -16	14	7	4	4	32	+2 to +54	61
Discussion Group	-2 to -16	7	1	0	1	12	+2 to +54	21
Teacher Attitude	-12 to -12	7	6	4	3	20	+2 to +20	40

Table 3

Changes in SEI Lie-Defensive Scale Score

Level	Range of Decreases	Magnitude of Change: More Than -4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	More Than +4	Range of Increases	n
Grade 5 (All)	-1 to -3	0	1	2	9	14	8	7	3	1	+1 to +5	45
Discussion Group	-1 to -3	0	2	7	10	7	5	3	1	1	+1 to +5	36
Teacher Attitude	0 to -1	0	0	0	2	4	1	2	0	0	+1 to +2	9
Grade 8 (All)	-1 to -6	3	1	4	6	18	18	5	1	2	+1 to +6	58
Discussion Group	-1 to -6	2	0	2	3	7	11	1	0	1	+1 to +6	27
Teacher Attitude	-1 to -6	1	1	2	3	11	7	4	1	1	+1 to +6	31
Grade 9 (All)	-1 to -3	0	3	4	7	18	10	7	5	7	+1 to +6	61
Discussion Group	-1 to -3	0	1	1	1	8	4	4	1	1	+1 to +6	21
Teacher Attitude	-1 to -3	0	2	3	6	10	6	3	4	6	+1 to +6	40

Because of the unequal number of students participating in the discussion groups and those exposed only to changed teacher attitudes, these numbers were converted to percentages for ease in comparative discussion. These data are summarized for students in the three selected groups in Table 4 and Table 5.

Table 4

Percentage of Students With Higher, No Change, and Lower Final SEI

Grade	Treatment	Number of students	Percentage Change Final-Initial Score Higher	No Change	Lower
5	Discussion Group	36	55.6	11.1	33.3
	Teacher Attitude	9	44.4	11.1	44.4
8	Discussion Group	27	44.4	7.5	48.1
	Teacher Attitude	31	58.1	3.2	38.7
9	Discussion Group	21	61.9	0.0	38.1
	Teacher Attitude	40	57.5	10.0	32.5

Table 5

Percentage of Students With Higher, No Change, and Lower Final SEI Lie-Defensive Scale Scores

Grade	Treatment	Number of Students	Percentage Change Final-Initial Score Higher	No Change	Lower
5	Discussion Group	36	44.4	27.8	27.8
	Teacher Attitude	9	33.3	44.5	22.2
8	Discussion Group	27	48.2	25.9	25.9
	Teacher Attitude	31	42.0	35.5	22.5
9	Discussion Group	21	47.6	38.1	14.3
	Teacher Attitude	40	47.5	25.0	27.5

It was anticipated that the two conditions might differentially influence the self-esteem of students at the several grade levels. Grade placements would be only incidental correlates of the effects since variables would be more directly related to chronological age and associated developmental stage of self-concept formation. It is generally recognized that self-concept is acquired by a series of stages which can be delineated by chronological age. The process of self-concept formation appears to be more susceptible to peer influence during the 6 to 12 year period. With the adolescent years, the individual experiences a period of upheaval and uncertainty after which the trend is toward a stable and mature stage of relative self-sufficiencey and growing competency.

Applying this outline for self-concept acquisition, it could be expected that peer influence would be strongest for students in grade 5 (predominantly aged 10 and 11 years). Students in grade 8 (about 13 to 14 years of age) might be expected to show much variability and minimal predictable or patterned response to any influence. Students in the 14 to 15 year age range (approximately that of grade 9) might be expected to show sizable increases in self-esteem independent of influencing conditions. Measures of self-esteem obtained from students are generally in the predicted pattern. Data in Table 2 show that students in grade 9 made the greatest gain in self-esteem. Students in grade 8 made little gain (and in one condition showed a decrease in self-esteem), while students

in grade 5 made a median increase in self-esteem. Since lie-defensive scores in Table 5 are relatively constant for all grade groups and for both influencing conditions, the changes measured in self-esteem appear to be a consequence of the treatment conditions.

Discussion of Changes in Self-Esteem

Data obtained in this study suggest that changes in students' perceived self-esteem are differentially influenced by particula· experiences. The outcomes appear to be related to age delineated stages in self-concept development. The self-esteem of students in grade 5 seems to be enhanced by participation in duscussion groups with classmates. Teacher attitudes are less effective for increasing self-esteem of this group although the group available for this comparison is relatively small and imposes some caution in the confidence with which this finding can be accepted. Students in grade 9 showed considerable gain in self-esteem as a result of participation in peer discussion groups and as a result of teacher attitudes. The slightly higher increase in self-esteem made by the students who participated in discussion groups may be related in part to the fact that students with greater self-esteem might be expected to volunteer more readily for sueh activities. Their stronger self-esteem would enable them to profit from the give-and take of the discussion group.

Students in grade 8 who participated in discussion groups showed a slight decrease in self-esteem. Even though the students were permitted to choose this activity, stress inherent in the group interchanges apparently had a negative influence upon an already uncertain feeling of self-esteem. Teacher attitudes and associated responses to these students appeared to be more supportive and reassuring of the students' uncertainties as observed in the increase in self-esteem shown by students who did not participate in the group discussions.

In summary, findings obtained in this investigation of the relative effectiveness of participation in discussion groups as compared to teacher attitudes for influencing the self-esteem of students in various grade levels suggests the following conclusions:

1. Self-esteem of students in fifth grade is more likely to be increased by participation in discussion groups than by changed teacher attitudes.
2. Self-esteem of students in eighth grade is diffueult to modify but is more likely to be increased by changed teacher attutudes than by participation in discussion groups.
3. Self-esteem of studnets in ninth grade can be increased about equally well by voluntary participation in discussion groups or by changed teacher attitudes.

FOOTNOTES

[1]Illinois State University, "Lab School Journal," Vol. 4, No. 1, Fall, 1974

IS SNAP FOR YOU?

This special issue of the *Lab School Journal* has presented a review of a program being developed in the Consortium of Laboratory Schools of the Academic Affairs Conference of Midwestern Universities. The program has attempted to capitalize on and to take maximum advantage of the central position of the classroom teacher(s) for serving student needs. This is in accordance with our belief that the essence of professional competence of the classroom teacher is reflected in the literally hundreds of "little decisions" every teacher makes about children each day. Consistent with this objective, various individual member schools of the Laboratory Schools Consortium have investigated specific aspects of identification, prescription, implementation and evaluation procedures suitable for classroom teacher use. At this report, the preliminary findings are promising and warrant continued research and development to modify and improve the program.

It is hoped that the articles and discussions shared in this special issue have aroused some of the same excitement experienced by those educators who are at work on the various phases of the project. Ideas and comments from the readers are invited, and additional details about the program can be obtained by writing to any one of the following Directors of the Laboratory Consortium Schools:

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