

1973

A Study of the Effectiveness of the Glasser Classroom Meeting Technique

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Eastern Illinois University

This research is a product of the graduate program in [Educational Psychology and Guidance](#) at Eastern Illinois University. [Find out more](#) about the program.

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A Study of the Effectiveness of the

Classroom Meeting Technique

(TITLE)

BY

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Completed under the auspices of Title III. E. S. E. A.
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THESIS

SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
CHAPTER 1 - Introduction to the Study	1
A. Background of This Research	1
B. Statement of the Problem.	1
C. Procedures.	1
1. Location of the Project.	1
2. Correlation of the Groups.	2
3. Assessing Academic Achievement	3
4. Assessing Personal Adjustment.	3
5. Assessing Social Adjustment.	4
6. Assessing School Attendance.	5
D. Assumptions	6
E. Limitations	9
F. Definition of Terms	10
CHAPTER 2 - Resume of Related Literature	12
A. The Glasser Theory.	12
B. The Ventura School Application of Glasser's Theory.	16
C. Theories Similar to Reality Therapy	17
CHAPTER 3 - The Results.	23
A. Academic Achievement.	23
B. Personal Adjustment	26
C. Social Adjustment	28
D. School Attendance	31
E. Summary of Test Results	32
CHAPTER 4 - Conclusions.	33
A. Summary	33
B. Comments of This Research	33
C. Recommendations for Further Studies	36
D. A Final Comment	37
BIBLIOGRAPHY	38
APPENDIX	39
Experimental Group, Social Sociometric Rating Scale	40
Experimental Group, Academic Sociometric Rating Scale	41
Control Group, Social Sociometric Rating Scale.	42
Control Group, Academic Sociometric Rating Scale.	43
Graph 1	44
Graph 2	45
Graph 3	45
Graph 4	47
Graph 5	48
Graph 6	49
Graph 7	50
Graph 8	51
Graph 9	52

CHAPTER 1

Introduction to the Study

A. Background of This Research

During the past four years a program for the socially maladjusted has been carried on at Jefferson Junior High School in Mattoon, Illinois. A Title III grant for the 1972-3 school year has allowed this program to be introduced at two Mattoon elementary schools. Slow learners, as well as socially maladjusted children, are included in the elementary program. The few program students at the elementary schools remain in their regular classrooms during the year while innovative techniques are used in an attempt to deal with the source of the students' problems. One such technique is the classroom meeting developed by Dr. William Glasser.

B. Statement of the Problem

Since the Glasser technique of classroom meetings has been accepted for use by the Title III program, the researcher decided to see if the meetings were effective in making positive changes in the students' achievement in school, personal adjustment, social adjustment, and school attendance. It was hypothesized that the use of this technique would bring about the following results:

1. Improved scholastic achievement
2. Improved personal adjustment
3. Improved social adjustment
4. Improved school attendance

C. Procedures

1. Location of the Project

To determine the validity of the hypotheses, various pretests and posttests were administered to an experimental group of students who experienced fifteen classroom meetings and a control group which

continued its normal school work. Both groups of students were third graders at Hawthorne Elementary School in Mattoon, Illinois. This school was one of the two Mattoon elementary schools chosen to take part in the Title III project, and as such it consented to take part in research studies. Mrs. Doris Reinhart's class was the flip of the coin choice for the experimental group. In this room fifteen classroom meetings of about one half hour were held during the school year. The researcher followed as closely as possible the Glasser technique of handling these meetings. The class taught by Miss Carol Scribner was the control group in this project. No classroom meetings were held in this room. During the half hour that classroom meetings were held in Mrs. Reinhart's room, Miss Scribner's class continued with regular lessons.

2. Correlation of the Groups

These two classes were compared for similarity in age and intelligence. To check the similarity of intelligence, the Slosson Intelligence Test was given to each student. Then the mean score from each room was compared to see that no significant difference existed between the two rooms. Fisher's "t" test for testing a difference between uncorrelated means was used to determine that there was no significant difference in age or intelligence between the two groups at either the .05 or .01 levels.

The pretest scores on all tests mentioned below were also compared for significant differences between the groups. The Fisher's "t" for testing a difference between uncorrelated means showed that there was no significant difference between the two groups on any subtest of

the Metropolitan Achievement Test, Form AM, Primary II or the California Test of Personality, Primary.

3. Assessing Academic Achievement

As has been previously stated, pretests and posttests were administered to both groups of students in this project. The Metropolitan Achievement Test, Form AM, Primary II was used to assess academic achievement. This test attempted to measure the students' achievement in the following subtest areas: Word Knowledge, Word Discrimination, Reading, Total Reading, Spelling, Arithmetic Computation, Arithmetic Concepts, Problem Solving, and Total Arithmetic. Although these are not all of the subjects taught in the third grade, the test does try to measure two of the most important subjects in the early grades, reading and arithmetic. Change in scores on each section of the test for each student between the pretest and posttest was recorded, and the total amount of change for each room was found. The mean score for each room and the squares of the deviation from the mean on individual scores were used in Fisher's "t" for testing a difference between correlated means. This "t" statistic was then used in determining the validity of the first null hypothesis, "There is no difference in improvement in academic achievement as measured by the Metropolitan Achievement Test, Form AM, Primary II between a control group and an experimental group participating in classroom meetings." .05 was accepted by the researcher as the standard level of significance for each of these subtests.

4. Assessing Personal Adjustment

Personal adjustment was evaluated by the first half of the California Test of Personality, Primary. This test furnished the following subtests

for measuring personal adjustment: Self-Reliance, Sense of Personal Worth, Sense of Personal Freedom, Feeling of Belonging, Freedom from Withdrawing Tendencies, and Freedom from Nervous Symptoms. The scores on these subtests were then added together to arrive at the total Personal Adjustment score. Again, improvement or change in score on each subtest and the total score from the pretest to the posttest was recorded for each student. The room scores were then compared with "t" tests performed for each subtest and the total Personal Adjustment scores. These tests determined the validity of the null hypothesis, "There is no difference in improvement in personal adjustment as measured by the "Personal Adjustment" section of the California Test of Personality, Primary between a control group and an experimental group participating in classroom meetings." As before the .05 level of significance was used as the standard level of significance.

5. Assessing Social Adjustment

Social adjustment was assessed in part by using the second half of the California Test of Personality, Primary. This test consisted of the subtests Social Standards, Social Skills, Freedom from Anti-Social Tendencies, Family Relations, School Relations, and Community Relations. These subtest scores were added together to get a total Social Adjustment score. The scores on the pretest and posttest for each child were recorded and change in score was found. The total change, whether improvement or regression, on each subtest and the total score was calculated for each room and compared using Fisher's "t" for differences between correlated pairs of means.

Social adjustment was also assessed by means of two sociometric rating scales devised by the Title III staff. Students rated their classmates on social and scholastic acceptance on a 1 to 7 scale. Copies of these rating sheets can be found in the Appendix of this paper. Average ratings were found for each student on the pre- and post-ratings. These were compared for changes in each room's totals with the Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Signed Ranks Test.

These statistics based on the scores made on the California Test of Personality, Primary and the sociometric rating scales were both considered in deciding the validity of the null hypothesis, "There is no difference in improvement in social adjustment as measured by the "Social Adjustment" section of the California Test of Personality, Primary and two sociometric rating scales between a control group and an experimental group participating in classroom meetings."

6. Assessing School Attendance

Attendance for each room was found for the entire school year 1972-3. The total number of absences for each room was compared with the Fisher's "t" for testing the difference between uncorrelated means. Attendance for each group was also recorded for the fifteen days on which classroom meetings were held. This attendance was also compared to the attendance of the students on fifteen other school days selected at random. Again, the totals were compared with a "t" test. These tests were used to consider the validity of the null hypothesis, "There is no difference in improvement in school attendance for the 1972-3 school year, nor is there any difference in attendance on classroom meeting days and on fifteen

random school days between a control group and an experimental group participating in classroom meetings."

D. Assumptions

This study must make several assumptions. One of these is that the Metropolitan Achievement Test, Form AM, Primary II is a valid and reliable measure of achievement. The Metropolitan Achievement Test Manual says that each community using the test should assess the content of the test to see that it is consistent with local goals and curricula. Mattoon Community Unit Number Two schools have used this test for several years, and thus it appears that the school officials consider it valid for the community. Moreover, the test makers feel that the test is consistent with most school systems since it has been standardized with over one-half million cases in forty-nine states.¹ Concerning the reliability of this test the manual offers the following statement:

In the opinion of the authors and the publishers of the Metropolitan Achievement Tests a reasonably satisfactory compromise has been reached. Very few of the Metropolitan subtests have reliability coefficients falling below .80. Many of them approach .90 or exceed it, and generally the standard errors of measurement, expressed in stanine terms, are within one stanine.²

The specific reliability scores for the Primary II form are as follows:

<u>Subtest</u>	<u>Reliability Coefficient</u>
Word Knowledge	.93
Word Discrimination	.88
Reading	.94
Spelling	.93
Arithmetic Concepts and Problem Solving	.86

¹Walter Durost, Manual for Interpreting Metropolitan Achievement Tests. (New York: Harcourt, Brace, & World, 1962), p. 33.

²Ibid., p. 47.

<u>Subtest</u>	<u>Reliability Coefficient</u>
Arithmetic Computation	.80
Total Arithmetic	.91 ³

A second assumption is that the California Test of Personality, Primary is a valid and reliable measure of personal and social adjustment. The test gives a general description of how the test questions are selected. They are determined in part from "publications of psychologists and original research by the authors." They feel that they can claim validity because the questions are ones psychologists have written and selected.⁴ The reliability scores for the various sections of the California Test of Personality, Primary are as follows:

<u>Subtest</u>	<u>Reliability Coefficient</u>
1. Personal Adjustment	.83
A. Self-Reliance	.73
B. Sense of Personal Worth	.82
C. Sense of Personal Freedom	.73
D. Feeling of Belonging	.70
E. Fdm. from Withdrawing Tendencies	.71
F. Fdm. from Nervous Symptoms	.87
2. Social Adjustment	.80
A. Social Standards	.51
B. Social Skills	.70
C. Fdm. from Anti-Social Tendencies	.82
D. Family Relations	.82
E. School Relations	.70
F. Community Relations	.78
Total Adjustment	.88 ⁵

A third assumption is that the Slosson Intelligence Test is a valid and reliable measure of intelligence. The Slosson is similar to the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test, Form L-M and has been validated using that test. The validity scores for the age levels of the research

³Ibid., p. 46.

⁴Louis Thorpe, Willis Clark, and Ernest Tregs, Manual for the California Test of Personality, (Monterey, California: California Test Bureau, 1953), p. 7.

⁵Ibid., p. 4.

students and standard deviations are:

<u>Age</u>	<u>Validity Coefficient</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
7	.98	23.5
8	.94	17.6
9	.97	25.1

The reliability score for the Slosson Intelligence Test was found by using a test-retest procedure within an interval of two months. The coefficient found was .97. The test has a standard error of measurement of 4.3.⁶

The sociometric rating scales developed by the Title III staff are assumed to be valid and reliable indices of social adjustment. The students rated all of their classmates on a one to seven scale on each of two forms. One form asks the students to consider how much they would like to invite their classmates to a party, and the other asks who they would go to for help with an assignment. It is assumed that these two scales when used together can give a more accurate idea of social acceptance than just one scale alone. However, these forms have not been subjected to any validity or reliability checks.

Another assumption is that the methods of teaching, materials used, and physical conditions of the two research rooms were as equal as practicable. The two rooms selected for this project were both third grades directly across the hall from one another in the same building. The materials and methods used by the two teachers were very similar, and in fact, these two teachers planned their daily schedules and course materials together. They also did some team

⁶Richard L. Slosson, Slosson Intelligence Test Manual, (New York: Slosson Educational Publications, 1963), p. v.

teaching, exchanged parts of their classes for grouped reading, and exchanged entire classes for science and social studies. The rooms were almost equal in the division of numbers of students of both sexes. There were two Title III students in each room, and in both cases this was one boy and one girl. Even though these four students were given specialized help, the effect of two students in each room should balance out this variable. The students in each room were correlated by means of the Slosson Intelligence Test to make sure there was no significant difference in intelligence levels in the two rooms. They were also correlated to make sure that there was no significant difference in their age levels.

The last assumption is that the researcher was competent to handle classroom meetings according to the Glasser model. This assumption is based in part on the background reading that the researcher has done. This includes Dr. Glasser's books Reality Therapy and Schools Without Failure and several magazine articles. The researcher has also received instruction in the classroom meeting technique in a workshop and intern staff meetings for Title III personnel during the first three months of the 1972-3 school year. The researcher also conducted several classroom meetings in other rooms of the project school for approximately one month before the classroom meetings were started in the experimental room. The meetings in the other classrooms, with the exception of the control room, continued throughout the fifteen weeks of the project also.

E. Limitations

There are some limitations involved in this study. One of these is that the success of the classroom meetings depended on the skill

of the researcher. If the technique was not interpreted or used correctly by the researcher, the results will not be accurate.

Another limitation is that the population used in the study was not large enough for the results to be taken as conclusive evidence of the effectiveness or non-effectiveness of the technique when it is used with other groups.

Also, the sample of the third grade students is probably not representative of all students or even of all third graders. These groups were not selected at random but were two of the few groups open for the researcher to use. The students were already assigned to the rooms that they were in before the researcher arrived, and it was not feasible to change their room assignments. In an effort to control the nonrandomness, the pretest scores of the two groups were correlated with a "t" test.

F. Definition of Terms

The Glasser model of classroom meetings is defined as a large group counseling session which may include a whole class. It investigates feelings of self-worth and the logical consequences of acts. The purpose of the meetings is to build relationships and to develop verbal skills.

Academic achievement is accomplishment shown in school subjects as measured by a standardized achievement test.

Social adjustment means adapting to one's surroundings and the people who live in these surroundings including family, associates, and community.

Personal adjustment means adapting to oneself as an individual person and developing socially acceptable ways of behaving.

The Title III program of Intensive Care in Mattoon is a program for socially maladjusted students or students who are at least one grade level below their class in scholastic achievement. They have intellectual ability which is within one standard deviation of the mean on a standardized intelligence test. Their parents have signed commitment letters to place the children in the program saying that the parents would attend a series of six to eight night meetings to discuss how they may help their child. Once in the program, the children undergo a series of tests to determine where they are scholastically, personally, socially, and behaviorally. Then behavioral or academic contracts are drawn up with the children by which they are rewarded for appropriate behavior or academic accomplishment. They also undergo individual counseling and often group counseling.

CHAPTER 2

Resume of Related Literature

A. The Glasser Theory

The classroom meeting technique was developed by Dr. William Glasser through his experience with Los Angeles school students and students at the Ventura School for delinquent girls.⁷ The technique is only part of his total psychological and educational theory which he calls "reality therapy". Reality therapy is based in part on the premise that school should provide a success identity for the child instead of a failure identity.⁸ Many people can get a success identity, but others--especially in schools--see themselves as failures.⁹ People on success pathways have someone to care for them, and they, in turn, have the ability to care for others. Those who do not have these things turn to failure to establish their identity. This leads to delinquency or withdrawal from school and society.¹⁰ To make school a successful experience, Glasser suggests the following steps:

1. Teach the children "to question without fear and to inquire into topics they don't understand" and teach them "decision making and the ability to follow through on decisions."¹¹

⁷William Glasser, Schools Without Failure (New York: Harper & Row, 1969), p. 5.

⁸Ibid., p. 7.

⁹William Glasser, "Effect of School Failure on the Life of a Child, Part I," Education Digest, 35 (December, 1969), p. 13.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 14.

¹¹Glasser, Schools Without Failure, p. 77.

2. Heterogeneous classes of students grouped only by age should be held. ¹²
3. Grades of A-B-C-D-F should be abolished. ¹³
4. Recognition should be given for superior work. ¹⁴
5. Objective tests and closed book tests should be used only to see if students know basic facts, and these should be eliminated from grading. ¹⁵
6. Teacher training should take place from the time a student enters college until he leaves. ¹⁶

In order to do these things, all people in the educational situation must be involved. Glasser believes that,

Basic . . . to the whole process of education is getting human involvement as a major part of the educational procedure. Without that, there isn't any education; there has to be failure. . . . Teachers have to get emotionally involved with students; it's critical for the whole procedure. Teachers have to care for children and they have to show that they care. ¹⁷

Students as well as teachers must get involved to help them feel the warmth and belonging that comes from participation and interaction in the classroom. ¹⁸

One way to get both children and teachers involved is the classroom meeting. In these "teachers meet with their students in a non-judgmental

¹² Ibid., p. 81.

¹³ Ibid., p. 95.

¹⁴ Ibid., p. 101.

¹⁵ Ibid., pp. 108-9.

¹⁶ Ibid., p. 110.

¹⁷ Glasser, "Effect of School Failure on the Life of a Child, Part I," p. 15.

¹⁸ William Glasser, "Reaching the Unmotivated," Science Teacher, 38, (March, 1971), p. 19.

way for the very simple purpose of listening to what the students say."¹⁹ Glasser says that often he hears complaints from teachers who say their students don't listen. He feels that, "One reason they don't listen--the major reason, I believe--is that the teacher doesn't spend very much time listening to them. Or she just listens to a very select few, the handraisers in the front row--the others are out of it."²⁰ But classroom meetings can be a way to make teachers listen. When they listen to children, teachers' personalities can change drastically because they begin to see their students as real people.²¹ Students also begin to change when classroom meetings are held. They begin to feel that the teacher really does care about them, and this makes them feel worthwhile.²²

Students can also experience success in these classroom meetings. Social-Problem-Solving classroom meetings are held to "attempt to solve individual and group educational problems." In this way students find that they can work together to solve problems that appear very difficult.²³ When they find that they are at least in part in charge of their own futures, they "not only behave better, but also achieve more scholastically."²⁴

¹⁹William Glasser, "Effect of School Failure on the Life of a Child, Part II," National Elementary Principal, 49 (November, 1969), p. 12.

²⁰Ibid., p. 13.

²¹Ibid., p. 14.

²²Glasser, "Reaching the Unmotivated," p. 20.

²³William Glasser, "Schools Without Failure," The Instructor, 78 (January, 1969), p. 61.

²⁴Ibid., p. 86.

Open-ended meetings are another type of classroom meeting. These are used frequently so that children can discuss "any thought-provoking question related to their lives, questions that may also be related to the curriculum of the classroom."²⁵ The teacher looks for no specific "right" answers, but instead she invites the comments of all students.²⁶ In these meetings, "children of any grade level can become deeply involved in and intellectually excited by such dialogue, with a resulting reduction of behavior problems."²⁷

The third type of classroom meeting is the Educational-Diagnostic meeting. These can be used to help the teacher get a quick idea of how well the students understand what they are studying.²⁸ It is hard for the teacher to conduct this type of meeting, however, because she may not be able to spot concepts her students really have not grasped due to her own familiarity with the material.²⁹

Dr. Glasser has established some guidelines for these meetings-- especially the Social-Problem-Solving and the Open-ended meetings.

These are:

1. All problems relative to the class as a group and to any individual in the class are eligible for discussion.

²⁵Glasser, Schools Without Failure, p. 134.

²⁶Ibid., p. 135.

²⁷Glasser, "Schools Without Failure," p. 87.

²⁸Glasser, Schools Without Failure, p. 122.

²⁹Ibid., p. 141.

2. The discussion itself should always be directed toward solving the problem; the solution should never include punishment or fault finding.
3. Meetings should always be conducted with the teacher and all the students seated in a tight circle.³⁰

B. The Ventura School Application of Glasser's Theory

Ventura School implemented an adaptation of the Glasser principles after "a search for ways to improve the educational enterprise for both students and staff." Donald O'Donnell and Keith Maxwell, teachers at Ventura, say, "Our school is concerned primarily with the feelings the child has about himself and school. This affective education not only has personal and social value, which is such a vital necessity in these days wherein the school is accepting responsibility for promoting these values among children; it is also a prime contributor to more affective cognitive learning."³¹ In their adaptation of the classroom meeting the teacher or leader introduces a subject or seeks to find one of concern to the class. No attacks on other people are allowed. Any attempt to deal with behavior must be with present behavior, not past. Blame or punishment are not acceptable solutions to problems.³²

Ventura's Research and Development department has done some research concerning the effectiveness of the Reality Therapy program in their school. The report, published in 1970, showed "that Ventura School

³⁰Ibid., pp. 128-132.

³¹Donald J. O'Donnell and Keith F. Maxwell, "Reality Therapy Works Here," The Instructor, 80 (March, 1971), p. 70.

³²Ibid., p. 72.

pupils have not so far forged ahead in testable qualities." They suggest that many factors may be responsible for this. "One of these is that our students are not used to taking tests, and in fact consider the standardized tests more of an unwelcome interruption of their real schoolwork than a part of it. Another is the limitation of the tests used. Often there were none applicable." However, these people believe that the Reality Therapy program has shown itself to be worthwhile. "Encouraging signs are the enthusiasm of many of the teachers for the program. Boys* especially seem to have benefited by the emphasis on personal adjustment and problem solving. In spite of the de-emphasis on fact finding and direct learning, Ventura pupils have not lagged behind on fact-oriented tests."³³

C. Theories Similar to Reality Therapy

A check through the ERIC files, Education Index, and Psychological Abstracts for the years 1969-72 under the headings Class, Classrooms, Classroom Meetings, Counseling, Glasser, Groups, Group Discussion, and Guidance has failed to reveal any additional evidence of research on the topic of classroom meetings besides that done at Ventura. The Ventura research involves only students subjected to the entire Reality Therapy program, not solely classroom meetings. However, some evidence has been found concerning programs and theories similar to the classroom meeting. In Montgomery County, Pennsylvania, a counselor was upset because so few

³³Ibid., p. 73.

*Page 18 of Schools Without Failure gives this note on Ventura School: "A custodial institution for the most delinquent girls in California, where the author worked for eleven years."

students were being reached by counseling.³⁴ A problem of sixth graders not concentrating on learning tasks brought her to a plan of action.³⁵ Weekly class sessions with the teacher and counselor to discuss the personal concerns of the students were started. She posted a suggestion box for anonymous suggestions of topics to discuss. The students sat in a semicircle. Some students seemed hesitant at first, but as they saw their peers talking, this hesitation largely disappeared.³⁶ The meetings were held for fourteen weeks with the teacher then continuing sessions without the counselor present.³⁷ The counselor feels that these sessions helped students see that others were having the same kind of problems. They also got to know the counselor as a friend and confidant. The counselor started sessions with other rooms in the school also. A third grade teacher remarked about the program, "I feel its' good for my kids, they get things off their minds that bother them. I have learned a great deal about them. . . . These discussions have been much more beneficial to my class than a great deal else in the curriculum."³⁸

³⁴Christine Patzau, "An Experiment in Group Guidance with the Whole Class," Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, 5 (March, 1971), p. 205.

³⁵Ibid., p. 206.

³⁶Ibid., p. 207.

³⁷Ibid., p. 208.

³⁸Ibid., p. 210.

Edson Caldwell advocates that the counselor go to where the problems are and handle the questionings of students in their natural environment.³⁹ This means that counselors should not wait in their offices for problems to get large enough for them to become involved. They should instead go to the classrooms to find out what is affecting the students and to handle small problems before they become large.

Many of the difficulties that appear in the classroom result from outside forces reflecting factors about which teachers may be largely unaware. . . . Actually, many instructors are in trouble; deep trouble. They struggle against unprecedented difficulties, not because they do not try to teach or do not know their subject matter, but because they do not understand the underlying feelings and forces that motivate the behavior that contemporary youth often exhibit in the classroom context.⁴⁰

Robert Myrick also advocates teachers listening to their students. He says that teachers often say that one of their objectives is "development of human potential and individual growth." But then they emphasize facts and the curriculum in their classrooms. He reports a study by Flanders concerning the interaction between teacher and child in the classroom.⁴¹ Flanders arrived at the rule of two-thirds,

"About two-thirds of the time spent in the classroom someone is talking. The chances are two out of three that this person is the teacher. When the teacher talks, two thirds of the time is spent by many expressions of teacher opinion and fact, giving some direction and occasionally criticizing the pupils."

³⁹Edson Caldwell, "Counseling In Context," Personnel and Guidance Journal, 49 (December, 1970), p. 271.

⁴⁰Ibid., p. 276.

⁴¹Robert Myrick, "Growth Groups: Implications for Teachers and Counselors," Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, 4 (October, 1969), p. 37.

Inferior teachers raise this to three-fourths. At a 1968 Systematic Observation Conference it was reported that, "Less than one-half of one percent of teacher talk is directed to a child's feelings, either positive or negative."⁴² Myrick feels that,

A truly developmental approach should focus on the feeling organism and also recognize that feelings are an inextricable part of our intellectual and behavioral processes. As long as feelings are not recognized or are forced to play a minor role in school, learning will be ineffective and schools will help produce emotional and intellectual cripples in society.

Myrick cites a report by Bessell on a Human Development Program in some California elementary schools. Under this program some activities related to the mastery of skills are done in groups, and time is also provided in these groups for children to discuss their feelings and experiences. Myrick says Faust (1968) described "feeling classes" in which the focus is on material related to personal self-concepts. In these classes students discussed pictures showing emotions, finished incomplete sentences, and discussed their feelings toward different subjects.⁴³

Don Dinkmeyer says that more emphasis is being placed on groups now than in the past. This is based on the premise that "human beings are social beings who only grow and develop as humans by having adequate and meaningful exposure to social situations."⁴⁴ He feels that groups

⁴² Ibid., p. 38.

⁴³ Ibid., p. 39.

⁴⁴ Don Dinkmeyer, "Group Approaches to Understanding and Changing Behavior," (Ph. D. dissertation, De Paul University, 1971), p. 1.

can offer the individual "peer encouragement." "The group is able to help the member gain a deeper insight into his values, purposes, and feelings."⁴⁵ He says that because of the importance of groups and group processes counselors should help the teachers learn group procedures.

It is essential that she know group procedures which help her deal with classroom organization, discipline, and the general instructional aspects of guidance. It is obvious that group procedures have considerable potency in dealing with a number of our most basic educational problems.⁴⁶

"Group work in the elementary school is an effective method for dealing with the instructional aspects of guidance and of assisting children who show a defeating self-concept or an inability to relate to others," says Wesley Schmidt. He feels that the group can have a powerful force at the elementary level. "Group guidance emphasizes the needs of students and adjustment to the school setting through get-acquainted methods, leadership development, and role playing." Schmidt feels that the fundamental principles of group guidance are:

1. The group climate is a major determinant of school achievement, either promoting it or distracting from it.
2. A socio-psychological group atmosphere is nowhere more feasible than in the elementary school.
3. Improved peer attitudes (whether for developmental, preventative, or remedial purposes) are probably best developed within the peer group.

⁴⁵Ibid., p. 2.

⁴⁶Ibid., p. 5.

4. An improved self concept is sometimes best developed within the peer group.⁴⁷

Merle Ohlsen feels that the counselor should help teachers develop "Seeman's optimal conditions for learning within their classrooms." He says that this means that teachers must involve themselves in close contact with the students.⁴⁸ Dr. Ohlsen feels that many teachers are interested in their pupils and says that "many are already using group discussion techniques." He says that teachers show their interest in students "by listening to them when they bring problems to school and by encouraging them to talk about their interesting experiences--e. g. by show and tell sessions and by giving them a chance to role play situations that trouble them."⁴⁹ "The teacher's guidance responsibility is to listen and to try to understand--to let his pupils know that he cares about them and that he will set aside time to give them a chance to discuss special topics that concern them." Dr. Ohlsen cites Rogge who in 1965 showed how teachers may stimulate interest by setting aside time for pupils to ask any questions they wished, helping them explore where to look for answers, and probing deeper by asking more questions.⁵⁰

⁴⁷ Wesley I. Schmidt, "Group Guidance in the Elementary School," (part of a report, Illinois State Office of Public Instruction, Springfield, Illinois, 1966), p. 95.

⁴⁸ Merle Ohlsen, "Counseling Children in Groups," (part of a report, Illinois State Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, Springfield, Illinois, 1966), pp. 72-3.

⁴⁹ Ibid., p. 79.

⁵⁰ Ibid., p. 79.

CHAPTER 3

The Results

A. Academic Achievement

The experimental and control groups in this project were given the Metropolitan Achievement Test, Form AM, Primary II in Fall, 1972 as a means of assessing previous academic achievement. The scores for each student on each of the subtests of Word Knowledge, Word Analysis, Reading, Total Reading (test 1 plus test 3), Spelling, Math Computation, Math Concepts, and Total Math (tests 5 - 7) were recorded. Using Fisher's "t" formula for uncorrelated samples of unequal sizes or

$$t = \frac{M_1 - M_2}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{\sum x^2_1 + \sum x^2_2}{N_1 + N_2 - 2} \right) \left(\frac{N_1 + N_2}{N_1 N_2} \right)}} \quad \text{the scores of the two groups were}$$

compared. No significant difference between the groups was found.

(See Table 1 below).

Table 1
"t" Ratios for Experimental and Control Groups on the
Metropolitan Achievement Test, Form AM, Primary II, Pretest

Subtest	"t" Ratio
1. Word Knowledge	.3189792
2. Word Analysis	1.7996239
3. Reading	.2523298
4. Total Reading	.2887889
5. Spelling	1.5115516
6. Math Computation	-.0629687
7. Math Concepts	.839033
8. Math Problem Solving	.8920905
9. Total Math	.6381322
Degrees of Freedom = 40	
.05 significance is 2.021	
.01 significance is 2.70 ⁵¹	

⁵¹N. W. Downie and R. W. Heath, Basic Statistical Methods (New York: Harper & Row, 1965), p. 298.

The Metropolitan Achievement Test, Form AM, Primary II was given to the two groups again in Spring, 1973, after the completion of the classroom meetings. The differences in scores on each subtest between the Fall and Spring testing for each student was taken to be the achievement for that student. The pre- and post-scores for each group were compared with Fisher's "t" for the differences between correlated pairs

of means or $t = \frac{\sum d}{\sqrt{\frac{\sum x^2 d}{N(N-1)}}}$.

The change in score for the experimental group from the pre- to posttest showed improvement significant at the researcher's accepted significance level of .05. All subtests for this group were also significant at the .01 level, and all except the Word Analysis subtest were significant at .001 level. (See Table 2 below and Graphs 1 and 3 in the Appendix).

Table 2
"t" Ratios for Change in Score from Pre- to Posttesting of
the Metropolitan Achievement Test, Form AM, Primary II,
Experimental Group

Subtest	"t" Ratio
1. Word Knowledge	5.4759877
2. Word Analysis	3.169204
3. Reading	6.0026976
4. Total Reading	6.474171
5. Spelling	3.9743786
6. Math Computation	10.2132
7. Math Concepts	5.2525526
8. Math Problem Solving	7.8213601
9. Total Math	11.825391

Degrees of Freedom = 20
.05 significance is 2.086
.01 significance is 2.845
.001 significance is 3.850 52

All scores on the subtests for the control group showed improvement significant at .05, .01 and .001 levels. (See Table 3 below and Graphs 2 and 3 in the Appendix).

Table 3
 "t" Ratios for Change in Score from Pre- to Posttesting of
 the Metropolitan Achievement Test, Form AM, Primary II,
 Control Group

Subtest	"t" Ratio
1. Word Knowledge	5.8601925
2. Word Analysis	6.1746545
3. Reading	4.8014325
4. Total Reading	5.3138284
5. Spelling	6.2628437
6. Math Computation	9.8660607
7. Math Concepts	12.340036
8. Math Problem Solving	7.948205
9. Total Math	14.315642

Degrees of Freedom = 19
 .05 significance is 2.093
 .01 significance is 2.861
 .001 significance is 3.883 ⁵³

From these findings it appears that a highly significant amount of academic learning took place in both rooms during the year.

Although large differences were found in improvement levels between the two groups on various subtests, it was not felt that this was conclusive proof that the experimental method being assessed was either causing or hindering learning in these areas. For example, the experimental group made more improvement in the areas of Reading and Total Reading, but the control group made more improvement in Word Analysis. These differences in reading skills were believed to be due more to the variances of the teachers and students than to the classroom meetings. Also, neither group appeared to be clearly superior to the other in total academic achievement. For these

reasons the researcher has accepted the null hypothesis, "There is no difference in improvement in academic achievement as measured by the Metropolitan Achievement Test, Form AM, Primary II."

B. Personal Adjustment

The California Test of Personality, Primary was given to both the control group and the experimental group in Fall, 1972. This test furnished the six subtests of Self-Reliance, Sense of Personal Worth, Sense of Personal Freedom, Feeling of Belonging, Freedom from Withdrawing Tendencies and Freedom from Nervous Symptoms. These subtest scores were then added together to find a total Personal Adjustment score. The room scores on each of the seven tests were compared using Fisher's ⁵⁴t for uncorrelated samples of unequal sizes. No significant difference between the groups was found. (See Table 4 below).

Table 4
⁵⁴t Ratios for Experimental and Control Groups on the
California Test of Personality, Primary, Pretest
 Personal Adjustment Section

Subtest	"t" Ratio
1. Self-Reliance	.4314847
2. Sense of Personal Worth	.2090738
3. Sense of Personal Freedom	-1.3508144
4. Feeling of Belonging	-.8645533
5. Freedom from Withdrawing Tendencies	.9832174
6. Freedom from Nervous Symptoms	.9393995
7. Total Personal Adjustment	.2415346

Degrees of Freedom = 40

.05 significance is 2.021

.01 significance is 2.704 ⁵⁴

At the end of the classroom meetings held in the experimental classroom, the California Test of Personality, Primary was given

⁵⁴ Ibid.

again to both rooms. Change in score from the pre- to posttest for each student was recorded. The scores for each room were then compared using Fisher's "t" for the differences between correlated pairs of means.

The experimental group did not make any significant change on any of the subtests or total personality scale. (See Table 5 below and Graphs 4 and 6 in the Appendix).

Table 5
"t" Ratios for Change in Score from Pre- to Posttesting of the California Test of Personality, Primary, Personal Adjustment Section, Experimental Group

	<u>Subtest</u>	<u>"t" Ratio</u>
1.	Self-Reliance	.2711788
2.	Sense of Personal Worth	-.8613632
3.	Sense of Personal Freedom	.4090367
4.	Feeling of Belonging	1.271876
5.	Freedom from Withdrawing Tendencies	-.9592554
6.	Freedom from Nervous Symptoms	.5508273
7.	Total Personal Adjustment	-.0347457

Degrees of Freedom = 20
.05 significance is 2.086
.01 significance is 2.845⁵⁵

The control group made improvement significant at the .05 level on the Freedom from Withdrawing Tendencies subtest. All other subtests showed no significant change, but the total personality score came close to the .05 significance level. (See Table 6 below and Graphs 5 and 6 in the Appendix).

Table 6
"t" Ratios for Change in Score from Pre- to Posttesting of the California Test of Personality, Primary, Personal Adjustment Section, Control Group

	<u>Subtest</u>	<u>"t" Ratio</u>
1.	Self-Reliance	1.4529504
2.	Sense of Personal Worth	.8795074
3.	Sense of Personal Freedom	-1.2412081
4.	Feeling of Belonging	1.4760147
5.	Freedom from Withdrawing Tendencies	2.5064599
6.	Freedom from Nervous Symptoms	.3822629
7.	Total Personal Adjustment	2.0895522

Table 6, Continued

Degrees of Freedom = 19
 .05 significance is 2.093
 .01 significance is 2.861 ⁵⁶

Although the control group made significant improvement on one of the seven subtests, this was not thought to prove significance for the entire area of personal adjustment. Therefore, the researcher has accepted the null hypothesis, "There is no difference in improvement in personal adjustment as measured by the 'Personal Adjustment' section of the California Test of Personality, Primary between a control group and an experimental group participating in classroom meetings."

C. Social Adjustment

The second half of the California Test of Personality, Primary was used as part of the assessment of social adjustment. This half furnished subtest scores for Social Standards, Social Skills, Freedom from Anti-Social Tendencies, Family Relations, School Relations, and Community Relations. These subtest scores were added together to get a Total Social Adjustment score. The scores made on each of the subtests on the pretest were compared using Fisher's⁵⁶ for uncorrelated samples of unequal size to find if there was any significant difference between the two groups. There was no significant difference on any subtest. (See Table 7 below).

⁵⁶ Ibid.

Table 7
 "t" Ratios for Experimental and Control Groups on the
California Test of Personality, Primary, Pretest
 Social Adjustment Section

	<u>Subtest</u>	<u>"t" Ratio</u>
1.	Social Standards	-1.0625
2.	Social Skills	-1.3899641
3.	Freedom from Anti-Social Tendencies	-.5244924
4.	Family Relations	-1.5416047
5.	School Relations	.5801191
6.	Community Relations	-1.0350654
7.	Total Social Adjustment	-.9870519

Degrees of Freedom = 40

.05 significance is 2.021

.01 significance is 2.704 ⁵⁷

The change in score from the pre- to posttesting was found for each student and group totals were compared using Fisher's "t" for the differences between correlated pairs of means. The experimental group failed to show significant improvement on any of the subtests. (See Table 8 below and Graphs 7 and 9 in the Appendix).

Table 8
 "t" Ratios for Change in Score from Pre- to Posttesting
 of the California Test of Personality, Primary,
 Social Adjustment Section, Experimental Group

	<u>Subtest</u>	<u>"t" Ratio</u>
1.	Social Standards	1.2427759
2.	Social Skills	1.9526673
3.	Freedom from Anti-Social Tendencies	1.1494612
4.	Family Relations	1.1598235
5.	School Relations	-1.2542329
6.	Community Relations	.8012819
7.	Total Social Adjustment	1.509902

Degrees of Freedom = 20

.05 significance is 2.086

.01 significance is 2.845 ⁵⁸

⁵⁷ Ibid.

⁵⁸ Ibid.

The control group also made no significant improvement on the social adjustment section of the California Test of Personality, Primary from the pretest to the posttest. (See Table 9 below and Graphs 8 and 9 in the Appendix).

Table 9
"t" Ratios for Change in Score from Pre- to Posttesting
of the California Test of Personality, Primary,
Social Adjustment Section, Control Group

	<u>Subtest</u>	<u>"t" Ratio</u>
1.	Social Standards	1.5519917
2.	Social Skills	1.0979358
3.	Freedom from Anti-Social Tendencies	1.0697475
4.	Family Relations	-.1393922
5.	School Relations	1.3345195
6.	Community Relations	-.3014772
7.	Total Social Adjustment	1.1812883

Degrees of Freedom = 19
.05 significance is 2.093
.01 significance is 2.861 59

Another method of assessing social adjustment was the use of social and academic rating scales developed by the Title III staff and found in the Appendix of this report. These rating scales were administered to both rooms in Fall, 1972 and readministered in Spring, 1973 after the classroom meetings were completed. The Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test was used to find if the change in rating from the pre- to posttest was significant for each group on each scale.

Both groups showed improvement significant at the .01 level from the pre- to posttest on the social rating scale. Both also failed to show significance on the academic rating scale. (See Table 10 below).

Table 10
T Values for Experimental and Control Groups on
Sociometric Rating Scales

<u>Group</u>	<u>Social Scale</u>	<u>Academic Scale</u>	<u>.05 Significance</u>	<u>.01 Significance</u>
Experimental	0	110	52	38
Control	-30	-71	46	32 ⁶⁰

Since both groups made significant improvement on the social rating scale but made no significant improvement on the academic rating scale or on the Social Adjustment section of the California Test of Personality, Primary, the researcher has accepted the null hypothesis. This states that, "There is no difference in improvement in social adjustment as measured by the "Social Adjustment" section of the California Test of Personality, Primary and two sociometric rating scales between a control group and an experimental group participating in classroom meetings."

D. School Attendance

Change in school attendance was assessed in three ways. First, the total absence figures for both groups during the year were compared

using Fisher's "t" for differences between uncorrelated means in two samples of equal size or $t = \frac{M_1 - M_2}{\sqrt{\frac{\sum x^2_1 + \sum x^2_2}{N_1(N_1 - 1)}}}$. No significant

difference was found in the yearly attendance for the groups since the

"t" Ratio was -0.3390832. The .05 significance for eight degrees of freedom is 2.306.⁶¹

⁶⁰ Ibid., p. 299.

⁶¹ Ibid., p. 293.

Absences were also totaled for each group on days when classroom meetings were held. The same formula was used to determine that again there was no significant difference between the groups. The "t" Ratio for this was 1.4197923 while the .05 significance level for 14 degrees of freedom was 2.145.⁶²

Fifteen random days were selected during the year. Absence for these days was recorded for each room and compared with the same "t" test. The "t" ratio for these dates was 1.3776435 which did not reach the .05 level of significance of 2.145.⁶³

Because all three tests failed to reveal any significant differences between the two groups, the null hypothesis was accepted. This states that, "There is no difference in improvement in school attendance for the 1972-3 school year, nor is there any difference in attendance on classroom meeting days and on fifteen random school days between a control group and an experimental group participating in classroom meetings."

E. Summary of Test Results

The researcher feels that she has found no clear evidence that the classroom meetings affected student scholastic achievement, personal adjustment, social adjustment, or school attendance. As a result, all of the null hypotheses were accepted as stated in the first chapter of this report.

⁶²Ibid.

⁶³Ibid.

CHAPTER 4

Conclusions

A. Summary

During the 1972-3 school year a project to assess the effectiveness of the Glasser method of conducting classroom meetings was carried on at Hawthorne Elementary School in Mattoon, Illinois. It was hypothesized that these meetings would bring about positive changes in students' school achievement, personal and social adjustment, and school attendance. In order to test the hypotheses, a series of pretests and posttests were given to an experimental group which experienced fifteen classroom meetings and a control group which continued "normal" school work during the 30 minute per week period.

The results of this testing showed that neither group made significant improvement on any of the criteria except academic achievement. On this criterion both groups made improvement significant at the .01 or .001 levels. Thus it was determined that neither group made improvement in any area superior to that of the other group.

B. Comments on This Research

The failure of this research to show any significant difference between a group experiencing classroom meetings and one not exposed to the meetings could be due to a number of factors. The most obvious of these is the possibility that the Glasser technique does not cause any significant change in the four areas being assessed--school achievement, personal adjustment, social adjustment, and school attendance.

The researcher does not feel that one research project alone is enough proof for this assumption, however. Many replications of this study and other studies need to be made before this technique can be discarded as totally worthless.

Another factor that could account for the failure of the research to show any improvement may be that the researcher had only read of Dr. Glasser's technique and had not had guidance in the use of the technique by Dr. Glasser or his staff. The application of this technique by someone trained by Dr. Glasser could have altered the results in this same experimental situation.

The subject matter of the meetings also could have been a reason for this. Since the meetings were handled by the researcher who entered the experimental classroom only for the meetings, the topics of the meetings probably did not always suit the needs of the class. Although the researcher tried to meet with the classroom teacher to find appropriate topics, this was often done well ahead of the meeting time and thus could not always meet the immediate requirements of the class. For example, the researcher could not know that last weeks' report cards had been forgotten by now and replaced in the minds of the students with a fight on the playground just before the meeting. For this reason, the researcher began to ask the students for topics they wished to discuss. However, most of the time the topics selected were, "What I Like To Do," or "What I Did Today." This kept a great majority of the meeting time away from issues that were perhaps more vital to academic, personal, and social improvement. Because of this and the

better rapport that a classroom teacher has with his or her class, it is felt by the researcher that the teacher would be a much better person to handle these meetings. This would even be true when there was a problem between the class and the teacher. At these times a counselor or another outside person might assist in handling the meeting, but the teacher should at least be present.

The researcher feels that one reason for no significant improvement on attendance on classroom meeting days for the experimental classroom was because no certain day of the week could be chosen for scheduling the meeting. Early dismissal for faculty meetings and parent conferences, school holidays, special events, and other interfering factors did not allow the meetings to be kept on any kind of weekly cycle.

Another reason for this and for the lack of significance on other criteria was felt to be that the students at Hawthorne were accustomed to having a "share and tell" time in the primary grades. The classroom meetings were only a slight extension of these sharing sessions. Since these students were accustomed to the sharing sessions, they were also accustomed to having the teacher listen to them during this time. Therefore, one of the main purposes in having the sessions, to get teachers to listen to students and to show students that the teacher is interested in them, had already been taking place for two years before this with students in both the experimental and control groups. Thus, the classroom meetings probably did not have as great an impact on these two groups as they would on groups not familiar with sharing sessions.

The lack of evidence of effectiveness also could be because these four criteria--academic achievement, personal adjustment, social adjustment, and school attendance--were selected by the researcher as areas of student life which might possibly be affected by the classroom meeting technique. However, these four criteria might not be at all like the tests which Dr. Glasser would pick. He might feel that one way these meetings would affect students would be in improved classroom behavior. He might also feel that students would not be affected in any measurable way. However, he does not suggest how the effectiveness of the meetings might be tested. Thus, one is left to find his own measures for determining the success of this technique.

C. Recommendations for Further Studies

The researcher feels that both the lack of previous research on this topic and the comments on the failure of this research to show significant effectiveness of the technique point up the need for additional research. One area that needs to be investigated is how two (or more) classes taught by the same teacher are affected when the teacher uses the Glasser classroom meeting technique with one (or more) of the classes. He or she should be trained in the method by Glasser or his assistants to make the research as accurate as possible.

There is also a need for studies to be done using criteria in addition to the ones used in this investigation. Suggestions for this are to look into the effect of the meetings on classroom

behavior, playground behavior, and home behavior. These could be monitored with baselines done by trained objective observers and by parent comments.

Another definite need for research is for Glasser and/or his associates to conduct their own scientific study of classroom meetings. It is a weakness of Dr. Glasser's technique that no evidence can be offered to substantiate his claims of success with the technique. Most teachers would feel that evidence of some sort is needed before valuable classroom time is spent for something which could be totally worthless or even detrimental to students' progress. Dr. Glasser should also specify what areas of life students who participate in classroom meetings are expected to progress. It is very difficult for a researcher to blindly grope for improvement in all aspects of a student's development.

D. A Final Comment

The researcher feels that Dr. Glasser's classroom meetings are an excellent idea. They offer much in the way of hope for teachers who are searching for ways to reach students and assist development. They offer students something that is lacking in many of today's schools, interest in them as individuals. The researcher hopes that this technique will prove worthy of these expectations as it is more thoroughly investigated.

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A P P E N D I X

Suppose you were giving a party. Whom would you invite to make the party a real success? Each boy and girl in this class is listed below. Beside each person's name are the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7. Mark an X through the number which shows how much you would like to invite the person to your party. The bigger the number, the more you would like to invite that person to your party. Draw a circle around your name on the list.

	<u>Never</u>	<u>Seldom</u>	<u>Not often</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Often</u>	<u>Usually</u>	<u>Always</u>
• Roland Andrews	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Lynn Barber	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Keith Boyer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Robert Brown	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Lona Carlfield	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Marilyn Carter	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Evende Frost	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Lora Gillespie	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Jill McCall	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Angie Miller	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Nina Mitchell	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• David Parkhurst	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Harold Shores	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Fred Turner	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Susan Waightail	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Terrell Adams	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Edward Nixon	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Raymond Carr	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• David Moore	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Lyda Jackson	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Lisa Hall	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Justice Cartright	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Suppose you were having trouble with work your teacher has given you. Whom would you ask for help? Each boy and girl in this class is listed below. Beside each person's name are the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7. Mark an X through the number which shows how often you would ask that person for help. The bigger the number, the more you would like to ask a person for help. Draw a circle around your name on the list.

	<u>Never</u>	<u>Seldom</u>	<u>Not Often</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Often</u>	<u>Usually</u>	<u>Always</u>
• Roland Andrews	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Lynn Baskin	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Keith Boyer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Brent Brosam	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Lana Canfield	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Marilyn Carter	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Brenda Frost	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Lore Gillespie	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Jill McCall	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Angie Miller	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Tina Mitchell	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• David Parkhurst	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Harold Shores	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Fred Tanner	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Susan Whightsol	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Terrill Adams	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Sherri Dixon	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Raymond Galt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• David Moutre	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Lydia Mitchell	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Lisa Hall	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Janice Carter	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3rd Grade- Miss Scribner

Suppose you were giving a party. Whom would you invite to make the party a real success? A boy and girl in this class is listed below. Beside each person's name are the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7. Mark an X through the number which shows how much you would like to invite the person to your party. The bigger the number, the more you would like to invite that person to your party. Draw a circle around your name on the list.

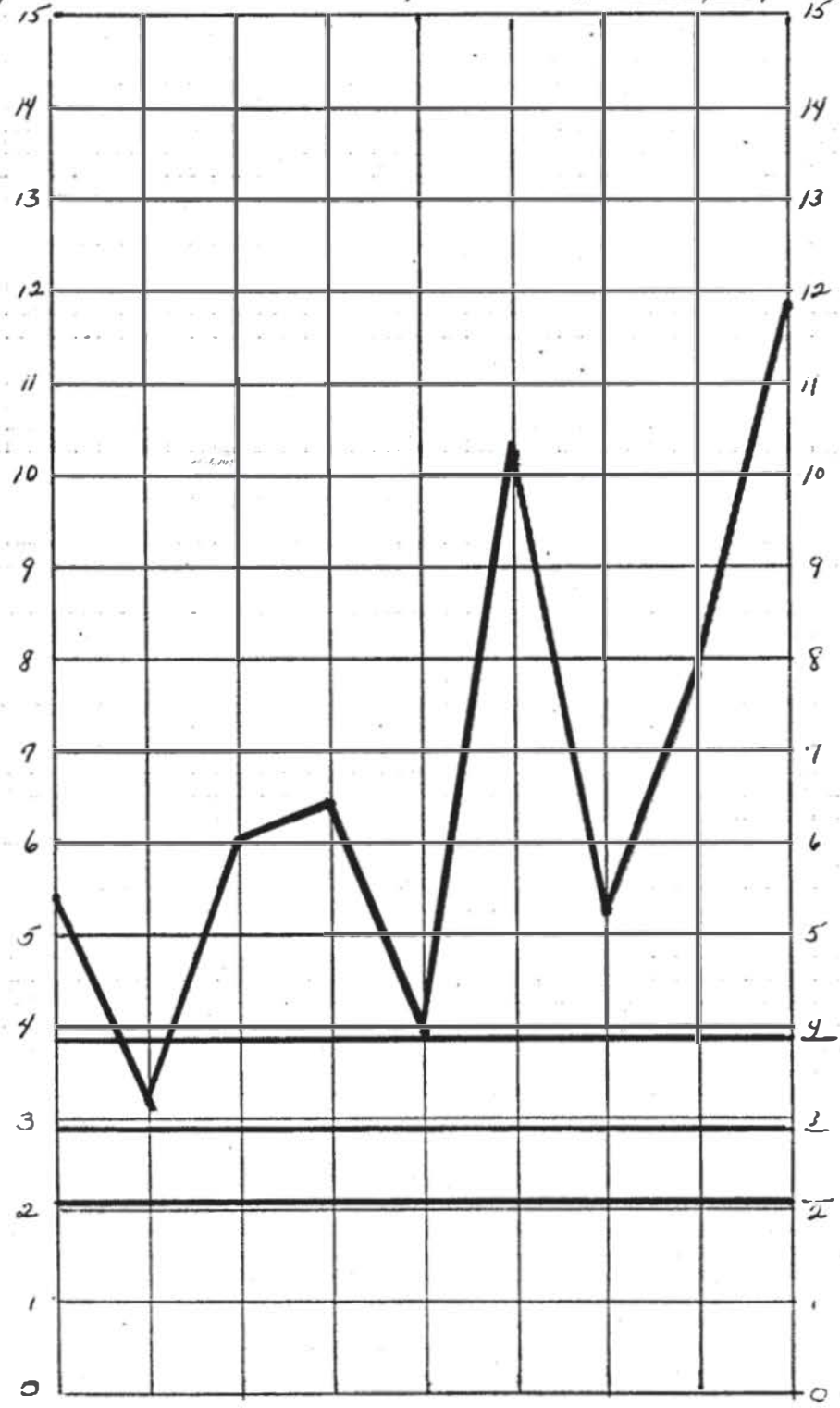
	<u>Never</u>	<u>Seldom</u>	<u>Not Often</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Often</u>	<u>Usually</u>	<u>Always</u>
Julio Boyle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Darwin Browster	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Doug Brown	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kevin Chronic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Amy Chloelasure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Noncalena Daniels	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mitchell Elder	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Malynda Gasser	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mike Huckstead	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jay Jenkins	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Gina Parsley	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Donna Pierce	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Nelly Rogers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Rebecca Sanders	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Daryl Spelman	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Danny Stabler	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Red Thomas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Carla Tipwood	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Carol Warren	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Abilinda Wiley	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Barry Lynn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Suppose you were having trouble with work your teacher has given you. Whom would you ask for help? Each boy and girl in this class is listed below. Beside each person's name are the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7. Mark an X through the number which shows how often you would ask that person for help. The bigger the number, the more you would like to ask a person for help. Draw a circle around your name on the list.

	<u>Never</u>	<u>Seldom</u>	<u>Not Often</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Often</u>	<u>Usually</u>	<u>Always</u>
Julie Boyle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Darwin Brewer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Doug Brown	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kevin Chronic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jay Colclasure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Normalene Daniels	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mitchell Elder	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Malynda Gasser	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mike Huckstead	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jay Jenkins	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sina Parsley	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Donna Pierce	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kelly Rogers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Rebecca Sanders	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Daryl Spelman	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Danny Stebler	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ed Thomas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Carla Tipson	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Carol Warren	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Melinda Wiley	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tanny Lynn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Graph 1

+ ratios for change in Score from Pre- to Posttesting of the Metropolitan Achievement Test, Form AM, Primary II, Experimental Group



1. Word Knowledge

2. Word Analysis

3. Reading

4. Total Reading (1+3)

5. Spelling

6. Math Computation

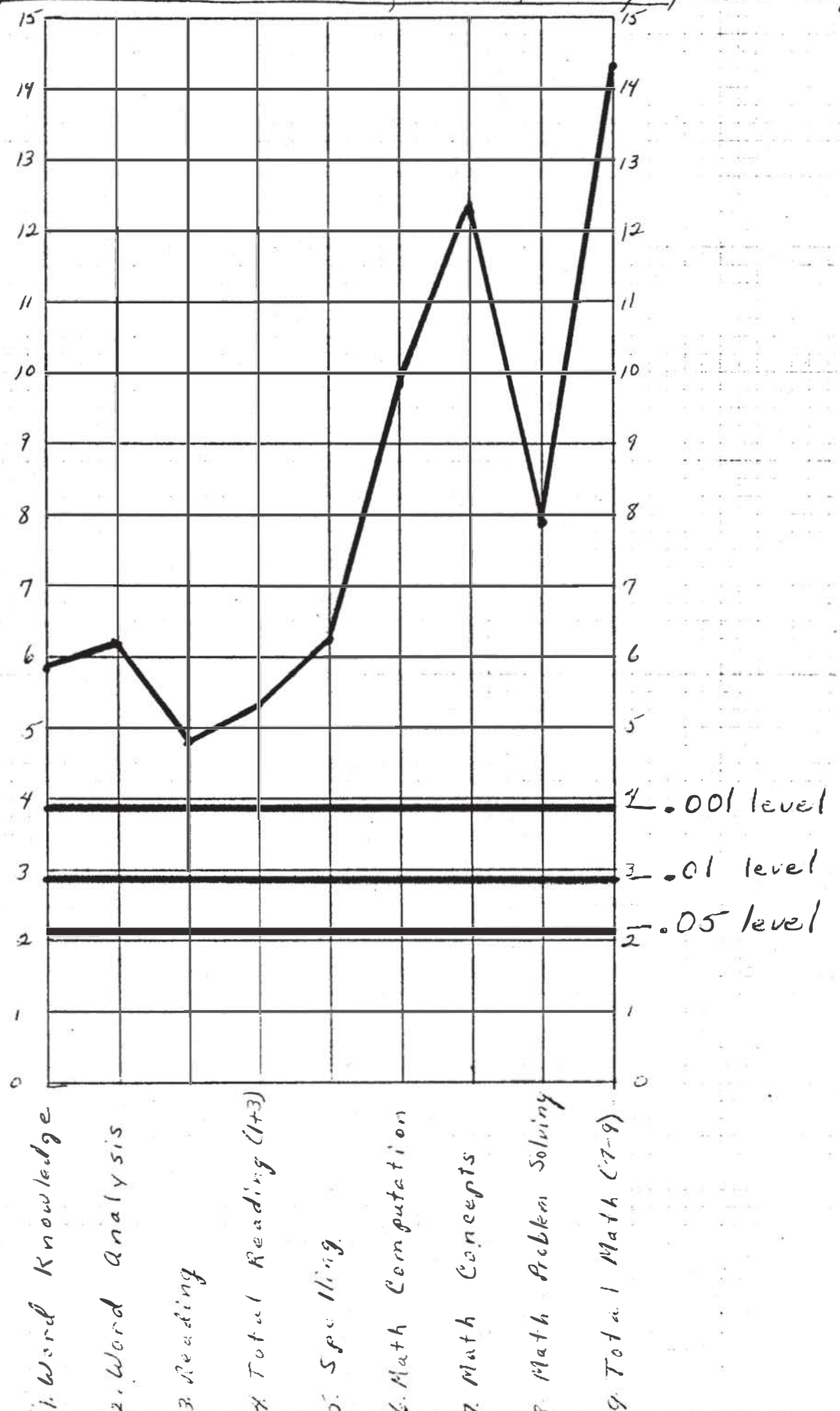
7. Math Concepts

8. Math Problem Solving

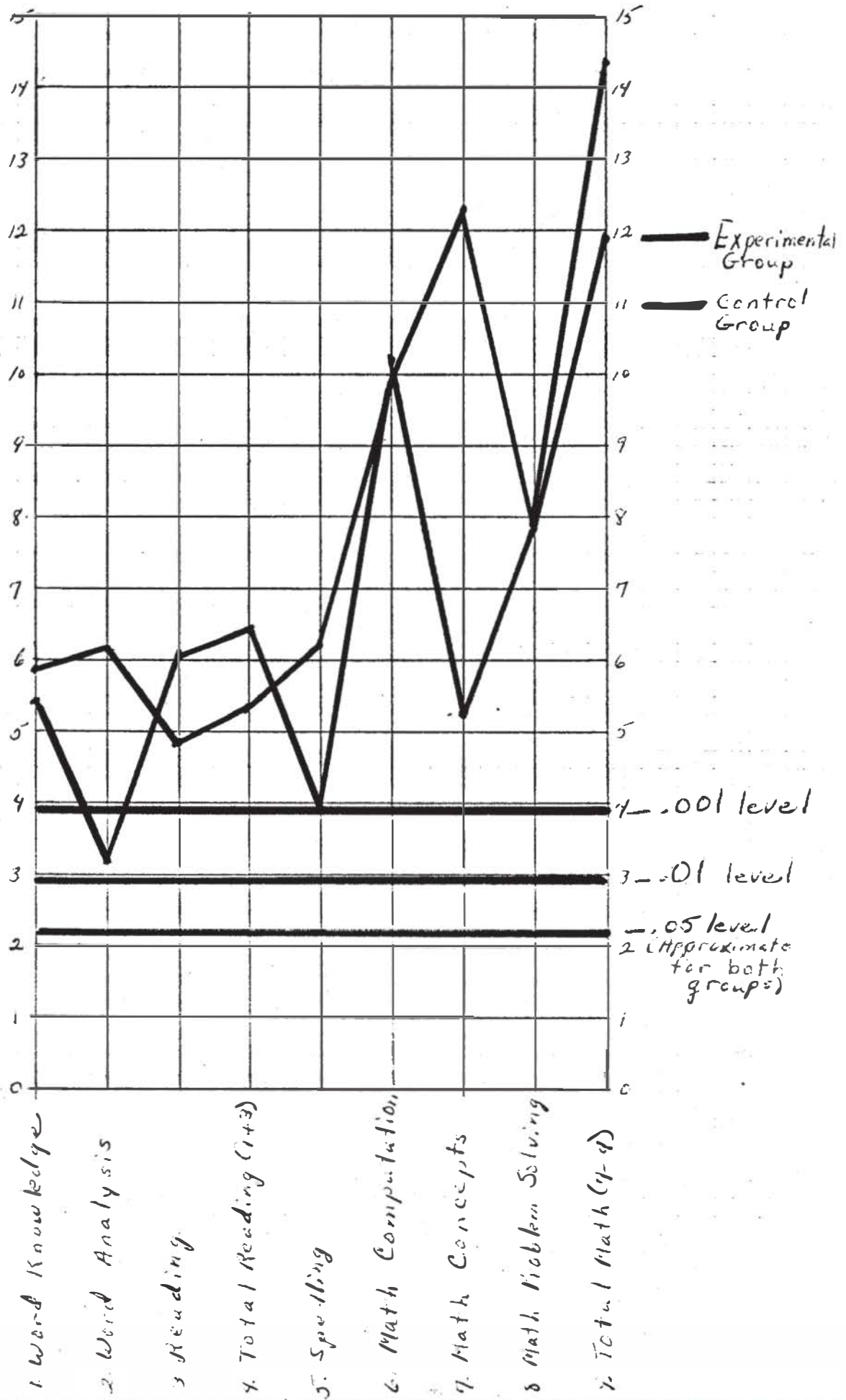
9. Total Math (7-9)

4.00 level
 3.01 level
 2.05 level

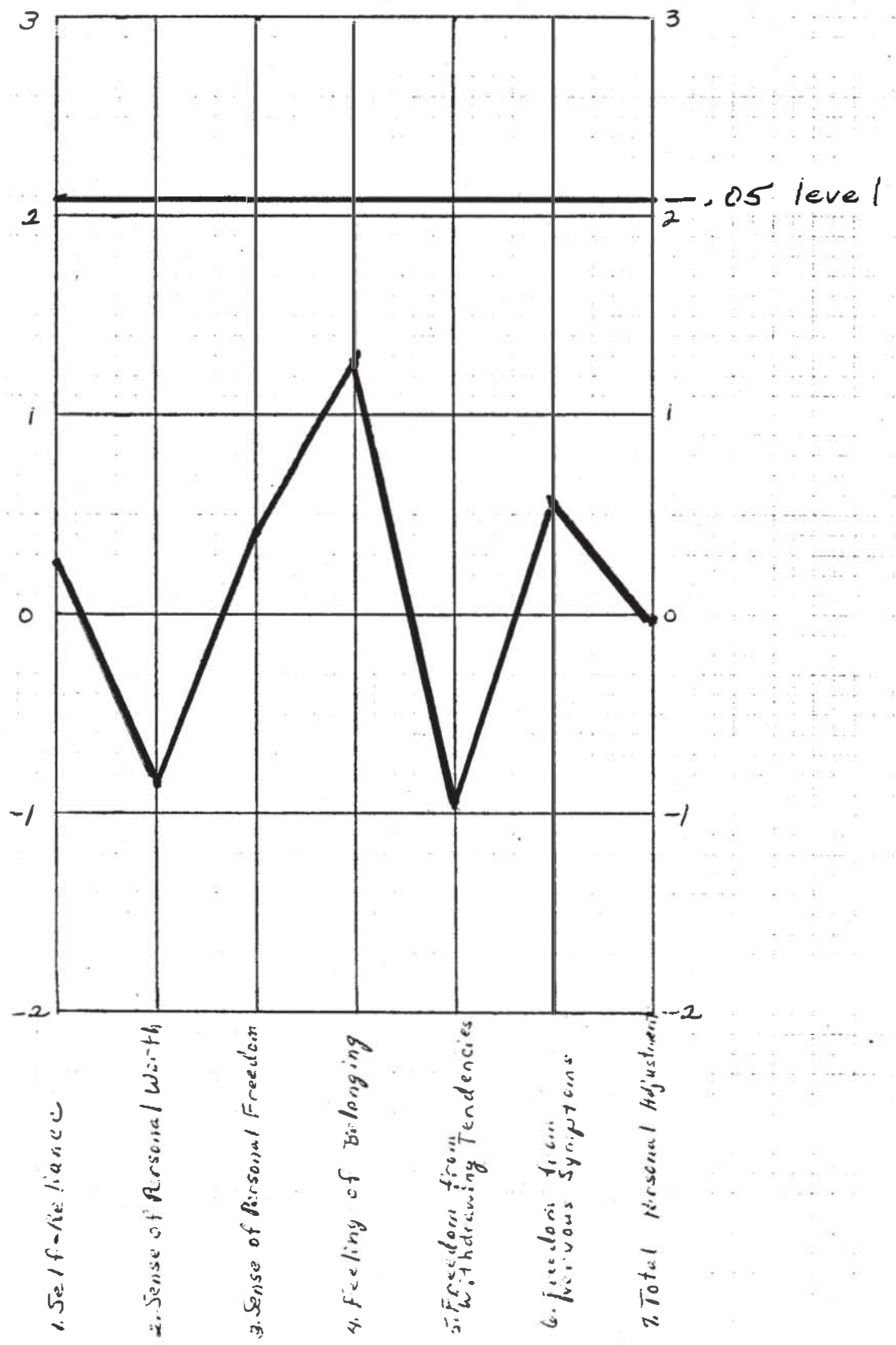
t ratios for change in Score from Pre- to Posttesting of the Metropolitan Achievement Test, Form 14, Primary II, Control Group



Graph 5
+ ratios for Change in Score from Pre- to Posttesting
of the Metropolitan Achievement Test, Form HM, Primary II, Both Groups

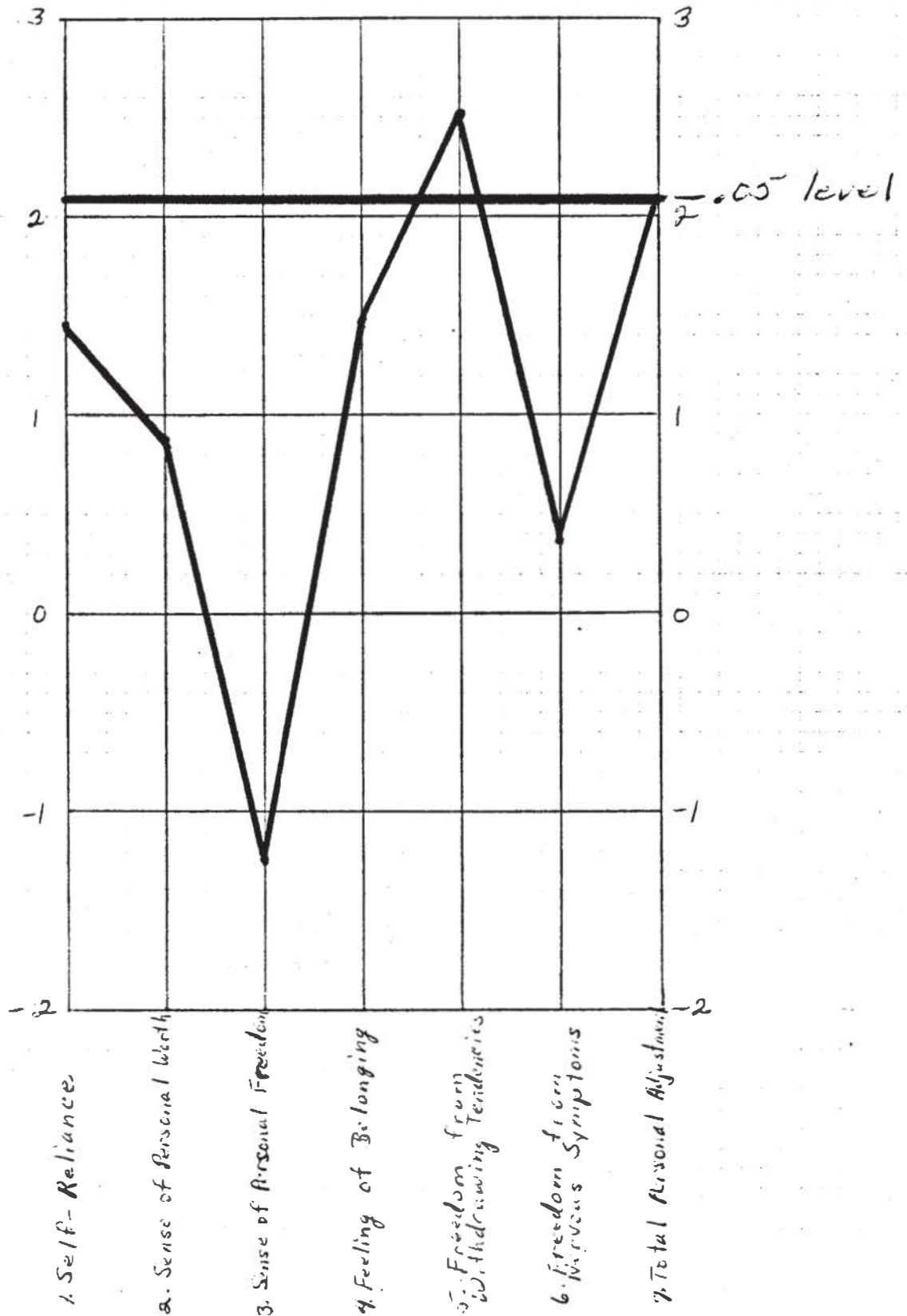


Graph 4
t ratios for Change in Score from Pre to Posttesting
of the California Test of Personality, Primary,
Personality Section, Experimental Group

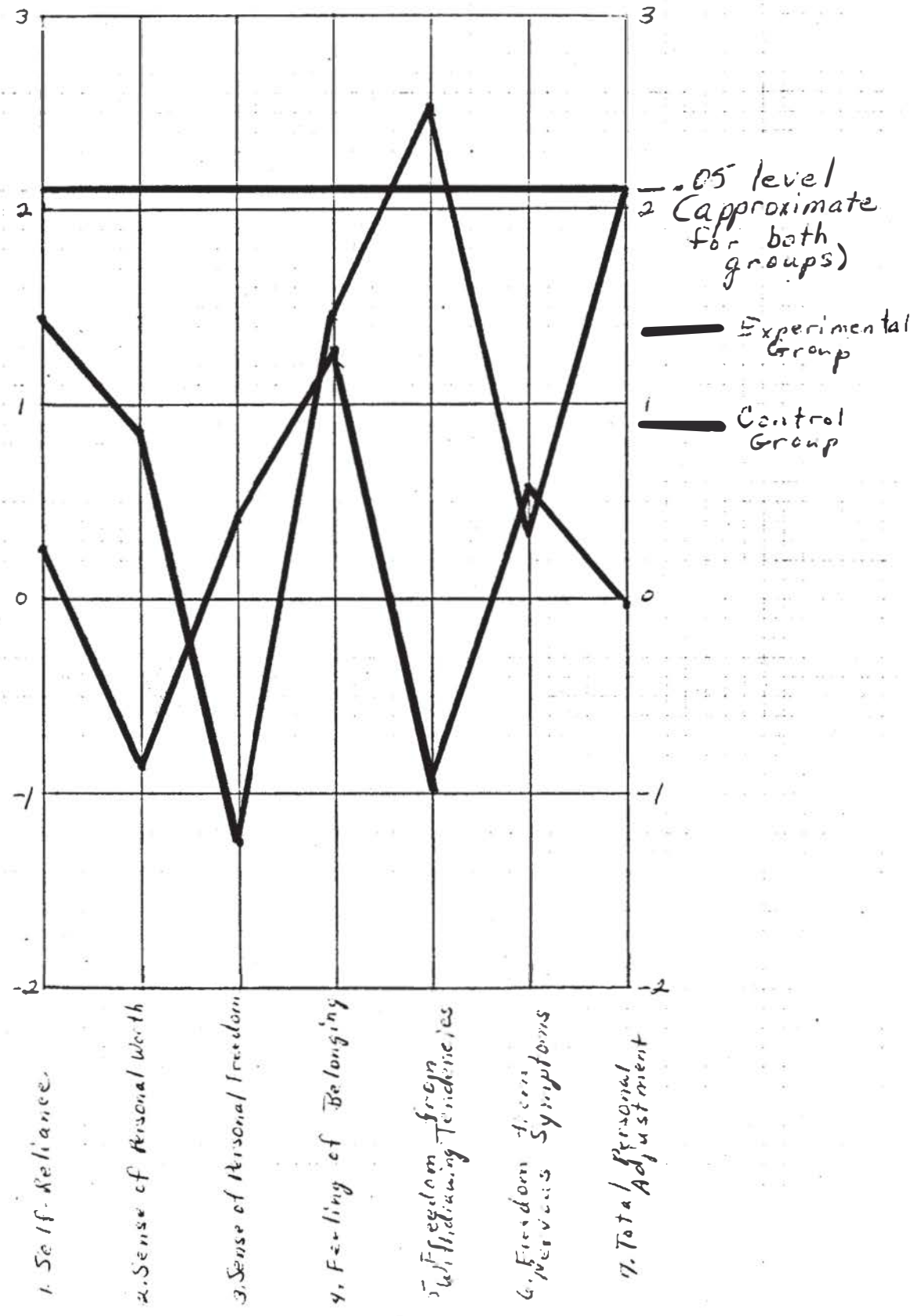


Graph 5

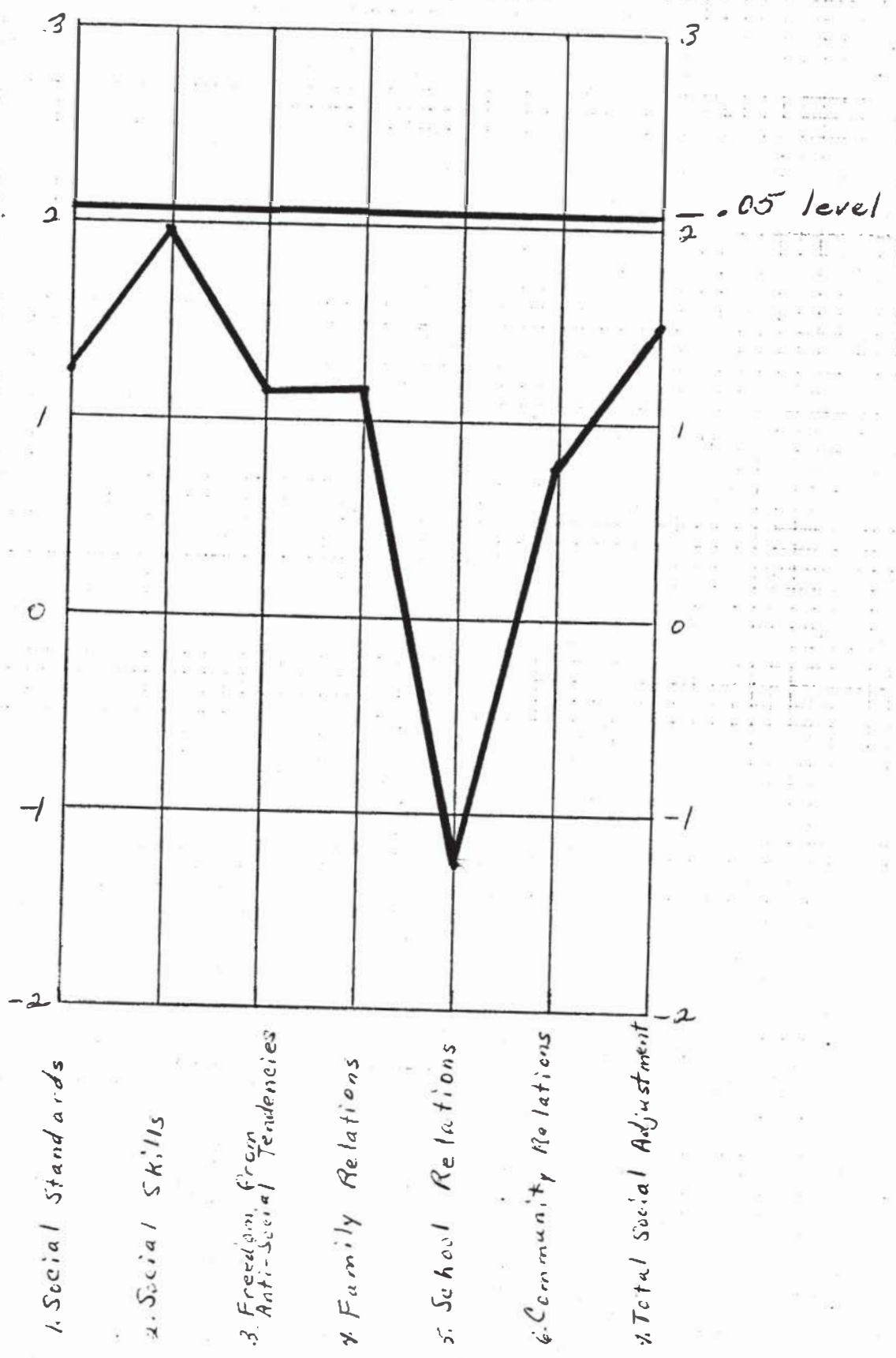
+ ratios for Change in Score from Pre- to Posttesting of the California Test of Personality, Primary, Personality Section, Control Group



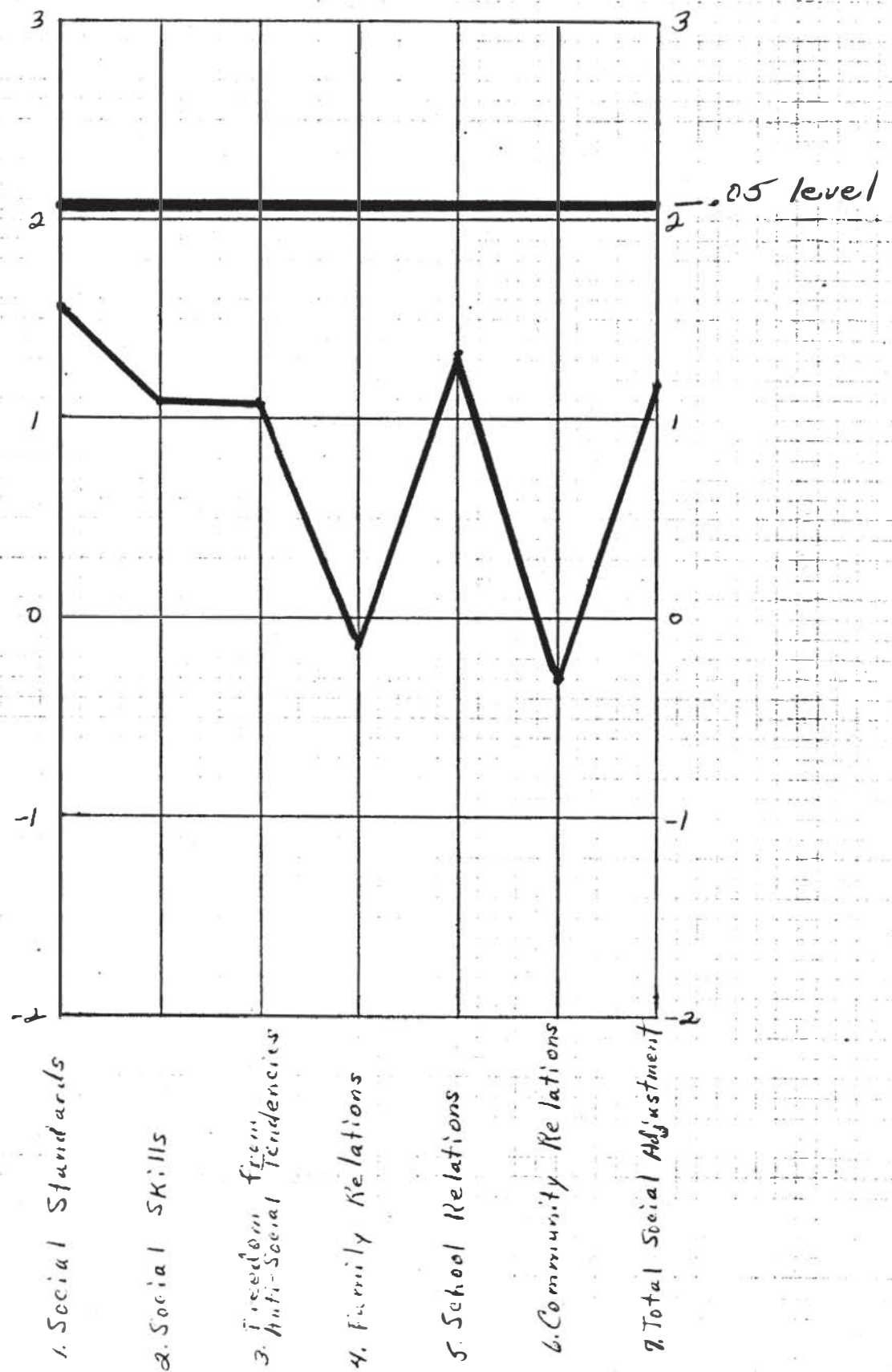
t ratios for Change in Score from Pre- to Posttesting of the California Test of Personality, Primary, Personality Section, Both Groups



Graph 7
t ratios for Change in Score from Pre- to Posttesting
of the California Test of Personality, Primary,
Social Section, Experimental Group



Graph 8
+ ratios for Change in Score from Pre- to Posttesting
of the California Test of Personality Primary
Social Section, Control Group



Graph 9

+ ratios for Change in Score from Pre- to Posttesting of the California Test of Personality, Primary, Social Section, Both Groups

