

- acting by use of fear, force, threat, appeal, or persuasion. When such practices are used and appear to be effective, it means only that the surface behavior has changed (*Ibid.*, p. 278).
- Generally, children know what is sanctioned and what is not. They may want change, but will conform to their perception of the group's expectation. (*Ibid.*, p. 279). The teacher must somehow assist the students in developing a shared perception of a need for change. The process evolves around:

1. Presenting the need for change.
2. Clarifying the nature of the change.
3. Creating a desire for change.
4. Exploring alternative behavior.
5. Establishing a line of action.
6. Making a decision to act, which is perceived by group members as a consensus and a commitment to act. (*Ibid.*, p. 280).

Edith Bennett (1955) assessed four variables in efforts to create change. The variables were: group discussion, group decision, group commitment, and the degree of consensus. She found that group discussion by itself was no more effective than a lecture. Making a commitment was not an important factor either. However, the process of making a decision, and the degree of perceived consensus increased the likelihood of the class executing an action desired. Bany and Johnson have outlined several "basic propositions stemming from research that have implications for creating change."

1. Unity, cohesiveness, and satisfaction with the group is an important factor influencing the willingness of a group to change its behavior.

2. In attempts to change a certain specific type of behavior, the more relevant the new type of behavior is to the attractiveness of the group, the greater will be the influence in the group to change.

- (a) This means that the change the teacher desires must be made attractive to the group...
- (b) If the group members feel their class is considered "inferior" or "not so good" by the teacher, then children in these low-rated groups lose some (or much) of their self-confidence and personal esteem.
- (c) Down-graded groups (groups which have not had positive appraisals) or those groups which perceive themselves as such, contain disappointed and frustrated children. These children often reject behavior patterns which conform to what the teacher and school desire.
3. Change in an established pattern of behavior cannot be brought about by trying to influence popular group leaders.
- (a) Considerable evidence has been accumulated through research showing the tremendous pressures which groups can exert upon members to conform to the group's standard way of behaving.
- (b) The price of deviation in most groups is rejection or even expulsion. If the child really wants to belong and be accepted, he cannot withstand this type of pressure. He will "go along" with the group even though he suffers teacher disapproval.
- (c) Evidence has been obtained that shows that popular boys exhibit greater resistance against influence directed against the existing group's way of behaving than do less popular boys.
- (d) Individually powerful children, when introduced into earlier formed groups, are unable to abolish or run counter to group standards or ways of behaving that have already been established.

(e) Evidence indicates that once a group establishes its own pattern for behaving in a particular situation, status individuals or popular or powerful individuals will be more conforming to this pattern. Therefore, methods which attempt to change group behavior through popular persons are completely ineffective.

4. The patterns of control used daily with the children in the classroom are an important factor relating to success in creating change.

- (a) If authoritarian practices have been the general rule, then a switch to participative practices will be suspected by the group.
- (b) If communication in the class has been severely curtailed, or if a status hierarchy has been imposed and maintained in the group, any planned change in behavior will be extremely difficult to execute.

(c) If pupil leaders have been appointed to maintain controls, group cooperation undoubtedly is low and change in behavior will be difficult to achieve (*Ibid.*, p. 282-283).

After a change has been initiated there is a tendency for groups to slip back into previous ways of behaving unless favorable appraisals are made of group effort. It helps if the class group is provided opportunity to evaluate the new behavior.

1. The group is asked to consider whether the decision to change behavior succeeded.
2. In terms of the total effect, was the change effective? Were the desired results achieved? In what ways might the change be improved? Are the results satisfactory?
3. Are further changes desirable? What changes are needed? Any new changes must be clearly stated in terms of actual behavior and must be understood by all.

(e) Does everyone agree to the new changes?

5. If some improvements are desired, the class agrees to try to improve its plan of action and the improved plan is given a trial (*Ibid.*, p. 305).

It is important that the evaluation session is not a fault-finding session. Instead, it should be for the purpose of stating obstacles or difficulties. Positive behavior should also be noted.

When group members collectively act to change conditions, they are demonstrating goal seeking behavior. Group goals are as binding on members as group norms.

An approach being used to change both individual and group behavior is behavior modification. This approach involves stating objectives in precise positive behavioral terms. The teacher makes a note of how often these behaviors occur (gathering base-line data). Then the teacher makes reinforcement a positive consequence, contingent upon the desired behavior and extinguishes undesirable behavior by withholding reinforcement. The positive reinforcements come immediately after the correct behavior. A secondary reinforcer (social comment, praise, etc.) may be paired with a primary or already learned secondary reinforcer. A record is kept of behavior so that information is available in case modification is necessary. When the desired behavior seems established, the student is placed on an intermittent reinforcement schedule with gradually increasing intervals between reinforcements until the student is on a schedule equivalent to that provided by that natural environment and

conscious reinforcement by the teacher is stopped (Goodall, 1972, p. 132).

It is claimed that a technology has developed that enables teachers to control behavior with precise techniques. The Western Massachusetts Learning Problems Laboratory has developed inservice training for teachers in these techniques. Also, Managing Behavior by Hall, Wolf's handbook on Teaching-Family Model; Precision-Teaching, by Meacham and Norris; the Consulting Teacher Model by McKenzie; and the Behavior-Analysis Model by Bushell, all present the technology of behavior modification. It should be noted that behavior modification is often used for more than modification of social behavior.

Two major efforts, the Head Start and Follow-Through planned variation studies, are under way to compare behavioral and other especially designed approaches to compensatory education. The results, highly tentative so far, indicate that the two behavioral approaches - Don Bushell's behavior-analysis plan and the E-B program designed and run by Siegfried Engelmann and Wesley C. Becker at the University of Oregon - outstrip all the others in improving the academic performance of preschool and first-grade children. This outcome is no surprise; the behavioral programs are designed specifically to achieve this goal, and their highly structured, no-nonsense format led Follow-Through evaluators at the Stanford Research Institute to nickname them "pricklies." Still, even with less tangible objectives, such as positive shifts in attitudes toward school and learning, these two approaches seem to be about as effective as humanist programs - the "goosies" - that talk more about the growing awareness of the whole child than about test scores. (*Ibid.*, p. 136).

Several techniques have been developed for changing social behavior. These include: 1) the use of a token economy, 2) earned time, 3) status levels, and 4) a place for "time out". Such techniques are used in the following way. Students may be presented with a list of desired behaviors stated in positive terms. Students are told that each time they behave in the way indicated, they will be given a token which can be traded in for things that they want. The students may be asked to generate a list of things that they like to do. These become the things for which they can trade tokens. Class begins with a strict authoritarian structure. Students are told where to sit and what to do.

They are not allowed to talk. If they misbehave they may lose tokens. As soon as the student finishes the work and it is corrected, the student may trade the tokens in for desired activities. The student is now considered to be on status level one. He may keep track of the number of tokens earned. He also keeps track of "checks" that he gets when tokens are taken away. When he has earned a pre-stated number of tokens and has gone a certain period without any "checks", the student may request to be moved to status level two. This grants him some privileges and responsibilities. For example, the student may now choose to sit next to a friend. Later, he may qualify to move to status level three which has further privileges and responsibilities. The student may now be allowed to work on projects in small groups

or with friends. This means that the students have the responsibility to behave appropriately when allowed to be on their own interacting together. On this level, the student may be allowed to continue working after the regular assignment is finished and save his earned time to take later. This means the student may choose to take a full class period off to spend his saved up earned time and trade his tokens in on activities. In effect, this means a student is choosing to work much longer in order to get a reinforcement. The student is now on an intermittent schedule. Next, the student is taken off the schedule altogether by being placed on status level four. The status levels provide a mechanism for moving the student from consistent reinforcement through degrees of intermittent reinforcement to natural reinforcement - a point of being off the program. The tokens provide a way to give students immediate reinforcement. If a student misbehaves, tokens are easily taken away. If the student misbehaves again, he can be sent to "time out" (a place where he is by himself) for five minutes. Basically, students trade tokens for "earned time" during which they can engage in activities they have chosen.

There has been movement toward behavioral approaches because they are simple and they work. The instructional systems development model is behavioral in that it focuses on behavioral objectives. A good program guarantees that 90% of the students will achieve the stated objectives. Objectives to behavioral approaches are that they are mechanistic and not humanistic, and that they are too superficial and don't deal with what happens inside. Supposedly, behaviorists have not concerned themselves with researching the areas about which the humanists are concerned. The "Articles of the Association of the American Association for Humanistic Psychology" lists these concerns as: "love, creativity, self, growth, organism, basic need-gratification, self-actualization, higher values, being, becoming, spontaneity, play, humor, affection, naturalness, warmth, ego-transcendence, objectivity, autonomy, responsibility, mean, fair-play, transcendental experience, peak experience, courage, and related concepts."

However, the behavioralists and the humanists might not really be so far apart. Having studied the work of both and talked to the leaders of each, Kenneth Goodall concludes "...the implicit assumptions of the post-Skinnerians have a strangely humanist ring.

For many applied-behavior analysts, as for humanist heroes like Thomas Szasz and R. D. Laing, mental illness is a myth. Labeling persons as schizophrenic or retarded is useless and often harmful. The illness, or medical model, which perpetuates the myth and the labels, is no longer valid. Neither are the tools - I.Q. tests, attitude scales, questionnaires - that facilitate the pigeonholing process.

If a person exhibits "deviant" behavior, the failure is in the social and physical environment that determines his behavior, not in the individual: changing

the environment will change the behavior. If "treatment" is necessary, the best place to do it is in the home or school, not in some artificial or perhaps permanent place of confinement. And the best persons to provide the treatment are parents, teachers, friends - not medicine men. Therapy, even with large groups, must concentrate on the individual or it will not be effective; and its concern is with the here and now, not with some past trauma or some statistical prediction about future performance. But therapy itself should take a back seat to prevention, which is far better and less expensive. Above all, the process of changing human lives must be evaluated continually, and it must be accountable to its consumers, the persons who are affected by it and the persons who pay for it...the new breed of Skinnerians has a lot in common with many of the younger radical and humanist professionals who are challenging the traditionalists in psychiatry, psychology, education, counseling, social work, rehabilitation, and correction.

I suspect that if it weren't for their own curtains of mutually exclusive jargons and mutually reinforcing labels, the humanists and the behaviorists might be surprised at how near they are to being bedfellows (Goodall, 1972, p. 60, 62).

### Counseling

Another approach to handling behavior problems, conflict, and trying to promote change is counseling. Empathy, respect, and concreteness are basic to the counseling relationship. Dewayne Kurplus describes empathy and respect and concreteness as follows:

Empathy - Listening to another person in a manner in which we put ourselves into the frame of reference of another so that the other person's thinking, feeling, and behaving are completely understood, even to the point of being predictable.

Respect - Respect is present when the helper does not judge the helpee but accepts his present functioning as a part of that person at the time. As the interaction continues, the helper will indicate understanding,

acceptance, and warmth which is observable and reinforcing to the helpee (Kurplus, 1971, p. 256). Concreteness is the ability to "facilitate a direct expression of all personally relevant feelings and experiences in concrete and specific terms" (*Ibid.*, p. 282).

Robert R. Carkhuff has presented a scale for measurement of empathetic understanding in interpersonal processes (1969, p. 174-175). Carkhuff sees a continuum of levels in degree of empathy from a level one where the expressions of the helper either do not attend or detract significantly away from the expressions of the helpee to a level five where the helper's responses add significantly to the expressions of the helpee through expressing levels even deeper than the helpee and fully being with him in moments of deepest levels of self-exploration.

Kurplus presents several suggestions to help a teacher move toward level five. He first suggests reflection of content.

A simple style of merely repeating almost verbatim the words the student has just used. It may be useful for the student to hear the words that he has used so that he has a better understanding of how they sound (Kurplus, 1971, p. 267).

Next, he suggests use of reflection of feeling. Often times the student will make a response to the teacher in which the words describe a very cognitive kind of statement while the feeling of the student is at a much deeper level. This technique is used to tell the student that you really do understand how he feels about what he is saying even though he is not verbalizing it (*Ibid.*)

121. It helps to notice non-verbal communication and check out what it means by asking the helper to extend his limits of understanding by:

1. Listening for more intent and feeling in the helpee's statements.
2. Moderately interpreting or asking the helpee a question to help each other better understand the true message. A sample response which the helper might make is: "Could it be that you fear teaching in front of a class of 30 students while being observed by your supervisor?" With an introduction of "could it be," the helpee can agree that you are following accurately or suggest that you had not heard the total message. In the latter case, the helper merely responds with, "Would you help me better understand what you are saying?" (*Ibid.*, p. 280).

...the final stage of understanding and helping concentrates upon problem solving. Sometimes the problem identification, selection of alternatives, and decision making are quite clear and relatively easy to make. Other times, however, the helpee is not ready to act upon the problem. In this case, the helper should not proceed in advance of his helpee, but meet him at his level of self understanding and functioning (*Ibid.*, p. 270).

Carkhuff also presents a scale for measurement for the communication of respect in interpersonal processes. This scale proceeds from level one of negative regard to level five of communication of deepest respect for the helpee's worth and potentials (Carkhuff, 1969, p. 178-179). Also, Carkhuff sees it as necessary to move through three stages of respect.

...in early stages the emphasis is upon unconditionality or unconditional positive regard enables both the helper and the helpee to experience the helpee as fully

as possible. The essential communication, which often is implicit, is, "With me you are free to be whoever you are." This is not to say, however, that there are no limits set. There are limits, but they primarily involve those behaviors that are harmful or potentially harmful to the helpee or others. In this sense, the terms unconditional or unconditional positive regard are misnomers, for no one is totally unconditional in relation to another. While the communication of warmth may be a modality for communicating respect, translated functionally, unconditionality merely involves the suspension of all potentially psychonoxious feelings, attitudes, and judgments on the part of the helper - that is, those that might have a restrictive or destructive effect upon the expressions and behaviors of the helpee. Such a communication establishes the basis for a secure relationship within which the helpee can experience and experiment with himself. Furthermore, it provides the basis for the helper as well as for the helpee to come to know the helpee well enough to discern those aspects of the helpee that are deserving of positive regard, the second stage of respect (*Ibid.*, p. 276).

Next, the second stage of respect is described.

As the helper comes to know the helpee, then, he comes to experience aspects of the helpee to which he can respond positively. If he cannot do so, there is no basis for continuing further, since there is no hope that the helpee will come to have respect for his own capacities for making appropriate discriminations and acting with responsibility in relevant areas. The modalities for communicating positive regard involve the communication of accurate or attempted empathic understanding and, to a lesser degree, the genuinely positive responses of the helper to the helpee. In particular, the degree to which the helpee will reflect the degree to which he communicates respect in its second stage. At a minimum the communication, "You are worthy of my effort to understand" establishes a basis for the helpee's experience of his own self-worth. At a maximum a depth of understanding on the part of the helper communicates his readiness and desire to be able to know the helpee more fully. In a sense we might view the respect dimension in more traditional behavioristic terms. We need first to know who this person is before we can respond positively to some or all of his assets. However, since not all of

his characteristics are functional and thus deserving of positive reinforcement, we must also deal with those that are nonfunctional and even self-destructive. This consideration leads readily to the third stage of respect (Ibid., p. 278).

#### And so, next is the third stage of respect.

As we come to know the helpee fully we determine that there are many aspects of his behavior that we want to reinforce positively and many that at a minimum we want to extinguish and at a maximum to reinforce negatively or punish. In a very real sense, Stage 2 has already initiated an extinction process by the selective reinforcement of some behaviors and the absence of reinforcement for others. In this context, Stage 3 is more critical in rehabilitation treatment processes than it is in socioeducational processes. The last stage of respect, then, emphasizes a conditionalality respect. That is, "Given your developmental stage, I will respect you only if you function at your highest level." The central message of this stage involves not accepting an individual at less than he can be...At the highest levels, this has implications for full and creative productivity, and, indeed, self-actualization. The helper's conditionality is not predicated upon "doing things as I do them" but rather upon "finding your own way, employing me as a model for someone who strives to be fully himself not only in the moment but in life" (Ibid., p. 280).

Next, the teacher needs another significant element in communicating with others. This third element is concrete. Garthuff's scale for measurement of personally relevant concreteness of expression in interpersonal processes extends from discussions with only vague, anonymous generalities, abstract and highly intellectual ideas to a discussion with direct and completely specific feelings, experiences, situations, and events. Concreteness can also be thought of as moving through three stages.

During the initial stage, . . . the helper employs his resources to influence the helpee to discuss fluently,

directly, and completely specific feelings and experiences regardless of their emotional content. Again, the helper influences the helpee through the critical sources of learning. He may employ specificity in his own communications, whether basically reflective or interrogative, so that he enables the helpee not only to have the facilitative experience of having the specifics of this problem understood but also the experience of being encouraged to make his own relevant discriminations and communications. In addition, the helper provides the helpee a role model for a person who can deal concretely with problem areas, his own as well as those of others. Finally, the helper may didactically teach the helpee to communicate concretely in both his questions and his directions. In summary, then, during Stage I, the helper's concreteness serves several critical functions: . . . it insures that the helper's response does not become too far removed emotionally (Ibid., p. 285.)

Stage 2 of Concreteness is something quite different, for, having enabled the helpee to deal with the specifics of his problem areas, it now becomes imperative for the helper to decrease his emphasis on this dimension in an attempt to achieve a fuller, freer exploration on the part of the helpee. Thus, in the intermediary phase the helper may not only allow but also actively encourage the helpee to explore himself in more abstract, less specific ways. In particular, in dealing with material that is not readily available to the helpee's awareness, it would seem most effective to facilitate a more vague and general course of exploration. Suffice it to say that this is the form that less conscious or unconscious processes take and it is simply not effective to attempt to impose concreteness on what is not concrete. The modalities of the second stage involve nonspecific probing and free associations on the part of both the helper and the helpee. Although not always apparently immediate in relevance, the second stage enables the helpee to break the binds of rigid cosmologies, restricted thinking, and blunted emotionality. Such a course enables both the helper and the helpee to return once again to the relevant areas with a new and fresh perspective necessary to discern and design a constructive course of action during the last stage (Ibid., p. 286).

During the final stage the dimension of concreteness once again takes on a critical function of the helping

process. Whereas it initially served responsibly as a necessary supplement to understanding all specific and relevant aspects of the helpee's problem area, now it functions actively to consider all specific and relevant aspects of educative or remedial action. Concreteness is, at this point, the key to a consideration of potential preferred modes of treatment. It involves a consideration of alternative courses of action, including in particular the details of the advantages and disadvantages of each. At this point, its modalities include both questions and answers on the part of both the helper and the helpee. It may also include, among many other possibilities, representational balance sheets, topological portrayals, and specific homework assignments. The second stage, having provided new and fresh perspectives, lays the base for breakthroughs in the development of modes of problem resolution. On the one hand, it becomes apparent to the helpee that he has many more degrees of freedom available to him than he once thought he had. On the other hand, in conjunction with a depth of self-understanding, the helpee's improved discriminations allow him to discern the subtle cues that determine the course of action most suitable for him. It should be underscored that many would-be helpers attempt to move to this stage prematurely (*Ibid.*, p. 287-288).

Specific techniques and approaches for counseling students have been developed by others that follow the same general outline. Rudolph Dreikurs elaborates by presenting cues to look for, an Adlerian frame of reference to which to refer, and key phrases to use. Dreikurs suggests considering a child's placement in the family and the child's success in attaining effective recognition. He suggests that when a child can't get the recognition he needs through positive means, the child turns to more negative and destructive means. The teacher's job is to help a child find more effective ways of satisfying his needs. According to Dreikurs, a problem can usually be classified as striving for

1) attention, 2) power, 3) revenge, or 4) withdrawal. As the child is less successful in obtaining his needs he may move down the list from attention. Supposedly, if the child is not successful he gives up and withdraws.

There are two approaches to be taken to help the child. One is to provide him with as many positive opportunities to obtain recognition as possible while not reacting to attention getting devices, power struggles, etc. Secondly, the teacher can confront the child more directly. For example, if the child is always disrupting class in trying to get attention, the teacher might say, "John, it appears to me that you need a lot of attention. How much attention do you need during a class period? I want to be sure to give it to you. How much *is* enough?" Five times, six, ten?" Of course, the teacher has taken the child aside so this conversation is not in front of the whole class. The teacher gets the student to agree on a specific number of times he should get attention. Then in class each time the child tries for attention, the teacher numbers it. "That's one.", etc.

Another approach outlined by Dreikurs is to counsel the student. In the counseling approach, the teacher asks the student what the problem is. The teacher tries to get the conversation very specific by getting a "critical incident." From the "critical incident" the teacher tries to get the student to see that he is trying to get attention, if that is the problem, by asking him questions. If the

student doesn't come up with a solution on his own, the teacher may suggest "Could it be...?" If the student gives a "recognition reflex" (a smile) the teacher knows that both he and the student now are aware of the cause of the problem. The teacher, then, tries to get the student to realize that his technique for getting attention is not as successful as it could be. He then asks, "What are you going to do differently?" The idea is to get the student to focus on a specific plan of action to behave differently. The teacher then sets a time to talk to the student again to see how things are going and evaluate the suggested change. The emphasis is to try to use an indirect approach to help the child see the reason for his own behavior and find a more effective method of satisfying his needs.

Dreikurs feels that the best method is through the use of "natural consequences", if possible. It is important for the child to become aware of the consequences of his actions. In this way, Dreikurs develops a partial technology for dealing with individual problems. (Dreikurs, 1968)

Another useful framework for counseling is transactional analysis developed by Eric Berne. Here, the basic idea is that people play "games" to get "strokes," or collect "stamps." An example of a "game" might be "gossip" where everyone talks about Bertha collecting "stamps" for each juicy tidbit they can think up. Another "game" played

by a wife might be, "You don't love me anymore," or "escape-goat," or "If it wasn't for you, I wouldn't be stuck at home."

In playing "games" people may take one of three roles: adult, child, or parent. The child and parent roles are really recordings from the past played back and don't represent real direct communication. If a person takes on a "parent" role, he forces the other person into a "child" role. A child role often gets a parental response. Authoritarian moralizing would be a parental response while an emotional reaction represents what is meant by a child response. The ideal is to move to adult-to-adult conversations without "game" playing. In adult-to-adult communication, people talk openly and directly about how they feel and discuss matters with honesty, empathy, and respect. (Berne, 1964).

Transactional Analysis has been applied directly to the problems in schools among students, parents, teachers, and administrators. According to Ernst, the basic games in schools are:

- |                            |                              |
|----------------------------|------------------------------|
| <u>Trouble-Maker Games</u> | <u>1 / Disruptor Variety</u> |
|                            | 1. Uproar                    |
|                            | 2. Chip on the Shoulder      |
|                            | 3. Stupid                    |
|                            | 4. Clown                     |
|                            | 5. Schlemiel                 |
|                            | 6. Make Me                   |

2 / Delinquent Variety  
 7. Let's Find  
 8. Cops and Robbers  
 9. Want Out  
 .....  
 Put-Down Games

4 / Discount Variety

- 10. Sweetheart
- 11. Blemish

5 / Complainier Variety

- 12. Why Does It Always Happen To Me
- 13. Indigence
- 14. Why Don't You - Yes, But...
- 15. Late Paper
- 16. Wooden Leg

6 / Tempter Games

Kissy Variety

- 17. Disciple
- 18. Lil Oil Me
- 19. Trap-Baiter Variety
- 20. Let's You and Him Fight
- 21. Miss Muffet
- 22. Let 'Em Have It
- 23. High and Proud
- 24. Do Me Something
- 25. Stocking
- 26. Rapo

7 / Teacher Games

Close-To-Student Variety

- 26. Buddy
- 27. Self-Expression
- 28. Critique

9 / Helpful Variety

- 29. You're Uncommonly Perceptive
- 30. Student Folder
- 31. I'm Only Trying To Help You
- 32. Sunny Side Up
- 33. Education
- 34. Why Don't You - Yes, But...
- 35. Look How Hard I've Tried
- 36. 1-Know-Best Variety
- 37. Furthermore
- 38. Tell Me This
- 39. Professional
- 40. Why Did You - No, But...
- 41. Now I've Got You
- 42. See What You Made Me Do
- 43. Courtroom Corner
- 44. It's Been Done Before (Ernst, 1972, Contents)

There are, of course, many other techniques of psychological analysis that can be applied in counseling. The methodologies mentioned in this paper represent the approaches receiving most current interest.

In summary, human interaction is an important aspect of instruction. Facilitation of effective human interaction involves: 1) creating conditions and climate for work, 2) establishing behavior standards and discipline, 3) promoting effective communication, 4) handling conflict and directing change, and 5) counseling individuals.