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ABSTRACT

This module (part of a series of 24 modules) is on helping students to understand, deal with, and overcome current normal and developmental problems which interfere with personal growth. The genesis of these materials is in the 10 "clusters of capabilities," outlined in the paper, "A Common Body of Practice for Teachers: The Challenge of Public Law 94-142 to Teacher Education." These clusters form the proposed core of professional knowledge needed by teachers in the future. The module is to be used by teacher educators to reexamine and enhance their current practice in preparing classroom teachers to work competently and comfortably with children who have a wide range of individual needs. The module includes objectives, scales for assessing the degree to which the identified knowledge and practices are prevalent in an existing teacher education program, and self-assessment test items. References and journal articles are included on the subject of learner centered psychological education. (JD)

# PSYCHOLOGICAL EDUCATION:

# INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACHES FOR TEACHERS

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Extending the Challenge:

Working Toward a Common Body of Practice for Teachers

Concerned educators have always wrestled with issues of excellence and professional development. It is argued, in the paper "A Common Body of Practice for Teachers: The Challenge of Public Law 94-142 to Teacher Education,"* that the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 provides the necessary impetus for a concerted reexamination of teacher education. Further, it is argued that this reexamination should enhance the process of establishing a body of knowledge common to the members of the teaching profession. The paper continued, then, by outlining clusters of capabilities that may be included in the common body of knowledge. These clusters of capabilities provide the basis for the following materials.

The materials are oriented toward assessment and development. First, the various components, rating scales, self-assessments, sets of objectives, and respective rationale and knowledge bases are designed to enable teacher educators to assess current practice relative to the knowledge, skills, and commitments outlined in the aforementioned paper. The assessment is conducted not necessarily to determine the worthiness of a program or practice, but rather to reexamine current practice in order to articulate essential common elements of teacher education. In effect then, the "challenge" paper and the ensuing materials incite further discussion regarding a common body of practice for teachers.

Second and closely aligned to assessment is the developmental perspective offered by these materials. The assessment process allows the user to

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view current practice on a developmental continuum. Therefore, desired or more appropriate practice is readily identifiable. On another, perhaps more important dimension, the "challenge" paper and these materials focus discussion on preservice teacher education. In making decisions regarding a common body of practice it is essential that specific knowledge, skill, and commitment be acquired at the preservice level. It is also essential that other additional specific knowledge, skill, and commitment be acquired as a teacher is inducted into the profession and matures with years of experience. Differentiating among these levels of professional development is paramount. These materials can be used in forums in which focused discussion will explicate better the necessary elements of preservice teacher education. This explication will then allow more productive discourse on the necessary capabilities of beginning teachers and the necessary capabilities of experienced teachers.

In brief, this work is an effort to capitalize on the creative ferment of the teaching profession in striving toward excellence and professional development. The work is to be viewed as evolutionary and formative. Contributions from our colleagues are heartily welcomed.

This paper presents one module in a series of resource materials which are designed for use by teacher educators. The genesis of these materials is in the ten "clusters of capabilities," outlined in the paper, "A Common Body of Practice for Teachers: The Challenge of Public Law 94-142 to Teacher Education," which form the proposed core of professional knowledge needed by professional teachers who will practice in the world of tomorrow. The resource materials are to be used by teacher educators to reexamine and enhance their current practice in preparing classroom teachers to work competently and comfortably with children who have a wide range of individual needs. Each module provides further elaboration of a specified "cluster of capabilities" - in this case, psychological education: instructional approaches for teachers.

# Contents

Within this module are the following components:

Objectives

Upon completion of this module you will be better able to:

1. Understand the dual mission of education to promote both the psychological and academic development of students.
2. Develop an understanding of the preventive mental health rationale for psychological education.
3. Understand how psychological education can enhance academic education.
4. Identify the desired integration between psychological and academic education.
5. Understand how personal problems can interfere with academic learning.
6. Identify the basics of twelve different approaches to psychological education:

    Humanistic Education
    Curriculum of Concerns
    Interactive Process of Education
    Rational-Emotive
    Human Development Program
    Intentionality and Human Relations in the Classroom
    Classroom Meetings
    Deliberate Psychological Education
    Values Clarification
    Achievement Motivation Workshop
    Peer Counseling
    Student-Centered Teaching

7. Identify selection criteria for psychological education activities.

Reasonable Objectives for Teacher Education

A teacher education program should enable prospective teachers to become familiar with the following areas in order to expand their understanding of psychological education:

1. The psychological and academic purposes of education.
2. The degree to which one's mental health influences learning.
3. Psychological problems which interfere with academic learning.
4. The extent to which the teacher's self concept and psychological security contribute to the application of psychological education approaches.
5. The extent to which the teacher's professional role inhibits or enhances the application of psychological education.
6. The identification of psychological education approaches which are best used with different pupil populations.

Rating Scale for the Teacher Preparation Program

Check the statement that best describes the level of your present teacher preparation program in the area of psychological education.

_____ 1. Teacher preparation students have no knowledge of psychological education's rationale and instructional approaches.

_____ 2. Teacher preparation students have been introduced to psychological education's rationale and instructional approaches.

_____ 3. Teacher preparation students have had specific learning experiences in psychological education's rationale and instructional approaches.

_____ 4. Teacher preparation students have had a broad didactic training in psychological education's rationale and instructional approaches.

_____ 5. Teacher preparation students have clear knowledge and practical skill in psychological education's rationale and instructional approaches.

## SELF-ASSESSMENT

Circle one answer

1. Psychological education deals with:

   a. The student's developmental concerns which affect learning
   b. A review of significant psychological experimental studies
   c. The application of behavior modification techniques in the classroom
   d. The school counselor's theory of counseling

2. Psychological education has also been known as:

   a. Homeostasis education
   b. Self concept education
   c. Affective education
   d. Congruent education

3. Proponents of humanistic education are:

   a. Adams and Contini
   b. Weinstein and Fantini
   c. Leverson and Fitch
   d. Abrams and Wooten

4. Which of the following characterizes Borton's Curriculum of Concerns?

   a. Who-what-where-why-when?
   b. What is the meaning of my life?
   c. Feelings must be controlled by reason
   d. What-so what-now what?

5. The interactive process of education focuses on the teacher as a:

   a. Liaison regarding parental concerns
   b. Group process facilitator
   c. Psychometrician
   d. Locus of inquiry determiner

6. The rational-emotive approach is closely associated with:

   a. Positivism
   b. Existentialism
   c. Gestaltism
   d. Freudianism

7. A component of the Human Development Program is:

   a. The Magic Circle
   b. The human triad
   c. Psychodrama
   d. Empty chair technique

8. A component of the Intentionality and Human Relations Curriculum is:

   a. The improvement of the teacher-parent partnership
   b. Teacher's personal disclosures
   c. Improving one's self concept
   d. The generation of alternative behaviors

9. Deliberate psychological education has evolved from:

   a. Adlerian psychology
   b. Inferential psychology
   c. Developmental psychology
   d. Assertiveness training

10. Values clarification received its impetus from the stages of moral development research conducted by:

   a. Krumboltz
   b. Rogers
   c. Lewin
   d. Kohlberg

11. Attending, experiencing, conceptualizing, relating, applying, and internalizing are six steps which characterize:

   a. A humanistic encounter workshop
   b. An achievement motivation workshop
   c. A basic encounter group
   d. A Gestalt feelings workshop

12. Peer counseling has evolved from the knowledges gained in:

   a. Group counseling
   b. Individual counseling
   c. Organizational behavior
   d. Environmental interaction research

13. Student-centered teaching relies on the teacher's:

   a. Empathic caring for students
   b. Diagnostic skills
   c. Measurement skills
   d. Knowledge of behavior modification techniques

Match the following

14. _____ Student-Centered Teaching
15. _____ Curriculum of Concerns
16. _____ Deliberate Psychological Education
17. _____ Classroom Meetings
18. _____ Human Development Program
19. _____ Rational-Emotive Approach
20. _____ Interactive Process of Education
21. _____ Humanistic Education
22. _____ Intentionality and Human Relations in the Classroom
23. _____ Values Clarification
24. _____ Achievement Motivation Workshop

a. Simon
b. Rogers
c. Mosher and Sprinthall
d. Alschuler
e. Ivey and Alschuler
f. Skinner
g. Weinstein and Fantini
h. Piaget
i. Bessell and Palomares
j. Ellis
k. Borton
l. Gagne
m. Glasser
n. Gorman

Circle True or False

25. Our nation's schools have made a clear commitment to the importance of psychological education. T F

26. The National Association of Secondary School Principals has made a clear commitment to the importance of psychological education. T F

27. Psychological education is aimed at helping students to deal with personal problems which interfere with academic learning. T F

28. A person must be licensed by a state board in order to engage in psychological education. T F

29. Psychological educators must have an undergraduate degree in psychology in order to engage in psychological education. T F

30. Psychological education is complementary to academic education. T F

31. Psychological education is a preventive intervention carried on by the classroom teacher. T F

32. Psychological education recognizes that the relationship between intellect and affect is indestructibly symbiotic and makes good use of this relationship. T F

33. Psychological education does not enable students to improve their communication skills. T F

34. Psychological education is supported by research evidence supporting its effectiveness. T F

35. Psychological education is characterized by a uniform set of procedures for application in the classroom. T F

36. Peer tutoring is not part of a psychological education program. T F

37. In moral education discussions with students the teacher is required to take a stand on certain moral issues. T F

38. A game of ring toss can provide psychological education learning experiences for pupils. T F

39. A knowledge of psychological education has always been implicit in excellent teaching. T F

40. Classroom meetings are a form of psychological education. T F

Self-Assessment Key

1. a
2. c
3. b
4. d
5. b
6. b
7. a
8. d
9. c
10. d
11. b
12. a
13. a
14. b
15. k
16. c
17. m
18. i
19. j
20. n
21. g
22. e
23. a
24. d
25. F
26. F
27. T
28. F
29. F
30. T
31. T
32. T
33. F
34. T
35. F
36. F
37. F
38. T
39. T
40. T

# INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGICAL EDUCATION

Psychological education is the process of helping students to understand, deal with, and overcome current normal and developmental problems which interfere with their personal and social development. It is a commitment by educators to attend to these problems during the students' formative years so that they will not be debilitating during adult years. Too many persons have passed through our schools without receiving this attention from teachers and they lead adult lives filled with a lack of meaning, worries, fears, anxieties, frustrations, and poor self concepts. Some of these persons are part of the human tragedy we see in our daily newspapers. They contribute to the inhumanity of persons against each other through crime and violence. Most of their names never appear in a newspaper but they comprise the large number of unhappy, confused, and dissatisfied workers, husbands, wives, brothers, sisters, uncles, aunts, and cousins who populate every town and city in our nation. They are the persons who cannot derive satisfaction from their work or families. They are the persons who grope through life not knowing how to respond to the question, "Who am I and what is the meaning of my life?" They are the persons whom our schools have educated.

The academic requirements of the curricula of our schools have been good but insufficient. Certainly an adult expected to make one's

way in the world must be educated in those academic fundamentals which enable that journey to take place. But such an education only does half the job. It prepares persons to survive but it does not prepare them to live; to live an adult life which is personally and socially enriching; to live an adult life which is an answer to the question, "Who am I and what is the meaning of my life?"

Psychological education is not meant to replace academic education. It is meant to complement academic education so that, for the first time in our educational history, we will truly be educating the whole person; not just the rational person but the whole person who is both rational and affective. The whole person who has a mind but also has inner feelings and emotions which influence how that mind functions.

There are too many boys and girls sitting in too many classrooms who are not profiting from this experience we call education. They are not profiting because we have only been training them to use their minds instead of educating them to monitor those feelings, attitudes, and behaviors which influence the mind. We assume that if a student knows the academic facts of an educational experience that the student has been educated. We fail to realize that a full and adequate education attends to both the needs of the mind and the needs of the psychological person.

Students who have been exposed to psychological education have a higher level of motivation and interest in an academic curriculum.

They are at peace with themselves and that curriculum. They are at peace with themselves because they also know how to act and react to the psychosocial requirements of a situation and its relationship to the enhancement or debilitation of the self. They are more complete persons. Their minds have been expanded but so has their psychosocial awareness. They have been exposed to psychological education.

Skovholt (1977, p. 472) helps us to understand the meaning of psychological education when he indicates that it is an:

> . . . educational intervention designed specifically to promote personal learning and psychological competence. The integration of academic learning and personal experience serve as the primary vehicle for achieving these goals. In fact, psychological education is often defined as equivalent to this integration of intellectual and affective material.

Psychological education recognizes that the relationship between intellect and affect is indestructibly symbiotic and makes good use of this relationship. Psychological education is the deliberate and conscious process of integrating affective and cognitive elements in individual and group learning. It is a curriculum in personal and human development; a comprehensive use of educational experiences designed to affect personal, behavioral, ethical, aesthetic, and philosophical development (Mosher & Sprinthall, 1971). It is an educational process which encourages students to select their own goals, anticipate alternative experiences, choose among them, and develop effective ways for achieving goals (Ivey & Alschuler, 1973, p. 592).

A basic objective of psychological education is to make personal development a central focus of education. In order to accomplish this it is necessary to disseminate the special skills of helping, counseling, and problem solving to the widest possible audience of students and teachers. Psychological education also includes in the curriculum a number of largely cognitive learnings drawn from the discipline of psychology, i.e., the principles of psychological growth. It is the means through which a variety of approaches to experiential learning can be utilized to personalize the more intellectual content. In essence, this means laboratory work which enables students to be aware, to identify feelings, to accurately perceive people, and to better understand themselves. It also means assisting students to listen to others, to respond to the feelings of others, to make decisions, and to develop a personalized view of life (Pine & Boy, 1977).

Although at the present time there are no uniform procedures representing psychological education, a tentative classification of relevant experiences can be made. These experiences would include creative experiences involving one's fantasy life, nonverbal exercises, developing and exploring an individual's emotional responses to the world, and living fully and intensely in the here and now. Some activities which might be used are film making, community work, peer tutoring, communication and helping skills and the arts, drama and dance, group process, and counseling experiences.

Ivey and Alschuler offer the following as examples of psychological education (1973, p. 588):

(1) A small group of children are sitting with a teacher. They are asked to tell about one thing which they enjoyed during the past week. As the children share experiences, others listen attentively. The teacher is supportive but makes no value judgments. Later the children share their concerns and their enthusiasm.

(2) A junior high school class is playing a ring toss game in which each student decides how far to stand from the peg in order to make a "ringer." The teacher notes the level of aspiration of each participant, and this information serves as the basis for discussion of achievement motivation. In this game the students learn both about themselves and others.

(3) Some high school students have just returned from a senior citizens' center. They are taking a course in basic helping skills. The course includes video-taped training in communication skills, a variety of personal growth exercises, and information on organizational development. The class project is aimed at developing an ongoing recreational and counseling program for the community.

Until now, it has been assumed that healthy self concepts and positive psychological growth would be the natural by-products of a carefully planned academic program. However, this has not been the case. To-

day, it seems, the longer the pupil remains in school, the more the pupil's intrinsic interest in learning may decline. In urban ghetto schools, negative self concepts tend to increase with the amount of time spent in schools. Schools appear to foster the decline of personal efficacy and prejudiced thinking. There is a continuing schism between young people and those they consider the "establishment." Increasing unrest, incidents of violence, drug use, dropouts, runaways and an increased number of policemen in many of our schools constitute a reality in contemporary society which commands our immediate attention.

The causes of our general failure to promote positive and healthy personal/social development during the school years are numerous and complex. We have a breakdown of law and an increase in disorder; there is a disintegration of the sense of community and at the same time, an erosion of marriage and family as a meaningful societal unit; and there is an uprooting of past traditions, with increasing alienation and "atomization" of stabilizing orders. These phenomena tend to generate anomie -- a feeling of helplessness and hopelessness. And, because youth is in a state of development during the school years, it is more profoundly affected by such problems.

Until recently, we have misdiagnosed the problems of society by treating victims of inhumane institutions, instead of mobilizing ourselves and others to restructure learning, interpersonal and intergroup relationships and schools so that there will be more healthy human beings and fewer casualties (Ivey & Alschuler, 1973, p. 591).

Since the school is one institution in Western civilization that most markedly affects the human condition, it follows that the greatest potential for change and significant improvement in our individual predicaments and in our dilemma as a society lies in the school. If we can change what happens in schools, we may be able to ameliorate some of the deleterious effects of a narrowly focused education and substantially contribute toward improving the human condition.

Weinstein and Fantini (1970) indicate this when they say:

> Education in a free society should have a broad human focus, which is best served by educational objectives resting on a personal and interpersonal base and dealing with students' concerns. This belief rests on philosophical and moral grounds, but it also has plainly practical implications in terms of the price a society pays for negative social behavior -- crime, discrimination, tensions, and, ultimately, widespread pathology.

What is being sought through psychological education is not exactly new as Brown (1971, p. 249) indicates:

> Actually, affective techniques are not much different from what good teachers have done since teaching began. By promulgating confluent education and its affective dimension, we are only making explicit what has long been implicit in excellent teaching.

## APPROACHES TO PSYCHOLOGICAL EDUCATION

### Humanistic Education

Weinstein and Fantini (1970) identify three important concerns shared by most children: concerns about self-image, disconnectedness

(how one fits or does not fit into one's world or the whole scheme of things), and control over one's life. These may be shown in different ways, depending on a student's cultural background or developmental level, but they are evident in all school-age children. Part of the teacher's job is to discern how they are expressed, and to respond to them in the course of the lessons. Many examples could be cited and most people could think of several where an item of immediate concern and interest to the students was ignored or squelched by a teacher as a digression from the lesson, even when it could easily have been incorporated into the lesson as an added learning experience. Weinstein and Fantini indicate that students are more interested in these "digressions" because they often relate directly to themselves. Moreover, their subsequent behavior is more likely to be affected directly by the learning that takes place. Relevance, then, becomes a matter of functionally linking extrinsic curricula to basic intrinsic concerns and feelings (Weinstein & Fantini, 1970, p. 29).

Following are the major elements in the humanistic approach:

(1) Identifying the learning group: the teacher must analyze the social, economic, geographic, cultural and ethnic, as well as developmental level background (similar to Piaget's theory) of the class.

(2) Identifying shared concerns: what concerns does the class have as a group?

(3) Understanding underlying factors: how do the children manifest their concerns and their behavioral changes, what different ways do they have of expressing them?

(4) Organizing ideas: teachers may construct excellent lessons around core themes linking them to other lessons. "Hooks" or ideas help order the children's experiences and help the teacher utilize their feedback more effectively.

(5) Content vehicles: may be traditional subjects or more non-traditional ones, such as classroom or out-of-classroom incidents affecting the students, media or field trip experiences, or the children themselves.

(6) Learning skills: examples include evaluating, problem solving, hypothesizing, planning, predicting, finding alternatives, and self- or other-awareness. These are a means to an end, not an end in itself. Critical thinking and other process skills clearly are important for the learner, chiefly in helping the learner to handle personal concerns, not for extrinsic uses, such as analyzing the causes of a war or classifying rocks or insects. Developing a series of awareness skills organizes affective learning, and the authors give a sample of the student's participation in the process:

- recognition and description of what is happening
- understanding of how others do the same
- comparison of responses and feelings
- analyze varied responses and consequences
- test alternatives
- make decisions

(7) Teaching procedures: procedures should be based on the pupils' learning style, which the teacher has observed and deduced from analysis of their backgrounds. Whatever the procedures selected, teachers should develop interaction systems that support the learner emotionally and strengthen feelings of self-worth.

(8) Evaluation: the teacher evaluates the teaching and learning experience periodically. Questions the teacher may ask are: Have behaviors changed? Were the content vehicles the most appropriate or are there better ones that could have been used? Were the skills and the teaching procedures the best to achieve the goals originally set?

Weinstein and Fantini do not ignore content which is implicitly provided for in the teacher's goals for the class. Their model for teaching deserves study and practice, and allows for the full range of affective and cognitive learning, emphasizing the emotional involvement of the teacher and student in the process.

## Curriculum of Concerns

Borton's (1970) affective learning model is three-tiered. He was concerned with follow-up learning after evaluating his experience with a summer project in Philadelphia which made great use of affective learning techniques in combination with open education approaches. The experience for teachers and students was a good one, but some problems were identified through feedback from students who had participated in

the program. As one girl put it, she was happier but uncomfortable outside of the summer project school because she was not free as she had learned to be there, and did not know how to be happy when she was not free. This suggested to Borton that something had to be added to the learning experience to help students carry through and resolve problems connected with the changes in themselves.

He developed the What-So What-Now What system of learning. What connotes sensing a new stimulus or experience; So What is the transforming of the stimulus into some kind of meaning for the individual; Now What is the "Acting function that rehearses possible actions and picks one to put into the world as an overt response" (Borton, 1970, p. 78). Borton concluded that teaching students how to handle their concerns and feelings and to understand and be responsive to others around them is not enough. "Bringing such concerns to the surface without providing a means (a process) for dealing with them can turn a curriculum of concerns into a curriculum of anxiety." He cites the example of a boy who after going through the summer project had trouble convincing his father he was mature enough to take responsibility for a theater group in addition to his other responsibilities. Through role-playing the conflict at a reunion with other students from the project, he was able to see how his father perceived him and the problem and worked out ideas for a successful settlement.

Borton suggests that there is a necessity for a relaxing period to aid affective learning. Pressure juxtaposed with a quiet contem-

plative time, is the best situation to produce insight and learning. "The combination of the two modes creates an effect similar to that which a person experiences when hours of difficult work on a problem get him nowhere and then suddenly the missing link pops into his head while reading Dr. Seuss to the children" (Borton, 1970, p. 89).

## The Interactive Process of Education

Gorman's (1969) emphasis is on developing group process skills. He scores the old one-way communication where the teacher lectures and solicits questions about the material from students. In the group process approach strong multi-way conversation about content and personal concerns is encouraged and facilitated with the teacher acting as moderator, guide, and observer. The teacher as a facilitator is there when the students need the teacher's resources but is not dominant in the classroom.

Gorman (1969, p. 17) protests the overformal distrustful relationships between teachers and students and asserts that when teachers and students come to know each other through the interactive process of education that they become more accepting of each other and real learning (academic and affective) occurs. Through group process learning not only do students learn subject matter but they also learn about themselves, how they react to each other, and to the subject matter and the world as a whole. To accomplish group learning students and teacher develop an awareness of the behaviors that make up the interactive process and then develop skills in data gathering and analysis.

## The Rational-Emotive Approach

How, exactly, can rational-emotive psychology be employed in regular schooling? To answer this question, The Institute for the Advanced Study in Rational Psychotherapy started a private school for children, The Living School, which it operates in New York City. The purpose of the school is to teach children the regular elements of academic education; but at the same time to provide them with emotional education.

The school was started as a laboratory school in which materials and procedures in affective education could be developed and used with normal elementary school children. The approach employed is derived from the rational-emotive theory of counseling developed by Ellis(1962). Children are taught concepts of how people think, feel, and behave. This is accomplished through regular "lessons" in emotional education, through role-playing demonstrations, and in the course of actual problems that may arise in the classroom during the day.

Parental involvement is an integral part of The Living School, with parents learning rational-emotive skills along with their children. They are given guidance by the school's staff to enable them to deal with their children's, as well as their own, dysfunctional beliefs and behavior, so as to enable them to follow through with the school's emotional education program at home. In addition, they attend monthly workshops dealing with such topics as problems with siblings and parental nagging.

Although the school's unique contribution is in the area of emotional education, it also has an academic program of individualized learning, geared to the needs and interests of each student. The model is an open classroom with teachers and students sharing warm and close relationships with each other.

Ellis (1972) believes that children naturally acquire several basic irrational ideas which they tend to perpetuate and which sabotage their lives forever. They religiously, devoutly believe that they absolutely need and utterly must have others' approval; that they've got to achieve outstandingly and thereby prove how worthwhile they are; that people who act unjustly or inconsiderately to them are bad, wicked, or villainous and should be severely condemned and punished for their villainy; that it is awful and catastrophic when things are not the way they would like them to be; that obnoxious situations and events make them feel anxious, depressed, or angry; that if they endlessly worry about something they can control whether or not it happens; that it is easier for them to avoid than to face certain life difficulties and responsibilities; and that they absolutely need a well-ordered, certain, pretty perfect universe. These are the same kinds of irrational ideas which most human adults more or less tend to believe; but children often believe them more rigidly and profoundly.

## The Human Development Program

The Human Development Program (HDP), developed by Harold Bessell and Uvaldo Palomares (1967) with the aid and sponsorship of The Institute for Personal Effectiveness in Children (IPEC), is designed to

promote healthy emotional growth in children. Growth in self-understanding, self-confidence, and social interaction is facilitated by structured learning experiences which utilize group dynamic techniques. Through such small group experiences, the student progresses through the planned Human Development Program and develops greater personal and social effectiveness.

The Human Development Program (HDP) is designed to facilitate learning in the affective domain especially in three areas of emotional development: self-understanding (awareness), self-confidence (mastery), and human relations (social interaction).

The program was developed with a focus on beginning with pre-school children and continuing through the grades in order to determine if effective, large-scale prevention measures could be taken that would assure normal, healthy emotional growth, much as a sound, balanced diet can ensure the development of children who are physically normal and healthy. The program capitalizes on the basic drives of children to achieve mastery and gain approval. It seems that persons who have not had the HDP experience at the pre-school and elementary levels can still profit from an appropriate experience geared to their present stage of development which utilizes the basic theory and techniques of HDP.

The strategy is to employ cumulative, sequential activities on a regular basis as outlined or suggested by HDP guides or manuals. The vehicle is the "Magic Circle" (8-12 members) which meets for 25-50 min-

utes each session. Responding to cues like "something that makes me feel good" (awareness), "I can do something well" (mastery), and "I did something that someone liked" (social interaction), the participant learns to practice awareness, to dispel the crippling delusion of uniqueness, to be an effective communicator, to develop independence and the ability to influence environment, and to discover what works and what doesn't work with people (personal/social effectiveness).

The leader supplies the cue which can later be determined by the circle or group. The leader facilitates sharing, listening (feedback) and acceptance. The leader does not probe, analyze, or evaluate and prohibits (in a gentle, but firm way) participants from engaging in this behavior. While both similarities and differences as well as both positive and negative aspects of affective experience are the foci of HDP, the atmosphere is one of acceptance, communication, and listening. Each participant has an opportunity to participate in each session and is gently encouraged to do so, but is also made to feel comfortable if there is a reluctance to participate.

The thrust of an HDP is on prevention utilizing an educational model. It is a circle or group of children sharing and listening and communicating which is structured to promote and develop self-confidence, and social understanding and interaction -- ingredients believed to be necessary to become a whole person and psychologically healthy adult.

Intentionality and Human Relations in the Curriculum

A human relations curriculum installed in the school would have as its central objective the development of the intentional individual (Ivey and Alschuler, 1973). The person who acts with intentionality has a sense of capability, can generate alternative behaviors in a given situation, and "come at" a problem from different vantage points. The intentional student is not bound to one course of action, but can respond in the moment to changing life situations as the student looks forward to longer term goals.

In academic life, intentionality may be demonstrated by the student who is faced with a complex problem in science. Not knowing exactly how to solve the problem, the student tries a method to find a solution; if it doesn't work, the student backs up and attacks the problem from a new direction. The students know that there is more than one avenue to problem solution.

In social life, we could consider the problem of the child who has to deal with bullies or excessive teasing. Some children react by crying, hitting, or perhaps pass on their frustration to their younger brothers and sisters. The youngster who acts with intentionality has many alternatives available in such situations. The youngster may tease the larger individual back, may ask quietly that a stolen hat be returned, may totally ignore the larger person, and may even point out the immature behavior of the larger child. At another level, the youngster may want to help smaller children when they are bullied.

Teachers have always taught human relations in the classroom. Reading material, discussions of issues in social studies, good sportsmanship on the playing field, etc., are often focused on how people can work together more effectively and comfortably.

It is possible to further these general aims with supplementary units in the classroom which relate reading material more directly to present school of life problems. An example, in the study of the New England town, might be where children first learn about the different roles and points of view in their own school or community thus transferring history more directly to present day life. A unit on the food chain in science could be correlated with a unit on the "behavioral chain" (general principle, when I get hit, I tend to hit someone else). There are an infinite number of ways one could teach important concepts of human relations in conjunction with regular academic work.

The central theme of this approach is the encouragement of intentionality; the generation of alternative behaviors helping one achieve both short-term and long-term goals. Too many of us have only one or two responses to frustration or a single route toward our goals. This program is designed to familiarize children with the possibilities open to them in the belief that the child will select what seems appropriate as the child listens to others. Some suggested approaches for teaching human relations are summarized as follows:

(1) A specific area of concern within human relations may be identified. It might be listening skills, self-expression, authority, decision making, brainstorming, handling a bully, etc.

(2) A lesson plan developed as a "performance unit" would be completed by a teacher. The lesson plan typically would include: (a) a definition of objectives; (b) media suggestions; (c) organization of lesson; (d) opportunity for participation by students at more than a listening level; and (e) follow-up work in the form of "homework," murals, or small group projects.

(3) Lesson plans would be developed by teachers at all grade levels and placed in a central location. Lessons on listening, for example, have relevance at all grade levels with appropriate adaptations for the setting. Eventually, it would be possible to develop a large number of units in human relations education. Lessons could be designed as supplementary units for regular class sessions or as integrated human relations curricula.

(4) The development of one skill or concept area might be exemplified by a unit taught in "What it means to be big." The teacher first reads the students a selection from a book in which a small child learned that bigness could be determined in more ways than size. The teacher discussed the concept with the children for a short time. The teacher then had them role play a situation at a school bus stop in which a larger child teased the smaller child. The teacher asked the children who was "big" and who was "small" in this situation. The children were pleased and surprised when they realized that "big" people are not always big. They discussed this for a short time and then they were asked to observe an inci-

dent in which they saw someone who was big and report on it the next day. The next day they drew pictures of their stories. During the next several days, the teacher reported that children commented frequently on seeing examples of people being bigger than their size.

(5) This model of human relations stresses individuality and the possibility of alternative ways to demonstrate competence. Children learn that there are several "right" answers in social situations. They also have the opportunity to learn the perceptions of other children and to teach them some of their own ideas.

(6) Children would also be encouraged to develop units in human relations. A child with artistic skills, for example, might develop a unit illustrating a point through the use of this medium. Giving children a chance to share themselves and their ideas with one another seems a particularly useful method of fostering more effective communication.

(7) Similarly, it should be possible to teach students varieties of selective attending to human relations. For example, the simple fundamentals of reflection and summarization of feeling are teachable to students and enable them to listen deeply and to care more affectively about friends and family.

Another immediately useful behavioral skill is attention to content. It is possible to teach students to attend to important content in a presentation. In effect, we would be teaching the student how to attend

to the important facts as the student listens to another individual. Similarly, summarization of content represents the ability to listen to the overall points that another individual has made and indicates that the listener has heard the person making the presentation. Skills such as this should be invaluable in human relations. If a person can listen to facts and content effectively, an important bridge to human understanding has been made.

After a student has mastered listening to content and feeling, training in integration of the two seems desirable. Here we would be teaching the student to selectively attend to the most important thing the other individual has said. Sometimes feeling or emotional states should be attended to before facts are considered. In other cases, an awareness of emotional states underlying factual statements is insufficient. Micro-teaching provides a framework where such complex human relations behaviors as these may be considered and eventually taught with rigorous, but enjoyable, methods.

Students generally operate in a system of leaders and followers. Relatively little attention has been given to ways in which they can relate with one another as equals. It might also be suggested that much of the loneliness and alienation that exist in our society is the result of our inability to communicate with others on a mutual basis. It seems valuable to consider the implications of micro-teaching in direct, mutual communication between two individuals.

Classroom Meetings

Glasser (1969) indicates that the major problem of the schools is the problem of failure. Ways must be discovered so that more children can succeed. Too many children find their identity most readily attainable through withdrawal or delinquency. Glasser recommends several approaches for reaching failure or negatively oriented children, including no punishment (but discipline), no excuses, aims toward positive involvement, and individual responsibility. Among Glasser's most viable and significant procedures is the use of the class, led by the teacher, as a counseling group, which daily spends time developing the social responsibility necessary to solve behavioral and educational problems within the class. Glasser's concept of "the classroom meeting" has been implemented in classrooms and is one of the prominent approaches to psychological education.

There are three types of classroom meetings: the social-problem solving meeting, concerned with the students' social behavior in school; the open-ended meeting, concerned with intellectually important subjects; and the educational-diagnostic meeting, concerned with how well the youngsters understand the concepts of the curriculum. Glasser (1969, p. 122-160) recommends the following guidelines for conducting these meetings.

(1) All problems relative to the class as a group and to any individual in the class are eligible for discussion. A problem can be brought up by an individual student or by the teacher.

(2) The discussion itself should always be directed toward solving the problem; the solution should never include punishment or fault finding. The orientation of the meetings is always positive, always toward a solution. It is important in class meetings for the teacher but not the class to be non-judgmental. The teacher may feed back to the class the class attitude, but gives opinions sparingly.

(3) Meetings should always be conducted with the teacher and all the students seated in a tight circle. Classroom meetings should be short (10 to 30 minutes) for children in the lower grades and should increase in length (30 to 45 minutes) for older pupils. The duration of a meeting is less important than its regular occurrence and the pertinence of the problems discussed.

(4) The teacher sits in a different place in the circle each day and makes a systematic effort to arrange seating so that the meeting will be most productive. Boys who squirm and nudge one another can be separated. Boys and girls are interspersed, as are the vocal and quiet children.

(5) Subjects for open-ended discussion may be introduced by the teacher or by the class. The teacher encourages the class to think of relevant subjects.

(6) Disciplinary meetings should not be repetitive. Discussing a problem child day after day does more harm than good. Open-ended discussions that are interesting enough to attract the participation and cooperation of problem children lead to improved behavior.

(7) With primary grade children, meetings are more effective if they are held before recess, before lunch, or before the school's closing time. No meeting should be prolonged and become an excuse for the children to avoid other responsibilities during the day.

(8) A teacher avoids interrupting a student to correct affective ideas or perceptions. A student corrected while desperately struggling to express an idea or perception may psychologically withdraw and never volunteer again.

(9) All students msst be accepted as potentially capable, not as handicapped. We cannot change their past but we can give them the opportunity to have a more personally satisfying educational experience in the present.

Deliberate Psychological Education

Mosher and Sprinthall (1971), with several colleagues, developed a curriculum consisting of systematic educational experiences designed to directly influence the personal development of adolescents. The curriculum draws from developmental, counseling, and educational psychology and from the humanities and is conceptualized as a series of coordinated courses focusing on various stages of the human life cycle. Adolescent students study the principles of early childhood development, child development and care, middle childhood, adolescence, interpersonal

relations and marriage, vocational and occupational decision making, and the psychology of aging. A significant part of the curriculum is experiential and adolescents learn through such activities as tutoring peers who are handicapped.

A prominent component of the curriculum is the seminar and practicum in counseling which teaches high school students the simple fundamentals of the counseling process. This represents an attempt to make personal development a primary objective of a regular school curriculum. The model for instruction is essentially a didactic seminar and a supervised practicum. In the first phase of the course (4-6 weeks) students engage in role play counseling using tape recordings. In the second phase the student's role playing experiences are replaced by real talk about themselves. In the last phase the students shift from counseling each other to counseling peers. Supervision, seminars, audio and video tape feedback and peer critique are tools used throughout the training period.

Another major component in the curriculum is cross-age teaching and personal learning. Adolescent students are provided with the opportunity to teach elementary school children individually and in groups, inside the classroom or outside. Students in this component learn about themselves as well as about teaching young children and the course is seen as an alternative way of studying psychology. Students have a supervised teaching experience coupled with on-going seminars and readings

in contemporary education and pedagogical methods. The teaching skills which the students learn and the effect on their self-perception and sense of competence in performing an adult job are important concomitants. The program is designed not to train classroom helpers but as a component of deliberate psychological education for adolescent students.

Improvisational drama offers students an opportunity to study the individual's expressive behavior -- both verbal and physical -- and thus gain insights into their own positive and negative attitudes. By employing dance and drama techniques, the teacher helps students bring forth the dramatic content which is highly personal and typically is very relevant to what adolescents currently are thinking and feeling. Students learn how they are perceived by other people, they discover feelings about what it means to be male or female, and they explore alternative ways of behaving. The improvisational drama curriculum as a psychological intervention concentrates on three basic objectives: (1) to help students achieve more self-knowledge through a study of their expressive behavior; (2) to free people to enjoy capacities they might not have known they had; and (3) to help people learn to relate more candidly and effectively to other people. To achieve these objectives the teacher focuses on the four bases of the curriculum through a series of exercises: physical freeing, concentration, believability, and relationships.

In the child development component students assume a variety of roles in a nursery: helper, story teller, someone to talk to, partici-

pant, initiator, and observer. In seminars students discuss assigned reading materials and films on child development, share observations of children, study video tapes of childrens' behavior in the nursery, and occasionally participate in workshops on materials and activities used with nursery school children.

The overall strategy of this psychological education program and a structure within which all the components are offered is that of clinical research: a cyclical process involving the framing of a course of action after reflection, the implementation of it, evaluation of the outcomes, and the framing of a new course of action. The method is an alternating cycle of reflection and action, of hard thinking and exacting practice so that conceptualization and practice is validated one against the other.

Deliberate psychological education appears to be a rich and varied program fulfilling to a great extent what seems desirable from a humanistic psychology point of view. While it has been developed and tested primarily with high school adolescents its implications for the middle and elementary schools are obvious.

## Values Discussions

The discussion and clarification of values attracted the attention of educators and the public as a consequence of the turmoil which surrounded the collision of values during the 1960s and into the 1970s. The

focus of the collision was the Vietnam War and the heated and sometimes violent conflicts between those who supported the War and those who did not. Debate and conflict over Vietnam, however, was just the beginning. It evolved into values conflicts over other value-laden issues: the effects of marijuana, pre-marital sex, abortion, homosexuality, euthanasia, nuclear power, and the social-economic rights of ethnic and minority groups. It was a turbulent period which some perceived as the sunrise of enlightenment regarding certain moral issues; others saw the period as the twilight of the moral foundations of our civilization.

This clash of values spilled over into our nation's schools. Students began to experiment with drugs and sex; racial conflicts erupted into riots; schools were being destroyed; and teachers were being physically assaulted. These behaviors alarmed politicians, school boards, parents, teachers, and the community at large.

An attitude of "we've got to do something about this" quickly emerged and Raths, Hamrin, and Simon (1966) stated that American education had better start paying attention to the degree to which one's values influence and affect behavior. They indicated that behaviors do not occur in a vacuum; that one's behaviors are a reflection of values that often fulfill one's psychological needs. Simon, Howe, and Kirschenbaum (1972) elaborated on this viewpoint and the concept that schools needed to help students discuss and clarify values gained in momentum. The concept was in the right place at the right time.

Educators discussing values in the classroom are quick to point out that they are not interested in influencing students to select one set of values over another. The aim of values discussions is to prompt students to investigate and understand how values influence behavior and how certain positive values will induce positive behavior while certain negative values will induce negative behavior. The quest by students for values which enhance the self and others and which serve as the catalyst for behaviors which are beneficial to the self and others, is the fundamental process involved. Understanding personal values must be accompanied by an understanding of the values of others so that conflicting values are mitigated and harmonized in a pluralistic society.

Simon (1973) suggests the following strategies for use by the teacher desiring to involve a group in values clarification. These strategies serve as catalysts which enable the group to become involved in processing and clarifying personal values and how they affect behavior:

Strategy #1: Either-or Forced Choice

Students are requested to choose between two conflicting alternatives. In the process of choosing, students are asked to examine their feelings, self concepts, and, of course, their values.

Strategy #2: Spread of opinion

Students are asked to identify the range of opinions that might exist within our society on value issues like population control, pre-

marital sex, legalization of marijuana, or open marriage. Students are then asked to identify and clarify their own values regarding these topics.

Strategy #3: Alternatives Search

Identifying which alternatives exist when considering a certain issue of values is an important reflection of what we have to do in adult life. Choosing from among the available alternatives is a vital process in values clarification. This strategy provides students with practice in searching out the different value alternatives available in attempting to solve a problem.

Strategy #4: Twenty Things You Love to Do

In this strategy, the identification is accompanied by consideration of the values which influenced the choices. Often what we choose reveals values which validate the self at the expense of the personhood and rights of others.

Strategy #5: "I learned" Statements

This strategy enables the student to summarize and bring closure to a certain values clarification experience. It can be oral or written and the usual format is to have the student complete a number of "I" sentences: I learned that . . . I was disappointed that I . . . I see that I need to.

Strategy #6: Opposite Quadrangles

Students are asked to divide a piece of paper into four sections. In the upper left section they are asked to list the people they most like to

be with; in the upper right section they are asked to list the places they enjoy going to; in the lower left section they are asked to list the people they least like being with; and in the lower right section they are asked to list the places they least enjoy going to. As students examine their opposite quadrangles they are asked to identify the values which influenced their selections rather than revealing the selections.

Sprinthall and Mosher (1978), in their co-edited book, Value Development . . . As the Aim of Education, focus on moral and democratic development as a critical need in our nation's schools if they are to fulfill their mission of educating the whole person. None of the articles in this book identify the morals which should be promulgated. Instead, the articles indicate that the moral and ethical foundations of our behavior must be examined and understood if students are to be fully educated. In their article, Sullivan and Dockstader (1978, p. 136-137) identify events which prompted public interest in including moral education in a school's curriculum:

> The Watergate scandal with its cast of intelligent, well-educated individuals who knew or cared little about personal and political ethics was one national crisis which aroused people's concern for values and moral decision-making. Large corporations have made illegal campaign contributions and bribed foreign governments to gain advantage over competitors. Congressmen have also been suspected of accepting bribes from Korean representatives. These highly publicized national events occurred at the same time that medicine, science, politics, and rapidly changing social conditions have been presenting us with new, perplexing moral questions which must be resolved.

Sullivan and Dockstader, who administer the Ethical Quest in a Democratic Society Project in the Tacoma, Washington Public Schools, go on to present sample lesson plans which a teacher can use to stimulate student discussion of the moral and ethical foundations of certain decisions. For elementary school children "I wonder why" pertains to school rules and how the moral dimensions of these rules might be perceived by a student, teacher, principal, and parent. At the junior and senior high school levels moral reasoning lesson plans are presented which focus on the behavior of "Kino," a character in John Steinbeck's novel, The Pearl. A moral action lesson plan for senior high school students enables them to discuss the ethical behaviors of the main characters in Herman Wouk's play, The Caine Mutiny Court Martial (Sullivan & Dockstader, 1978, p. 148-152).

Kohlberg (1967) stimulated interest in moral education when he conceptualized and researched the following six stages of moral development. Teachers, parents, school boards, and the community responded positively to the concept of moral education because of the obvious desire to have students function at a higher stage of moral development. Indeed, the future of our civilization will demand that humankind function at more advanced stages of moral development if it is to sustain itself.

Stage 1: Obedience and punishment orientation.
Stage 2: Egoistic orientation.
Stage 3: Orientation to approval and to pleasing and helping others.
Stage 4: Authority and social-order maintenance orientation.
Stage 5: Contractual, legalistic orientation.
Stage 6: Conscience or principle orientation.

The teacher interested in stimulating student discussions of values and morals can find an abundance of resource material in a typical edition of a daily newspaper.

Achievement Motivation Workshop

Alschuler (1973) is concerned with student motivation and indicates that a lack of motivation has led many students to waste their intellectual and psychological resources. They sit in our schools daring teachers and staff members to detract them from their lack of interest in schooling and life. Without the intervention of the schools these students all too often grow into depressed adults who can find little meaning from family life or their occupations. An undernourished desire to achieve in school finds its expression in an unmotivated adult life.

McMullen (1973:642) indicates that when a person's achievement motive is charged up:

> . . . people appear to us alert, self confident, and going about the business of meeting realistic but challenging goals they've set for themselves. They are doing something better than they have done it before, or competing hard against someone else, or working on new approaches to solving tough problems. They are driving and competitive.

McMullen (1973) outlines a sequence of six steps which characterize an achievement motivation workshop. The purpose of such a workshop is to encourage the student to engage in personal goal setting and goal attainment. The six steps are summarized as follows:

Step 1: Attending

The teacher must get the attention of students by developing a "grabber" which will interest students in the workshop. Identifying and developing a "grabber" requires teacher sensitivity to the psychosocial needs of students.

Step 2: Experiencing

Through a competitive game or role playing experience, students identify the behavior, thinking, or feeling that is associated with the achievement motive. They participate and talk about the degree to which they were motivated to compete.

Step 3: Conceptualizing

Students learn to label the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that accompany achievement motivation. They use a special vocabulary to enable them to recognize certain motivation and achievement elements in themselves and others: "achievement goals, world obstacles, personal obstacles, moderate risks, using concrete feedback, fear of failure, and hope of success."

Step 4: Relating

Students explore the relevance of this new motivation knowledge to their own values, goals, and behaviors. They discuss the need for affiliation and power and their interrelationships.

Step 5: Applying

Students are encouraged to apply their knowledge of their own personal achievement motive to their lives. They plan self-improvement projects based upon a clarified and improved achievement motive.

Step 6: Internalizing

Students internalize their achievement motive and apply it through practice. The teacher works out a schedule with students to enable them to keep track of their progress toward certain goals.

The effectiveness of an achievement motivation workshop will largely depend upon a teacher's ability to explain the rationale of such a workshop to students and to solicit their active participation. Stimulating student interest in an achievement motivation workshop will require a high level of teacher creativity, commitment, and leadership.

Peer Counseling

The ability of one lay person to help another lay person to overcome psycho-social problems was an unexpected outcome of the group counseling movement. In the early stages of this movement the process of group counseling was leader-centered. That is, the leader set the group's topic and process agenda by determining what would be discussed and furnishing the group with specific directions regarding the best method for solving a psycho-social problem.

During this early period, some group counseling leaders, who exercised less control over the group, began to observe the emergence of a phenomenon which was both personally and professionally threatening as well as being therapeutically effective for group members. When involved in a group which was less structured and leader-centered, certain group members responded to other group members in a manner

which was therapeutically helpful. By using an intuitive and natural response to the concerns and problems of other group members, certain participants were able to render facilitative and therapeutically positive assistance. This was surprising since the participants who were helpful to others had no formal training in counseling and psychotherapy. They were lay persons using very human and spontaneous interventions to help group members.

Hobbs (1951, p. 293), in describing the general values of group counseling, noted this occurrence when he said, "The individual group member may be a giver of help while receiving help." Rogers (1970a:7) confirmed this observation when he stated:

> There is a development of feedback from one person to another, such that each individual learns how he appears to others and what impact he has in interpersonal relationships.

This process observation led others to provide experimentation and research which confirmed this viewpoint. Carkhuff (1969) developed abundant research evidence which supported the concept that the natural and intuitive abilities to counsel others, possessed by lay persons, could be refined and expanded through mini courses or workshops. This new knowledge enabled lay persons to effectively assist and counsel persons in their lives who were having problems of a normal and developmental nature.

In school settings, the outcome of this new understanding resulted in the development of peer counseling. Peer counseling is the process of students assisting each other by applying fundamental counseling skills which they learn from professionals in a course, laboratory, or workshop setting.

Sprinthall (1973, p. 365) describes a peer counseling program which he conducted in a school setting:

> The counseling psychology class was essentially a practicum and seminar in peer counseling. The instructional procedure was parallel to a graduate school program. The pupils engaged in role play counseling, listened under supervision to their taperecorded efforts at listening and responding to their peers, discussed aspects of the helping relationship, and examined some readings, such as Dibs by Virginia Axline, Gestalt Therapy by Fritz Perls, and Freedom to Learn by Carl Rogers. At the same time we also found it helpful to structure some learnings especially on specific listening skills.

Sprinthall (1973, p. 366) went on to report the outcomes of the counseling practicum and seminar in teaching teenagers to become peer counselors:

> Using pretest-posttest measures of skills such as empathy, positive regard, and immediacy, the teenagers demonstrated not only statistically significant change, but also achieved higher levels on these scales than commonly achieved by professional trainees in graduate schools.

Fink and his colleagues (1978, p. 80-83) researched the effectiveness of a secondary school peer counseling program. In the research project

clients, teachers, students, and peer counselors were administered a questionnaire. Effectiveness was based on global ratings of client improvement and from the client's perspective of the adequacy of the peer counselor's skills. Both peer counselors and the school's faculty rated most of the students who had received peer counseling as either "very improved" or "improved."

## Student-Centered Teaching

Client-centered theory is essentially a counseling theory but early adherents saw it as being logically convertible and applicable to the process of education. Soon after the appearance of Rogers' first major contribution, Counseling and Psychotherapy (1942), there quickly emerged an awareness that the viewpoint was also applicable to teaching (Blocksma and Porter, 1947; Gross, 1948; Schwebel and Asch, 1948; and Faw, 1949). Rogers (1951) confirmed this interest in his book, Client-Centered Therapy, by devoting Chapter 9 to "Student-Centered Teaching." This applicability to teaching was further extended and confirmed by Rogers (1969) in his book, Freedom to Learn, and is evident in Part Three of his latest book, A Way of Being (Rogers, 1980). The convertibility and applicability of the client-centered counseling view has also been recognized in organizational behavior, families, parenting, groups, marriage and its alternatives, leadership, pastoring, and general interpersonal relationships.

Rogers (1951, p. 384) has traditionally recognized the applicability of the concepts of client-centered counseling to the teaching and learning process:

> If the creation of an atmosphere of acceptance, understanding, and respect is the most effective basis for facilitating the learning which is called therapy, then might it not be the basis for the learning which is called education?

Rogers (1951) identified certain characteristics of student-centered teaching which he presented as principles and hypotheses:

1. We cannot teach another person directly; we can only facilitate his learning (389).
2. A person learns significantly only those things which he perceives as being involved in the maintenance of, or enhancement of, the structure of self (389).
3. Experience which, if assimilated, would involve a change in the organization of self tends to be resisted through denial or distortion of symbolization (390).
4. The structure and organization of self appears to become more rigid under threat; to relax its boundaries when completely free from threat. Experience which is perceived as inconsistent with the self can only be assimilated if the current organization of self is relaxed and expanded to include it (390).
5. The educational situation which most effectively promotes significant learning is one in which threat to the self of the learner is reduced to a minimum and differential perception of the field of experience is facilitated (391).

Rogers (1962, p. 420) indicates that teaching is a process in which student authenticity can emerge. He places the creation of such an atmosphere directly in the hands of the teacher who must be free from the facades generally characteristic of the endeavor we call education:

> We would also endeavor to plan the educational program for these individuals so that they would come increasingly to experience empathy and liking others, and that they would find it increasingly easier to be themselves, to be real.

For the teacher who believes that the concept of student-centered teaching has merit theoretically but is not operative because of the limitations imposed by a particular institution, Rogers (1951, p. 396) offers the following:

> . . . every group has some limitations, if only the fact that they meet for a limited rather than an unlimited number of hours per week. It is not the fact that there are limitations, but the attitude, the permissiveness, the freedom which exists within those limitations, which is important.

In describing the interpersonal relationship that facilitates teaching and learning, Rogers (1970b) indicates that it is characterized by realness, prizing, acceptance, trust, and empathic understanding. These characteristics are identical to those which Rogers has described as being characteristic of an effective counseling relationship.

Unlike other approaches to psychological education, student-centered teaching does not rely on pre-planned strategies, techniques, or exercises. It instead relies on the fully developed personhood of the teacher. Effective psychological education occurs because of the student-centered humanness of the teacher and the teacher's ability to naturally and spontaneously communicate this humanness to students in the teaching-learning process. As Pine and Boy (1977) indicate, it is applicable in proportion to the attitudinal commitment of the teacher. It can occur if the teacher has a genuine commitment to be student-centered in all feelings and their behavioral expressions. This demands an evolvement

of being more respectful of others and their rights; more movement toward being psychologically secure; more involvement in values which enrich others; more trustful of human behavior; more openness to experience; and more of an inclination to be initiatory, natural, spontaneous, vibrant, and responsive.

The catalyst for effective student-centered teaching is clearly the *gravitas* of the teacher who is student-centered in both attitude and behavior. It is an approach to psychological education which requires a high level of teacher security since the teacher is psychologically transparent (what is felt is what is said). If the student-centered teacher expects students to be more real, prizing, acceptant, trustful, and empathic with each other, then the teacher must model these behaviors during the teaching-learning process (Boy & Pine, 1982, p. 234).

Rogers (1951, p. 427) further clarifies the attitudinal and behavioral commitments required of the student-centered teacher in the following:

> He creates a classroom climate which respects the integrity of the student, which accepts all aims, opinions, and attitudes as being legitimate expressions of the student's internal frame of reference at that time. He accepts the feelings and emotionalized attitudes which surround any educational or group experience. He accepts himself as being a member of a learning group, rather than an authority. He makes learning resources available, confident that if they meet the needs of the group they will be used. He relies upon the capacity of the individual to sort out truth from untruth, upon the basis of continuing experience. He recognizes that his course, if

> successful, is a beginning in learning, not the end of learning. He relies upon the capacity of the student to assess his progress in terms of the purposes which he has at this time. He has confidence in the fact that, in this atmosphere which he has helped to create, a type of learning takes place which is personally meaningful and which feeds the total self-development of the individual as well as improves his acquaintance with a given field of knowledge.

## SELECTION CRITERIA FOR PSYCHOLOGICAL EDUCATION ACTIVITIES

Regardless of the psychological education approach used, the teacher should be sensitive to appropriate criteria for selecting activities to use with students. The following guidelines, adapted from the recommendations made by Trotzer and Kassera (1973, p. 299-301), should be carefully considered by the teacher who desires to implement psychological education activities in the classroom.

- Select activities on the basis of their efficacy in terms of purpose, relevance, and desired outcome.

  This is the primary consideration. No activity should be attempted because it might be fun, exciting, or produce an emotional high. The impact of the activity should be considered above all else. All too frequently popularity or familiarity with the characteristics and instructions of a particular activity are the basis for selection rather than the why and the wherefore of its use.

- Select activities that are familiar and that are comfortable for you to use.

If the teacher is hesitant, confused, or uncomfortable with an activity, this will be picked up by the students and could cause resistance or failure in its use. Activities which you have experienced should take precedence over those you may have read about or observed. Do not use activities with a student group that you have heard about just to see what will happen. To augment new activities first attempt them under controlled and comfortable conditions where the process and outcome will have little possibility of being disruptive.

- Select activities that are primarily verbal rather than physical.

Physical contact is often the first issue raised against the use of activities with groups and should be guarded against. Most desired outcomes can be attained either by verbal exercises or by nonverbal activities involving a minimum of physical contact. For example, leading by the hand in a trust walk is acceptable, but the extended physical contact of an activity such as body sculpturing is better avoided.

- Select activities which do not require labels or can be labeled with terms which do not carry some type of stigma.

Often the same activity can have many different labels. For example, the statement, "Let's see if you can show us how you reacted in that situation" could be termed psychodrama, sociodrama,

or role playing. However, there is a considerable difference in connotation between the label of psychodrama and the label of role-playing. Activities selected should lend themselves to being explained in everyday language or in rather neutral terms.

- Select activities which are commensurate with the age and maturity level of the students.

The ability of students to comprehend and immerse themselves in an activity without undue tension, stress, or embarrassment is extremely important to the effective use of any activity. The use of puppets to aid third graders in exploring their feelings may be more appropriate and effective than role playing. Eighth graders, however, may feel puppets are childish and may prefer, and gain more from, straight role playing.

- Select activities which are adaptable to the physical setting in which the group is meeting.

If the physical setting does not allow for an activity to be fully experienced or interferes with its being carried out, the activity should be avoided. Using dyads in a small room for a verbal activity requiring high concentration may simply create confusion rather than accomplish a useful purpose. Similarly, activities requiring students to leave the room should be avoided because they may result in loss of control and may create misunderstanding by other students.

- Select activities which allow for maximum student participation.

Some activities may require physical skills or endurance which may be embarrassing or overtaxing to some students. Activities which require some type of physical involvement should always be prefaced with a caution to students and an option of observing rather than participating. Strenuous activities are best avoided.

- Select activities which allow students to control their own involvement.

Avoid activities which force students to do something they are not ready for, cannot do, or are threatened by. Students should be allowed to decide how they will involve themselves in the activity and to what depth they will go. Communication techniques should promote personal freedom, not restrict it.

- Select activities that will result in outcomes you are sure the students and you can handle.

Activities which precipitate or facilitate the expression of strong feelings and emotions are always risky and should be used with extreme caution. If the possibility of loss of control is evident in the use of any activity, it is best avoided. Teachers must always consider their own capabilities and the composition of the group in selecting activities to be used.

- Select activities which can be culminated in the time available.

Do not select activities which cannot be presented, experienced and discussed during the time limits of the group. Simi-

larly, do not begin an activity if it cannot be fully worked through before the group session ends. If an activity has not been completed, it is often better to hold the group over than to allow students to leave with feelings and misunderstandings that have not been resolved.

In the final analysis, the use of psychological education activities is an individual decision which must be made by each teacher in terms of the total framework of the educational process with the needs, sensitivities, autonomy, growth, and personal freedom of students as the paramount criteria for decision making. Teachers should be certain that their own needs are not being met at the expense of the students they serve.

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(b) Rogers, C. R. The interpersonal relationship in the facilitation of learning. In J. T. Hart and T. M. Tomlinson (Eds.). New directions in client-centered therapy. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1970, 468-483.

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# Appendix:

# Resources for Putting Theory Into Practice

from:

## LEARNER CENTERED TEACHING

### A Humanistic View

Gerald J. Pine
Angelo V. Boy

1977

LOVE PUBLISHING COMPANY
Denver, Colorado 80222

1

# Readings

Andrew, Michael A. *Teachers Should Be Human Too.* Washington, D.C.: Association of Teacher Educators, 1972.

A sensible treatment of a topic that often generates rhetoric, this monograph focuses on humanizing teacher education. The author presents the arguments for rethinking teacher skills and processes, the changes this would entail, and some of the results to be expected. It is a thoughtful discussion of the subjective and emotional dimensions of education.

Andrew, Michael D. *Teacher Leadership: A Model for Change.* Washington, D.C.: Association of Teacher Educators, 1974.

An important publication that describes a model for differentiated preparation of teachers in elementary and secondary schools. The model emerges as a framework emphasizing individual autonomy and choice and promotes decision-making and leadership capabilities. The outcome of this multiphased model of career development for teachers is the teacher-leader: a teacher who exerts leadership and opens the way for change in education.

Bash, James H. *Effective Teaching in the Desegregated School.* Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1973. Part of the Phi Delta Kappa Fastback Series No. 32.

This publication features some very good ideas and practical suggestions on teaching in the desegregated school. Content is arranged around the teacher,





teacher-pupil relationships, teacher-teacher relationships, and teacher-administrator relationships.

Blackburn, Jack E., and Powell, W. Conrad. *One at a Time: All at Once: The Creative Teacher's Guide to Individualized Instruction Without Anarchy.* Pacific Palisades, California: Goodyear Publishing Company, 1976.

Practical ideas are offered for implementing individualized instruction. A readable, to-the-point treatment of individualization that ought to be of great value to the classroom teacher.

Brown, George I.; Yeomans, Thomas; and Grizzard, Liles (eds.). *The Live Classroom: Innovations Through Confluent Education and Gestalt.* New York: Viking Press, 1975.

This book is organized for practitioners who want to bring feeling and thinking together in the learning process in order to generate more vitality and better learning in the classroom.

Brown, George I.; Phillips, Mark; and Shapiro, Stewart. *Getting It All Together: Confluent Education.* Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa, 1976.

By combining thinking and feeling, confluent education makes learning more powerful and valuable.

Combs, Arthur W. (ed.). *Perceiving, Behaving and Becoming.* Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1701 K Street, N.W., Washington, D.C., 1962.

This book has become, in our opinion, a classic in existential-humanistic writing dealing with teaching and learning. It contains several chapters written by Carl Rogers, Abraham Maslow, Earl Kelley, and Arthur Combs. The practical implications of their work for classroom teachers are clearly developed.

Corwin, Ronald G., and Edelfelt, Roy A. *Perspectives on Organizations: Viewpoints for Teachers.* Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and Association of Teacher Educators, 1976.

Designed to develop among future and practicing teachers an awareness of what organizations are, how organizations affect them, and how they can deal with organizations.

Cottle, Thomas. *The Voices of School-Educational Issues Through Personal Accounts.* Boston: Little, Brown, 1973.

A personal account of students from different communities and ethnic backgrounds illuminating in a new way issues such as busing, testing, integration, family role, authority, human development.

Dale, Edgar. *The Humane Leader.* Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1974. Part of the Phi Delta Kappa Fastback Series No. 38.

A lively, well-written booklet about how one becomes a humane teacher. The author discusses developing a sense of empathy, humaneness through self-discipline, and humaneness in the classroom.

Galloway, Charles. *Silent Language in the Classroom.* Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa, 1976.

A teacher's face, posture, and intonations may carry more messages than the words used in the classroom.

Glasser, William. *Schools Without Failure.* New York: Harper & Row, 1969.

This book applies Glasser's theories of Reality Therapy to contemporary education. Glasser details the shortcomings of current education and proposes as an important approach to reduce school failure the use of "class meeting." Glasser's approach is widely known. If you have not read this book we recommend that you do so.

Goodlad, John I. *The Dynamics of Educational Change: Toward Responsive Schools.* New York: McGraw Hill, 1975.

Criticism of public schools has become more intense in recent years and some observers despair of enduring, constructive change. This book, based on the premise that schools can become more vital, challenges the rhetoric of despair. Goodlad describes recent educational reform in the United States; analyzes the effectiveness of strategies for change in terms of problems, people, and results; and presents a comprehensive, practical strategy for change.

Gordon, Tom. *Teacher Effectiveness Training.* New York: Peter H. Wyden, 1974.

A detailed description of how the principles of parent effectiveness training can be used in all classrooms, from kindergarten to senior high school. Deals with teacher-student relations, controlling classroom behavior, helping students with problems, and resolving values conflicts.

Greer, Mary, and Rubinstein, Bonnie. *Will the Real Teacher Please Stand Up.* Pacific Palisades, California: Goodyear Publishing Company, 1972.

A book full of personal accounts of teaching children with sections on the community of the classroom, the group as a way of exploring ideas, and "let yourself be seen."

Gross, Beatrice, and Gross, Ronald. *Will It Grow in a Classroom?* New York: Delacorte, 1974.

The best kind of shop talk with teachers discussing their roles, the curriculum, and old and new ways of touching young minds.

Hahn, Robert. *Creative Teachers: Who Wants Them.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1973.

A study of the creative process in secondary school teaching: how it has been stifled and how it might be nurtured.

Hopkins, Lee Bennett, and Arenstein, Misha. *Partners in Learning.* New York: Citation, 1971.

The authors, both experienced teachers, recommend dozens of practical ideas for achieving child-centered classrooms, including ways of grouping children, units of study, handling current and special events, and utilizing audiovisuals, poetry, fiction, art and music.





Jones, Tudor Powell. *Creative Learning in Perspective.* New York: Halsted, 1972.

The emphasis in this book is on clarifying the term "creativity" and placing it in perspective with the outline of the difficulties involved and the atmosphere necessary to make creative teaching and creative learning possible.

Lederman, Janet. *Anger and the Rocking Chair: Gestalt Awareness with Children.* New York: Viking Press, 1969.

A vivid, clear, and honest account of what can be done to provide real education for students in the classroom by getting in touch with their feelings.

Lippitt, Peggy. *Students Teach Students.* Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa, 1974.

Older children helping younger ones learn is not a new idea, but Lippitt gives practical advice on how to use the cross-age helping program in any classroom.

Otty, Nicholas. *Learner Teachers.* New York: Penguin, 1972.

A highly personal diary, both intimate and humorous, of the first probationary year. A provocative case study for those who hope to reform teacher training.

Postman, Neil, and Weingartner, Charles. *Teaching as a Subversive Activity.* New York: Delta, 1969.

A challenging book that goes beyond the familiar criticisms and indictments of American eduction to propose basic ways of liberating both teachers and students for humanistic learning.

Purkey, William W. *Self Concept and School Achievement.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1970.

This book focuses on how the self-concept develops in social interaction and what happens to it in school. It suggests ways for teachers to reinforce positive and realistic self-concepts in students.

Robert, Marc. *Loneliness in the Schools (What to Do About It).* Niles, Illinois: Argus Communications, 1974.

We have discussed how lonely teaching and learning can be. This book addresses the issue of loneliness in a forthright and helpful way. Many valuable suggestions are presented.

Rogers, Carl R. *Freedom to Learn.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1969.

We believe that this is one of the most important books written on humanistic education and learner-centered teaching. The theme of the book is that students can be trusted to learn and enjoy learning when a facilitative person can set up an attitudinal and concrete environment that encourages responsible participation in selection of goals and ways of reaching them.

Ruchlis, Cy, and Sharefkin, Belle. *Reality-Centered Learning.* New York: Citation Press, 1975.

Reality-centered education focuses on subjects students consider real. This book discusses how the environment of the school and community can be brought into the school curriculum.

Schmuck, Richard A., and Schmuck, Patricia A. *A Humanistic Psychology of Education — Making the School Everybody's House.* Palo Alto, California: National Press Books, 1974.

This book deals with various strategies for humanizing our schools.

Silberman, Melvin L.; Allender, Jerome S.; and Yanoff, Jay M. *The Psychology of Open Teaching and Learning: An Inquiry Approach.* Boston: Little, Brown Company, 1972.

A problem-oriented investigation of teaching and learning to aid teachers in making personal decisions about their classrooms, with suggested materials and activities.

*The Teacher in 1984.* Futurist Working Papers. Gresham Teacher Challenge Conference. Durham, New Hampshire: New England Program in Teacher Education, 1972.

A collection of papers written by such educational leaders as Dwight Allen, John Bremer, Francis Keppel, Stephen Bailey, and John Brademas, focusing on future directions and changes in teaching and teacher education required for creating a more humane world.

Torrance, E. Paul, and Pansy, J. *Is Creativity Teachable?* Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1973. Part of the Phi Delta Kappa Fastback Series No. 20.

The booklet summarizes the results of a survey of 142 experiments designed to provide information about the teachability of creativity in elementary and secondary schools. It describes in some detail several teaching procedures used to help students think creatively.

Vallett, Robert E. *Humanistic Education.* St. Louis: C. V. Mosby Company, 1977.

Vallett's book describes public and private school humanistic-affective education programs, examines commercial materials, and includes curriculum guides and activities. The focus is on five levels of affective education for elementary and secondary students: understanding human needs; expressing human feelings; self-awareness and control; becoming aware of human values; and developing social and personal maturity.



# 2

# Books

Berger, Evelyn, and Winters, Bonnie A. *Social Studies in the Open Classroom: A Practical Guide.* New York: Teachers College Press, 1973.

Specific and practical suggestions on how social studies can be an integral part of the open classroom. The focus is on intermediate and elementary grades.

Chernow, Fred B., and Genkin, Harold. *Teaching and Administering the High School Alternative Education Program.* New York: Parker Publishing Company, 1975.

A practical book that discusses nitty-gritty topics relating to initiating and organizing an alternative educational program.

Cornett, Joe D., and Askins, Billy E. *Open School Evaluation System.* Austin, Texas: Learning Concepts, 1976.

The *Open School Evaluation System* contains a manual and three inventories: *Inventory of School Openness* (ISO), *Open School Teacher Attitude Scale* (OSTAS), and *Open School Parental Attitude Scale* (OSPAS). The manual contains instructions for administering and scoring the inventories, as well as suggestions for reporting results. Developed for administrators, program staff, and internal or external evaluators, the system serves three major functions: a guide or model for curriculum development, a basis for continual program monitoring, and a comprehensive means of evaluation.

DeTurk, Philip H. *P.S. 2001: The Story of the Pasadena Alternative School.* Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1974. Part of the Phi Delta Kappa Fastback Series.

A clearly written personal account of the birth and life of a free school.

Fantini, Mario D. *Public Schools of Choice: A Plan for the Reform of American Education.* New York: Simon and Schuster, 1973.

An excellent introduction to and exposition of alternatives in public education by a man who is generally recognized as one of the most effective and knowledgeable leaders in alternative schooling.

Fantini, Mario D. *Alternative Education: A Sourcebook for Parents, Teachers, Students, and Administrators.* New York: Doubleday, Anchor Press, 1976.

A valuable guide for anyone interested in options for public schools.

Glatthorn, Allan A. *Alternatives in Education: Schools and Programs.* New York: Dodd, Mead, and Company, 1975.

This book is very practical in its approach, providing suggestions and ideas for planning curriculum, staffing, facilities, and evaluations for all kinds of alternative schools and programs.

Goodlad, John I., et al. *The Conventional and the Alternative in Education.* Berkeley, California: McCutchan, 1975.

Six contributing authors develop a scholarly perspective toward and prospects for alternative educational programs.

Hertzberg, Alvin, and Stone, Edward. *Schools are for Children: An American Approach to American Education.* New York: Schocken Books, 1971.

A comprehensive account of how the open classroom works, and the theory behind it, written by two American elementary-school principals.

*Matters of Choice: A Ford Foundation Report on Alternative Schools.* New York: Ford Foundation, 1974.

This report reviews what the Ford Foundation has learned in funding alternatives in education.

Morton, Richard J., and Morton, Jane. *Innovation Without Renovation in the Elementary School.* New York: Citation Press, 1974.

The authors give numerous practical suggestions for opening up a school building built for teacher-centered instruction in self-contained classrooms. They assert that innovative programs can be put into effect in most schools with walls.

National School Boards Association. *Alternative Schools.* NSBA Research Report 1976-3. Evanston, Illinois: National School Boards Association, 1976.

A clearly written report of practical value to school administrators, teachers, school board members, and people in the community. It covers such topics as: What good to alternatives do? What problems do alternatives create? How much do alternative schools cost? How are students matched with options? How are alternatives evaluated? How are staff selected and trained? How can planning processes be initiated?





Parker, John L. *The Liveliest Seminar in Town.* Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1972. Part of the Phi Delta Kappa Fastback Series, No. 27.

A personal account of how the author and several friends, while in Harvard Graduate School, moved from talk about planning an innovative high-school program to actually implementing plans and launching an exciting new high school — John Adams High School in Portland, Oregon.

Perrone, Vito. *Open Education: Promise and Problems.* Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1972. Part of the Phi Delta Kappa Fastback Series, No. 3.

This booklet, written by a well-known leader in open education, focuses on open education in the elementary school. The author discusses what open education is, materials and equipment, use of human resources, reading, and evaluation.

Pflum, John. *Open Education: For Me?* Washington, D.C.: Acropolis, 1974.

A practical down-to-earth guide for teachers, demonstrating that freedom with responsibility can make open education work. It discusses how to organize and schedule programs, how to integrate teachers with special skills, and includes lists of kits and materials.

Postman, Neil, and Weingartner, Charles. *How to Recognize a Good School.* Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa, 1973.

What is school? What is a good school? The authors distinguish between functions and conventions of school, pinpointing conventions that best promote educationally valuable experiences.

Riordan, Robert C. *Alternative Schools in Action.* Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1972. Part of the Phi Delta Kappa Fastback Series No. 11.

The author describes what goes on inside two public alternative high schools; indicates some of the successes, problems, and patterns of development that recur in many alternative schools, and suggests some of the tasks that must be accomplished if alternative schools are to have a deeper and more lasting impact than previous educational fads.

Roberts, Arthur D. (ed.). *Educational Innovation: Alternatives in Curriculum and Instruction.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1975.

This book is divided into three parts. Part one looks at some major reforms in education such as Montessori and "schools without walls" and includes suggestions for implementing these changes. Part two talks about specific curriculum alternatives in English, social studies, science, reading, etc. Part three focuses on materials and staff development — simulation games, instructional uses of junk, and differentiated staffing.

Rounds, Susan. *Teaching the Young Child: A Handbook of Open Classroom Practice.* New York: Agathon Press, 1975.

A practical, detailed guide to organizing a stimulating and workable open classroom for kindergartens and first grades. Topics covered include reading readiness, "You and Your Body", cooking in the classroom, and things to make for your room.

Smith, Vernon. *Alternative Schools: The Development of Options in Public Education.* Lincoln, Nebraska: Professional Educators Publications, 1975.

An accurate portrayal of the why and how of alternatives in education. This book relates the alternative schools movement to the issues of the more conventional educational program. It provides busy people with understandings on which to base decisions concerning the development of alternative schools.

Smith, Vernon; Barr, Robert; and Burke, Daniel. *Alternatives in Education: Freedom to Choose.* Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa, 1976.

This book explores links between the development of options in education and the future of education and society. It traces the options available in the past 200 years and specifically examines the development of alternatives from 1965 to 1975. After comprehensively viewing the options available and emerging, the authors give perspectives on choice in public education.

Smith, Vernon; Burke, Daniel, & Barr, Robert. *Optional Alternative Schools.* Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1974. Part of the Phi Delta Kappa Fastback Series No. 42.

This booklet describes types of alternative public schools, their impacts, and problems.

Terrence, E. D. *An Organizational Explanation of the Failure of Alternative Schools.* Palo Alto: Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, 1975.

Explores a three-stage developmental sequence for alternative schools.

Weinstock, Ruth. *The Greening of the High School.* New York: Educational Facilities Laboratory, 1973.

A sparkling and provocative report on changes and alternatives in high school education. It discusses the need for change in high schools and presents nonconforming models of school programs and settings and how they came to be.



# 3

# Classroom Exercises and Activities



Baughman, Dale. *Baughman's Handbook of Humor in Education.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1974.

We all need to laugh; indeed, laughter may be one of the best means to humanize schools. Read Baughm's book on how, when, and where to use humor in education. His selection of educational humor is a gold mine of material.

Brown, George. *Human Teaching for Human Learning: An Introduction to Confluent Education.* New York: The Viking Press, 1971.

This book describes a Ford Foundation project on affective education. Many examples of affective techniques that have been used in the classroom that are given. A series of personal commentaries by teachers involved in the project is included. There are numerous practical ideas for teachers who wish to implement confluent education.

Canfield, Jack, and Wells, Harold C. *100 Ways to Enhance Self Concept in the Classroom.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1976.

An excellent resource of one hundred practical and concrete ways to enhance students' self-concepts, this book offers a variety of exercises and approaches that can be adapted to unique classroom situations and needs.

Casteel, J. Doyle and Stahl, Robert J. *Value Clarification in the Classroom: A Primer.* Pacific Palisades, California: Goodyear, 1975.

A comprehensive study of values in the secondary classroom that encourages the development of values education as an integral part of academic study. Thirty-nine specific values lessons are included.

Curwin, Richard. *Discovering Your Teaching Self: Humanistic Approaches to Effective Teaching*. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1976.

This text can be used by individuals, pairs, or small or large groups. The activities are designed to develop self-awareness and consciousness toward students in the classroom.

Flynn, Elizabeth W., and LaFaso, John F. *Designs in Affective Education*. New York: Paulist, 1974.

This book contains 126 teaching strategies on themes of communication, freedom, happiness, life, peace, and love. Each strategy is categorized by traditional high school courses, is flexible as to time and content, and may be used in a variety of settings.

Fromkin, Howard L., and Sherwood, John J. (eds.). *Intergroup and Minority Relations: An Experiential Handbook*. La Jolla, California: University Associates, 1975.

An important collection of activities and exercises that facilitate understanding and communication in race relations, community relations, and groups in conflict.

Galbraith, Ronald E., and Jones, Thomas M. *Moral Reasoning: A Teaching Handbook for Adopting Kohlberg to the Classroom*. Anoka, Minnesota: Greenhaven, 1976.

The authors present a teaching process for stimulating elementary and secondary classroom discussion on social and moral problems. The book is based on Lawrence Kohlberg's theory of moral reasoning and development.

Hall, Robert T., and Davis, John U. *Moral Education in Theory and Practice*. Buffalo, New York: Prometheus, 1975.

This book suggests ways the theories of moral education and values clarification can be translated into practical classroom activities, and shows the use of case studies and simulation games.

Hawley, Robert C. *Value Exploration Through Role Playing*. New York: Hart, 1974.

A description of specific role-play techniques applicable in junior and senior high schools. The book gives 18 formats for role-playing and discusses how this technique can be applied in the teaching of subject matter, the development of moral judgment, and decision making.

Hawley, R. C., and Hawley, I. L. *A Handbook of Personal Growth Activities for Classroom Use*. Amherst, Massachusetts: Educational Research Associates, 1972.

The authors describe personal growth as "striving towards maturation" characterized by self-reliance and self-actualization. They offer a variety of activities that can be used in the classroom to promote personal growth.

Hawley, R. C.; Simon, Sidney B.; and Britton, D. D. *Composition for Personal [illegible]: Values Clarification Through Writing*. New York: Hart, 1973.





A practical handbook on the teaching of values through student writing. Focuses on self-awareness, interpersonal relations, personal growth, and the formation of identity.

Hendricks, Gay. *The Centering Book*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1976.

A collection of awareness activities for children, parents, and teachers.

Hopson, Barrie, and Hough, Patricia. *Exercises in Personal and Career Development*. New York: APS Publications, Inc., 1973.

This book provides secondary teachers with a group of practical exercises in personal and career development. Exercises are presented in a concise format. Each exercise has an outline that includes an objective, suitability group, time needed, size of group, recommended help or helpers required, materials needed, and a description of the exercise.

Howe, Leland W., and Howe, Mary Martha. *Personalizing Education: Values Clarification and Beyond*. New York: Hart, 1975.

This book contains hundreds of specific suggestions for classroom activities touching upon all subject fields, plus projects and activities in goal development, values awareness, personal relationships, and the solving of personal problems.

Hunter, Elizabeth. *Encounter in the Classroom*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1972.

A lucid presentation of how group process and encounter-type activities have been and can be used in the classroom. It reflects National Training Laboratories concepts of group interaction. A readable, practical, and provocative book with concrete examples of facilitative activities and exercises that can be used to enhance self-concept.

Mattox, Beverly A. *Getting It Together*. San Diego, California: Pennant, 1975.

The author describes 45 specific classroom exercises in moral education, applicable from first grade through high school and discusses ways of using moral education in the classroom.

Morris, Kenneth T., & Cinnamon, Kenneth M. *A Handbook of Nonverbal Group Exercises*. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1975.

This book includes 160 exercises and 85 exercise variations.

Poppen, William A. "Games for Guidance," *Guidance Strategies and Techniques*. Denver, Colorado: Love Publishing Company, 1975.

An article presenting games that can be used in the classroom to humanize education.

Reichert, Richard. *Self Awareness Through Group Dynamics*. Dayton, Ohio: Pflaum, 1970.

The author describes twelve group experiences for classroom investigation of values, attitudes, freedom and responsibility, respect, trust, prejudice, and

male-female conflict. Each lesson plan includes definitions, the problems involved, exercises for group experience, and discussion subjects.

Schrank, Jeffrey. *Teaching Human Beings: 101 Subversive Activities for the Classroom.* Boston: Beacon Press, 1973.

Designed to make the best possible use of lively materials to get students to think about themselves and their society. Activities include simulation games, group encounters, and the use of books and films.

Simon, Sidney B.; Howe, Leland H.; and Kirschenbaum, H. *Values Clarification: A Handbook of Practical Strategies for Teachers and Students.* New York: Hart Publishing Company, 1972.

This clearly written book describes seventy-nine classroom exercises designed to help students clarify their values. Several examples of how each exercise can be used are given.

Stanford, Gene, and Roark, Albert E. *Human Interaction in Education.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1974.

A valuable book for the classroom teacher. The authors provide a good collection of process-oriented interaction activities that are based on experiential learning principles.

Swift, Marshall S., and Spivack, George. *Alternative Teaching Strategies: Helping Behaviorally Troubled Children Achieve.* Champaign, Illinois: Research Press, 1975.

This book covers such topics as the inattentive child, intellectual dependency, the impatient child, and other children with learning problems. Suggested activities encourage promoting relevant talk, increasing initiative, coping with negative feelings and actions, and fostering self-esteem.

Thayer, Louis (ed.). *Affective Education: Strategies for Experiential Learning.* La Jolla, California: University Associates, Inc., 1976.

This handbook describes fifty structural experiences designed to strengthen the affective components of learning. Each activity has a standard format that includes the goals, group size, time required, physical setting, materials, step by step process, variations, and notes. All the activities were designed by teachers who were involved in humanizing their teaching-learning approaches.

Thompson, Charles L., and Poppen, William A. *For Those Who Care: Ways of Relating to Youth.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1972.

This book focuses on how to use games to humanize education. An excellent source of practical group games.

Weber, Kenneth J. *Yes, They Can! A Practical Guide for Teaching the Adolescent Slower Learner.* London: Methuen, 1974.

A collection of practical, creative activities that can bring the slow learner into full participation in the learning process.





Windley, Charles. *Teaching and Learning with Magic.* Washington, D.C.: Acropolis, 1976.

Written by a magician, this book explains how to set up a Magic Learning Center and discusses sixty-five tricks and projects to facilitate the learning of science, math perception, and creativity.

4

# Curricula and Training Programs

## ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION PROGRAM

Alschuler, A.; Tabor, D.; and McIntyre, J. *Teaching Achievement Motivation.* Middletown, Connecticut: Education Ventures, Inc., 1970.

This curriculum focuses on an individual's strengths and helps to develop higher levels of motivation to achieve, personal resources, and success experiences through individual discovery and group reinforcement. Personal goals, values, and conflict of values are studied in the context of the individual's strengths.

## BECOMING: A COURSE IN HUMAN RELATIONS

Cromwell, C. R.; Ohs, W.; Roark, A. E.; and Stanford, G. *Becoming: A Course in Human Relations.* New York: J. B. Lippincott, 1975.

An activity-centered course for high-school students consisting of three modules. Module 1, Relating, is addressed to a group building, distinguishing between thoughts and feelings, and teaching listening skills. Module 2, Interaction, focuses on developing skills in understanding and working with others. Module 3, Individuality, emphasizes the stereotyping process, values clarification, and the role of sexuality in interpersonal relations.

## C-GROUPS

Dinkmeyer, D. C., and Carlson, J. *Consulting: Facilitating Human Potential and Change Processes.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1972.





This approach offers a concrete model for training teachers in humanistic approaches through group process. It is labeled C-Group because so many of its components begin with the letter C — Collaboration, Consultation, Clarification, Confidential, Confrontation, Communication, Concern, and Commitment.

## CLASSROOM MEETINGS

Glasser, William. *Schools Without Failure.* New York: Harper and Row, 1969.

Glasser sees the major problem of the schools as the problem of failure. He proposes the use of the class, led by the teacher, as a counseling group, that daily spends time developing the social responsibility necessary to solve behavioral and educational problems within the class, so that outside help is rarely needed. His concept of "the classroom meeting" has been implemented in classrooms all over the country and is one of the most prominent and well-known approaches to psychological education.

## CURRICULUM OF CONCERNS

Borton, Terry. *Reach, Touch, and Teach.* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970.

Terry Borton has designed and implemented in the Philadelphia public schools the *What-So What-Now What* system of learning. *What* connotes sensing a new stimulus or experience. *So What* is the transforming of the stimulus into some kind of meaning for the individual. *Now What* is the acting function that rehearses possible actions and picks one to put into the world as an overt response. The program focuses on teaching students how to handle their concerns and feelings, how to understand and be responsive to others around them; and provides a means for them to act in constructive and effective ways in their interpersonal relationships.

## CURRICULUM OF INTENTIONALITY AND HUMAN RELATIONS

Ivey, A., and Alschuler, A. (eds.). *Psychological Education.* A Special Issue of the Personnel and Guidance Journal, 51 (May 1973).

The central objective of this curriculum is the development of the intentional individual — a person who has a sense of capability, who can generate behaviors in a given situation, and who can respond to changing life situations so he looks forward to longer-term goals. Students are taught varieties of selective attending to human relations and are encouraged to develop units in human relations. Teachers learn a number of ways to teach important concepts of human relations in conjunction with regular academic work. Micro teaching provides a framework where complex human-relations behaviors are considered and taught. This curriculum was developed by Al Ivey at the University of Massachusetts.

## DECIDING

Gelatt, H. B.; Varenhorst, Barbara; and Carey, Richard. *Deciding.* Princeton, New Jersey: College Entrance Examination Board, 1972.

This is a three-part course of study on decision-making, showing how values, information, and strategy all play a part in making decisions about life and personal problems. It includes thirty-two exercises.

## DELIBERATE PSYCHOLOGICAL EDUCATION

Mosher, R., and Sprinthall, N. "Psychological Education: A Means to Promote Personal Development Through Adolescence," *The Counseling Psychologist*, 2 (1971), pp. 3-82.

Mosher and Sprinthall have developed a curriculum consisting of systematic educational experiences designed to directly affect the personal development of adolescents. The curriculum draws on developmental, counseling, and educational psychology and the humanities. It is conceptualized as a series of coordinated courses focusing on various stages of the human life-cycle. Adolescents study the principles of early childhood development, child development and care, middle childhood, adolescence, interpersonal relations and marriage, and vocational and occupational decision making. A significant part of the curriculum is experiential.

## DIMENSIONS OF PERSONALITY

Linbacher, W. *Dimensions of Personality*. Dayton, Ohio: George Pflaum, 1969.

This graded program in affective education makes it possible for teachers to give systematic attention to the life of the child. The program is group-centered, activity-oriented, and seeks to involve parents in considering the affective education of the child. This is a commercially developed program for all six grades at the elementary level and is available from Pflaum/Standard, Dayton, Ohio.

## DUSO

Dinkmeyer, Don. *DUSO* (Developing Understanding of Self and Others) *Manual*. Circle Pines, Minnesota: American Guidance Services, 1970.

Developing Understanding of Self and Others consists of kits of activities and materials designed by Don Dinkmeyer to facilitate the social and emotional development of children (K-4). The DUSO activities make extensive use of listening, inquiry, and discussion approaches to learning. The programs are based on the premise that every child, in the process of growing up, is confronted with normal developmental problems and that the classroom teacher can help children with these problems. Kits are available from the American Guidance Services, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

## EMOTIONAL EDUCATION

Ellis, Albert, *Emotional Education*. New York: Julian Press, 1972.

Derived from rational-emotive therapy, the Emotional Education program teaches children concepts of how people think, feel, and behave. This is accomplished with regular "lessons" in emotional education, through role playing





demonstrations, and in the course of actual problems that may arise in the classroom during the day. The Emotional Education program is designed for normal children and is implemented in *The Living School* in New York City.

## HUMAN DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

Bessell, H., and Palomares, U. *Methods in Human Development*. La Mesa, California: Human Development Training Institute, 1973.

The Human Development Program is designed to promote healthy emotional growth in children and facilitate learning in the affective domain especially in three areas of emotional development: self-understanding (awareness), self-confidence (mastery), and human relations (social interaction). The major strategy is to employ cumulative, sequential activities on a regular basis. The vehicle is the Magic Circle (8-12 members) which meets for 25-50 minutes each session. The program is available for preschool and K-6 levels with general materials available and adaptable for secondary school levels.

## HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

Carkhuff, Robert R. *The Development of Human Resources*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1971.

Carkhuff, Robert R. *Helping and Human Relations*, Vols. I and II. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1969.

This program is built on a skills model and emphasizes skills acquisition. Behavioral skills are defined as behaviors that are operational, repeatable, trainable, and predictable. Helping, interpersonal problem solving, program development, behavior modification, training, physical research and evaluation, and management skills are taught in this program.

## HUMANISTIC EDUCATION

Weinstein, G., and Fantini, M. *Toward Humanistic Education*. New York: Praeger, 1970.

This is a curriculum approach that focuses on three important concerns of students: self-image, disconnectedness (how one fits or does not fit into his world or the whole scheme of things), and control over one's life. Teachers learn how to functionally relate and integrate these intrinsic concerns and feelings to the curriculum and to their teaching styles.

## INFLUENCING HUMAN INTERACTION

Kagan, Norman. *Influencing Human Interaction*. Washington, D.C.: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1976.

This curriculum is designed to help counselors, teachers, and administrators develop effective communication skills. It focuses on skill in the facilitation of interpersonal "straight" communication and an increased awareness of one's own interpersonal style.

## THE INTERACTIVE PROCESS OF EDUCATION

Gorman, A. H. *Teachers and Learners: The Interactive Process in Education.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1974.

Gorman offers an approach in which the emphasis is on developing group-process skills. In the group-process approach, strong multi-way conversation about content and personal concerns is encouraged with the teacher acting as moderator, guide, and observer. Students not only learn subject matter, but also learn about themselves; how they react to each other, to subject matter, and to the world as a whole. Activities and exercises used in this approach are primarily derived from the National Training Laboratories. Value clarification and Gordon's communication-effectiveness training are also used.

## TOWARD AFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT

Dupont, H.; Gardner, O. S.; and Brody, D. S. *TAD (Toward Affective Development).* Circle Pines, Minnesota: American Guidance Services, 1972.

This program is activity-centered and consists of lessons, activities, and materials designed to stimulate psychological and affective development. Students are encouraged to develop realistic self-images, to consider their unique characteristics and aspirations, and to use imagination and think creatively. A major emphasis is placed on peer-group interaction. For grades 3 through 6, the program is available from American Guidance Services, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

## MY FRIENDS AND ME

Davis, Duane E. *My Friends and Me.* Circle Pines, Minnesota: American Guidance Services, 1977.

A program of group activities and materials designed to help teachers and parents assist the healthy personal and social development of young children. The FRIENDS program includes 190 activities for groups of children in preschool and day care settings and 38 related family activities that invite the children's parents or caretakers to extend insights gained at school. Activities are sequenced in spiral order around the themes of personal identity, social skills, and understanding.

## TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS TRAINING

Gordon, Thomas. *Teacher Effectiveness Training.* New York: Wyden, 1974.

This program incorporates the principle of Parent Effectiveness Training and specifically teaches classroom teachers: 1) non-evaluative skills for helping students solve their own problems, 2) a method for involving a teacher and a student in the process of resolving their own conflicts, 3) a method for getting a class to work out a contract with the teacher that defines rules of classroom behavior, and 4) methods for conducting effective group counseling with troubled or underachieving students.



# 5

# Organizations



**Alternatives Foundation**
1526 Gravenstein Highway
North Sebastopol, California 97452

An excellent resource for directories of free schools and personal growth/social-change workshops.

**Associates for Human Resources**
P. O. Box 727
Concord, Massachusetts 01742

AHR offers a variety of workshops for counselors, classroom teachers, and school administrators. Personal growth, organizational development, change processes, humanistic education, Gestalt approaches, and other human-development skills workshops are available. AHR offers consulting services to schools that wish to humanize the classroom.

**Association for Humanistic Education**
West Georgia State College
Carrollton, Georgia 30117

This group offers workshops, conferences, and publications for teachers, administrators, counselors, and psychologists interested in humanistic education.

**Association for Humanistic Education and Development**
1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20009

A division of the American Personnel and Guidance Association, this organization publishes *The Humanist Educator*, a quarterly journal of articles

dealing with both the philosophical and practical aspects of humanistic education. AHEAD is committed to the encouragement and furtherance of humanistic ideas and practices in education and in all helping services concerned with human development.

**Association for Humanistic Psychology**
416 Hoffman Street
San Francisco, California 94114

This association publishes the *Journal of Humanistic Psychology*, an important periodical that contains articles by the leading humanistic psychologists. The annual conference of the Association is a "must" experience.

**The Center for Humanistic Education**
University of Massachusetts
Amherst, Massachusetts 01002
(Gerald Weinstein, Director)

The Center offers graduate and undergraduate courses in Education of the Self, Value Clarification, Humanistic Curriculum Development, Theory of Psychological Education, Race Relations, and Strength Training.

**Center for New Schools**
59 East Van Buren
Chicago, Illinois 60605

CNS assists parents, students, and educators interested in setting up alternative schools. One of the resources they offer is the CBL Box, full of information on community-based learning. Their publications include titles such as *Decision-Making in Alternative Secondary Schools, Planning for Change*, and *Strengthening Alternative Schools*.

**Development and Research in Confluent Education**
Department of Education
University of California
Santa Barbara, California 93106
(George I. Brown, Director)

These people are interested in developing curriculum and training teachers in the area of confluent education. Their aim is to integrate the knowledge and activities of the human-potential movement with the traditional classroom curriculum.

**Educational Development Center**
55 Chapel Street
Newton, Massachusetts 02158

EDC is a non-profit organization specializing in development of curriculum materials and teacher training programs. They are involved in many humanistic projects.

**Educator Training Center**
2140 West Olympic Boulevard
Los Angeles, California 90006





Founded by William Glasser, the Center conducts in-service training programs all over the country, helping to create "schools without failure." The principles of reality therapy are translated into practical staff development workshops aimed at building the self-worth of students through effective communication and motivation.

**Effectiveness Training Associates**
110 East Euclid
Pasadena, California 91101

Under the direction of Thomas Gordon, ETA is an organization whose object is to help people develop effective human relationships in order to fulfill their own potentials, help others fulfill their potentials, and resolve conflicts in a spirit of mutual respect. It prepares people to lead Parent Effectiveness Training, Teacher Effectiveness Training, and Leader Effectiveness Training groups.

**Esalen Institute**
1776 Union Street
San Francisco, California 94123

EI is the first Growth Center established in America. It always has several top-flight workshops for educators in humanistic and confluent education.

**Human Development Training Institute**
7574 University Avenue
La Mesa, California 92041

The Institute trains teachers in the theory and practice of the Magic Circle approach. Teachers learn to use cumulative; sequential activities on a daily basis to facilitate learning in the affective domain, especially in three areas of emotional development: awareness, self confidence, and human relations.

**International Consortium for Options in Public Education**
Center for Options in Education
School of Education
Indiana University
Bloomington, Indiana 47401

A graduate program training teachers for work in alternative schools.

**The National Alternative Schools Project**
School of Education
University of Massachusetts
Amherst, Massachusetts 01002

The Project offers assistance to those interested in or involved with alternatives.

**New England Center for Personal and Organizational Development**
Box 575
Amherst, Massachusetts 01002

The Center's main emphasis is on providing workshops in humanistic education.

**New England Program in Teacher Education**
Pettee Brook Offices
Durham, New Hampshire 03824

A New England alternative to existing Research and Development Centers and Training Institutions. It develops projects and offers services in identified needs areas and helps to build expertise among teachers at the local level. It sponsors the New England Information Center which provides access to existing files of resource persons, programs, products, information packets, and computerized information systems.

**NTL Institute of Applied Behavioral Science**
1201 - 16th Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

Conducts seminars for educators at its many centers around the country. Seminars include those in Student Involvement in Learning, Change Accents in Education and Educational Leadership, as well as the Basic and Advanced Labs in Personal Growth.

**Racism and Sexism Resource Center for Educators**
1841 Broadway
Room 300
New York, New York 10023

Council on Interracial Books for Children and the Foundation for Change.

**Resource Center on Sex Roles in Education**
1201 - 16th Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

The purpose of this organization is to help eliminate sexism in education through consultation, workshops, training programs, research, and publications.





# Tapes



The following tapes are available from:

Audio-Seminars in Education
Sigma Information, Inc.
545 Cedar Lane
Teaneck, New Jersey 07666

**Accountability From a Humanistic Perspective**
by I. David Welch

A broadly ranging commentary that offers invaluable observations and solid practicality in dealing with the issue of accountability in education. An informative and thought-provoking seminar on tape.

3 one-hour tapes:

1. Humanistic accountability.
2. Side 1: The teacher as a professional.
   Side 2: How important is the concept of intelligence to teachers?
3. Side 1: Apollo, Dionysus, and the cult of efficiency.
   Side 2: Accountability and the effective helper.

**The Affective Development of Children and Teachers in School**
by Edward W. Schultz

An exploration of the affective facets of the school situation, and their potential for both children and teachers. The author provides guidelines for affective communication, and for the development and evaluation of affective curricula. This series of talks is of unusual interest to those working with children.

3 one-hour tapes;
1. Guidelines for affective communication.
2. A matrix for developing affective curriculum.
3. Program development and evaluation considerations for affective education.

**Affective Learning in Elementary and Early Childhood Education**
by Kevin J. Swick

These tapes present an exhaustive exploration of a crucial aspect of elementary and early childhood education. The series is superbly organized and provides the teacher with viable methods and means of relating to pupils, parents, and staff in the context of affective learning.

3 one-hour tapes:
1. Rationale and meanings.
2. Teacher behaviors for meeting needs of children.
3. Relating and responding to staff, parents, and children.

**Environmental Forces Affecting the Quality of Education of Black Children**
by George Henderson

This series offers an intensive examination of environmental forces affecting the education of black children. Historical insights are combined with thorough analyses of the evolution and implications of the current situation.

12 one-hour tapes;
1. The urban plantation: A discussion of historical conditions that still plague blacks.
2. Health: A look at health conditions that affect education.
3. Employment: A look at unemployment and underemployment in black communities.
4. Housing: A discussion of housing segregation, welfare, and the black matriarchy.
5. Crime: Development and effect of juvenile delinquency and adult crimes.
6. The importance of color: The importance of "Negro" and "Black"; and a discussion of Black Nationalism.
7. From slum to slum: Effects of environmental forces on slum children.
8. From slum to suburb: A discussion of factors that resulted in one black escaping poverty.
9. When schools fail: Analysis of lower-class children in middle-class schools.
10. Preparing the community-at-large for desegregation: Strategies and techniques for designing and implementing school desegregation.
11. From desegregation to integration: Ways administrators and teachers can make desegregation succeed.
12. Beyond integration: Human relations concerns for educators.

**Humanistic Teaching**
by I. David Welch

A carefully constructed analysis and complimentary methodology are presented here. The personal factors that constitute and characterize the teacher's





composite functioning are discussed in depth. Welch also offers a philosophical approach to the process of education and applies this logically developed philosophy to everyday classroom interaction. An exciting, utilitarian series.

6 one-hour tapes:
1. Becoming an effective teacher.
2. Teaching as fostering healthy personality development.
3. Side 1: The person of the teacher.
   Side 2: Encounter with a master teacher.
4. Teaching as fostering personal exploration and discovering of meaning.
5. Side 1: The problems approach to teaching.
   Side 2: A humanistic approach to discipline.
6. Side 1: The goals of education.
   Side 2: Some laws of change.

**Human Relations in Education**
by George Henderson

An in-depth series on the meaning and modes of human relations in education. An incisive analysis of the gamut of influences affecting the development and implementation of a theory of human relations.

6 one-hour tapes:
1. Introduction — values clarification.
2. The helping relationship.
3. Group dynamics in the classroom.
4. Workshops.
5. Human relations and educational technology.
6. Evaluation and research.

**Self-Actualization**
by Robert E. Valett

A practical and in-depth guide to the challenging process of self-actualization, presented in a lucid manner. This series is designed to be used as a professional tool by the listener and provides thoroughly detailed techniques to implement in a self-actualization process.

6 one-hour tapes:
1. The process of self-actualization.
2. Models of self-actualizing persons.
3. Self and social actualization.
4. Self-relaxation.
5. Active meditation.
6. Psycho-social synthesis.

**Sexism in Education**
by Myra and David Sadker

This discussion explores the sex biases in education that limit the options of children of both sexes. The authors explore the negative impact of a male-oriented society on females (leading to a loss of academic ability and self-esteem as they progress through school), and the consequences of sexism in higher education.

3 one-hour tapes:
1. Sexism in the elementary schools.
2. Sexism in the high schools.
3. Sexism in higher education.

**The Use and Preparation of Classroom Scenarios Emphasizing the Use of Action, Feeling, and Emotion in the Teaching-Learning Process**
by Robert William McColl

A "grassroots" approach is taken in this practical series. Procedures are presented in a lucid manner that makes them easy to adapt for classroom use. This is a good tool for the classroom teacher who has had little experience with creative role-playing, as well as for the experienced teacher interested in understanding and achieving the subtler points of scenario use and preparation in the classroom.

3 one-hour tapes:
1. Side 1: Introduction to scenarios and role-playing "games", their use, and problems to be aware of.
   Side 2: Preparation of a scenario.
2. Examples of two scenarios (proxemics and diffusion) with an emphasis on conflict.





# Films



**From MEDIA FIVE**
110 North Cole Avenue, Hollywood, California 90038

*Reality Therapy — Dealing with Discipline Problems*

Dr. William Glasser's Reality Therapy is shown in live-action sequences applied to familar elementary school discipline problems.

*Transactional Analysis — The Okay Classroom*

Dr. Thomas Harris' *I'm Okay, You're Okay* concepts of Ego States, Transactions, and Strokes are applied to the elementary classroom setting.

*Using Values Clarification*

Dr. Sidney Simon demonstrates several Values Clarification strategies and explains his approach to the valuing process (Secondary).

*Games We Play in High School*

Roles, games, and T.A. are applied to the high-school setting. Psychological games of *both* teachers and students are demonstrated with commentary by Dorothy Jongwald, author of "Born to Win."

*T.E.T. (Teacher Effectiveness Training) in High School*

Documentary footage shows how Dr. Thomas Gordon's no-lose method can effectively be used in secondary classes.

**From PERENNIAL EDUCATION, INC.**
1825 Willow Road, Northfield, Illinois 60093

*Teen Sexuality: What's Right for You?*
This film portrays a health class and their teacher sight-seeing in New York City. Moral values, male-female differences, pornography, homosexuality, and venereal disease are some of the issues covered. (Secondary level).

*Human Growth — III*
This newly revised film presents adolescent sexual development as a part of an overall normal physical, emotional, and social process. The film is designed to establish an atmosphere in which sex can be discussed without embarrassment or tension.

**From PSYCHOLOGICAL FILMS, INC.**
110 North Wheeler Street, Orange, California 92669

*Touching*
This film features Dr. Ashley Montagu discussing the key concepts of his recent book, *Touching*. Utilizing research and medical opinion, Dr. Montagu develops the case that touching is necessary for human life.

*Reflections*
Dr. Carl Rogers talks extensively about his life and his work. Dr. Warren Bennis is the interviewer in this sensitive and revealing film.

*A Time for Every Season*
Dr. Everett Shostram describes the natural flow of emotional energy along the continuums of weakness-strength and anger-love. Like the seasons, these emotions are a normal condition of life, to be realized and experienced. Dr. Shostram demonstrates this tenet of Actualizing Psychology in a group setting.

**From AMERICAN PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION**
1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009

*All Kinds of Weather Friend*
This award-winning film tells the story of the Portsmouth, New Hampshire, project, which brought parents and grandparents into the classroom as para-professional counselors to work with children in a counseling and human-development curriculum. Dr. Dwight Webb describes this revolutionary new model for Elementary School Counseling. (Winner, 1975 APGA Best Film Award.)

*Carl Rogers on Education (Part I)*
*Carl Rogers on Education (Part II)*
Two thirty-minute films in which Rogers describes how people acquire significant learnings and indicates the directions in which education must change to have real impact on students.



# 8

# Directories, Guides, and Bibliographies of Resources

*The Affective Domain: A Resource Book for Media Specialists*
Communications Services Corporation
1333 Connecticut Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036
A catalog of films, filmstrips, cassettes, and other media relating to affective education.

Barth, Roland S., and Rathbone, Charles H. *A Bibliography of Open Education: Advisory for Open Education.* Newton, Massachusetts: Educational Development Center, 1971.
This booklet aims to provide a starting place for parents, teachers, and adminstrators interested in open education, and is also designed to assist further exploration for those already familiar with open education ideas. It includes three bibliographies on books and articles, films, and periodicals.

*Catalog of NIE Education Products, Volumes 1 and 2, 1975*
U.S. Government Printing Office
Washington, D.C. 20402
Provides descriptive information on 660 products and programs funded, in whole or in part, by the National Institute of Education. The purposes of the catalog are to inform educational practitioners, developers, policymakers, and publishers about a wide range of school-oriented products developed with research and development funds, and to provide information to help potential consumers make decisions about the most appropriate educational products and programs for their needs. The thirteen subject-area categories of the products range from aesthetic education for elementary school students to post-secondary education.

*Educational Programs That Work, 1975*
Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development
1855 Folsom Street
San Francisco, California 94103

A combination sourcebook and reference guide to innovative demonstrator projects carried on under the auspices of the U.S. Office of Education during 1975-76. These programs were selected because of their unique successes in academic/experiential areas where more traditional approaches to schooling have failed. The programs fall into categories like secondary alternatives, early childhood and parent readiness, environmental studies, reading/language/math, and special education.

Canfield, Jack. *A Guide to Resources in Humanistic and Transpersonal Education*. Amherst, Massachusetts: Mandals, 1976.

Contains annotated references to over 500 resources including books, curricula, classroom exercises, tapes, films, curriculum development projects, newsletters, journals, growth centers, and consulting organizations.

Hough, J., and Duncan, J. *A Living-Learning Catalog: Somewhere Else*. Chicago, Illinois: Swallow, 1973.

A directory to non-school learning with 400 annotated entries informing the reader of people, places, networks, centers, books, and groups that he or she might not otherwise know about.

Howard Suzanne. *Liberating Our Children, Ourselves*. Washington, D.C.: American Association of University Women, 1975.

This is a handbook of women's-studies course materials for teacher educators and classroom teachers. There are nearly 300 articles, books, papers, organizations, and other resources listed. This is an important resource for anyone interested in eliminating sexism in the schools.

*Human Values in Children's Books*. New York: Council on Interracial Books for Children, 1976.

This volume reviews 238 books, identifying the values they transmit to children. The books are examined for sexism, racism, materialism, elitism, individualism, and ageism.

Johnson, Laurie Olsen (ed.). *Nonsexist Curricular Materials for Elementary Schools*. Old Westbury, New York: Feminist Press.

A compilation of specific materials and techniques to help dispel traditional sex-role stereotyping that limits children's potential.

*Learning Directory: A Comprehensive Guide to Teaching Materials*
Westinghouse Learning Corporation
100 Park Avenue
New York, New York 10017

Lists over 200,000 items that can be used in the classroom.





*Racism in Career Education Materials*. New York: Council on Interracial Books.

Presents the findings of a major study of 100 career education materials by a six-person team of the Council on Interracial Books. The materials from all grade levels -- printed and AV -- were examined for evidence of racism. The booklet includes a description of their criteria, the results and findings, suggestions to teachers, lesson plans, and a bibliography on racism.

Schrank, Jeffry. *Media in Value Education: A Critical Guide*. Chicago: Argus Communications, 1970.

A comprehensive summary of nearly 100 films that can be used in value education, along with suggested questions for discussion.

*Sexism and Racism in Popular Basal Readers: 1964-1976*. New York: Council on Interracial Books, 1976.

A detailed analysis of the Baltimore Feminist Project, a group of concerned educators, parents, and students. The best study we have seen, it comprehensively explores both racism and sexism, going beyond a mere counting of the numbers of minorities and women to discuss connections between the books' subtle messages and the effect of the racism and sexism on all students.

*Social Studies School Service Catalog*
10000 Culver Boulevard
P.O. Box 802
Culver City, California 90230

A rich compilation of simulations, paperbacks, teacher resource materials, games, exercises, and activities that deal with such topics as values, racism, sexism, psychology, sociology, human rights, native American studies, and other important issues in humanistic education.

Spredemann Dreyer, Sharon. *The Bookfinder: A Guide to Children's Literature About the Needs and Problems of Youth*. Circle Pines, Minnesota: American Guidance Services, 1977.

This reference work describes and categorizes 1,031 current children's books according to more than 450 psychological, behavioral, and developmental topics of concern to children and young adolescents. The design of *The Bookfinder* makes it possible to identify books according to their themes and to read synopses of their contents before deciding to obtain or recommend particular books. An excellent source of ideas for bibliotherapy.

White, Marian E. *High Interest/Easy Reading: For Junior and Senior High School Students*. New York: Citation Press, 1972.

Here is an annotated list of hundreds of easy-to-read books abut many subjects, geared to students who do not usually enjoy reading.

Zuckerman, David W., and Horn, Robert W. *The Guide to Simulations/Games for Education and Training*. New York: Information Resources, Inc., 1976.

A comprehensive 500-page annotated review of simulation games in all fields, for all ages. The guide includes articles about simulations and their uses.

From The Humanist Educator, 1981, 20(1).

# AFFECTIVE EDUCATION FOR VISUALLY IMPAIRED CHILDREN[1]

*Don C. Locke*
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Raleigh, North Carolina

*Edwin R. Gerler, Jr.*
Assistant Professor
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North Carolina State University
Raleigh, North Carolina

Affective education has received considerable attention in the counseling literature. Both *Personnel and Guidance Journal* (Goldman, 1973) and *School Counselor* (Carroll, 1974) devoted special issues to the topic. Likewise, *Counseling Psychologist* presented a number of articles (e.g., Cognetta, 1977; Erickson, 1977) about affective education.

Among the most popular affective education programs in elementary schools are the Human Development Program (Bessell & Palomares, 1973) and the Developing Understanding of Self and Others program (Dinkmeyer, 1970). The Human Development Program (HDP) involves children in small group discussions of attitudes and feelings about specific topics. The program Developing Understanding of Self and Others (DUSO) involves children in puppet and role-playing activities related primarily to the affective domain.

Studies of affective programs such as HDP and DUSO have produced mixed findings. In studying HDP, for instance, Halpin, Halpin, and Hartley (1972) and Jackson (1973) found that the program had significant effects on children's interpersonal relations and reading achievement, whereas Harris (1976) and Hawkinson (1970) found no significant effects from the program. Similarly,

[1]This study was conducted through a grant provided by the faculty Research Professional Development Fund of North Carolina State University.

in studying DUSO, Koval and Hales (1972) showed that it increased children's self-reliance, whereas Allen (1975) found no effects of this kind. In short, it is not clear from research what contributions these types of programs make in the classroom. Nevertheless, these programs continue to be used widely.

Affective education programs continue to be popular partly because children enjoy participating in them (Gerler & Pepperman, 1976) and because teachers see intangible benefits from the programs. As one teacher commented about using HDP, "I can't tell yet if anything is happening to the children, but I can feel myself changing" (Nadler, 1973).

Despite the widespread use of affective education and despite recommendations that affective strategies be used particularly in mainstreamed classrooms (Newberger, 1978), little attempt has been made to evaluate the effects of affective education on handicapped children, either in mainstreamed classes or in special education classes. While it seems safe to assume that handicapped children will gain as much from these programs as nonhandicapped children, it seems equally reasonable to say that at least some attempt should be made to evaluate the participation of handicapped children in affective education, if for no other reason than to make sure it is not being harmful. Our purpose here, therefore, is (a) to describe an affective education project involving visually impaired children, and (b) to discuss what implications the results of this project might have for the use of affective education with both handicapped and nonhandicapped children.

## Project Description

Setting. The Governor Morehead School for the Blind, located in Raleigh, North Carolina, was the site used for this project. The Morehead school is a residential school which enrolls approximately 270 children from kindergarten to 12th grade. The 42 students in kindergarten through third grade were used in this study. The school offers courses similar to those in any public or private school as well as courses specifically related to vision and visual impairment (e.g., braille and mobility training).

Implementing the project. The coordinators of this affective education project included the director of counseling and the primary school principal from the Morehead school as well as consultants from the counselor education department at North Carolina State University. The goals of this project were to give some of the children at Morehead school a first experience with affective education and to evaluate the effectiveness of this experience on these children's self-image, attitude toward school, and classroom behavior. The coordinators chose the DUSO and HDP programs for use in the project, and they selected two advanced graduate students in counselor education who had not previously worked with visually impaired children to lead the programs.

Most of the teachers at the Morehead school were unfamiliar with the DUSO and HDP programs, and although the teachers were not to be group leaders, their support was essential to the smooth running of the project. Therefore, the project coordinators conducted an in-service session for teachers. In this session the coordinators outlined some goals and activities of the DUSO and HDP programs and also discussed some research findings relative to the use of these programs. Because the coordinators hoped that these teachers would eventually want to lead DUSO and HDP groups, the coordinators encouraged teachers to read parts of the DUSO and HDP instructor's manuals.

Evaluation procedures. To evaluate the effects of affective education on self-image, attitude toward school, and classroom behavior, the coordinators chose three instruments: the Self-Appraisal Inventory-Primary Level (Instructional Objectives Exchange, 1972), the School Sentiment Index-Primary Level (Instructional Objectives Exchange, 1972), and the Pupil Behavior Rating Scale (Lambert, Harsough, & Bower, 1979). The first two instruments consist of 36 and 37 items, respectively, and were read to the children by graduate students. The third instrument has 11 items and was completed by the children's classroom teachers. The coordinators worked out an evaluation process which provided a reasonable evaluation of the project within the scheduling constraints of the school. The evaluation proceeded as follows:

1. The 36 primary school students who received parental permission to participate in the project were assigned randomly to three groups (12 students per group): a DUSO group, an HDP group, and a comparison group. In the comparison group children listened to stories and played games under the supervision of a beginning graduate student in counselor education. These groups met three times a week for about 15 weeks. Six students who for administrative and/or scheduling reasons could not participate in one of the three groups served as an additional comparison or control group. This group was not a part of the original design but was included since the researchers could obtain data on these students.

2. The self-appraisal instrument was administered at the beginning and at the end of the project. The school attitude

index and the behavior rating scale were administered only at the end of the project.

3. To collect additional information on these children's participation in HDP and DUSO, the project coordinators observed several sessions, and the group leaders kept journals on the HDP and DUSO sessions. Included in each journal entry were such items as date of the session, topic for the day, session length, and a general description of the children's participation during the session.

## The Affective Education Process

Beginning the groups. Most of the kindergarten through third grade children at Morehead school had not participated in anything like DUSO or HDP; consequently, beginning the groups was a difficult experience for leaders and children. The leader of the DUSO group, for instance, who was eager to be ready for the first session, prepared name tags for the children so that she would be able to call each child by name. The leader found that these children needed a lot of auditory stimulation. She therefore decided to play recorded DUSO stories for the next few sessions and attempt to ask the discussion questions suggested in the DUSO manual. She gained the children's attention using this method and was able to move gradually into regular discussions.

The HDP leader also found some discouragement at the beginning. She commented about the disruptiveness of some of the HDP participants. She quickly found, however, that all the children enjoyed the time in HDP sessions when they were allowed to repeat or to reflect the comments of someone else in the group. The leader highlighted these times and, in so doing, made the HDP group more manageable.

Indications of group cohesiveness. After about 9 or 10 sessions, the children seemed to gain a great deal from each other in the groups. The HDP group began to develop cohesiveness during a session in which the children discussed the topic, Nicknames I Wish I Had.

Concluding the groups. The conclusion of the DUSO group seemed to bring more organized physical activities for the children, particularly role-playing activities, as well as times to review lessons from previous sessions. The HDP group, on the other hand, focused on ways to say goodby and on leaving the group with positive feelings. In short, both groups came to satisfying conclusions for the children who were participating.



## Discussion of the Project's Results

Children's self-appraisal. Table 1 presents the results of the pre- and postevaluation of children's self-appraisal. The table displays the results in the form of several subscales, that is, how the children viewed themselves in their group environment, in their family environment, among their peers, and in the school environment. The table also presents a total self-appraisal score. Although the changes in self-appraisal were not large for either the HDP or DUSO groups, the changes were all in a positive direction which was not the case with the play group and the control group. In the play group, for example, changes in the negative direction occurred in both the general and school subscales. In the control group, no change was observed in the general and peer subscales while a negative change occurred in the school subscale. Statistical analyses of variance (ANOVA) of these data did not produce significant results for any of the changes. The evaluation appears to show, however, that these affective education programs did not cause a negative self-concept of these visually impaired children and may, in fact, have enhanced self-esteem to a small degree.

In light of Coopersmith's (1959) findings that self-esteem is a factor in academic achievement, it is useful to learn that affective education seemed to increase the self-esteem of these visually impaired children. On the other hand, a question remains as to whether or not affective education would have had equally positive effect on these children had they been in mainstreamed classrooms and participating in heterogeneous affective education groups. Strang, Smith, and Rogers (1978) found in some cases that handicapped children acquired feelings of inferiority when participating with nonhandicapped children. Others (Gerler, 1979; Newberger, 1978) have argued, however, that affective education will prevent such feelings and will actually facilitate the mainstreaming process.

Children's behavior and attitude toward school. Table 2 shows the results from follow-up measures of the pupils behavior and the pupil's attitude toward school. (A high score on the Pupil Behavior Rating Scale indicated teacher disapproval of student behavior whereas a low score indicated approval. A high score on the School Sentiment Index reflected a positive attitude toward school whereas a low score reflected a negative attitude.)

The results of the behavior rating scale provide some interesting comparisons. Children in the HDP and DUSO groups received more approval ratings from teachers than did the children in the comparison groups. (The teachers did not know in which group the children participated.) Although these results are

TABLE 1

Means and Standard Deviations of Prescores and Postscores on the Self Appraisal Inventory

| | DUSO ($n$=13) | | HDP ($n$=11) | | Play ($n$=12) | | Control ($n$=6) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *M* | *SD* | *M* | *SD* | *M* | *SD* | *M* | *SD* |
| **Self Appraisal (Prescore):** | | | | | | | | |
| General | 7.46 | 2.44 | 6.54 | 2.88 | 6.67 | 2.39 | 6.67 | 1.37 |
| Family | 6.38 | 2.22 | 6.28 | 2.49 | 6.00 | 2.26 | 4.67 | 0.82 |
| Peer | 5.31 | 1.80 | 5.18 | 1.99 | 4.83 | 2.08 | 5.17 | 0.98 |
| School | 5.62 | 2.33 | 6.00 | 2.79 | 6.00 | 2.34 | 5.83 | 0.98 |
| Total | 24.92 | 8.06 | 24.00 | 9.50 | 23.75 | 8.02 | 22.66 | 3.38 |
| **Self Appraisal (Postscore):** | | | | | | | | |
| General | 7.61 | 1.12 | 7.82 | 1.08 | 6.50 | 1.50 | 6.67 | 1.03 |
| Family | 7.08 | 1.19 | 7.64 | 1.36 | 6.75 | 1.60 | 5.67 | 0.82 |
| Peer | 6.07 | 1.26 | 6.18 | 1.72 | 5.83 | 1.03 | 5.17 | 0.75 |
| School | 6.15 | 1.52 | 6.73 | 1.90 | 5.67 | 1.61 | 5.67 | 2.06 |
| Total | 27.53 | 2.93 | 28.36 | 5.04 | 25.08 | 3.65 | 23.50 | 3.27 |

Note. A high score on the Self Appraisal Inventory indicates a positive attitude toward self while a low score indicates a negative attitude.





not statistically significant, there seems to be a trend showing that both HDP and DUSO helped these children to practice and use behaviors as listening and taking turns. The fact that teachers rated the behavior of HDP and DUSO participants more favorably than that of the other children could have some important implications; for, as Braun (1976) and Finn (1972) found, pupils who are viewed positively tend to regard themselves highly. Again, howeve one wonders whether HDP and DUSO would have enough influence on handicapped children's behavior to affect teachers' judgments in mainstreamed classrooms. The presence of handicapped children in regular classrooms may, in fact, increase teachers' anxiety and therefore result in less than adequate teacher-pupil relations and lower performance levels among students (Kearney & Sinclair, 1978)

Although HDP and DUSO seemed to affect the behavior of visually impaired children in this project, the programs did not seem to have any special effect on the children's attitude toward school. The measure of school attitude showed few differences among the children in the HDP, DUSO, and play groups. The control group children, however, scored somewhat lower than the other children. Apparently, the opportunity to participate in something novel caused the slightly higher scores among the HDP, DUSO, and play group participants.

TABLE 2

Means and Standard Deviations of Follow-up Scores on the Pupil Behavior Rating Scale and the School Sentiment Index

| | DUSO ($n$=13) | | HDP ($n$=11) | | Play ($n$=12) | | Control ($n$=6) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *M* | *SD* | *M* | *SD* | *M* | *SD* | *M* | *SD* |
| Pupil Behavior Rating[a] | 19.15 | 10.66 | 17.54 | 8.39 | 22.83 | 12.34 | 26.67 | 7.9 |
| School Sentiment[b] | 28.23 | 4.69 | 27.18 | 6.74 | 28.25 | 4.07 | 25.33 | 4.8 |

[a] A high score on this instrument indicates teacher disapproval of student behavior while a low score indicates approval.

[b] A high score on this instrument indicates a positive attitude toward school while a low score indicates a negative attitude.

## Some Informal Observations

In addition to the data collected in this project, there were some informal observations made that merit discussion. Not surprisingly, the HDP and DUSO leaders observed that it was necessary to provide considerable nonvisual, sensory stimulation to keep visually impaired children interested in the affective education sessions.

Sensory stimulation is an important ingredient in affective education programs whether the programs are being used with handicapped children or with nonhandicapped children. Children sometimes discuss, for example, their feelings toward the music and songs in the DUSO program. To stimulate even more discussion, a teacher or counselor can record some DUSO songs with all the rests in the music omitted (Gerler, 1979). The children usually laugh at the new sound and like to discuss these new feelings. The imagination of teachers and counselors can generate many other ways to use sensory stimuli in affective education.

## Conclusion

This affective education project illustrates that programs like HDP and DUSO can be used effectively with visually impaired children. Although it is virtually impossible to generalize the results of this project to work with other handicapped children, the results seem to indicate that, at least, affective education does not have a negative effect on their self-esteem and attitudes toward school.

The results of this project raise some questions about the use of affective education in mainstreamed classrooms. HDP and DUSO, for instance, seemed to increase the self-esteem of visually impaired children in this project, but would the same effect be observed in a mainstreamed classroom where the HDP and DUSO groups were not composed solely of visually impaired or handicapped children?

We need to know much more about affective education and its effect on all children. This project involving visually impaired children gives some evidence that affective education can be used effectively with increasingly diverse populations.

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# Values Clarification: It's Just a Matter of Timing

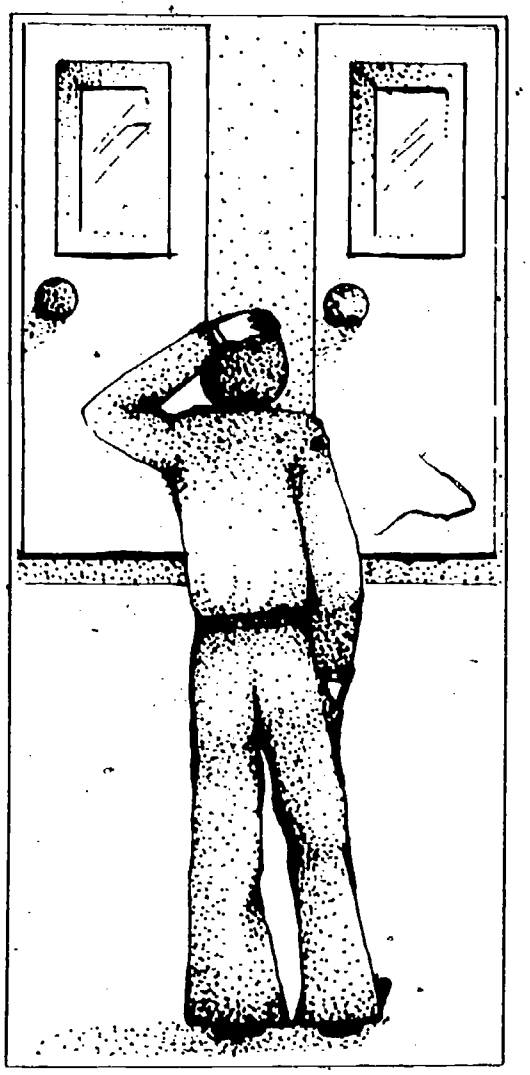


From The Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1977, 55(5).

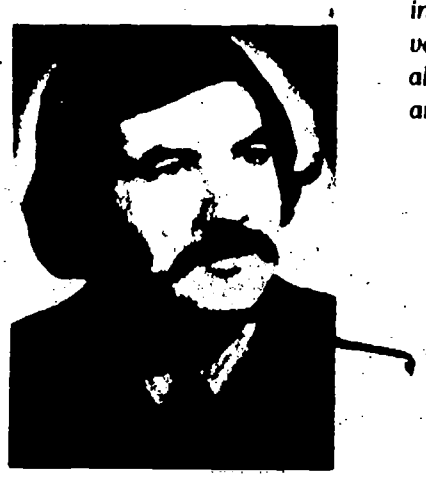
*If you want to know where you are going, it helps to know where you are from.*

**When I think back on all the crap I learned in high school,**
**It's a wonder I can think at all.**
**Paul Simon,** *Kodachrome*

Paul Simon's lyrics aptly reflect the disenchantment of a segment of our youth population with regard to their education. More importantly, they adroitly pinpoint the fact that some students see absolutely no relationship between what schools attempt to teach and what these students later deal with in real life settings. Similar criticisms arise not only from student ranks, but from educational personnel as well. Silberman's (1970) study, for example, maintained that schools were "grim, joyless places" where very little learning took place, and one need not look far to realize that schools and education have become targets of indictments everywhere. Justified or not, the criticisms largely reflect a discontentment with the educational scene in our country and an endorsement of curricular offerings that help students to understand themselves better and to apply educational learnings to their actual lives.



During the past few years, interest in humanistic and affective education has soared among educators, and while this movement is not a panacea for the criticisms launched against education, it is a movement characterized by an unprecedented concern with students' needs, feelings, and perceptions. In conjunction with the growing interest in affective education, a veritable potpourri of structures and heuristic guidelines have developed: changes in school structure, for example, have resulted in free schools, open schools, and open classrooms; changing curricula have used values clarification, human potential, achievement motivation, and human relations training, to name a few; finally the content of some curriculums has expanded to include more relevant topics like "Human Sexuality," "Alienation in Society," "Meology," and "The Future" (Kirschenbaum 1973). The extent to which affectively oriented approaches are significant or effective in helping students to understand themselves better or relate school to everyday living is a topical issue in the midst of being researched nowadays. The implications are clear, however, that educators must examine and evaluate teaching programs and methods in an effort to determine



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which are effective in meeting the needs of youth in today's society.

Values clarification has been mentioned as one area educators are currently experimenting with and considering as a possibility when making curricular changes. The need for value exploration in schools has become a pressing concern as Brown and Brown (1972) have reported, for they found a great many laypersons and educators demanding that schools devote time to the open discussion of life and values, as this is one essential remedy that will enable the general student population to gain self-understanding and self-direction. Freidenberg (1959) has also agreed that the most important issue adolescents must define is the clarification of what their lives mean to them. Barr (1971) has even suggested that teachers purposely relate their courses to the value dilemmas of youth, with an emphasis upon the students clarifying their own values with the help of the school, and not the teaching of values by the school.

To be sure, values are also an important issue when technological advances are so rapid and radical. Our youth are not only facing problems never experienced before, but they are bombarded by a vast number of stimuli that cause many unanswered questions and a loss of direction (Barr 1971; Peterson 1970; Raths, Harmin & Simon 1966; Toffler 1970).

What exactly are "values"? Values are defined in as many ways as there are writers who discuss the concept. Even so, some similarities exist on this topic in the literature. Allport (1955, p. 90) has stated that "Philosophically speaking, values are the termini of our intentions." Gabriel (1963, p. 1) claims that "values are the guides to our actions." Concurring with this line of thought is Milton Rokeach (1968, p. 160) who has indicated that a value is "a standard of criteria for guiding actions." Finally, Raths, Harmin, and Simon (1966, p. 6) define values as "those elements that show how a person has decided to use his life." Therefore, values can be said to be the internalized beliefs that we live by that give us direction in determining the course of action we would take in life situations. A brief examination of the history, use, purpose, and definition of "values clarification" may help to give perspective to the concept.

## Why Values Clarification?

Values clarification developed out of work by Louis Raths, Sidney Simon, and Merrill Harmin (1966, pp. 5–6) with students who had been classified as "apathetic, flighty, very uncertain, very inconsistent, drifters, overconformers, overdissenters, or role players." Louis Raths (1960) originally developed a five-criteria definition for a value and he believed that he could help youth to understand their values through using clarifying responses that would enable them to think and verbalize their values. Therefore, the scant values-clarification research carried out at that time focused on the effects of clarifying responses upon student behaviors (Klevan 1957; Lang 1962; J. Raths 1960, 1962). Eventually, a number of studies were completed that attempted to correlate value-clarifying techniques with behavior changes in children, although the positive outcomes from many of these studies were derived from very subjective evaluative methods (Bloom 1968; Covault 1973; Jonas 1960; Machnits 1960; Martin 1960).

In general, values clarification can be used with K-12 students in an attempt to help them become more clear about their values and thus reduce the value-related disturbances mentioned earlier. Although the work on values clarification originated from deliberate work with youth who were unclear about their values, values clarification is currently being used with all levels of students. The aim of values clarification is to help students become more clear about their lives, to provide them with criteria for selecting values, and for directing their lives, for deciding what to do with their time, their money, their energy, their being.

The method used in Values Clarification, according to Raths, Harmin, and Simon (1966, p. 30) is for students to proceed through a seven-step values-clarification process. Valuing, according to this process is as follows:

**Choosing:**
(1) freely
(2) from alternatives
(3) after thoughtful consideration of the consequences of each alternative

**Prizing:**
(4) cherishing, being happy with the choice
(5) willing to affirm the choice publicly

**Acting:**
(6) doing something with the choice
(7) repeatedly, in some pattern of life.

In order to assist students to explore their values, a number of values-clarification exercises or strategies (VCS) have been developed in conjunction with the aforementioned seven-step process.

## The Study

After exposure to the theoretical and experiential work in the area of values clarification, we initiated a study exploring the effectiveness of the values-clarification process with high school students. The following table lists the Values Clarification Strategies that were utilized in our study. The exercises were taken from *Values Clarification A*

**TABLE 1**

**Ten Session Values Clarification Program**

| Class Meetings | Number | Strategy | Purpose of Activity According to Valuing Process |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 19 | Name Tags | 5 |
| | 5 | Either-Or Forced Choice | 2 |
| | 20 | Partner Risk or Sharing Trios | 5 |
| 2 | 1 | Twenty Things You Like to Do | 1,2 |
| | 15 | I Learned Statements | Clarify learning |
| 3 | 3 | Values Voting | 1,2,5 |
| | 8 | Rank Order | 1,2,5 |
| | 10 | Value Whips | 1-7 |
| 4 | 50 | Alligator River | 1-7 |
| 5 | 47 | Coat of Arms | 1,2,4,5,6 |
| 6 | 7 | Values Survey | 1,2,3,5 |
| 7 | 23 | Alternative Search | 2,5 |
| | 26 | Consequence Search | 1,2,3 |
| 8 | 53 | Life Line | 1,2, Goal setting |
| | 56 | Obituary | 1,2, Goal setting |
| | 57 | Two Ideal Days | 6 |
| 9 | 24 | Alternative Action Search | 1,6 |
| | 2 | Values Grid | 1-7 |
| | 44 | I Urge Telegram | 5,6 |
| 10 | 66 | Miracle Workers | 1,2,3,6 |

*Handbook of Practical Strategies for Teachers and Students* (Simon, Howe, & Kirschenbaum 1972) and are sequenced by class meetings and identified by strategy number as in the text and are listed in Table 1. The purpose of each strategy corresponds to one or more of the phases of the seven-step valuing process as indicated previously.

## How Much? How Often?

One concern in using the VCP is the spacing of the exercises, i.e. the "prune problem." Is one a week enough? Are five a week too many? It is generally accepted that distributed practice is superior to massed practice in retention of verbal materials (Underwood 1955) and in psychomotor performance (Adams 1954). We contacted Simon for his ideas on the spacing of a ten-session values-clarification program for high school students. Simon (Personal communication, April 25, 1973) suggested that one session a school day during a two-week period would be more effective than one session a week during a ten-week period. Although one session a day does not fit the usual definition of massed practice, it is a greater massing of trials than one session a week.

We hypothesized that the more distributed spacing of the VCP training would allow more time for the students' personal integration of the process and thus facilitate the clarification of their values. Our study was designed to measure the effect of the values-clarification process upon high school junior and seniors' clarity of values and to determine if the spacing of VCP training had any effect on the process. The research was conducted at Harrison High School in Farmington, Michigan, during the fall semester of the 1973–74 school year.

One hundred and seven high school juniors and seniors enrolled in four psychology classes were given the *Differential Value Inventories* (Prince 1957) with a clarity of values section using a pre-post test design. Experimental classes were treated with VCP methods during two time sequences. One experimental group was involved in daily sessions for ten class periods during two weeks and the other experimental group was involved in one session a week during a ten-week period. The sessions were 45 minutes long.

Control groups were composed of high school students in two psychology classes not receiving the VCP. One control group was pre- and posttested at the same time as the two-week experimental group. The other control group was pre- and posttested at the same time intervals as the ten-week experimental group.

## Prince's Differential Values Inventory

This inventory uses a forced choice technique and consists of 64 pairs of statements to determine the students' values along a "traditional-emergent" continuum. The individual must choose one member of the pair and the higher the score on the inventory the more traditional the values set. The traditional values are categorized by Prince as Puritan Morality, Individualism, Work-Success Ethic, and Future-Time orientation. Emergent values are Sociability, Conformity, Relativism and Present-Time Orientation.

A person who scored high on the scale would tend to believe in hard work for its own sake, would be more self-oriented, and would delay present gratification for future rewards. A person who scored low on the scale would be present-oriented, concerned with group solidarity, and under more group influence.

The following are two pairs from Prince's inventory. Implicit in the pairs are the introductory words, "I ought to."

1) A) Work harder than most of those in my class
   B) Work at least as hard as most of those in my class
2) A) Enjoy myself doing many things with others
   B) Enjoy myself doing many things alone

In scoring these items selecting A on question 1 would add to the work-success ethic; B would add to the conformity dimension. In question 2 selecting A would add to the Individualism component and B to the Sociability component. Thus in each pair one choice indicates a traditional value scheme and one an emergent value.

The DVI also assesses the ease or difficulty in the selection of each pair of values, by having the individual indicate easy or difficult after each choice point. Prince found that respondents invariably said that the choices were easy. Sklare (1974) increased the easy-difficult scale to a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from very easy to very difficult. This modification allows for more variability in responses. Lehman (1962) in utilizing the DVI with college students found the test-retest reliability of the instrument to be .70 and its interval consistency to be .75. The five-point clarity of Differential Values addendum had a reliability score of .79 for the combined control groups (Sklare 1974).

The clarity of values addendum of the DVI provided a means of measuring changes in students' ambiguity or clearness on their positions on value issues.

We anticipate that those persons involved in the VCP find it easier to make choices between contrasting differential values, for their values would have become clearer to them. In other words, on the five-point very difficult to choose position (left extreme) to the very easy to choose position (right extreme) continuum, those students involved in the VCP would change their responses on the posttest in the direction of the right extreme or very easy to choose position. This would indicate that the experimental students would have clarified their values as measured by the DVI addendum.

## What Did We Find?

In our study, the experimental students in the ten-week VCP group found it significantly easier to choose between differential values than did the control students ($P < .05$). In fact, the ten-week control group found it more difficult to choose on the posttest than they did on the pretest indicating they had more difficulty in conceptualizing their values ten weeks later. This tends to support the many educators who contend that our youth are, indeed, confused about their values (Sklare 1974). If confusion didn't exist, one wouldn't expect the same value choices to become more difficult over a ten-week time span. I Tests comparing the two-week experimental group with the ten-week experimental group indicated that there were no significant differences between these groups either before or after training.

The difference in the effects of the VCP on the experimental groups when compared with their control groups can be explained in a number of ways. The explanation most harmonious with the existing literature is that for the two-week experimental group, the VCP was more like a classroom learning experience—a unit in a course, something to learn but not necessarily to use. This group also, had less opportunity time to practice the procedure in "real life" situations. The ten-week group, having the VCP procedure once a week during ten weeks had more opportunity time to use the procedure. Since their introduction to VCP was not "unitized," their conceptual set was probably different from the two-week group. For the ten-

week group the VCP was something to use, a process that they had time to think about and assimilate into their belief systems.

An interesting nonstatistical observation was made of the four groups involved in the experiment. While four groups took approximately 45 minutes to complete the pre- and post-Differential Values Inventories (DVI), the ten-week experimental group needed only 30 minutes to complete the posttest. When the psychology teacher who administered the tests asked the students why they had completed the DVI so quickly, they replied that they knew where they stood on these issues much better now than they did ten weeks ago; therefore, it was easier to answer the questions related to these value issues. The students' verbal acknowledgements, claiming it was now easier to make differential value choices, further implied that the distributed VCP enable students to clarify their values.

Upon the completion of one of the VCP sessions, a senior girl (a participant in the 10E) commented that she had learned more about herself during that activity than through anything she had ever done before. A male senior in the 10E commented:

> I really learned a lot about myself and other people from those sessions (VCP). I like to learn by getting involved. I found myself realizing that all people think differently and that they have their reasons, and that's OK for them. I did hear a lot of other peoples' reasons for their beliefs and, as a result, sometimes I changed my beliefs after hearing their views.

## Leaders Must Be Trained

We wish to note that values clarification should not be compared or confused with other group activities such as group therapy, T-groups, sensitivity groups, or even counseling groups. Values clarification consists of structured activities or strategies that adhere to the seven-step process of valuing described by Raths, Harmin, and Simon (1966, pp. 28–30).

As the purpose of the VCP is to help students clarify their values and not to teach them values, people implementing VCP strategies must be properly trained in order for values clarification to work. Effectively trained leaders must exhibit the following behaviors: they must be accepting and nonjudgmental, they must be firm in discouraging students from making negative or put-down statements about each other, and they must protect the right of students to pass or not participate in any activity from which they would like to be excluded.

As most counselors have been trained in listening and communication skills, the VCP method would not seem very difficult for them to master. Counselors also could serve as consultants to train teachers to utilize these methods. Likewise, counselors could conduct psychological education seminars emphasizing VCP procedures with groups of students who seem to be lacking goals or direction in their lives. Orientation programs for students new to a school could be held. This type of program would enable counselors and students to better know one another, thereby paving the way for open communication. With counselors taking a more active role outside the confines of their offices, teachers, students, administrators, and parents may see counselors as more viable assets to the total school. PG

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# Service Delivery and High School Peer Counseling Systems

by Alan M. Fink, Patricia Grandjean, Michael G. Martin, and Barrett G. Bertolini

*Earlier rationales supporting peer counseling systems have emphasized possibilities of increased service delivery and innovative counseling models. An ongoing peer counseling program was studied through questionnaires administered to clients, teachers, the general student body, and peer counselors themselves. Specific attention was directed to numbers of students served. Distinctions between formal and informal counseling relationships and problem content areas are discussed. Results suggested the existence of two distinct service delivery systems. An informal system served large numbers of self-referred students and dealt primarily with personal-social problems. A formal system reached fewer students, relied upon staff referral, and addressed academic difficulties. Implications for the design of peer counselor programs with varying goals were discussed.*

A great deal of attention has been directed in the recent past to the use of paraprofessionals in a counseling role, such programs appearing in school-age as well as older populations. These peer counseling programs generally are derived from a similar rationale (Scott & Warner 1974) that may be seen as consisting of three basic components.

The programs should first expand the resources of school counseling services in terms of manpower and range of program offerings. More persons are available to serve in a counseling role, and nontraditional counseling models can be created that capitalize on the natural empathy and ease of relating found in student-to-student interactions. A second kind of rationale argues that training and counseling experiences are beneficial to the personal growth of the peer counselors, regardless of whether these students are experiencing adjustment problems (Mosher & Sprinthall 1970, 1971). A final and perhaps less well-defined rationale involves the potential positive effects of peer counseling on the social atmosphere of the school as a whole. As more students are trained and model supportive interpersonal skills in their relationships with peers, a school-wide network of sensitive and empathic students may be created.

Two of these rationales (increased manpower and effect on school atmosphere) may be seen as emphasizing the service delivery components of peer counseling, the focus resting on numbers of students served, and the relative effectiveness of this kind of outreach model. Does a peer counseling program allow for an increased number of students to receive services? Can a sufficient number of students be reached to create a general impact on a school population?

Existing evaluations of peer counseling programs, although generally positive, do not directly address these questions of service delivery. Recent reviews of the literature (Hoffman & Warner 1976; Scott & Warner 1974) suggest that peer counselors and other paraprofessionals are often as effective as trained professionals in their counseling efforts. There is also considerable evidence documenting the positive change in students experiencing training in peer counseling, both in their interpersonal skills and personal growth. Little research exists, however, on the questions of increased service potential and general impact on a school population, which are so basic to any defense of peer counseling. Such research should include comparisons of various models for utilizing trained peer counselors to the fullest and making their services as available as possible to the students. A frequent problem encountered by newer programs, for example, simply involves the matching of trained students with clients in need of assistance, or more generally, finding something for the peer counselors to do (Varenhorst 1974).

The present research attempted to address the above need by examining the service delivery component of one ongoing (and apparently successful) peer counseling program. For the purpose of the study, we assumed that peer counselors were being adequately trained and were effective in dealing with clients. What we hoped to gauge was whether an established program did, in fact, increase the counseling resources of the school and have any beneficial impact upon the system as a whole. Could the services of peer counselors be delivered on a scale that truly justified the components of the underlying rationale?

## Setting and Methods

The study was conducted in a regional public high school with 1,525 students. The communities served by the school are suburban to rural and predominantly middle to upper class. The school is

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generally viewed as having high academic standards and is strongly college oriented. The professional counseling staff consists of six guidance counselors, one full-time school psychologist, a career counselor, a work-study coordinator, and an administrative director of guidance services.

A school Peer Tutoring-Counseling Service (PTCS) was initiated in the spring of 1974 and was in its third year of operation at the time of the study. Under the supervision of the school psychologist and one guidance counselor, the program seeks to provide tutoring and counseling services to students who are experiencing academic or other adjustment problems. Peer tutor-counselors are chosen from volunteers who are juniors and seniors; the vast majority have honor roll standing. Letters of recommendation and parental consent of the volunteers are required before they can be selected. Each semester, two groups of 20 students each are trained in an approximately 14-week, 28-hour program held after school. Training emphasizes traditional human relations skills—effective listening, nonverbal communication, group processes, and nondirective counseling theory. Only one hour is devoted to training in tutoring skills specifically, reflecting the assumption of the program leaders that the tutoring role will quickly lead to a more wide-ranging peer counseling relationship.

In theory, trained tutor-counselors may work with other students either informally or be matched formally through the service's referral system. In the latter, referrals of specific students are made by administrators, teachers, and guidance counselors for tutoring or counseling. Self-referral is also possible. The service is totally voluntary, and in all cases the student is consulted before a referral is made. Upon receiving the referral, the service matches the student with a tutor-counselor who is skilled in a particular subject area and has corresponding free time. Once trained, tutor-counselors may continue to serve in this capacity during the remainder of their time in the school.

In order to evaluate the effectiveness of service delivery, questionnaires were administered to selected tutor-counselors, clients, faculty members, and members of the general student body. While each was tailored to its specific group, the questionnaires generally requested feedback on the amount of the respondent's contact with the PTCS, evaluation of the service's effectiveness and worth to the school, and the kinds of problems dealt with in the counseling relationship. A specific attempt was made to distinguish between formal and informal counseling and tutoring as opposed to more personal counseling.

Sampling procedures involved the following. All tutor-counselors then attending school received questionnaires ($N = 79$). Of the 109 formally referred clients during the one-year period (December 1975 to December 1976) 30 of those still within the school were randomly selected to receive the questionnaire. Thirty of a total of 107 faculty members were randomly selected, guidance counselors excluded. Finally, 60 students from the general student body were drawn at random (20 each from the sophomore, junior, and senior classes).

**Table 1.**

**Percentages of Clients in Four Improvement Categories: Peer Tutor-Counselor and Faculty Ratings**

| Rating Source | Very Improved | Improved | No Change | Worse |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Peer tutor-counselor** | | | | |
| Academic performance | 25% | 55% | 20% | 0% |
| Personal adjustment | 37% | 41% | 21% | 1% |
| **Faculty** | | | | |
| Overall adjustment | 25% | 39% | 36% | 0% |

## Results

The return rate on all four sets of questionnaires was quite high (tutor-counselors–95%; clients–97%; faculty–97%; students–92%). From the large amount of data collected, several important findings clearly emerged that may have implications for peer counseling programs in other settings and with varying goals. These results will be discussed in general terms; specifics of questionnaire items and statistics are available upon request.

**Effectiveness of Peer Counseling.** For the purposes of this study, effectiveness of the peer counseling interaction was evaluated only through rather global ratings of client improvement and from the client's perspective of the adequacy of the counselor's skill. These data are admittedly subjective but do provide some indication of whether peer tutor-counselors are at all successful.

The results were consistent with the existing research literature in indicating general client improvement and a positive evaluation of counselor skill. Both peer counselors and faculty rated the majority of students who had received services through the PTCS as either "very improved" or "improved." (See Table 1.) The peer counselors saw this improvement both in clients' academic performance and personal problem areas; faculty members gave only an overall improvement rating to those students whom they had referred in the past. Clients themselves were consistent in their positive view. In response to the question "How much do you think you were helped by the peer tutor-counselor" (which was rated on a 7-point scale ranging from "not at all" (1) to "helped a great deal" (7)) a mean of 4.2 was obtained. On a similar scale, clients indicated that they would recommend the service to friends who were having academic or personal problems (mean rating = 5.0).

Specific ratings of tutoring and counseling skills were also positive. On 7-point scales ranging from "poor" (1) to "excellent" (7), peer tutor-counselors rated their own tutoring skills at a mean of 5.3; the mean for counseling skills was 5.4. Clients, in evaluating the skills of their specific peer tutor-counselor, gave mean ratings of 5.1 for tutoring skills, and 4.5 for counseling skills. (Fewer than 50 percent of the client respondents completed the rating of counseling skills for reasons to be discussed.)

**Numbers of Students Served.** An approximate measure of numbers of students served through the PTCS was determined from the tutor-counselor questionnaire. The 79 tutor-counselors had provided formal services to a total of 69 clients. The mean number of sessions for terminated contacts was 5.2. An expected but still gratifying finding was the number of clients reported as being helped informally. In response to the question "How many clients have you helped informally since you completed training," the peer tutor-counselors reported a total of 301. An additional note in the exact presentation of this question allowed respondents to "include friends who have discussed problems with you, if you feel that the peer tutoring-counseling training has helped you in helping them." This latter finding clearly indicates that the trained tutor-counselors also provide an informal coun-

seling network that is available to and utilized by peers throughout the school.

Further evidence of this informal counseling network is found in the questionnaire responses of the general student body. Forty-nine percent of those questioned knew a peer tutor-counselor personally; 14 percent acknowledged having "discussed personal problems with a peer tutor-counselor in an informal way." An additional 23 percent responded with uncertainty to this latter question. If we assume that this random sampling of students, taken from school registration lists, is representative of the general student body, these figures suggest that approximately 210 students have definitely received informal services. If those respondents who were uncertain are included, the total could be as high as 555, or close to one-third of the school. Minimally, these results increase the credibility of the peer tutor-counselor estimate of 301 students informally served.

**Differences in Service Delivery Models: Tutoring vs. Counseling.** The peer tutor-counselors described their work as equally geared toward academic problems and client problems of a more personal nature (e.g., social identity concerns or family difficulties). As might be expected, however, they reported that formal contacts and referrals involved primarily academic problems, whereas informal counseling tended to focus on more personal issues. Client questionnaires confirmed this finding. Some clients acknowledged discussing problems of social relationships or self-understanding in the formal counseling sessions. The majority, however, saw the sessions as meeting academic needs only. In fact, some clients commented that they would be reluctant to utilize the formal service to deal with personal problems.

**Table 2**

**Percentages of Students Willing to Discuss Problems With Peer Counselors As a Function of Problem Area**

| Problem Area | Definitely | Probably | Probably Not | Definitely Not |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Academic | 2% | 38% | 33% | 27% |
| Personal–school | 0% | 14% | 54% | 32% |
| Personal–home | 0% | 0% | 44% | 56% |

This reluctance of students to discuss personal problems with tutor-counselors in a formal structure is further highlighted by data from the general student questionnaire. (See Table 2.) In response to the question "If you were having difficulties in a course, would you try to discuss them with a peer tutor-counselor," a significant percentage of students indicated that they would utilize the service. When asked similar questions involving personal problems at school or home, however, few indicated a willingness to seek help. As in the client questionnaire, many responded that they would "definitely not" seek such assistance.

**Differences in Service Delivery Models: Source of Referral.** The sources of client referral also differed depending on whether the contact was formal or informal. Tutor-counselors indicated that of those students helped informally, 61 percent were self-referred. An additional 26 percent had had the contact initiated by the tutor-counselor. Only 7 percent were brought to the attention of the tutor-counselor by a teacher or guidance counselor. In contrast, clients who were seen formally through the service were for the most part referred by teachers (29%) and guidance counselors (29%). The remaining 42 percent were self-referred; no formal contacts had been initiated by the tutor-counselors themselves.

In overview, the findings suggest the operation of two rather distinct peer counseling systems, both of which are relatively effective in meeting their goals. A formal system receives academic problem referrals primarily from teachers and guidance staff. These academic problems remain the central focus of the counseling relationship, which involves tutoring as the primary intervention. Both past and potential clients are comfortable with this academic and nonpersonal orientation. They are reluctant, however, to use the peer counseling service for more personal concerns. Trained tutor-counselors are effective in this formal structure, and a large group of trained counselors is able to provide services to a fairly substantial number of students. Mechanical problems of matching trained peer tutor-counselors with referred clients are common and do lead to an underutilization of this resource. (In the present study, only 45 percent of the trained students had actually worked with referred clients.)

In contrast to this formal system, an informal network of peer counseling also

exists. Within this network, contact is initiated by either the client or the tutor-counselor with little professional staff intervention. Personal problems of social and family relationships, identity, and physical problems are the usual content areas. Large numbers of students are served, totalling as high as 20 to 30 percent of the school population given the large training program. Effectiveness of the peer counseling remains high in this context.

## Implications

If in fact a primary purpose of peer counseling programs is to deliver services to an increased number of clients, greater attention must be paid to planning how these services might best be made available. Our findings suggest that specific models of service delivery can be matched to particular goals and target populations of a given program. We know, for example, that an informal system seems well suited to serve large numbers of students and offers the means for self-initiated discussion of personal needs. A formal system can be effective in dealing with a small target population and staff-initiated referrals for problems that are less personal and emotionally charged. The choice of system has implications as well for the selection and training phases of peer counselor programs and the ways in which the programs are publicized through the school.

The following guidelines are suggested for a program primarily oriented toward large numbers of clients and problems of personal counseling or confrontation.

1. Emphasize the informal network of trained peer counselors. This will allow for greater outreach and be less threatening to potential clients.

2. In the training phase, place great emphasis on counselor initiation of the helping process and analysis of existing friendships.

3. Select a diverse group of students for training programs that will make peer counselors available through the entire sociological structure of the school. Students from problematic or high-risk subgroups should be included. Although the initial training may be more difficult, the gains in terms of service outreach should more than compensate.

4. Publicize the names of trained peer counselors, thus, encouraging clients to initiate informal contact.

5. Emphasize the training of increasingly large numbers of peer counselors rather than training a select group to higher and higher levels of counseling skills. Classes in human relations skills might be used to augment extracurricular peer counselor training.

Programs limited in training capacity (and with a more highly specified client population in terms of numbers and problem areas) would require a more structured model of service delivery. Staff referrals for academic problems may be an integral part of such programs. It is to be hoped that a formal peer counseling program could be structured to meet the personal counseling needs of clients as well.

1. Publicize the program in such a way that self-referral is encouraged. Potential clients may be concerned about confidentiality, social stigma, or ability of peer counselors to be of help. Appropriate "advertising" that highlights a self-referral process, provides information on numbers and types of clients already served, and discusses the nature of the counseling process may well alleviate these concerns.

2. Keep mechanics and paperwork of the referral process to a minimum.

3. Maintain a high level of interpersonal skill and respect for confidentiality among peer counselors.

The present results provide strong support for the claim that peer counseling can serve a large number of students through both its formal and informal systems. Particularly the latter also creates indirectly a network of supportive relationships and positive peer models that has potential impact on an entire student body, given an initially substantial trained group. The results also suggest, however, that more careful planning and research should go into decisions regarding the kind of delivery system to be employed, thus, insuring the most effective utilization of this concept and the new resources that it creates.

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Edwin R. Gerler, Jr.

# A Longitudinal Study of Multimodal Approaches to Small Group Psychological Education

During the 1970s, school counselors have given much attention to planning and implementing psychological education programs. The counseling profession has made some attempt to evaluate these programs, and several studies (Bernier & Rustad, 1977; Cognetta, 1977; Erickson, 1977; Smith & Troth, 1975) show that psychological education can facilitate personal growth among adolescents. The profession knows relatively little, however, about the effects of psychological education on children.

Early advocates of psychological education for children were concerned that elementary schools spent too much time on cognitive matters and too little in the affective area; consequently, affective education programs became popular. Later, Brown (1971) recognized the separation of affective and cognitive matters as unrealistic, and developed a concept of confluent education that emphasized the flowing together of cognition and affect in curricular programs.

Confluent education programs, however, like affective education programs, seem to be too narrow in their view of child development. Although emphasizing the cognitive and affective domains, these programs seem to neglect many areas that are important in children's lives. A broad-spectrum approach to psychological education, which takes into account other areas of human functioning in addition to cognition and affect, seems to be an important next step in the progress of psychological education.

Lazarus (1973) and Keat (1976), in their discussions of multimodal behavior therapy, proposed a broad-spectrum counseling model, known as the BASIC ID, which may have implications for psychological education. BASIC ID is an acronym that identifies seven areas of human functioning: behavior, affect, sensation, imagery, cognition, interpersonal relations, and diet/drugs. The primary assumption of the multimodal approach is that counselors will increase their effectiveness if they attend to all or most of the seven areas when treating clients. Gerler and Keat (1977) generalized this notion to psychological education and proposed that psychological education will have greater effects on children if counselors incorporate the BASIC ID areas into their programs of psychological education.

The present study examined the immediate and long-term effects of two curricular programs of psychological education, both of which have broad-spectrum or multimodal properties. The two programs are the Human Development Program (Bessell & Palomares, 1973), sometimes called HDP or the Magic Circle program, and the Developing Understanding of Self and Others Program (Dinkmeyer, 1970), also known as DUSO. Both programs are widely used by counselors who work with children in elementary schools.

The study examined the effect of these two programs on children's school attendance. Although other research on psychological education has not used school attendance as a dependent variable, school attendance was selected here because previous studies (Gerler & Pepperman, 1976; Koval & Hales, 1972) show that HDP and DUSO may have positive effects on children's attitude toward school and on children's self-concept. It seemed reasonable to expect, therefore, particularly in light of the findings about attitude toward school, that participants in these programs might attend school more regularly than nonparticipants. In addition, Jackson (1973) found that HDP had significant effects on children's reading achievement, a result that might have come directly from improved school attendance.

The following is a description of the multimodal characteristics of HDP and DUSO, as well as a summary of some of the research dealing with these programs:

*The Human Development Program.* In HDP groups, children and an adult leader sit in a circle and exchange ideas about topics such as "It made me feel happy when. . . ." and "My friends sometimes help me. . . ." These sessions, which are led either by elementary school counselors or by specially trained teachers, usually touch on each dimension of the BASIC ID model several times during a school year.

The following are some of the multimodal properties of HDP: (a) Behavior—the program gives children opportunities to practice reflective listening and to role-play a variety of important behaviors. (b) Affect and Sensation—discussion topics allow children to describe many feelings including anger, sadness, and happiness, as well as how it feels to have "butterflies in your stomach" or a "spine-tingling experience." (c) Imagery—HDP includes some imagery-inducing activities; for example, in one session children have a chance to imagine a box of any size and to imagine what the box contains. (d) Cognition—HDP encourages children to learn and practice new vocabulary for describing their feelings. (e) Interpersonal relations—the rules for HDP sessions encourage children to pay attention to each other. Each child who talks during a session, for example, is assured that either the leader or another participant will reflect or restate what was said. (f) Diet/Drugs—some discussion topics allow children to discuss enjoyable and healthy foods; however, HDP does not deal much with either diet or drugs.

Several studies have tried to assess the effects of the Human Development Program on children. Jackson (1973) found that HDP had significant effects on children's reading achievement. Halpin, Halpin, and Hartley (1972) found that children improved significantly on a sociometric measure as a result of participation in HDP. Harris (1976) compared rational-emotive education with HDP, but found no significant results with the latter. Gerler and Pepperman (1976) studied the attitudes of 400 children toward the program and found that most regarded HDP groups as safe

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places to express feelings and that most felt they were listened to at least by the leader. In short, then, the Human Development Program is a broad spectrum program of psychological education that seems to have some positive effects on children.

*The DUSO Program.* The DUSO Program, like HDP, is widely used by counselors who work with child groups. The program exposes children to a variety of puppetry activities, with special emphasis on the puppet, "Duso the Dolphin," who is presented as narrator of the program. The following are some of the multimodal properties of the DUSO program: (a) Behavior—the puppet, Duso the Dolphin, models a variety of important behaviors for children. Also, role-playing activities in the program allow children to practice these behaviors. (b) Affect—the program encourages children to express their feelings without fear of reprisal. (c) Sensation—the program's recorded stories and music along with its puppet activities stimulate children's hearing, sight, and touch. (d) Imagery—the program allows children to imagine themselves in a variety of problem-solving and decision-making situations. It also encourages children to talk about mental images that appear in dreams. (e) Cognition—unfinished stories in the program help children to use and explore the cognitive processes involved in decision making and problem solving. In one story, for example, a boy goes to bed forgetting that he has left his bicycle outside. In the middle of the night he awakens and remembers what he had done. When the story is presented, children are asked to consider whether or not the boy should go outside to put away the bicycle. (f) Interpersonal relations—the program helps children to practice skills necessary for effective group participation. The program's introductory session, for instance, highlights five basic rules of group discussion, including: raise your hand, listen carefully, don't clam up, stick to the point, and think together. Some of the music incorporated into the program stresses the importance of these group skills. (g) Diet/Drugs—the program provides opportunities for children to discuss eating habits, but the program does not deal extensively with this aspect of the multimodal approach.

Some studies have examined the DUSO program's effect on children. Koval and Hales (1972) studied the effects of DUSO on primary-school-age children living in rural Appalachia and found that DUSO participants reported being more self-reliant than did nonparticipants. In addition, a study by Eldridge, Barcikowski, and Witmer (1973) concluded that DUSO activities may have positive effects on the development of self-concept. It should be noted, however, that of the three measures of self-concept used in this study, namely, the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, the DUSO Affectivity Device, and the California Test of Personality, only the DUSO Affectivity Device measured any significant effects. In short, more study needs to be conducted before DUSO's effect on self-concept is known. Generally speaking, however, DUSO seems to be a useful approach to psychological education.

## METHOD

### Participants

This study began in 1973 with 52 kindergarten children enrolled in a rural, central Pennsylvania school district. As virtually none of these children had attended nursery schools or day-care centers, kindergarten was their first formal educational experience. At the conclusion of the study in 1977 the children had completed the third grade.

### Procedures

The 52 children were randomly assigned to four experimental groups. It is important to note that treatments used in this study were administered only during the first year of the study. In the remaining years, attendance data about the students were collected, but no treatments were administered.

*Group 1.* The 13 children in this treatment group participated in the Human Development Program. The children participated in HDP sessions three times per week during their kindergarten year. An elementary school counselor led the sessions, which lasted approximately 20 minutes each.

*Group 2.* The 13 children in this treatment group participated in the DUSO program. The children participated in DUSO sessions three times per week during their kindergarten year. Again, an elementary school counselor led the sessions, which lasted approximately 20 minutes each.

*Group 3.* The 13 children in this placebo group were allowed to play freely, with only minimal supervision by a paraprofessional. The children participated in this group three times per week during their kindergarten year. These play sessions lasted approximately 20 minutes each.

*Group 4.* The 13 children in this group were designated as a control group and did not meet with one another.

## RESULTS

Table 1 presents the mean number of school days missed by the children in each group and the standard deviations for each group. These data are arranged according to treatment group and year in school. The decrease in the sample size during the last two years of this study was because some children moved away from the school district. As a result of this attrition, some participants were randomly eliminated from the study in order to equalize the groups for statistical analysis. Kerlinger (1964) suggested this procedure as a satisfactory means for equalizing groups in factorial designs.

Table 2 summarizes the effects of the treatment groups on school attendance for three academic years. The analysis of variance results in Table 2 indicate that the kindergarten psychological education programs had significant effects on children's school attendance during kindergarten, $F(3, 48) = 3.56$, $p < .05$; and first grade, $F(3, 40) = 2.93$, $p < .05$; there were no significant effects in third grade.

Table 3 shows the results of the Tukey method (Kirk, 1968) for comparing the effects of multiple treatment groups. This comparison shows the following: During kindergarten, children involved in HDP and DUSO had significantly better school attendance ($p < .05$) than children in the control group; in grade 1, only the children who had participated in DUSO had significantly better school attendance ($p < .05$) than children in the control group. During no year of this study did children in either DUSO or HDP attend school significantly more than children in the play group. By the same token, during no year of the study did play-group children at-

**TABLE 1**

**Means and Standard Deviations of School Absences (Arranged by Treatment Group and Academic Year)**

| Academic Year | | Group 1 (HDP) | Group 2 (DUSO) | Group 3 (Play) | Group 4 (Control) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Kindergarten[a] | *M* | 9.38 | 8.92 | 15.08 | 20.85 |
| (*N* = 52) | *SD* | 7.35 | 6.15 | 13.23 | 12.53 |
| Grade 1 | *M* | 6.36 | 4.73 | 9.73 | 12.18 |
| (*N* = 44) | *SD* | 5.23 | 3.69 | 8.44 | 9.03 |
| Grade 3 | *M* | 5.44 | 5.78 | 7.67 | 7.44 |
| (*N* = 36) | *SD* | 5.27 | 6.32 | 5.98 | 5.79 |

[a]Treatments were administered during this year only.

**TABLE 2**

**Analysis of Variance Summary Table for Effects of Treatments on School Absences during Three Academic Years**

| Academic Year | *df* | *SS* | *MS* | *F* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Kindergarten (*N* = 52)[a] | | | | |
| Between Groups | 3 | 1226.21 | 408.74 | 3.56* |
| Within Groups | 48 | 5510.61 | 114.80 | |
| Grade 1 (*N* = 44)[a] | | | | |
| Between Groups | 3 | 369.70 | 123.23 | 2.93* |
| Within Groups | 40 | 1678.55 | 41.96 | |
| Grade 3 (*N* = 36) | | | | |
| Between Groups | 3 | 34.75 | 11.58 | .30 |
| Within Groups | 32 | 1234.00 | 38.56 | |

[a]Treatments were administered during this year only.
*$p < .05$

**TABLE 3**

**Results of Tukey Method for Comparing Effects of Treatment Groups (Kindergarten: *N* = 52; Grade 1: *N* = 44)**

| Source of Comparison | Difference in Means | | Level of Significance | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Kindergarten | Grade 1 | Kindergarten | Grade 1 |
| Group 1–Group 2 | .46 | 1.63 | ns | ns |
| Group 3–Group 2 | 6.16 | 5.00 | ns | ns |
| Group 4–Group 2 | 11.93 | 7.45 | .05 | .05 |
| Group 3–Group 1 | 5.70 | 3.37 | ns | ns |
| Group 4–Group 1 | 11.47 | 5.82 | .05 | ns |
| Group 4–Group 3 | 5.77 | 2.45 | ns | ns |

*Note.* Group 1 is HDP, Group 2 is DUSO, Group 3 is Play, and Group 4 is Control.



tend school significantly more than control-group children.

## DISCUSSION

This study seems to show that DUSO and HDP, two programs with multimodal properties, can have positive effects on children's school attendance. The study also gives some indication as to which domains of the BASIC ID model are especially influential in producing the effects.

The sensory and imagery domains, for example, seem to be influential. These domains are stressed more in DUSO than in HDP, a difference which may account for DUSO's having had longer lasting significant effects than HDP on children's school attendance. Even though HDP touches all aspects of the BASIC ID, the music, stories, colorful pictures, and puppets that DUSO uses to stimulate children's senses and imagery are not incorporated into HDP. Pressley's review (1977) of the research on children's mental imagery particularly shows the importance of the imagery domain in the children's functioning.

The interpersonal domain also seems to be an important part of psychological education in light of this study. Some support for this conclusion comes from the finding that children who were involved in psychological education programs during this study did not attend school significantly more often than the children who received the placebo treatment. It would seem, therefore, that part of psychological education's effectiveness stems from simply allowing children to interact regularly with one another and with an adult in a small-group setting.

Although this study does not provide any direct information about the importance of the affective and cognitive domains in psychological education, it is possible to speculate about how they might work together in psychological education programs to influence school attendance. In DUSO and HDP, for instance, children are encouraged to express their feelings openly. As children listen to one another talk freely, they become aware of ideas and feelings that they have in common. In fact, most counselors who lead these programs take it upon themselves to point out commonalities. Children who have an opportunity to see what they have in common with one another are not likely to suffer from what Sullivan (1947) has termed the "delusion of uniqueness." In other words, these children are not likely to develop the sense of self-scorn and inferiority that sometimes results from feeling unique, and therefore are probably not inclined to avoid school.

Psychological education programs such as DUSO and HDP could have effects on specific behaviors of children that might lead to improved school attendance. Both of these programs, for example, help children to practice positive behaviors, such as taking turns, contributing to group discussions, and listening. Many teachers see these behaviors as important in the learning process, and teachers are likely to reinforce children who exhibit these behaviors. For these children, therefore, school can be a pleasant experience that they will not avoid.

It seems safe to say that educational programs that help children to eat properly may also help children to attend school regularly. Children who do not have a well-balanced diet may avoid school simply because they lack the energy to keep up with other children. On the other hand, children who eat excessive amounts of sugar may be

overly active and find themselves being punished frequently at school. These children also may want to stay away from school. It is unlikely, however, that either DUSO or HDP concentrates enough on diet to affect children's eating habits.

In conclusion, then, this study was designed to test the effects of DUSO and HDP on children's school attendance. The study seems to indicate that these programs can have significant effects on school attendance. In addition, the study provides some information about which facets of the multimodal model influence school attendance.

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# Psychology for Secondary Schools

## *The Saber-Tooth Curriculum Revisited?*

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ABSTRACT: *The secondary schools of this country have come under detailed criticism for continuing to promote a narrowly pedantic, content-acquisition focus in the general curriculum. Evidence, reviewed here, indicates that such a focus fails the pupils on two counts: (a) intellectual development and (b) psychological maturity. Neither educational goal is served through present procedures or content. Recently, the Committee on Psychology for Secondary Schools (CPSS) has proposed a series of guidelines for teacher certification that strongly suggests that psychology as a curriculum discipline follow a similar content-acquisition model. This article criticizes such a view. Metaphorically, it is suggested that such a curriculum focus may constitute revisiting the saber-toothed tiger. In this view, psychology would be passively following in the wake of traditional education as simply the newest contender for irrelevance. This article presents a detailed rationale and emergent evidence for an alternative conception for psychology as a subject area, a method of instruction, and a professional obligation.*

For the past decade, the American Psychological Association, through its Committee on Psychology in Secondary Schools (CPSS) and the closely allied Human Behavior Curriculum Project, has struggled with the definition of goals and objectives for the teaching of psychology to adolescents. The Oberlin, Ohio, conference of 1970 was the first major step in an attempt to provide form and substance in response to a perceived growing national need for teaching psychology. The APA Central Office, prior to that time, had received numerous requests from the field for guidance and direction. It was clear then, and it remains clear now, that there is a major demand for psychology courses in secondary schools. Estimates vary, but even conservatively, at least half a million teenagers are currently enrolled in such courses (Zunino, 1974).

The demand is evident; how best to respond is not. The questions of curriculum content and process are most difficult. On the one hand, knowledgeable experts both from the discipline and from pedagogy are requisite. Otherwise, psychological content will continue to grow like Topsy as it did in the 1960s, first in one direction, then in another, subject to the latest fad or whimsy. Such extreme relativism is clearly a nonsolution. Without some theoretical coherence, psychology becomes simply a series of fun-and-games exercises to spark up an otherwise dull Friday afternoon in the classrooms of the country. Pupils and teachers learn precisely the wrong concepts, a dangerous "pop" psychology, complete with facile misinterpretations of complex human behavior.

On the other hand, it may only appear that a solution is at hand by adopting a focus on high-quality scientific and academic goals. If academic psychologists and professional educators are distressed by a contentless, exclusively experiential, "pop" psychology approach (and rightfully so), an obvious immediate solution would be to feature psychology as a hardheaded discipline. The CPSS guidelines for teacher training, recently approved by APA's Education and Training Board, suggest that all secondary school teachers present a coherent set of academic psychology courses for certification, including general, experimental, social, physiological, and personality psychology, and covering the history of psychology, research design, statistics, and assessment and evaluation of the individual (Committee on Psychology in the Secondary Schools, Note 1). But does such an approach really solve the curriculum problem? This article contends that such a content solution may not solve anything at all. Instead, a focus on psychology as an academic discipline in such a

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narrow sense may be, in fact, just as much as a nonsolution as was the "fun-and-games" psychology.

## *Curriculum Objectives: A New Problem?*

Is psychology the first discipline to face the generic question of educational objectives? This is obviously a rhetorical question. In fact, the curriculum literature on English, social studies, math, science, and foreign languages (the five "sacred" disciplines in secondary schools) has long wrestled with such questions. The problem has perhaps been posed most vividly in a classic, *The Saber-Tooth Curriculum*, which appeared under the pen name of J. Abner Peddiwell in 1939. In Paleolithic times, a tribe developed a curriculum to meet its particular survival needs. In a Flintstones version of Maslow's hierarchy, the tribe decided that they couldn't survive at all unless they could cope effectively with the herds of ferocious tigers complete with saber-sharp teeth. Thus an educational program was developed. The tribal elders decided to teach the young how to scare away the tigers with firebrands, as well as how to club woolly horses to obtain material for clothing and how to catch fish with their hands from the clear-running stream. The curriculum worked. The young learned the skills. The tribe thrived. But then an ice age arrived, and with it new problems. The tigers caught cold and died, the woolly horses ran away, and the fish disappeared into the now muddy water. In place of the tigers came huge bears who were attracted by fire. Herds of antelopes replaced the slow-footed, clumsy horses. Fish ran in new schools, staying in the muddy waters. The elders met again. Their curriculum content appeared outdated. The children were clearly turned off. They wanted relevance. The elders were perplexed. Should the children be taught to trap bears, snare antelopes, and build fishnets? After lengthy consideration, the committee of elders declared that the original content was to remain the focus:

> We don't teach fish-grabbing to grab fish, we teach it to develop a generalized agility which can never be developed by mere training (in net-making). We don't teach horse-clubbing to club horses, we teach it to develop a generalized strength in the learner which he can never get from so prosaic and specialized a thing as antelope-snare setting. We don't teach tiger-scaring to scare tigers; we teach it for the purpose of giving that noble courage (Peddiwell, 1939, pp. 42-43).

## *Objectives: A Paradox?*

Is there an effective solution for secondary school psychology? If psychology goes down the road toward an exclusive emphasis on academic discipline, it clearly runs significant risks. In fact, at the inception of the CPSS, such a direction was almost taken for granted. Even the title, which then used the term *pre-college* psychology, indicated that high school psychology was to be a watered-down version of college-level introductory psychology—a conservative model most acceptable to the elders, surely. Certainly the arguments were and are compelling. The general skills of objective, scientific thinking derived from the study of psychological theories and principles do transfer and generalize. The study *of*, and learning *about*, such concepts forms a basis for general education in psychology. Skills and relevance are considered too transitory or too subjective. Such a view purports to make the teaching of psychology *safe* for adolescents and *scientific* for the Association. Objectivity would prevail.

If one reviews the present guidelines for teaching psychology in secondary schools, there is still strong evidence that academic content is a major, if not exclusive, focus. The guidelines suggest that secondary school teachers essentially take some seven or eight college-level courses for the requisite academic background. And in terms of an objective centered on content level and knowledge base, this recommendation is most understandable. No one favors teaching pseudopsychology. Yet, by essentially paralleling the requirements for teaching psychology at the undergraduate and graduate levels, secondary school psychology has almost by default opted for the academic-content emphasis.

The guidelines flow from an assumption that public school teaching should be similar in content and format to collegiate instruction. All the required areas and topics are covered. The only difference seems to be that the neophyte professor would have to study more of the same content. Thus, the main thrust of the guidelines is toward a comprehensive knowledge base in general psychology. The secondary school teacher ideally would be a psychologist-scientist first; scholar (or at least minischolar) in psychology would be his or her primary professional identification. A comprehensive knowledge base is clearly the sine qua

non for the secondary school teacher. Is this revisiting the saber-tooth curriculum?

If we look for a moment at an alternate conception, it may indeed seem like a revisitation. George Miller, in his classic 1969 dictum, spoke for the young and the lay public (G. Miller, 1969). He made a strong statement in favor of relevant educational objectives for psychology. Suggesting that the elder professional establishment create a new psychology that could be "given away" to the public, Miller came out deliberately setting forth new goals. The profession was to cull its knowledge-base armamentarium and select principles and practices that the public could use in its own behalf. This proposal was and is a tall order, to be sure, but it does represent a remarkable educational objective: a psychology not for the profession, not for the Library of Congress, and not for graduate-student "eyes only," but a psychology that laypeople could use for their own, as well as the general public's, welfare, a practical psychology that would help each person manage his or her own life with greater effectiveness and competence. Such a Socratic conception of the importance of self-knowledge and self-understanding is hardly new. What is new, however, is that a leading member of the professional psychological establishment should espouse such a goal in public. Also new are the implications for the curriculum and the teaching of psychology at the secondary school level.

## *Secondary Schools: The Context*

If one examines the problems and needs of high school pupils for a moment, one finds both an urgency and support for Miller's dictum. In 1971, a close professional colleague and I published an article in this Journal that described in considerable detail the teaching–learning problems in the secondary schools of this country (Mosher & Sprinthall, 1970). Our critique was admittedly harsh. The national curriculum projects of the 1960s, for example, the "new" math, social studies, science, and so forth, had foundered. The learning atmosphere in most classrooms was still far too passive, esoteric, and pedantic. The formal curriculum content seemed obscure to most students. The informal curriculum, or, as it is more usually referred to, the hidden agenda, was educating adolescents in an ironically negative sense. Coleman's (1961) classic study demonstrated quite clearly that questionable educational values dominated the learning atmosphere. Pupils became more extrinsically motivated, more subject to the values of the "leading crowd"—fast cars, good looks, athletics—the longer they remained in secondary school. They also learned that adults have power and that children too often are impotent, are irresponsible, and should be intellectually and personally dependent. Such a hidden agenda becomes a major psychological education for adolescents in a miseducative sense (Grannis, 1967; Sprinthall & Mosher, 1971).

Are the late 1970s different from the previous decade? Unfortunately, it appears as if the old adage still holds—the more things change, the more things remain the same. A very recent series of studies of such disciplines as English, social studies, and science indicates that secondary pupils and curriculum materials remain as ships passing in the night, except in this case without even a look or a voice before darkness again.[1] For example, Flanagan's (1973) massive nationwide study, Project Talent, found almost no change in teenagers' content acquisition and understanding in English literature between 1960 and 1970. In the 1960s, he found that less than 65% of high school students (from a national sample of over half a million) could understand Robert Louis Stevenson, that only 36% could understand Rudyard Kipling, and that less than 8% could understand Jane Austen. There was almost no change in the 1970s.

In social studies education, the results were similar. Scriven (1972) found that more than two thirds of the high school pupils queried could not produce a reasoned argument on the pros and cons of democracy as a form of government. The finding that almost 70% of these teenagers resolutely opposed every practical instance of free speech is hardly surprising, albeit depressing.

In secondary school science, a comprehensive regional study by Renner et al. (1976) in Oklahoma produced results even less sanguine than those in English and social studies. He found that from 66% to over 90% of the students were not able to process the concepts that form the basis for biology and chemistry. The students were apparently learning the constructs by rote, without the requisite understanding of generalizations.

What these studies show rather clearly is that curriculum content focusing on the acquisition of

[1] From Longfellow's "The Theologian's Tale."

knowledge does not produce positive learning outcomes. Asking pupils to learn about academic disciplines in secondary schools assumes, yet does not stimulate, development. Material may be memorized for a test but disappears quickly from consciousness. One could almost say that the greater the attention to a comprehensive content base, the greater the long-term lacunae; the more subject matter covered, the less learned. And this is not really surprising. Ralph Tyler in a series of classic studies in the 1930s provocatively demonstrated the weakness of an exclusive focus on content acquisition for teaching and learning. He found that pupils "forgot" almost 50% of content after 1 year and up to 80% in 2 years. To underscore how concrete such learning can be, he noted that most pupils thought that all banks paid 6% compound interest because that was the figure commonly used in textbook examples (Tyler, 1933). McConnell's (1978, p. 160) recent comment in the *American Psychologist* is simply a more personal account of content-acquisition failure in the form of Lowell Kelly's hitchhiker.

We need, then, to reconsider the focus of high school psychology. Does the teacher really need to master the content of nine or ten undergraduate psychology courses for the requisite knowledge base? If such is the case, aren't we in for a recycling of failure? In the 1950s and 1960s, the secondary school classrooms were filled with a cadre of Masters of Arts in Teaching—the famous Conant MAT plan, funded generously by the Ford Foundation. Subject-matter expertise was expected to upgrade the schools. Accurate and comprehensive content would flow from improving the scholarly competence of the teacher. Yet we now know the conception was too narrow, as has been pointed out elsewhere (Mosher & Sprinthall, 1970). Will psychology fall victim to the same (however well-intentioned) error? [2]

If the schools follow the content model, is this a not-so-serious case of benign neglect? After all, if at least, say, 25% of the pupils do manage to learn in school, then let's concentrate on those adequate learners. Not everyone is cut out to be a scholar, or so this view might suggest. Aside from such a shabby rationalization for elitism, this view also neglects another extremely serious consequence of miseducative school programs. What is the psychological and personal impact of such programs? Does veneration of the intellect for a few have negative psychological consequences for all? Certainly, at a minimum, content for content's sake ignores substantial parts of the learner. What of self-concept, personal competence and efficacy, value development, a sense of empathy and social justice? Are the public schools in a democracy not to espouse and promote democratic values? Are value development and psychological growth to remain nebulous, relativistic, and neutral goals of the secondary school curriculum? If psychology joins the older disciplines to become yet another content to be acquired, will this beg a far more important question than simply the possibility of psychology as one more ship in the night, a new contender for irrelevance?

If we follow Miller's dictum, of course, the answers are clear. Teaching psychology in new ways could serve to stimulate personal and psychological maturity. At present, there is very little evidence that such development occurs. It is clear now, as it was in our review of the 1960s, that schooling cannot remain neutral on the question of value development. A head-in-the-sand approach does not eliminate the problem. Public schools have for too long assumed that psychological maturity and democratic value development occur either automatically or, preferably, immaculately. Such a cop-out, of course, simply turns over the process of development to other social forces, such as the peer group, the community, and/or the advertising media. Studies since Coleman (1961) have continued to confirm that values are learned very deliberately during adolescence and, in many cases, with negative consequences (Coleman et al., 1974; Mosher & Sprinthall, 1970). In cynical language, Olafson (1977), an eminent educational philosopher, has recently urged that the school give up its role as a "crash course recapitulating the cultural history for the benefit of latecomers" (p. 196).

## *Promoting Human Development: John Dewey Revisited*

Naturally, a generic question emerges: Should the public schools seek to promote and stimulate value

[2] There may be other variables causing such poor school performance. In fact, as noted by Mosher and Sprinthall (1970), each critic group has its own best candidate—the bomb, the demise of the extended family, too much television, urbanization, the anti-intellectual tradition, and so on. Given the number of hours pupils spend in school buildings, however, the general curriculum (including content, teaching strategies, and classroom atmosphere) must bear a major responsibility.

development? When Miller spoke of giving psychology to the public, was he simply engaging in rhetoric when he added, "to promote human welfare"? Can we conceive of educational and curriculum goals in value-free domains? Miller, it seems clear to me, was in the tradition of Dewey when he explicitly linked the objective of his credo to such democratic principles as the promotion of human welfare and the development of the self.

This view is not the same as the tiresome dichotomy that has plagued psychology and education for too long, namely, science versus humanism. As Wertheimer (1978) has so concisely demonstrated, humanism in such a context becomes a logical absurdity. Humanism or humanistic psychology, which extolls process variables and excludes objectives, falls into a philosophical cul-de-sac. Or as Kohlberg (1969) has put it, humanism is simply a more modern version of the old-fashioned character traits as a bag of virtues. To be authentic or spontaneous, or "real" or free, or whatever is the latest catchword, is really no different from the old-fashioned character traits of the Hartshorne and May (1928–1930) studies of the 1920s. Thus, a psychology that holds objectives of promoting human welfare is from a different tradition and epistemology, is not simply a brand of humanistic psychology. This is an important, not trivial, distinction. Otherwise, such a psychology for secondary school pupils will be written off as some vague notion of personal growth or adjustment.

Instead, it may be possible to adopt a cognitive–developmental framework for goals and objectives that do not beg the value question nor fall into the trap of relativism. The creative work of Dewey forms the benchmark for theory and practice in this vein. He noted, long ago, problems that could be anticipated from a content-acquisition focus. With just a touch of irony, he commented that fate must have smiled on the geography curriculum developers of his day by creating five continents, "because starting in far enough along the course, it was so easy, that it really seemed natural, to give one continent to each grade and then come out right in eight years" (Dewey, 1956, p. 103). Such traditional education was simply, in Dewey's words, "inscribing records upon a passive phonographic disc to result in giving back what has been inscribed when the proper button is pressed in recitation or examination" (from Archambault, 1964, p. 7). Apparently, the 19th-century traditionalist curriculum developers were as busily revisiting the saber tooth as were some of those in this century.

In place of a content-centered education, Dewey proposed that human growth and development become the aim of education. "In the first place, it is a process of development of growth and it is the process, and not merely the result that is important . . . an educated person is the person who has the power to get more education" (from Archambault, 1964, p. 4). In other words, if we define and know what development *is*, then we may know what education ought to be. This is not necessarily a naturalistic fallacy but rather a closely reasoned argument, clearly described in detail elsewhere (Kohlberg, 1969). Dewey's concept of the nature of the stages and sequence of human growth formed a critical bridge between the process of development and educational goals.[3]

Dewey's framework for progressive education, of course, failed. There were multiple reasons for this, which have been detailed very well by Cremin (1961). At least part of the failure was due to the incomplete psychological knowledge available during his time. The recent impressive work by a variety of contemporary cognitive–developmental researchers, however, validates and gives new impetus to his original views. By providing detailed information on the content and structure of the multiple domains of psychological development, contemporary theorists are filling in the gaps and advancing more accurate successive approximations to critical definitions of developmental stages and sequences.

## *Contemporary Cognitive–Developmental Theory*

What the contemporary theorist-researchers demonstrate is that there is a similarity in form across a variety of domains with content variations according to the specific domain. For example, Table 1 represents in highly simplified form a variety of theoretical stages of development.

There are similarities and differences, according to theorists, as is obvious from the table. However, as all the definitions of stages imply, higher stage development represents a most important

[3] A more complete account of the contributions of Dewey to a cognitive-developmental framework can be found in Sprinthall and Mosher (1978).

TABLE 1
*Domain of Developmental Stages*

| Theorist | Piaget (1961) | Kohlberg (1969) | Loevinger (1966) | Hunt & Sullivan (1974) | Selman (1976) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Domain | Cognitive | Value/moral | Ego–self | Conceptual | Interpersonal |
| | Sensorimotor | Obedience–punishment | Presocial, impulsive | Unsocialized, impulsive | Egocentric |
| | Preoperational | Naively egoistic | Self-protective | Concrete, dogmatic | Social informational |
| | Concrete | Social conformity | Conformist | Dependent, abstract | Self-reflective and mutual |
| | Formal substage 1 | Authority maintaining | Conscientious | — | Social and conventional role taking |
| | Formal substage 2 | Contractual, legalistic | Autonomous | Self directed, abstract | |
| | Formal substage 3 | Principled orientation | Integrated | — | |

goal.[4] From a developmental point of view, higher stage functioning is "better" than lower in the long run. Higher stage process is more complex, takes in more variables, represents more comprehensive cognitive problem solving, and is more aesthetically harmonious. Heath (1977) uses a broad construct, psychological maturity, to denote such a goal. At higher levels of psychological maturity, an individual can think more critically/logically, scientifically. Also, such a person can think intuitively/creatively, for example, both convergently and divergently. Similarly, in other domains of functioning, higher stages comprehend more complete processing. For example, in the value realm, an individual can role play and empathize with the emotions of a wide variety of human beings and can process moral dilemmas according to standards of democratic justice. Similarly, in terms of the self, higher stage functioning permits a clearer differentiation and integration of self and others, a sense of both individuality and interdependence. Bakan (1966) views such a process as the ability to fuse the apparent paradoxes of human functioning; his terms are agency (self-direction) and communion (relationships). Other theorists use similar constructs to describe higher stage functioning as more complex, more humane, more subjective, and more objective (a description that is, one hopes, more than a psychological version of having one's cake and eating it, too). For example, Allport (1968) used the phrases "tentative, yet committed" and "wholehearted but half-sure," implying the ability to puzzle through the tough problems of living, to take a stand, and yet to remain open to possible revision and new information—making successive approximations. In the light of such constructs, the apparent dichotomies that have plagued us for so long in the scientist–humanist debate can be resolved through a developmental framework. At higher and more complex stages, humans can function more comprehensively.

These are clearly value-laden issues. The sophistry and relativism that hold all positions to be equally valid do not constitute a cognitive–developmental view. Moreover, it is clear from any reading of higher stage functioning that there is an obvious cultural context with respect to democratic principles. The Jeffersonian principles of human dignity, of respect for human personality, of self-development, of responsibility to the common good, and of freedom and equality for all are embedded in higher functioning that is more cognitively and morally complex. Dewey, of course, along with other 19th-century educators such as Horace Mann, saw the clear connection between the goals of free public education and the needs of a democratic society. Dewey (1950) noted that all social institutions have a meaning and a purpose:

> That meaning is to set free and to develop the capacities of human individuals, without respect to race, sex, class or economic status. . . . The test of their value is the extent to which they educate every individual into the full stature of his possibility. (p. 147)

## *Educational Goals: Academic Achievement or Psychological Maturity?*

Yet, does it make a difference to espouse such a goal for schooling as psychological maturity in-

[4] I am fully aware that not all cognitive developmentalists would agree. In fact, Loevinger has consistently asserted that her "ego" construct is the master trait, subsuming all other domains of development. There is, of course, no empirical evidence in support of such an assertion. It seems more reasonable at this point to consider each domain as both somewhat separate and yet somewhat related, a more conservative and congenial interpretation than the master trait theory.

stead of the more traditional acquisition of academic content? Does success in living relate to grade point academic achievement? This is admittedly a most difficult research question because of the complexities involved in defining success in life. There is evidence, however, that life skills and success after the completion of formal education are more closely related to psychological maturity than to scholastic aptitude or grade point achievement. A Ford Foundation study of college graduates over a 16-year span (Nicholson, 1970) indicated that scholastic aptitude and grade point average were not related to life success measured by a combined index (inclusion in *Who's Who*, peer judgment, advanced graduate work). With an overlapping design and sample sizes of 400 to 500 students, the study did indicate that secondary school counselor/principal recommendations based on estimates of personal and psychological maturity were effective predictors of success not only for college itself but also in the following years. These so-called high-risk students presented SAT scores some 150 points below the scores of comparison groups.

More recently, Heath's (1977) longitudinal studies with college-age samples reached similar conclusions. Carefully identified constructs, such as ego maturity and competence, were found to be significantly related to a broad and manifold definition of life success, whereas academic achievement was not. The ability to symbolize one's experience, to act allocentrically with compassion, to act autonomously with self-control and a disciplined commitment to humane values—these characteristics formed part of the core of psychological maturity. Ironically, Heath (1977) found, especially for the Americans in his cross-cultural study, that

> adolescent scholastic aptitude as well as other measures of academic intelligence do not predict several *hundred* measures of the adaptation and competence of men in their early thirties. In fact, scholastic aptitude was inversely related in this group to many measures of their adult psychological maturity, as well as of their judged interpersonal competence. (pp. 177–178)

After reviewing multiple studies on childhood predictors of adult performance, Kohlberg (1977) concluded that academic achievement in school makes no independent contribution to successful life adjustment. Instead, he found that indices of psychological development do predict success—in this case measured by occupational success and absence of crime, mental illness, and unemployment, or by expert ratings of life adjustment.

Finally, McClelland (1973) very clearly suggests that success in living has little relationship to mastery of academic content. Noting the educational version of Catch 22, he underscores the point that although scholastic tests may predict grades in school, grades do not predict success in life. He quotes from a series of studies of successful performance in jobs as varied as bank teller, factory worker, air traffic controller, and scientific researcher as evidence of the unpredictability of success. As a result, he too suggests that psychological competence is a far more significant educational outcome than is content acquisition. Somehow, the educational establishment has confused mastery of academic content, originally viewed as a means to an end, with the end itself, namely, successful citizenship in a democratic society.

Essentially, then, one of the glaring difficulties of present secondary school curricula is the singular focus on content memorization. As Coleman (1974) has so dramatically suggested, the children have outgrown their schools.

## *Toward a Balanced Curriculum*

Given the extent of the problem, what are possible solutions? In the long run, criticizing schooling is cheap if we stop there, and yet new solutions are not easy. Since the publication of the 1970 article in the *American Psychologist* (Mosher & Sprinthall, 1970), a series of programs have been tried out as models for "new education." These studies, taken as a whole, provide support for the contention that school programs can be designed that stimulate psychological (ego) and moral maturity *and* academic understanding by adolescent pupils. In other words, a synthesis is possible to promote psychological growth (the understanding of self and others in increasing more complex modes) as well as the acquisition of concepts and principles.

To accomplish such a dual objective—a developmental synthesis—requires a broadened conception of curriculum approaches. Studies indicate that, at a minimum, there is a need for balance between "real" experience and intellectual reflection. In other words, curricula should involve a consistent interplay between actual, real-world application and intellectual analysis of the principles and concepts involved. Learning psy-

chology by doing psychology is a somewhat superficial, yet accurate, description of the approach.

The problem and challenge for educators is to construct programs that include a balance between the experimental and the intellectual. Experiential learning by itself is as arid an approach to learning as is the more traditional content focus. Adolescents, on their own, will not necessarily "learn" anything from so-called action learning programs (e.g., serving as community interns, teachers' helpers, etc.) if there is no systematic intellectual examination and no readings to help illuminate the possible meaning of such experiences. For example, a recent study by Exum (1977) compared combinations of modes of teaching psychology at the junior college level. He reported that a content-only focus was as ineffective as an experiential-only approach when an index of psychological maturity was employed as an outcome measure. His results in general cross-validated a series of studies at the secondary school level. These studies provide empirical support for the contention that it is possible to design secondary school programs that achieve psychological objectives—promoting human growth and development.

Figures 1 and 2 show the results of a series of courses using indices of psychological growth on both the Loevinger (1966) ego development stages and the Kohlberg (1969) measures of moral maturity. These classes for adolescents involved actual experience in applying psychology plus a seminar to stimulate intellectual analysis. Dowell (1971) and Rustad and Rogers (1975) instructed in counseling psychology with applications in peer counseling. Mosher and Sullivan (1975), Cognetta and Sprinthall (1978), and Exum (1977) instructed in educational psychology with applications in cross-age teaching. Hedin (1979) employed a variety of role-taking experiences, such as community internships in health-care psychology, plus weekly in-class discussions and readings. In all cases, the students in the experimental programs improved in their levels of psychological

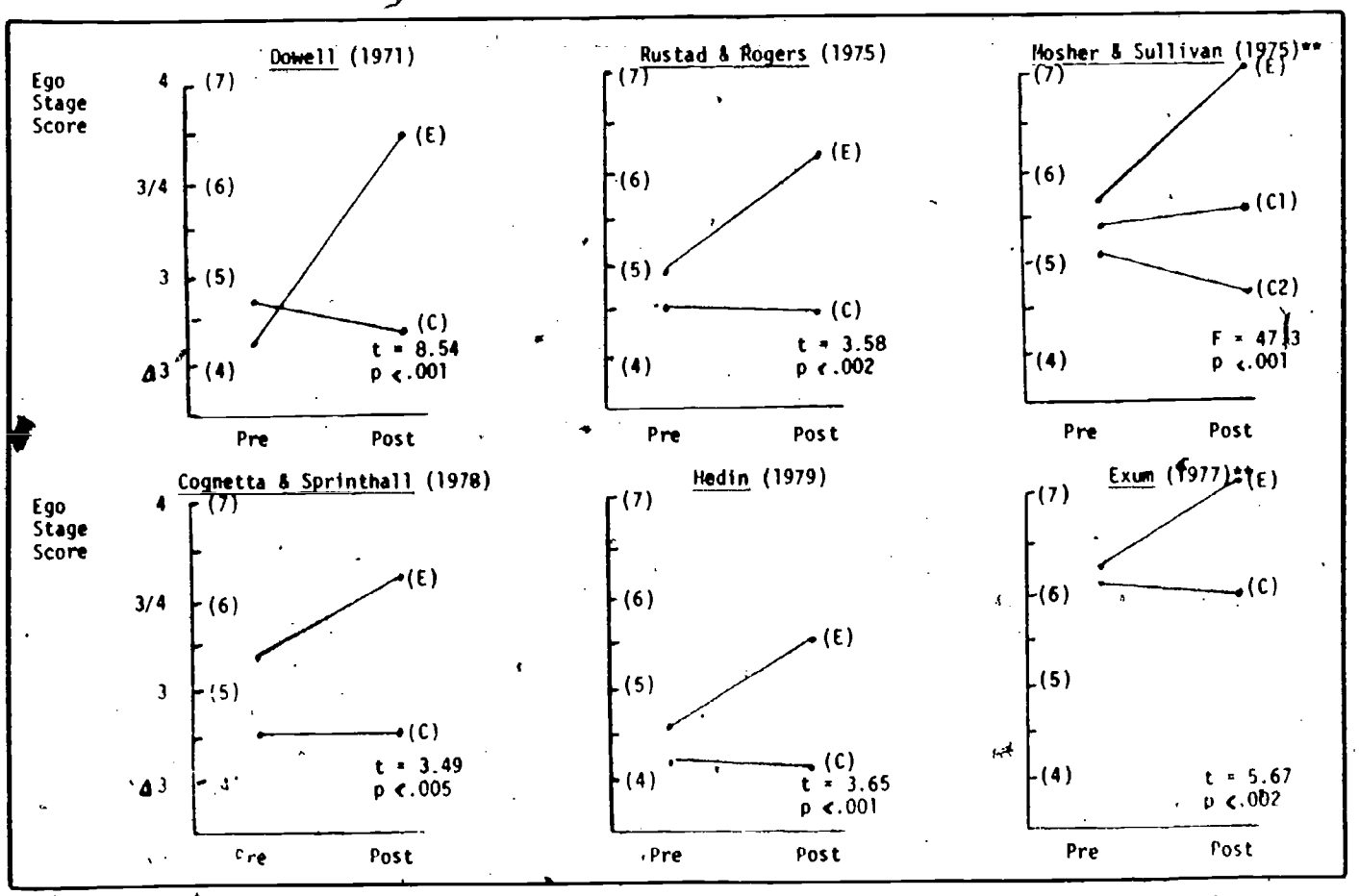


Figure 1. Changes in students' psychological maturity, measured in terms of Loevinger's ego development stages, for six programs in psychological education. (Loevinger stage scores were converted to a 10-point scale for the statistical analyses. Numbers in parentheses represent the numerical score. All probabilities are reported for one tail. E = experimental; C = control. **These programs were year-long classes. The other four programs were from 12 to 14 weeks long.)

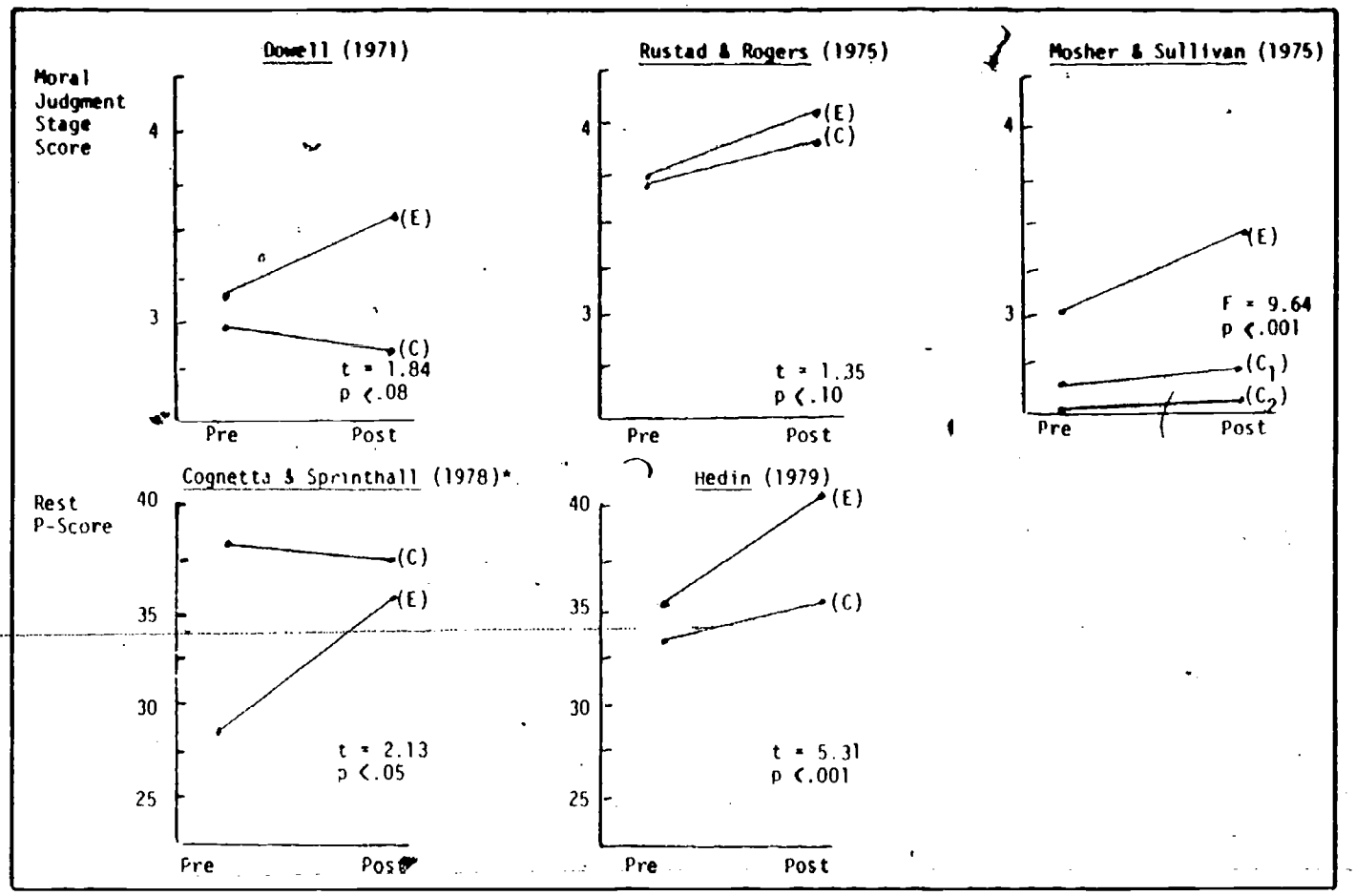


Figure 2. Changes in students' psychological maturity, measured in terms of Kohlberg's moral stages, for five programs in psychological education. (E = experimental; C = control. *Cognetta and Sprinthall and Hedin used an objective version of the Kohlberg Moral Judgment Interview developed by James Rest at the University of Minnesota.)

maturity when compared to either randomized control groups or intact comparison groups.[5]

Content acquisition was specifically tested in two studies. Concepts of child development were taught through a seminar–practicum method (one morning per week in a preschool, plus 2 hours per week in class). At the high school level, employing a knowledge of child development tests, the seminar–practicum students demonstrated a substantial increase in their understanding on a pre- to posttest basis (Greenspan, 1974). In a related study, Preuss (1976) found that the levels of cognitive complexity of pupils' "talk" in their seminar discussions moved from concrete to abstract during the latter phases of the seminar. The talk was coded and rated blindly according to levels of thought complexity. Such studies provide initial evidence that a balanced curriculum can influence not only psychological maturation level but also the domain of content and complex thinking skills.

The programs noted (as well as others cited in D. Miller, 1977) were conducted in a variety of school settings, both urban and suburban, and with pupils from a full range of socioeconomic backgrounds. Some variation was necessary in the amount of teaching structure employed in the seminars, yet on an overall basis, the results were consistently positive across class and school as long as there was a balance between real-world application and the psychological ideas to be learned.

Thus, a reasonable, tentative, yet supported, conclusion is that teaching aspects of psychology

[5] In natural-setting research it is not always possible to convince secondary school principals of the advantages of true randomized assignments. In such cases we followed Gage's (1978) suggestions and used comparison classes, conducted at the same time, with pupils who volunteered for courses in the same way as pupils did for the experimental courses. The actual results were the same in either case. The Hedin (1979), Exum (1977), and Mosher and Sullivan (1975) studies used randomly assigned groups, while the other studies used intact comparison classes.

to adolescents can be accomplished in such a way as to promote psychological as well as intellectual development. At the same time, it would be foolhardy to suggest that the formats noted here represent the single best method. There are, obviously, numerous other possibilities that may also result in productive outcomes. For example, the new modules from the Human Behavior Curriculum Project (Note 2) may offer another promising method. Those materials were developed on site, in schools, by teams of psychologists and teachers. If those learning experiences can be tied to applications and sequenced, to meet Dewey's concept of consecutiveness, then the project may achieve the dual objective of student growth and intellectual development. In any case, these are only beginnings indicating what may be possible. Curriculum materials and instructional strategies can be developed in a broad range of areas, which may achieve broad psychological maturation objectives.

## *Hard Choices*

The crucial point is really twofold. First, there is evidence from a number of studies that secondary school psychology does not have to face a Hobson's choice between academic psychology and nothing. Second, the American Psychological Association, through its appropriate divisions and committees, needs to sponsor and legitimate a comprehensive focus for secondary school psychology. Thus, rather than produce a safe and scientifically respectable set of guidelines focused on academic content, it would be important to reset the teacher-education goals. Instead of nine or ten college-level psychology courses, secondary school teachers would need competence in classroom strategies and procedures at least equal to or greater than competence in specific subject matter. In this regard, I agree with Gage's (1978) most recent summary. He notes that even at the secondary school level, the effective teacher becomes "in substantial degree a humane facilitator of student interaction with instructional material; thus the kinds of 'teaching skills' that are most effective in helping students use specialized teaching materials will always be needed and appropriate, regardless of subject matter" (Gage, 1978, p. 78).

Without equal time and emphasis on the kind of teaching as well as the new materials that an expanded psychology curriculum needs, the broad and significant human goals may not be reached. Of course, this also means that hard choices must be faced. It would be a nonsolution simply to extend the present guidelines to include a major new emphasis on psychological maturity in addition to the present eight or ten content areas. Such a decision avoids the central issues, as well as being almost totally unrealistic for either pre-service or in-service teacher education. Some trade-off is clearly necessary for a balance. There must be some reduction in the content required in exchange for a greater emphasis on the techniques and strategies for a psychological developmental objective. This does not mean turning the teacher into a clinical psychologist. It does mean emphasizing a teacher role that aids the pupil in coming to terms with the polarities so elegantly noted by Bare (1974):

> Viewing the issue as knowledge of self or knowledge of others, one sees a problem unique to psychology . . . . The study of consciousness was the study of me with the hope of understanding you; the study of behavior is the study of you with the hope of understanding me. (p. 6)

Without both domains, the issue and indeed the opportunity unique to psychology will be lost. Clearly the learning atmosphere and present curriculum-content focus in so many secondary schools miss the central objective of psychological growth. The opportunity unique to psychology, since both content and focus are still emergent, would be to opt for the objectives now desperately missing.

The answers to the problems of secondary school psychology are not in. The fear is that the current CPSS guidelines may reify only one solution. Instead, we need to sponsor an increasing number of school-based tryouts as well as generally to legitimize needed research and development work. Some new materials and teaching strategies are barely surfacing. We need to expand such efforts, including careful field assessments. The programs from the so-called Deliberate Psychological Education projects serve only to indicate that at least one alternative is possible. Obviously there must be other approaches that could stimulate psychological maturity as well as content mastery. A major effort is urgently needed now to spur creative solutions to such requisite curriculum development.

## *Summary: But What of the Pupils?*

Drawing on a large number of studies and expert commentary, I have tried to make a strong case

for a new role for psychology in secondary schools. In seeking to prevent the encapsulation of psychology by traditional content-centered secondary school subjects, I have suggested a rationale, supported by empirical data, that psychology for secondary schools can and should seek broader objectives. In fact, implicitly, I'm suggesting that "new education" in the form of psychology take the lead in modeling and demonstrating needed educational reform. A singular focus on content acquisition can too easily become an elitist approach for the top third or so of public school teenagers. The public schools, however, are for all the public, especially mandated now by the so-called mainstreaming law (Public Law 94–142). This only increases the urgency of general curriculum reform. Certainly, it is to be hoped that 10 years from now yet another Flanagan Project Talent report will not produce more depressing news concerning what is really learned in schools.

The more persuasive reason for reform may come, not from the experts, the studies, or the rhetoric of a George Miller, but rather from the pupils themselves—shades of Kelly's hitchhiker! Recently, the Human Behavior Curriculum Project (Note 2) extensively surveyed secondary pupils. The results are most interesting. The pupils want a psychology that will teach them about themselves, about their emotions, relationships, personal power, consciousness, pain, and depression. In a sense, this is not surprising. The adolescent is a natural psychologist, becoming aware of and questioning the difference between objective reality and subjective perception, pondering the causes of human behavior in self and others. The survey only confirms the psychological-mindedness of adolescents as they struggle to form a self-identity and gain an understanding of others. These are, after all, legitimate questions.

As educators, we can continue to ignore such issues and allow the hidden agenda to remain as before: We can continue to hope that somehow a psychological version of the saber-tooth curriculum will generalize and stimulate development. Or we can seriously reexamine our educational goals, our assumptions concerning curriculum and instruction as those issues relate to the developmental-stage potential of adolescents. Failure to adequately respond to the legitimate educational needs of the entire adolescent (the whole teenager) is no longer a case of benign neglect. The failure to stimulate psychological maturity during adolescence may indeed lead to atrophy and arrested growth. Reforming the process of instruction in secondary school psychology will not, in and of itself, save the schools from their current plight. It will, perhaps modestly, at least serve as a model of how things can be done differently. Tinkering adjustments to the current model of content acquisition will not do. Psychology in the secondary schools can rise to a far greater challenge, the creation of relevant learning experiences that will stimulate both psychological and intellectual growth in order "to promote human welfare."

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