1-1-1974

An evaluation of an in-service program concerning the disciplinary approach of Dr. Rudolf Dreikurs.

Marie R. Hartwell
University of Massachusetts Amherst

AN EVALUATION OF AN IN-SERVICE PROGRAM

CONCERNING THE DISCIPLINARY APPROACH

OF DR. RUDOLF DREIKURS

A Dissertation Presented

By

MARIE R. HARTWELL

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

November   1974

Education
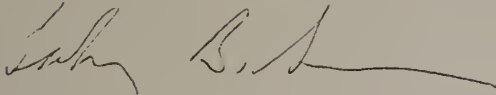
AN EVALUATION ON AN IN-SERVICE PROGRAM

CONCERNING THE DISCIPLINARY APPROACH

OF DR. RUDOLF DREIKURS

A Dissertation

By

MARIE R. HARTWELL

Approved as to style and content by:

Dr. Sidney B. Simon, Chairman of Committee

Dr. H. Todd Eachus, Member

Dr. Kenneth H. Blanchard, Member

Dr. William C. Marchant, Member

Dr. Carl Seidman, Dean
School of Education

November 1974

"One only understands the things
that one tames."

-- Antoine de Saint Exupéry

This dissertation is dedicated to

Dr. Brent Spears and Dr. Leighton Whitaker

v

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to express my gratitude to those who each con-
tributed something unique and special in professional assist-
ance and personal support throughout my graduate studies:

The members of the Dissertation Committee:

    Dr. Sidney Simon, Dr. H. Todd Eachus, Dr. Kenneth

    Blanchard, Dr. William Marchant;

Diane Archer, author of the companion study and loyal

    friend;

My husband, Rick, who always knows I can;

The teachers, children and principal of Maple Street

    School, Easthampton, Massachusetts, whose partici-

    pation and hard work made this project possible;

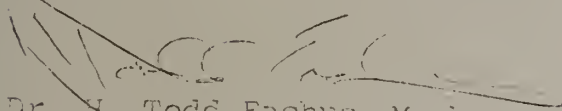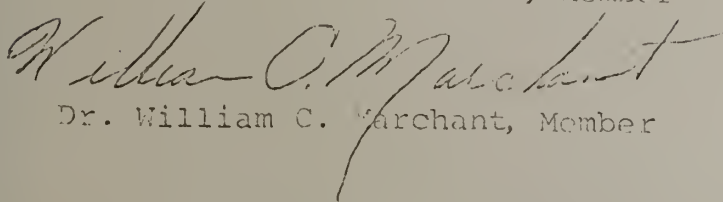And the many friends who helped me to always keep the

    light at the end of the tunnel in view.

An Evaluation of an In-service Program Concerning the

Disciplinary Approach of Dr. Rudolf Dreikurs

(November 1974)

Marie R. Hartwell, B.A., University of Massachusetts

M.Ed., University of Massachusetts

Directed by: Dr. Sidney B. Simon

Problem

A number of approaches for dealing with classroom management and discipline have evolved during the past decade. Among them is an approach developed by Dr. Rudolf Dreikurs. The approach is the focus of this study.

Dreikurs's method is currently being taught to teachers and counselors at several major American universities as well as by private consultants conducting in-service training within school systems. Little formal research has been conducted to determine the impact of such training on the primary recipients of the technique: the students in those teachers' classrooms. The problem addressed by this study was the need to gather data which justifies and supports the notion that Dreikurs's method is an effective way to deal with discipline problems in the public schools within the classroom.

Procedures

Teachers were recruited to take part in an in-service training program in Dreikurs's method. The course lasted eight weeks during which teachers attended weekly $2\frac{1}{2}$-3 hour sessions plus a full day Saturday workshop. Teachers were instructed in Dreikurs's method and encouraged to implement what they had learned in their classrooms between sessions.

Teachers were asked to identify two disturbing and one model child from each of their classrooms. The teachers were asked to complete a behavior checklist for each of these children both before the course began and three weeks following termination of the course. They were also asked to complete an inventory regarding their own attitudes and behaviors on the same schedule and to develop a project that would reflect their understanding of the content of the course. A checklist was developed to evaluate these projects. Feedback questionnaires were completed after each session of the course and at its conclusion.

Three levels of change were examined and/or tested by the instruments listed above in the course of the study: knowledge of teachers regarding behavior problems and Dreikurs's methods for dealing with them, attitudes of teachers on several dimensions commensurate with Dreikurs's theories and behavioral change in the participating teachers and in the students as perceived by their teachers.

Findings

Knowledge: The checklist developed for use in evaluating the teachers' projects indicated a high degree of cognitive competence in Dreikurs's method. From 73 to 100 percent of the teachers demonstrated successful learning in items that dealt with diagnosis and immediate redirection of misbehavior as well as in classroom discussion skills. Because the items of the checklist are stated in behavioral terms, it must be noted that it also indicates a high degree of behavioral proficiency.

Attitudes: Scores on the teachers' inventories of their own attitudes and behaviors tended to cluster about the mid-points of the continuum scales used in interpretation. Change scores on this formal instrument were negligible. Teachers did report notable attitudinal changes on the final feedback questionnaires and in their projects, however.

Behaviors: Comparison of the pre- and post-treatment behavior checklists that were completed by the teachers for each of their students showed considerable positive change in the disturbing children. The model children retained their initial scores for the most part. Apparently, the Dreikurs program either affected the teachers' perceptions of their disturbing children or indeed was instrumental in

helping the teachers work with some of the children to miti-
gate disturbing behaviors. In interviews, feedback ques-
tionnaires and individual projects the teachers re-affirmed
the findings of the behavior checklists with 79 percent
making specific statements that indicated positive signifi-
cant change in at least one of their disturbing children.

Conclusion

There is a need for effective in-service programs that
can produce desired changes in teacher and, subsequently,
student behaviors to create and maintain classroom atmospheres
maximally conducive to learning. Data collected in this
study indicates that these goals are being reached by a
particular group of teachers as a result of a program con-
cerning the methods of Dr. Rudolf Dreikurs. It can be con-
cluded that the Dreikurs method is a viable approach to
classroom management and discipline and that, as such, it
deserves further exploration.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

FOREWORD

This study is one of two studies which will be conducted with the participants of a course entitled "Maintaining Sanity in the Classroom." Each study will stand on its own merit. The two together give a more comprehensive examination of the program than either one does alone.

The two authors have a strong commitment to the elimination of sexism from our society. In light of this, it was decided to eliminate it as much as possible from the conduct and description of the studies. The English language itself perpetuates sexist thought in our culture by using the masculine pronoun to refer to both sexes. A suggestion by Mary Orovan of the New York Radical Feminists has been adopted in order to mitigate this problem:

> . . . instead of using the masculine personal pronouns like "he" or "his," when we really mean children of both sexes, we use the ancient alternative Indo-European root word "co." Where sexist language would use "he," meaning "he-she," "co" is used. "Co" is also used in place of "him" (for him-her), with the context making the difference clear. The old possessive "his" (for his-hers) is replaced by "cos" and "coself" replaces "himself." Humankind replaces mankind. (Agel, 1971, p. 256)

xiii

C H A P T E R   I

INTRODUCTION, REVIEW OF LITERATURE

AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Statement of the Problem

Numerous articles are written and studies conducted on the areas of classroom discipline and management every year. The sheer number of references available as well as the content indicate that maintaining order and discipline, however defined, is perceived to be a serious problem by teachers and administrators of public schools. One would think that the sum total would yield sufficient knowledge and tools so that it would no longer be necessary to produce such information. In fact, the number of articles increases year by year with the list under the heading "discipline" in Education Abstracts growing at a steady pace (Education Abstracts, 1960-1973).

Another manifestation of teacher disturbance over discipline problems is extreme mobility and turnover within the profession with some 13.4 percent of the total number of teachers in the United States separating from school systems in the average year. Of these, 12.6 percent are "dismissed." Ineffective management of student behavior is cited by the reporters of these figures as cause for most of the dismissals (Amos and Oren, 1967, p. 7).

Often such mobility and dismissals are associated with first-year teachers who, overwhelmed by the need for establishing and maintaining order, receive little help in dealing with the problem from their previous training (Amos and Oren, 1967, p. 4). Experienced teachers, too, are finding that discipline is becoming more and more difficult to maintain. As a result, they are also leaving the profession in increasingly alarming numbers in an effort to avoid the "daily hassle" (Morse, 1972, p. 52).

The spectre of impending failure, as attested to by numerous studies and articles like those listed above, as well as the demands of supervisors and principals, places the teacher under considerable pressure to "control" the students at all times. This pressure is further exerted by the community and the students themselves. Often the result is a prioritization of values which the teacher may find difficult to believe in or maintain.

> Nearly 2/3 of the high school students' parents surveyed in early 1969 for Life by Louis Harris . . . believe that "maintaining discipline is more important than student self-inquiry"; the comparable figure among teachers is only 27%. (Silberman, 1971, p. 145)

In 1971, discipline was cited as the third major problem (after finances and integration) facing public schools in Gallup's "Third Annual Survey of the Public's Attitude toward the Public Schools." The sample for this survey was stated to be a "true microcosm of the nation" (Gallup, 1971, p. 33).

Students, too, place pressure on the teacher to maintain discipline in the classroom. They have been so conditioned to accept decisions made by an autocratic institution that the idea of maintaining order on their own is often foreign and frightening. Lacking the tools for helping each other to establish order, they frequently demand that the teacher DO something about disturbances. Sociologist Buford Rhea discovered that "most students . . . do not want power because they feel that they would not know what to do with it" (Silberman, 1971, p. 155). Thus, even if teachers want to help their students learn to develop self-discipline and mechanisms for creating the order they need among themselves, they often find it almost impossible to do so. Expectations of the institution, the community, and the students contribute to the perpetuation of "control" instituted and maintained only by the teacher as a norm in the classroom.

Not knowing ways to change such expectations and lacking help in solving the problem from either the community or the institution, many teachers in fact often perpetuate and escalate the problem. Silberman, in Crisis in the Classroom, states that teachers continue the very behavior they disparage; and the students' behavior, in turn, confirms the teachers' initial expectations ". . . thereby perpetuating the reign of error [sic] for still another generation of students" (1970, p. 91). In desperation, teachers often fall back on techniques that were used by their own teachers. "The

teacher's classroom behavior is deeply rooted in tradition, habit, values, and interest," states Harris (1966, p. 257).

Furthermore, the method of teaching that each teacher has developed has often become a strong habit and has been reinforced by that teacher's perception that it sometimes works. It is unfortunate that this can be true for poor teaching practices as easily as for good ones (Moffitt, 1963, p. 6; Skinner, 1968).

It is striking, upon reading through the literature concerned with teaching methods, to see how much of it is concerned with establishing the fact that discipline is a problem and with offering solutions for dealing with it. The proffered solutions may themselves be a part of the problem. Instead of teaching alternative tools the teacher might use to help students mature to the point where the maintenance of discipline need no longer be externally imposed, most references offer anecdotal advice for manipulating and controlling children. Suggestions range from methods for accomplishing tasks so fast that the students will not have time to misbehave to ideas for punishing those who manage to misbehave anyway (Webster, 1968; Wagner, 1969; Bennett, 1969).

The response to this problem within the schools has frequently been to create more rules or to offer a program to school personnel with the intent of creating a unified course of action for dealing effectively with behavioral difficulties. The usual result, whether the emphasis has been on

tightening the structure of the school or on personnel train-
ing, has been a failure to produce a positive change in prob-
lem children or in the general environment of the school.

A number of approaches for dealing with classroom man-
agement and discipline within the context of the school have
been developed over the last decade. Most have focused on the
improvement of interpersonal relations between teacher and
student as well as among the students themselves and have
emphasized the need for increased responsibility of students
for their own functioning and learning. The method of spe-
cific authors such as Ginott (1965), Gordon (1971), Glasser
(1969) and Harris (1969) as well as the procedures of behav-
ior modification, interaction analysis and psychological
education have increasingly permeated the educational insti-
tutions of America and become part of the vocabularies of
many educators.

Using as a base the Individual Psychology of Dr. Alfred
Adler, Dr. Rudolf Dreikurs developed an approach to class-
room management that is taking its place among these new
methods for helping children learning to take responsibility
for themselves and to get along well with others (Dreikurs,
1957, and Dreikurs, et al., 1971). It is therefore worthy
of attention and study.

The fundamental concept of Adler's theory is that of
social interest, i.e., the importance of human society to
every individual both for development of character and

personality and as a prime focus for every action and emotion in a person's life. "Gemeinschaftsgefühl" is a term coined by Adler to encompass the many ramifications of his idea of social interest and the resultant concept of humankind that he derived (Adler, 1925; Adler, 1930).

Essentially, he felt that because people are social beings, their goal in life is to find their places within a social context. Thus, each person integrates all of cos experiences into a private logic and life style for functioning with others. Usually this life style is useful and contributory to society as a whole as registered by approval of the group and the individual's resultant positive self-esteem. However, if a person becomes discouraged and believes that useful contributions do not result in a positive place in the social order, co then tries the alternative of negative behavior and develops mistaken ideas regarding acceptable ways to belong. Indeed such a person will even distort new experiences in such a way that they can be easily integrated with the mistaken ideas. The distortions are then used to further justify a dysfunctional life style. All behavior is seen by Adler as purposive and directed toward the goal of gaining community attention and support.

In consideration of Adler's theory, Dreikurs (1959) felt that adults could learn methods for helping children develop positive and contributory life styles. To accomplish this he stated that two essential ideas must be implemented:

(1) that children need to be understood in terms of their already-developed life styles and (2) that those life styles, if mistaken ones, can be redirected through careful intervention by adults. He made these ideas practiceable by developing specific tools adults can learn rather easily for both understanding the private logic of individual children and for redirecting mistaken behaviors.

Dreikurs's work includes methods for diagnosing problems, procedures for intervention and redirection of behavior, and procedures for formative evaluation of the process (Dreikurs, 1957; Dreikurs, 1964; Dreikurs, 1972).

Because Dreikurs's model for dealing with children is so firmly based in Adler's work, the approach is often termed the "Adlerian model" as well as "Dreikurs's methodology." Studies seem to use the two names almost interchangeably when referring to actual implementation.

Dreikurs's methods are being taught at several universities throughout the United States, primarily at the University of Arizona by O. C. Christensen; the University of Oregon by R. Lowe; the West Virginia University by M. Sonstegard; and the University of Vermont by W. Marchant. The focus of the programs at these universities has, to date, been that of counselor training. Some efforts have been made to reach in-service teachers through summer institutes, weekend workshops and continuing education courses but these have been secondary to the counselor programs. A legitimate,

long-term commitment to the needs of classroom teachers through courses offered regularly and sequentially has yet to occur.

Responses from teachers who have been able to take part in programs teaching Dreikurs's methodology have been generally enthusiastic and supportive but little formal research has been conducted to objectively determine the impact of such training on the principal recipients of the technique, the students in those teachers' classrooms.

If one were to estimate that each of the universities listed above (in addition to private consultants and practitioners) is training teachers at a moderate rate, the sum effect over several years is considerable. If, in fact, there is little empirical evidence that training in Dreikurs's approach is either successful or effective, serious questions should be raised regarding the justification of the continuation of such training. The problem, then, is to gather empirical data which justifies and supports the notion that Dreikurs's method is an effective way to begin to deal with discipline problems in the public schools within the context of the classroom.

Need for the Study

Although there are apparently few studies that test Dreikurs's method empirically in the classroom, there are a number of noteworthy dissertations that have been written in

the past three years that focus on the effectiveness of the method when implemented within the realm of the school guidance program. Platt (1970) subjected Dreikurs's model to experimental testing with encouraging results. His study included providing services to both the school and the home while using the Adlerian counseling model. Marchant (1971) modified Platt's study by attempting to validate techniques provided solely in the school, again with positive results. Kradel (1973) found that high school students identified as having behavior problems improved significantly after having taken part in Adlerian group counseling one hour per week for ten weeks. And Walker (1973), working with black disadvantaged clients, supports the Adlerian approach over a self-emergent approach to counseling.

These studies and a number of others (Stormer and Kirby, 1973; Thoma, 1973; Palmo and Kuzmiar, 1973) indicate that the Adlerian model of counseling is effective in improving behavior and/or changing students' perceptions of themselves and others in positive directions. However, the fact is that an hour or two of counseling accounts for only 3 to 7 percent of the child's time spent in school per week (given an average six-hour day). The classroom teacher is therefore potentially a much more significant and consistent adult in the child's life than the guidance counselor. In recognition of this, a number of studies have included some teacher training with the intent that the work of the counselor could then be

sustained and reinforced in the classroom. However, the amount of research which investigates the effectiveness of the classroom teacher alone using Dreikurs's approach (the Adlerian model) is about nil. This is ironic as it is the teachers of this country who daily face the consequences of the behavior of disturbing children and who, in numerous articles, surveys, and polls, are requesting help.

Purpose of the Study

The approach advocated by Dreikurs may be one answer to the conflict many schools are facing today in maintaining discipline and order within the classroom. A training model in this approach adapted from various counseling studies and an education model developed by O. C. Christensen at the University of Arizona will be implemented with a group of in-service teachers in order to examine the validity of this assertion.

Teachers realize that they need help in finding ways to deal with problem students. Witness the large readership of professional journals, the number of teachers taking continuing education courses, the amount of time and energy spent informally and formally within the schools in an attempt to deal with the situation; yet problems in the classroom persist. Apparently a program that will help teachers integrate what they have read and learned with new teaching behaviors is needed if major changes are to occur in their relationships

and effectiveness with students. This is one of the major strengths of Dreikurs's method. Learning new teaching behaviors is emphasized as much as the understanding of theoretical constructs. In-service training programs, because they already exist as a recognized format for the continuing education of teachers and because they are frequently the only context for it within the structure of public schools are a logical focus for the implementation of training in Dreikurs's work.

Furthermore, as the proportion of experienced teachers increases on teaching staffs, it becomes clear that continued education in the field will be the vehicle by which new ideas and approaches will be assimilated by the schools. Prior to this time, the great influx of new teachers entering the profession every year could be relied upon, at least to some extent, to infuse the school systems with new energy and new methods. This annual phenomenon of change through the influx of new teachers is rapidly becoming a thing of the past. While 78,000 new positions were available for teachers in 1969, only 19,000 were available by 1971 (Cunningham, 1972, p. 485). For the "foreseeable future, the introduction of new educational ideas becomes the responsibility of the resident faculty" (Cunningham, 1971, p. 482).

In-service training programs occur with startling regularity in this country. In a recent survey, it was found that 83 percent of the nation's schools conduct in-service training

programs regularly. This figure becomes even higher when elementary schools alone are considered--97 percent. Furthermore, more than one-third of the schools polled had 100 percent attendance at all in-service offerings despite the fact that few offered remuneration in either monetary or credit form (Nation's Schools, 1968, p. 49).

The purpose of this study, then, is to implement and evaluate an in-service training program in the approaches of Dr. Rudolf Dreikurs with practicing elementary school teachers. The evaluation design will provide for consideration of changes in the participants' knowledge, attitudes and behaviors. These three dimensions have been cited as essential to complete evaluation of a given in-service program by numerous studies in the past few years (Asher, 1967; Denemark and MacDonald, 1968; Harris, 1969; Rubin, 1971; and Westby-Gibson, 1967).

The evaluation of this program has been a major consideration in its design. Asher (1967) and Westby-Gibson (1967) and the National Education Association Research Bulletin (March, 1967) have concluded that in-service programs have often been seriously hindered in effectiveness by a lack of careful planning for evaluation from the outset. Therefore, measures for changes in knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors are an integral part of the planned program.

Meade (1971) stresses that changes do not have to occur in all of these areas to legitimize a program; that the

changing of participants' behaviors is a legitimate objective of in-service training. It is hoped, however, that the participants will in fact demonstrate changes on all three levels.

Data for evaluation will be collected by both formal and informal methods. The Teacher Self-Inventory of Attitudes and Behaviors (Eberle, 1971) and the Walker Problem Behavior Identification Checklist (Walker, 1970) will be administered to measure attitude and behavior change respectively. Teacher notebooks, assignments, and projects will be the vehicles for determination of gains in cognitive competence. Anecdotal data from teachers, students, process observers and the course facilitators will also be considered for each dimension. This information will be gathered through interviews, feedback questionnaires and final teacher projects. The three dimensions obviously overlap and are separated only for convenience in discussion.

Limitations of the Study

There are three important limitations inherent in the design of the study. First, the person contributing to the design of the conduct and directing the evaluation of the study is a member of the implementation team. A measure of objectivity may be therefore jeopardized. Secondly, evaluation will be limited to pre- and post-testing occurring immediately before and three weeks after implementation of

the in-service program used for the study. Ideally, additional follow-up studies over several months would occur, thus establishing a sounder data base for determining the effects of the model. Finally, there is only one formal instrument planned for use with each of the potential determiners of effectiveness. A number of different instruments used with both the teachers and their students might provide cross checks with each other which would further validate results. Pragmatic considerations of teacher resistance to use of classroom time for such multiple instruments precluded this procedure.

Strengths of the Study

The cooperation and coordination of this study with another by Diane Archer (1974) makes possible an articulation and evaluation of the program using both empirical evaluation and case study. Although the two studies each stand as complete in themselves, reading of the two will provide a more thorough account of the design, implementation and evaluation of one in-service program than could be reasonably included within the scope of one study.

The in-service program used as the basis for this study was previously conducted by the authors twice with two separate groups of in-service teachers. The courses were received enthusiastically by the participants who have subsequently reported major behavior changes in some of their students as well as increased confidence in their own abilities as classroom managers.

C H A P T E R   I I

PROCEDURES

Subjects

Two subject groups were used for this study. One group
included teachers of elementary students, one teacher aide
and one principal. Data was gathered to determine the effect
of an in-service program in Dreikurs's methodology on their
attitudes toward various dimensions of the classroom and
their behavior as teachers. Degrees of cognitive growth in
the principles and practices of the method were also evaluated.

The second subject group under consideration included
students of the participating teachers. Measures of change
as perceived by the teachers in student behavior are used as
an indirect means for measuring the effect of the program on
the professional development of the teachers.

Teachers

Fourteen teachers, one teacher aide and one principal
participated in the program. All are from the Maple Street
School in Easthampton, Mass., which encompasses grades K-4.
The teachers represent 64 percent of the teachers in the
school. All of the subjects volunteered to take part in the
program. A fifteenth teacher from another school also at-
tended the program. She asked to participate because she had

heard favorable reports about the class from other teachers.
She is not included as part of the data sample, however.

The teaching experience of participants at the begin-
ning of the program ranged from two and a half to twenty-six
years with a mean of seven years' experience. Only one-third
had taught for less than four years. The number of students
in their classes ranged from fifteen to twenty-nine with a
mean of twenty-seven. Only four of the teachers reported
having taken university level courses in practical applica-
tion of behavior theories for the classroom. Three univer-
sity graduate credits from the University of Massachusetts
under the Continuing Education Program and/or three increment
credits from the town of Easthampton were offered to each
teacher and aide who successfully completed the program.

Information on the participants' academic and teaching
experience was collected on a Teacher Information Sheet.
This information is found in Appendix A. Data on the partici-
pants' background is presented in Table 1. The number assigned
each teacher was used throughout the study to maintain a de-
gree of anonymity in testing and feedback. Missing sequen-
tial numbers were used by graduate students from the
University of Massachusetts who participated in the course
but were not used in the study sample because they do not
have teaching positions or classrooms in which to use the
techniques learned. Two of the graduate students are trained
in process observation and organizational development. They

TABLE 1

BACKGROUND DATA ON TEACHERS

Teacher No.	Sex	Age	Currently Teaching Gd. level	Class Size	Ed. level	Yrs. Teaching Exp.	Yrs. in Easthampton	Other courses in classroom management
02	F	27	2	28	MA+	6	1	yes, 2
04	F	24	2	28	BA+	3	3	no
05	F	29	2T*	15	BA+	2	2	no
07	F	30	2	26	BSEd+	10	1	no
08	M	23	4	26	BSEd	2	2	no
09	F	46	K (aide)	24 (a.m.) 25 (p.m.)	Working on Assoc. Degree in Ed.	6	6	yes, 2
11	F	45	4	24	BA+	6	1	yes, 1
12	F	52	4	25	BA+	7	7	no
15	F	24	1	21	BA	3	3	no
16	F	56	4	25	MEd+	26	10	yes, 1
17	F	32	3	27	BSEd	4	4	no
18	F	29	1	24	BSEd	8	8	no
20	F	24	2	29	BA+	3	1	no
21	F	29	K	24 (a.m.) 25 (p.m.)	BSEd	7	6	no

*Transition class.

+Pursuing graduate work toward next degree.

were asked to observe the class and to give the instructors feedback after each session. This information was used in informal evaluation of the program and as a source for appropriate adaptations of the original plan. Although the principal gave support to the course, he was unable to attend consistently. Consequently, he is not included in the sample.

Students

Teachers were asked to identify three students in their classes on whom they desired to focus their attention during the study. Two of the children were children who were disturbing influences in their classroom. "Disturbing" was defined in terms of various types of acting out, behavior that might be the manifestation of withdrawal, varying degrees of distractability from given tasks, behaviors that indicated disturbed peer relations and/or various behaviors that indicated a marked degree of immaturity. The third child from each classroom was to be one who the teacher felt did not manifest any of the above behaviors to a significant or consistent degree and whom, in fact, the teacher would describe as the "best" student in the class. These "model" children were included in the study for two reasons. First, examination of their behavior would help the teachers articulate their definitions of good behavior. Secondly, Dreikurs states that when disturbing children change in a system, be it the family or the classroom, often the children whose

behavior has been acceptable in the past adopt some form of misbehavior in order to re-assert their places within the system (Dreikurs, 1958). Monitoring the behavior of the model children would help the teachers be aware of the inter-dependence of the children within their classrooms.

The student group thus included forty-two children from grades K-4, twenty-eight having been defined as disturbing, fourteen having been defined as model children. Specific background information for each child is found in Table 2. The numbers assigned to the children are used consistently throughout the study. The last digit indicates the child's classification. Numbers ending in 1 are model children; numbers ending in 2 or 3 are disturbing. The first two digits correspond to the number of the teacher working with the child.

Procedures

The teachers of Maple Street School were addressed at a regularly scheduled teachers' meeting. A description of Dreikurs's method and an outline of the goals of the program were discussed. The teachers were then asked if they would like to volunteer to take part in an in-service program that would teach them Dreikurs's methodology and would help them apply it to their disturbing children. The fourteen teachers described above elected to participate in the program.

TABLE 2

BACKGROUND DATA ON STUDENTS

Student No.	Sex	Grade	Classification of Behavior
0201	Male	2	Model
0202	Male	2	Disturbing
0203	Male	2	Disturbing
0401	Male	2	Model
0402	Male	2	Disturbing (moved prior to post-testing)
0403	Male	2	Disturbing
0501	Male	2	Model
0502	Male	2	Disturbing
0503	Male	2	Disturbing
0701	Female	3	Model
0702	Male	3	Disturbing
0703	Male	3	Disturbing
0801	Female	4	Model
0802	Male	4	Disturbing
0803	Male	4	Disturbing
0901	Female	K	Model
0902	Female	K	Disturbing
0903	Male	K	Disturbing
1101	Male	4	Model
1102	Male	4	Disturbing
1103	Male	4	Disturbing
1201	Male	4	Model
1202	Male	4	Disturbing
1203	Male	4	Disturbing
1501	Female	1	Model
1502	Male	1	Disturbing
1503	Male	1	Disturbing
1601	Female	4	Model
1602	Male	4	Disturbing
1603	Male	4	Disturbing
1701	Female	3	Model
1702	Male	3	Disturbing
1703	Male	3	Disturbing
1801	Female	1	Model
1802	Male	1	Disturbing
1803	Male	1	Disturbing
2001	Female	2	Model
2002	Male	2	Disturbing
2003	Female	2	Disturbing
2101	Female	K	Model
2102	Female	K	Disturbing
2103	Male	K	Disturbing

The treatment period extended over eight weeks during which teachers attended weekly $2\frac{1}{2}$-3 hour sessions plus a full-day Saturday workshop. Due to school vacation scheduling and the necessity to accommodate other school scheduling, two weeks contained two sessions apiece. This study thus compressed a university level course in Dreikurs's methodology into a very short time period. An outline of the course content is included in Appendix B. A detailed expansion of the course outline may be found in the companion study by Archer (1974).

At the beginning of the course, the teachers were asked to complete the <u>Teacher Self-Inventory of Attitudes and Behaviors</u>. They were also asked to complete a <u>Walker Problem Behavior Identification Checklist</u> for each of the three children they had identified as focus children from their classrooms. This procedure was repeated three weeks after the termination of the course.

Teachers were asked to complete a feedback questionnaire specific to each session. A final feedback questionnaire at the end of the course, ongoing notebooks and a project were submitted three weeks after the termination of the course. The feedback questionnaires were intended as a form of formative and informational evaluation as they focused on issues the teachers felt needed to be clarified and the style of teaching being employed. These provided data for adjusting subsequent lesson plans according to expressed needs. The

content and intent of the final feedback questionnaire, the notebooks and projects are described in the Instrumentation section of this chapter.

Instrumentation

Three levels of change were to be examined and/or tested in this study: (1) knowledge of teachers regarding student behavior problems and Dreikurs's methods for dealing with them; (2) attitudes of teachers on several dimensions commensurate with Dreikurs's theories; and (3) behavioral change in the participating teachers and in the focus children as perceived by the teachers.

It was hypothesized that there would be significant change on all three levels as a result of participation in the course, Maintaining Sanity in the Classroom.

Anecdotal data in the form of feedback questionnaires, notebooks and final teacher projects was used to examine level (1), change in teacher knowledge. A copy of the final feedback questionnaire is included in Appendix C.

Teacher notebooks and final projects were to serve a dual purpose. They were intended to become an important resource and supplement to the text, Maintaining Sanity in the Classroom, used in the program and to ascertain the degree of cognitive skill that the teachers had developed in their participation in the course. The notebooks were to include class notes, assignments, rewrites of assignments that had

been adjudged to be incorrect, quizzes, etc. In short, they were to represent an ongoing record of information and skill building.

Two options were made available for the final project: a report including one case study and four class discussions, or a report of three case studies and one class discussion. A checklist (Appendix D) was developed for use in evaluating these projects in terms of the level of cognitive competence in the principles and procedures used in Dreikurs's methodology and the degree to which the teacher was able to utilize them.

Level (2), attitude change, was examined through the administration (pre- and post-) of the Teacher Self-Inventory of Attitudes and Behaviors prepared by Robert F. Eberle, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Edwardsville District 7 Schools, Edwardsville, Illinois. This test has been used in association with continuing education programs throughout the Midwest and the West Coast. It was also used as a principal instrument by Marilyn Wightman (University of Massachusetts, 1973).

Fifty-eight multiple-choice items are included in the test. These are subdivided into five categories:

A. Style of Teaching
B. School and Staff Relations
C. Inter-personal Relations (teacher-pupil)
D. Classroom Management - Control
E. Divergent (Productive) Thinking

Three of the above sub-scales are appropriate to this study: A, C, and D. No attention will be given B and E because they were not an integral consideration in the development and implementation of the program.

The test had not been standardized and no scoring device had been provided with the test. However, Wightman did develop a scoring system in coordination with Dr. Doris Shallcross, the program director of Title III, Montague, Massachusetts. This scoring system was adopted for this study. Numerical values were assigned to teacher responses for each item. These were translated to continuum scales as follows.

A. Style of Teaching

    Authoritarian   1   2   3   4   5 Democratic

C. Inter-personal Relationships (teacher-pupil)

          Closed   1   2   3   4   5 Open

D. Classroom Management and Control

    Rigid Structure 1   2   3   4   5 Open Structure

Although there is no value judgment implicit in these continua, for the purpose of this study higher numbers indicate attitudes closest to Dreikurs's principles and philosophy. It was hypothesized that teachers' scores would rise on all three sub-scales if they had integrated the material in the program with their own attitudes.

The decision to use this test despite the obvious problem of lack of standardization was based on three considerations. First, the test items correspond favorably with the attitudinal objectives of the course. Second, degree of change in individuals in terms of themselves and co-workers was of primary concern rather than correlation with national norms. Finally, in an extensive search through test literature, no other test was found which addressed the issues of the program as well or as specifically.

Level 3, behavioral change in teachers and students, was explored in two ways. Anecdotal data was collected in the form of case studies conducted by the teachers for their students as well as in interviews and feedback letters. Some classroom observation was also employed. The formal test instrument used was the <u>Walker Problem Behavior Identification Checklist</u> (WPBIC) (Walker, 1970). An assumption made by the test developer is that the classroom teacher is in "an unique position to identify children with behavior problems since [co] spends much more time in actual observation of the child than any other school personnel" (Walker, 1970). In addition, teachers have been shown to be accurate in their judgments of student behavior within the classroom context (Beilin, 1959; Bower, 1958; Maes, 1966).

Arciniega (1972) further discusses the fact that an individual's behavior is influenced by cos perception of

another person or situation. Within the context of his study, he assumed that "the teachers' perception of children influences their own behavior toward their students which in turn influences the children's behavior." Use of the WPBIC, it was felt, would help the teacher articulate perceptions about the focus children's behaviors in specific ways and thus help to clarify their goals in using Dreikurs's methodology. It would also serve to identify changes that the teachers felt had occurred as a result of their participation in the course.

The decision to use the WPBIC rather than recordings of frequencies of behaviors on a scheduled basis was made because of three considerations. First, the teachers had minimal training in accurate observation and recording of behavior. It was decided that intensive training in these procedures might detract from the goals of the Dreikurs program as it would demand that the teachers learn yet another skill to a highly sophisticated level. Second, the teachers had an average class size of twenty-seven. Only one classroom had a regular aide. As a result, there was little time available for such recording procedures on a regular and consistent basis if it were to be conducted by the teachers. Outside observers were considered but rejected as an alternative due to the fact that their presence would influence the classroom and was not desired by the participants in the course. Finally, the teachers involved in the program found it difficult

to differentiate between behaviors and descriptors. For example: They would tend to describe a child as "lazy" rather than identify specific behaviors that occurred which led them to that conclusion. Time was spent in three class sessions working to help the teachers to learn to distinguish between the two. Additional time was allocated in virtually every class session for review and reinforcement of this skill. The WPBIC reduced these concerns as it provided a prepared list of specific behaviors which the teachers had only to check according to whether the condition did or did not exist in a given student. This took little time and, in fact, helped the teacher to clarify their motives and goals for participating in the course instead of detracting from them.

The WPBIC is made up of fifty items that describe observable behavior problems. Teachers are asked to check those behaviors which apply to the student under consideration. Responses are scored through a weighted scale and results are distributed among five sub-scales:

1. Acting Out
2. Withdrawal
3. Distractability
4. Disturbed Peer Relations
5. Immaturity

Raw scores are converted to T scores. A T-score of 60, which is the equivalent of one standard deviation above the mean, has been established as the point in distribution for separating disturbed from non-disturbed subjects. The authors of the checklist recommend that students receiving T-scores

of 60 or above be referred for a more intensive analysis and evaluation.

Several validity indices have been computed for the WPBIC. For the purposes of the present study, the most important seems to be a criterion validity. This was computed by using a biserial correlation between scores on the checklist and the construct behavior disturbance as defined by three criteria: (1) subject had been examined by a psychologist and referred to a clinical facility as emotionally disturbed; (2) subject had been given special educational provisions because of behavioral difficulties; and (3) subject had received instruction at home because behavior difficulties prevented classroom instruction. The biserial correlation between scores on the checklist and the defined construct was .68 with a standard error of .039. The correlation is significantly different from zero at the .01 level. The predictive efficiency is .33 and provides a measure of the checklist's predictive value and indicates that the WPBIC has utility in predicting behavior disturbance in elementary children.

Reliability was determined by using the Kuder-Richardson split-half method. Odd and even items on the checklist were correlated with a resultant reliability coefficient of .98 with a standard deviation of 10.53. Standard error was 1.28. A coefficient of .98 indicates that 97 percent of the variance of checklist scores in the sample was true score variance and 3 percent is error variance (Walker, 1970).

C H A P T E R   I I I
FINDINGS

Organization of the Chapter

Results will be presented under each of three sub-
headings: (1) knowledge, (2) attitudes, and (3) behaviors.
In the first, a collation of data indicating gain in cogni-
tive competence in Dreikurs's methods will be presented. The
second and third sections will contain descriptive analyses
of pre- and post-test data derived from formal test instru-
ments. All three sections will include anecdotal data col-
lected from participants' feedback, projects and interviews
as well as the observations of the two course facilitators
and the two process observers. Such data will serve to sup-
plement and augment numerical data. Data for each section
often is also appropriate to at least one other section. It
is therefore important that the sections be viewed as divi-
sions for convenience rather than separate entities.

Knowledge

Teachers were required to submit a final project which
would demonstrate both their knowledge of and ability to
apply Dreikurs's principles and techniques. It was decided
by the participants and facilitators that this procedure
would be preferable to a final examination as projects such

as those designated (see Chapter II) would require knowledge at a more sophisticated and complex level. An examination may measure only a subject's ability to memorize and retain material over a short time span. Projects which demand the incorporation of new knowledge with the teacher's style over a long period of time can represent a more reliable measure of cognitive integration of the new material.

A twenty-two item checklist (see Appendix D) was developed to facilitate consistent review of the projects. The content of the course was divided into a list of specific concept items. Each item was operationalized to express demonstratable behaviors.

As each project was reviewed, one of four notations was made next to each item on the checklist:

1. A check mark (✓) indicated that the concept was reported as having been utilized accurately and appropriately.

2. "Needs work" indicated that although understanding of the concept was shown, there was some flaw in the implementation or insufficient frequency to demonstrate proficiency of learning.

3. "Not applicable" indicated that some of the concepts were not expected to be utilized at particular grade levels or at the stage of development of a particular teacher. For example: Participants were taught the principles of the class council but were specifically instructed not to implement it until they had experienced a number of successful class

discussions with their students.

4. "No indication" meant that the teacher had not in-
dicated the concept within the context of the project. No
judgment is, or indeed can be, made regarding the teacher's
proficiency in the item. No information was made available.

The checklist indicated a high level of cognitive com-
petence in Dreikurs's methods on the part of the teachers.
See Table 3. Items 1 through 6 focus on diagnosis and imme-
diate redirection of behavior problems. All received a check
mark by from ten to fourteen of the teachers (73 percent to
100 percent) according to the item. Items 10a through 10h
deal with class discussion skills. These, too, received a
check mark by from twelve to fourteen of the teachers
(87 percent to 100 percent). The two items that dealt with
class council skills (a procedure suggested by Dreikurs for
use with older children) received "Not applicable" notations
by eleven to fourteen of the teachers indicating that they
were cognizant of the inappropriateness of introducing the
class council to their children at the time of the termina-
tion of the course.

The items that received frequent indication of "Needs
work" or "No indication" shared two important traits: They
need to be applied regularly as preventative measures rather
than as methods for crisis intervention and they involve the
children directly in the decision-making process. Those items
are numbers 7, 9, 11, and 12.

TABLE 3

RESULTS: TEACHER PROJECT CHECKLIST

N = 14 Concepts and Skills	% of Teachers			
	Check	Needs Work	No Indication	Not Applicable
1. demonstrates the ability to accurately describe behavior	93%	6%		
2. utilizes correct procedures for diagnosing the child's goal(s)	100%			
3. demonstrates the ability to correctly diagnose the child's goal(s)	93%	6%		
4. demonstrates an understanding of the role of the family constellation in the development of the child's life style	87%	13%		
5. demonstrates knowledge and application of appropriate corrective measures for each goal	73%	20%	6%	
6. understands rationale for and demonstrates the ability to apply psychological disclosure as one technique	100%			
7. negotiates reasonable contracts with disturbing children to help them systematically deal with their problems	67%	33%		

TABLE 3--Continued

N = 14 Concepts and Skills	% of Teachers			
	Check	Needs Work	No Indication	Not Applicable
8. indicates a knowledge of the group dynamics of the classroom and applies that knowledge to improve class relationships (use of sociogram, grouping, etc.)	73%		27%	
9. demonstrates the ability to allow the <u>children</u> to take responsibility for dealing with disturbing behaviors in others (when appropriate)	53%		46%	
10. Class discussion skills:				
a. established ground rules with children	100%			
b. encourages each student to participate	93%		6%	
c. teacher acts as facilitator, not preacher	80%	20%		
d. focuses on useful and constructive thinking	87%	13%		
e. stimulates ideas through open-ended questioning; problems that require observation, evaluation and conclusion of the group	93%	6%		
f. gives practice in decision-making	80%	20%		
g. allows time for evaluation and assessment of past performance and making plans for future	93%		6%	

TABLE 3--Continued

N = 14 Concepts and Skills	% of Teachers			
	Check	Needs Work	No Indication	Not Applicable
h. brings each session to closure	87%	6%	6%	
11. uses encouragement regularly and effectively	60%	6%	33%	
12. uses natural and logical consequences accurately and effectively	67%	6%	27%	
13. understands the difference between class discussion and class council	20%			80%
14. successfully sets up a class council (when group is ready to do so)	13%			87%
15. understands and is able to articulate the basic premises of Adlerian psychology that underlie Dreikurs's work	20%		80%	

Because the items are stated in behavioral terms, it must be noted that the checklist also indicates a high degree of behavioral proficiency as well as cognitive skills. Frequency of use of Dreikurs's method would therefore also seem high, especially in incidents of crisis intervention in the classroom.

Attitudes

The Teacher Self-Inventory of Attitudes and Behavior was administered to the participants of the program at both the beginning and three weeks following the termination of the course. Teachers were asked, during the explanation of the test and the test instructions, to answer the questions honestly in terms of their actual attitudes and behaviors rather than in terms of what they felt their attitudes and behaviors ought to be.

Analysis of pre- and post-test scores can be only descriptive in nature as there is no statistical standardization of the test currently available. However, some interpretations can be made using the model of Wightman (1973).

As stated in Chapter II, under instrumentation, the scores for the TSIAB were translated to continuum scales. No judgment is inherent to the test scores as placed on the continuums. However, higher scores would indicate attitudes and behaviors more congruent with Dreikurs's philosophy and methods.

Scores tended to cluster about the mid-point of the
continuums with pre-test sub-scale means ranging from 2.92
to 3.51 and post-test sub-scale means ranging from 3.09 to
3.89. Individual, as well as group, scores tended to follow
the same pattern with scores for both the pre- and post-tests
on sub-scale A, Style of Teaching, and sub-scale D, Classroom
Management and Control, clustering at the mid-point and sub-
scale C, Interpersonal Relationships, reported as being only
slightly higher.

Literature concerning evaluation by self-report tests
suggests that such a clustering effect at the mid-point is
often the case. Subjects tend to adopt middle positions when
they can diagnose the probable outcomes of a given test
(Edwards, 1957; Frederiksen, 1965). This trend may be some-
what borne out by the test results for this study.

According to the Montague, Massachusetts Project
C.A.R.E. study, a change of .50 representing a 12½ percent
change on a continuum is necessary for significance. Only
five of the participating teachers made such a change in a
positive direction; three of them on only one of the con-
tinuums; two of them on two continuums. Of these change
scores that reached a level of significance, three were in
the range from .50 to .54, lending some doubt to their
veracity. All other change scores over all other subjects
indicated negligible change. (See Tables 4 and 5.)

TABLE 4

COMPARISON OF PRE- AND POST-TEST RESULTS
OF TEACHER SELF-INVENTORY OF
ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIORS

Category	Test	Mean	Standard Deviation	Correlation
A. Style of Teaching	Pre-test Post-test	39.50 41.21	4.05 2.96	.20*
C. Interpersonal Relationships	Pre-test Post-test	35.14 36.85	2.50 2.67	.71*
D. Classroom Management & Control	Pre-test Post-test	29.14 31.57	4.22 4.34	.79*

*Significant at the .05 level.

TABLE 5

RESULTS: TEACHER SELF-INVENTORY OF
ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIORS

	Sub-scale A		
Teacher #	Pre-test	Post-test	Change Score
02	3.38	3.38	0.00
04	3.15	3.38	.23
05	2.46	2.77	.31
07	2.62	2.69	.07
08	3.31	3.46	.15
09	2.23	2.85	.62
11	3.54	2.77	-.77
12	3.46	2.77	-.69
15	3.08	3.15	.08
16	3.46	3.08	-.39
17	3.08	3.39	.31
18	2.92	3.31	.39
20	2.77	3.23	.46
21	2.69	3.23	.54
Range	2.23 - 3.54	2.69 - 3.39	-.77 → .62
Means	3.00	3.10	.09

TABLE 5--Continued

	Sub-scale C		
Teacher #	Pre-test	Post-test	Change Score
02	3.70	3.90	.20
04	3.50	3.70	.20
05	3.40	3.80	.40
07	2.90	2.90	0.00
08	3.40	3.70	.30
09	3.20	3.60	.40
11	3.90	3.60	-.30
12	3.70	3.70	0.00
15	3.60	3.80	.20
16	3.80	3.80	0.00
17	3.60	3.80	.20
18	3.60	4.10	.50
20	3.60	3.80	.20
21	3.30	3.40	.10
Range	2.90 - 3.90	2.90 - 4.10	-.30 → .50
Means	3.51	3.89	.17

TABLE 5--Continued

<table>
<tr><th colspan="4">Sub-scale D</th></tr>
<tr><th>Teacher #</th><th>Pre-test</th><th>Post-test</th><th>Change
Score</th></tr>
<tr><td>02</td><td>3.00</td><td>3.40</td><td>.40</td></tr>
<tr><td>04</td><td>2.70</td><td>2.70</td><td>0.00</td></tr>
<tr><td>05</td><td>2.20</td><td>2.70</td><td>.50</td></tr>
<tr><td>07</td><td>2.10</td><td>2.40</td><td>.30</td></tr>
<tr><td>08</td><td>3.20</td><td>3.80</td><td>.60</td></tr>
<tr><td>09</td><td>2.90</td><td>3.50</td><td>.60</td></tr>
<tr><td>11</td><td>3.70</td><td>3.80</td><td>.10</td></tr>
<tr><td>12</td><td>2.90</td><td>2.60</td><td>-.30</td></tr>
<tr><td>15</td><td>2.80</td><td>2.90</td><td>.10</td></tr>
<tr><td>16</td><td>3.30</td><td>3.30</td><td>.00</td></tr>
<tr><td>17</td><td>3.20</td><td>3.30</td><td>.10</td></tr>
<tr><td>18</td><td>2.50</td><td>3.20</td><td>.70</td></tr>
<tr><td>20</td><td>3.40</td><td>3.60</td><td>.20</td></tr>
<tr><td>21</td><td>2.90</td><td>3.00</td><td>.10</td></tr>
<tr><td>Range</td><td>2.10 - 3.70</td><td>2.60 - 3.80</td><td>-.30 → .70</td></tr>
<tr><td>Means</td><td>2.92</td><td>3.09</td><td>.24</td></tr>
</table>

Three teachers did indicate negative change; i.e., their attitudes and behaviors became less congruent with Dreikurs's methods. Two approached significance with change scores of -.77 and -.69 on sub-scale A, Style of Teaching, indicating that their styles were becoming more closed. The same three teachers reported negative or negligible changes in their perceptions of their focus children's behaviors. All three are also the oldest teachers in the group. Although these patterns are not sufficiently definitive to be conclusive, they do indicate areas that bear further investigation.

Teachers did report attitudinal changes of the final feedback form, however. A number of teachers stated that they had learned to look at misbehavior as a mutual problem for teacher and student to work to improve together. Prior to the course, they stated, they felt that solutions of such problems were either the province of teachers alone or of the parents. In some cases, behavioral problems were seen to be simply the "fault" of the student and thus beyond the power of the school to help apart from the maintenance of controlled order. The following statements by the teachers are indicative of this:

> I used to feel that when a kid had a behavior problem, it was his alone. I set out to rid him of this problem using reward and punishment. I now analyze the child's behavior in terms of the group and in terms of my response to his misbehavior.

I think my attitudes have definitely changed. I am much more aware now of looking at a behavior and trying to see what goal the child is showing. I now think this is very necessary because each child must be dealt with in a different way in a lot of situations.

I've come to believe the part about putting the responsibility on the child for his misbehavior and letting him correct it instead of forcing him to conform to something the teacher "made" him do.

I feel that I am now treating real problems at their roots or causes and not just taking care of a symptom of a problem with punishment.

I now try to forget about the situation at home as far as feeling sorry for the students to the point where I sympathize with them and let them get away with misbehaving.

A number of teachers reported that they have come to value student ideas and suggestions; to see children as people whose thoughts are worthy of respect.

I have begun to give the children opportunities to plan things, to make up rules and practice them.

In the beginning it took time and patience, but it was worth it.

I found the class as a whole has better ideas than I thought they did.

Children seem to be responding much better to discipline as I am now letting them have a part in making the rules.

My attitude toward children's responsibilities has changed. I try to talk with my students during private talks.

I try to do things more democratically and often accept their solutions to problems which arise.

Finally, several teachers stated that they had developed increased feelings of self-confidence and self-worth as a result of the program. This change in attitude about themselves was seen as having the potential for bettering relations with the children.

I feel I am more open-minded. I enjoy myself and am giving the children a chance to discuss some of our problems that we have within class.

Of course, I still have moments when I lose my temper but . . . if I can use Dreikurs's method, I feel much more rewarded within myself.

I seem more relaxed with class. Have less to do on
discipline so more energy and time for other things.

I am much more honest with the children and expect
more of the children.

I feel that more of a rapport has been established
with the class and the tension because of misbehav-
ior is fading away.

I feel more confident that I can handle problems
when they come up so I'm less up tight and enjoy
teaching more.

Two teachers felt that their attitudes had not changed
because they had been naturally using many of Dreikurs's
principles before participating in the course.

I really don't feel more able to manage my class
because of the course. I always did feel capable
of managing them. I just have a few more tools
to use now.

I feel I've been using some of Dreikurs's methods
in the past without knowing that it was Dreikurs.
My class has been democratic, relaxed, project
oriented and fun in the past.

Behaviors

Teachers were trained to use the Walker Problem Behavior Identification Checklist as specified in the test manual. They were then asked to use the list, checking appropriate items for each of their focus children. Process observers, trained in the use of the WPBIC and in process observation, corroborated the teachers' observations to a high degree (87 percent). This procedure was repeated three weeks after the termination of the course.

Comparison of the pre- and post-treatment administrations of the WPBIC show considerable change on a number of dimensions. Apparently, the Dreikurs program either affected the teachers' perceptions of their children or indeed was instrumental in helping the teachers work with some of the children to mitigate disturbing behaviors.

According to the teachers' reports on the initial checklist administration, all twenty-seven of the designated "disturbing" children could be classified as disturbed on one or more of the sub-scales. Twenty-one (77 percent) of the children could be so classified on two or more of the sub-scales; ten (37 percent) on three or more.

At the end of the program, teachers were again asked to report their focus children through the WPBIC. At that point twenty-one (77 percent) were reported as disturbed on one or more of the sub-scales; nine (33 percent) on two or

more sub-scales and five (19 percent) on three or more scales. See Table 6.

TABLE 6

RESULTS: WALKER PROBLEM BEHAVIOR
IDENTIFICATION CHECKLIST

Number of disturbing children who were
classified as disturbed on one
or more sub-scales

N = 27 Number of disturbing children reported with T-scores of 60 or more		Number of sub-scales
Pre-test	Post-test	
27 (100%)	21 (77%)	one or more
21 (77%)	9 (33%)	two or more
10 (37%)	5 (19%)	three or more

Only one of the "model children" was reported to have scored at the "disturbed" level at the beginning of the program and at only one sub-scale. The same child received an identical score at the end of the program. All of the other "model children" were reported to score considerably below the critical score of 60 percentile on all sub-scales on both the pre- and post-administrations of the WPBIC with a mean score of 45 percentile on all sub-scales.

Ten (over one-third) of the disturbing children made a 20 percentile point or greater reported improvement on one

or more of the sub-scales with a number of students making positive changes of from 40 to 51 percentile points.

The model children retained their initial scores for the most part, with scores reflecting no changes over eleven to fourteen (71 to 100 percent) of the children on the five sub-scales. Six of the children were recorded as having made positive changes of up to 10 percentile points. See Table 7. Graphs of changes in all of the sample children are found in Appendix E.

It must be noted that twenty-four of the twenty-seven disturbing children, or 89 percent, are male. This is consistent with research findings that significantly higher proportions of boys than girls are identified as behaviorally disturbed (Beilin, 1959). The WPBIC, when standardized, was found to reflect this difference.

Examination of the change scores on the WPBIC reveals some patterns. First, the greatest degree of change tended to occur on sub-scale four, peer relations, with three of the children (12 percent) improving from 32 to 49 percentile points. However, the greatest frequency of change occurred on sub-scales one, acting out, and three, distractibility. Thirteen of the sample children displayed change of 10 percentile points or more on sub-scale one while nine did so on sub-scale three. Sub-scale two, withdrawal, remained unchanged in nineteen of the disturbed children with sub-scale

TABLE 7

WALKER PROBLEM BEHAVIOR IDENTIFICATION
CHECKLIST – INDIVIDUAL CHANGE SCORES

(Post-test minus Pre-test [T-scores])

+ indicates degree of improvement
– indicates worsening of behavior

Student #	1	2	3	4	5
0201	0	0	– 8	0	0
0202	+16	0	+24	0	+ 5
0203	+16	0	+20	+ 4	+17
0401	+ 2	0	0	0	0
0402	--	--	--	--	--
0403	+13	+29	+ 6	+39	+ 5
0501	0	0	+ 8	0	0
0502	+27	0	0	+14	0
0503	+44	+23	+ 6	+49	0
0701	0	0	0	0	0
0702	+12	0	+ 9	+32	+ 5
0703	+14	0	+14	+ 3	– 5
0801	0	0	+ 8	0	0
0802	+18	0	+17	+13	+ 5
0803	+ 8	+13	+11	+51	0
0901	0	0	0	+ 4	0
0902	+ 2	0	+ 3	0	0
0903	+ 4	0	+ 3	–14	0
1101	+ 8	0	0	0	0
1102	–23	0	0	0	0
1103	+ 2	0	+ 7	0	0
1201	0	0	0	0	0
1202	+ 2	0	+ 5	+ 3	0
1203	+10	–14	+ 6	0	–17
1501	0	0	0	0	0
1502	+35	0	+12	0	– 7
1503	0	–14	0	+11	0

Sub-scales:

1. Acting out
2. Withdrawal
3. Distractability
4. Disturbed peer relations
5. Immaturity

TABLE 7--Continued

+ indicates degree of improvement
- indicates worsening of behavior

Student #	1	2	3	4	5
1601	0	0	0	0	0
1602	- 6	- 7	+ 3	0	-20
1603	0	0	+ 8	0	0
1701	- 2	+ 5	0	0	0
1702	+ 4	0	+12	+32	0
1703	+ 5	0	+13	0	0
1801	0	0	-12	0	0
1802	+ 2	0	+ 6	+14	+12
1803	+14	+27	+ 9	+17	0
2001	0	0	0	0	0
2002	- 7	0	+ 9	-11	+16
2003	+ 3	-22	0	+ 9	-24
2101	0	+ 5	0	0	0
2102	+ 8	0	- 5	0	0
2103	+10	0	- 6	+14	0

five, immaturity, remaining constant for fifteen students.
(See Table 8.)

TABLE 8

RESULTS: WALKER PROBLEM BEHAVIOR
IDENTIFICATION CHECKLIST

Number of children who underwent
Positive Change per sub-scale

N = 27

Number of disturbing children appearing on each sub-scale					Degree of Positive Change
1	2	3	4	5	
2(.7%)	19(70%)	4(15%)	10(37%)	15(55%)	No change
12(44%)	0	13(40%)	4(15%)	4(15%)	1-10%tile points
7(26%)	1(.3%)	5(19%)	5(19%)	3(11%)	11-20%tile
1(.3%)	3(11%)	1(.3%)	0	0	21-30%tile
1(.3%)	0	0	3(11%)	0	31-40%tile
1(.3%)	0	0	2(.7%)	0	41-50%tile

When examining the WPBIC scores for changes, a number
of patterns become obvious. Size of difficulty of classroom
assignment seemed to have no effect on perceived success.
In fact, the teacher with the class labeled as most difficult
by the principal and the teachers, a transition class between
grades one and two made up of what the teacher described as
"nineteen disturbed children," had the most positive results
with one child changing 27 percentile points on one sub-scale
and the other changing 44 and 49 percentile points on two
sub-scales. The two teachers who, at the beginning of the

course, expressed the most positive feelings about their
classrooms, stating that they functioned smoothly and co-
hesively, reported scores that dropped. One of these teachers
reported a negative change score of 23 percentile points for
one child and a minimal positive change of 7 percentile
points for the other. The other teacher reported a drop of
17 percentile points for one child and a positive change of
only 5 percentile points for the other. Both of these teach-
ers were among the oldest and most highly experienced of the
sample group. Teacher age appears to have been a factor.
The four teachers over forty years of age reported the least
degree of change in their disturbing students.

One other pattern is worthy of note. Teachers tended
to report that they were successful or not; either reporting
change scores of over 10 percentile points for both of their
disturbing children or reporting no change and/or a drop in
scores (indicating a worsening of behaviors) for both. Only
two teachers reported having one student change over 10 per-
centile points and the other student change under 10. Eight
reported positive changes in both disturbing children; four
reported that their disturbing children either remained un-
changed or became worse as a result of implementing Dreikurs's
principles. See Table 9.

In interviews, feedback forms, and case studies, the
teachers indicated more strongly the changes that they per-
ceived to be occurring in their students. Eleven of the

TABLE 9

RESULTS: WALKER PROBLEM BEHAVIOR IDENTIFICATION CHECKLIST

Degree of improvement in disturbing
students per teacher

N = 27	Change in Percentile Score							
Teacher Number	Worse	No Change	1-10	11-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60
02				1	1			
04						1		
05					1		1	
07				1		1		
08				1				1
09	1	1						
11	1	1						
12	1	1						
15	1					1		
16	1	1						
17				1		1		
18				1	1			
20	1			1				
21		1		1				

teachers (79 percent) reported what they felt to be signifi-
cant changes occurring in at least one of their disturbing
focus children.

T. is less dependent, more grown-up, and liked
better by the class.

R. does seem to have stopped disruptive behavior as well as aggressive attacks on other children.

B. stutters <u>much</u> less now. R. has also really calmed down.

T. has improved greatly. He seems much more interested in receiving encouraging attention from me in regards to his work rather than for behavior problems.

Teachers also reported, in feedback forms and interviews, that changes had occurred in other children in their classes and/or in their classrooms as a whole as they began to apply the techniques from the Dreikurs program. Two patterns emerged over all of the classrooms. First, all of the teachers expressed the opinion that the children's cooperative behaviors and attitudes had substantially increased.

Each student seems to handle himself better, cooperates more and shares more with others; seems more concerned about the welfare of his classmates.

Classroom is getting a real sense of cooperation.

I feel that I have more cooperation from the children. They are aware of logical consequences and enjoy making them jointly with their classmates and myself.

The class seems to recognize their greater role in
accomplishing the set goals for the school year and
have shown an increased willingness to offer assist-
ance and cooperation . . . there is more concern to
help each other succeed.

A kindergarten teacher reported that "misbehaviors
are taking a turn for the better and the attitude
is one of friendship coupled with respect.--A king-
sized mutual admiration society.

The other important pattern was a consistent indication
that as teachers taught the children some of Dreikurs's
principles and allowed them to use them the children took in-
creasing responsibility for structuring and maintaining a
classroom atmosphere conducive to their own learning. The
focus seems to be positive, in accordance with the coopera-
tive spirit noted above, and without overtones of punishment.

Other children in my class often remind misbehaving
ones to please conform; most have become used to
logical consequences we have agreed upon--this
often means I do little talking--they often apply
consequences and give reminders among themselves.

The children are becoming more independent and are
now able to solve some of their own arguments and
disputes. They do make some decisions in class
management.

There exists interplay between students--zeroing
in on the attention-seekers--which has become quite
helpful in eliminating many little nuisances.

[Children] are quick to recognize bids for atten-
tion. They will mention logical consequences to
class members and also will remind each other of
ground rules for class discussion. Children felt
freer to bring some things up than they might have
before.

Teachers did mention initial difficulties in imple-
menting Dreikurs's methods but almost without exception, they
were able to resolve them in a few weeks' time.

The classroom became noisier. They had trouble
handling the new responsibilities I was giving
them.

I think when I first started, I found out the hard
way that kids have to be taught the democratic way.
By trial and error I learned just how much freedom
in discussion they could handle without bedlam.

I tried too much, too soon, too fast. I found my-
self zeroing in on a few specific problems and thus
magnifying them both to myself (so that's all I
thought about) and also magnifying them in reality

(they really did get worse). With practice
these problems are being alleviated.

When questioned, the students indicated that they had
noticed a change in the teachers' behaviors. During inter-
views with small groups of the focus children conducted by
the process observers and the course facilitators, comments
such as the following were typically stated. For the most
part, the students seemed puzzled by the changes and not cer-
tain what they meant. They also indicated that they were
pleased by many of the obvious changes, e.g., a marked de-
crease in the amount of shouting being done by the teachers.

The teachers are acting weird. They're much
calmer.
                                        -- girl, age 7

When we fight, no one gets in trouble. The teach-
ers don't yell at us. We have to figure it out.
                                        -- boy, age 8

[the teacher] is nicer to us; not so grouchy. He
doesn't yell as much.
                                        -- boy, age 10

Our teacher doesn't yell as much. She talks in a
low voice.
                                        -- girl, age 7

The teacher is weird. She asks us what to do when
someone is bad.
                        -- boy, age 8

When kids are fighting, teachers used to do some-
thing about it. Now they don't do anything about it.
They make us talk about it.
                        -- boy, age 10

All the time the teachers are saying "show me" in-
stead of just doing something. On the playground,
when one kid pushed another kid and they started
fighting, the teacher just said "Show me" instead of
letting us tell her what happened.

The last quotation is in reference to one Dreikurs
technique in which teachers ask children to re-play an inci-
dent rather than tell what happened. Often children see for
themselves what caused a provocation during such a re-play.
Apparently this technique won quite a bit of popularity among
the teachers as many of the children mentioned it as one of
the bizarre behaviors their teachers were exhibiting.

The children were told that their teachers had been
taking a course after school and were asked if they could
guess what the course was about. A number of the answers
indicated that the children were quite perceptive about some
of the problems teachers confront in the classroom and about
some of the changes that the course was encouraging.

The teacher is learning how not to be crazy.

                        -- girl, age 8

The teacher is learning what to do with us when
we're bad.

                        -- boy, age 6

Having class discussions, talking about problems
together.

                        -- girl, age 7

Keeping their tempers even when we don't stop
being bad.

                        -- boy, age 10

To keep out of our problems and let us solve some
stuff.

                        -- boy, age 8

C H A P T E R   I V

ANALYSIS AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

The review of the literature in Chapter I indicates that:

1. discipline and classroom management are perceived to be problematic issues by both new and experienced educators throughout the country;

2. Dreikurs's method is one approach to resolving the problem but that it has been evaluated almost solely within the context of the counseling situation;

3. a majority of school systems in the United States provide in-service training for their faculty and staff;

4. a majority of teachers do attend such programs, on their own time, without receiving remuneration or professional credit;

5. evaluation of such programs is usually insufficient and not an integral part of the planning despite the fact that pre-planned and solid evaluation is an important factor in the success of a given program;

6. evaluation can and should focus on the changes in participant knowledge, attitudes, and behavior.

One intent of this study was to incorporate the above factors in the implementation and evaluation of one in-service program which taught Dreikurs's methods to practicing teachers. The in-service context was chosen because it already exists as a recognized format for the continuing education of teachers

and is frequently the only vehicle for it within the structure of the public schools.

Asher (1967) and Westby-Gibson (1967), in extensive review of literature concerning in-service training, found that most programs were evaluated descriptively after the fact and that teacher enthusiasm was the primary criterion cited as a measure for success. In accordance with their recommendations and those of Meade (1971), this study included as part of its initial design a systematic scheme for both formative and summative evaluation. Descriptions of the content and utilization of the formative evaluation methods and results may be found in the companion study to this one by Archer (1974).

The intent of the summative evaluation design was to evaluate the effectiveness of the program on three separate, but overlapping, levels: changes in participant knowledge, attitudes and behaviors. Programs in Dreikurs's methods that were designed for counselors and reviewed prior to undertaking this study had not provided for this type of multi-level evaluation. The present investigation does demonstrate that it is possible to build such a multi-level evaluation into a teacher in-service program in such a way as to be relatively unobtrusive. Effectiveness can thus be examined on a more concrete basis than teacher enthusiasm.

The teachers participating in the study reported that they felt the program was successful on all three levels. Anecdotal data gathered from teacher notebooks, feedback forms,

and interviews support the teachers' opinions that they had
changed on the three dimensions under consideration. Thirteen
of the fourteen stated that they would strongly recommend the
course to others if it were offered again. Three stated,
unasked, that they would want to either repeat the program
or take part in a course entitled Dreikurs II. The only
qualifier to the above statements was a strong suggestion by
seven participants that the course be conducted over a longer
time period. The ten-week schedule was too intensive and
tiring to be maximally productive.

The most extensive changes reported occurred on the
knowledge and behavior levels. Whether the behavior changes
recorded on the WPBIC reflect actual changes in the children's
behaviors or redefinition of behavior problems by the teachers
is open to question. In an interdependent system such as the
classroom where one individual's behavior is likely to affect
another which in turn reflects on the first's, a cyclical
process of change evolution develops. It could also be, then,
that teachers did change their own behaviors which induced
behavior change in the students. Such student change could
then become a reinforcer which would produce further change.
Regardless, the fact remains that the teachers felt that stu-
dents whose behaviors had frequently been a puzzlement and
irritant for the greater part of the school year (and, in
some cases, for a number of years) were now changing in posi-
tive directions. This phenomenon certainly deserves further
careful study.

Attitudes, as measured by a formal test, changed negligibly. Informal or anecdotal data does indicate some attitude change but still relatively little as compared to the other two levels. This phenomenon is predictable according to a number of change theories (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969; McGregor, 1960). When change is largely externally motivated, as it was in the Dreikurs program, attitudes are usually the last aspect of human behavior to change.

The teachers needed to exhibit knowledge and behavior change on a consistent basis in order to be active participants in the course (for which there was some peer pressure), win facilitator approval and to pass the course. Knowledge change is the least difficult for participants. Reading and completing assignments are accustomed tasks for teachers who have been through college and some graduate work. The Concept-Skill Checklist indicates that the participants did indeed acquire a high level of cognitive understanding of the course content.

Translating the knowledge to behavior, in this program, was also a fairly small step. One of the strengths of Dreikurs's method is the specificity of his prescribed methods for dealing with misbehaviors. Teachers were introduced to one or two new steps during each class session and were encouraged to implement them once before the next session. Once tried, these steps often became self-reinforcing as they were often dramatically effective.

Integration of the new materials into attitudes, however, is a much more difficult proposition. For that to occur, the philosophy and method must be more thoroughly learned, practiced and effectively implemented on a consistent and long-term basis. At the termination of the program, teachers were still in the process of assimilating and integrating all of the small steps they had learned into a cohesive philosophical and practical whole.

The either-or nature of success also is in accord with change theory and basic principles of behavioral change. Teachers who gained some success with the method were encouraged to continue as a natural consequence of that success. Each success can act as a positive reinforcer so that the behavior will be likely to continue (Diebert and Harmon, 1970). Teachers who were succeeding also received further reinforcement from the facilitators who actively encouraged even small steps through sharing them with the other class members, positive comments and written support. Peers, too, reinforced behaviors that were demonstrations of implementation of the Dreikurs method. They enjoyed sharing success stories during class and comparing progress.

Unfortunately, the very behaviors that were so encouraging to some may have been discouraging to others. Those who doubted the efficacy or feasibility of the method often confirmed their own worst suspicions by trying to implement steps that neither they nor their students were ready for.

The resultant failure was compounded by hearing of others' successes, discouraging them even further. Facilitator attention was focused primarily on successful incidents so it may be that those who were not doing well became reluctant to share their problems and concerns or to publicly seek solutions due to apprehension that they would be perceived by the facilitators and their peers as being less competent than the others.

The most extensive changes in the behavioral realm, according to the Concept-Skills Checklist and teacher self-reports, were those that dealt with methods for specific crisis intervention and class discussion. In both cases, Dreikurs's method specifies procedures for effective implementation. Less clear are the procedures for encouragement and teaching children to take responsibility for themselves and to act in accordance with democratic principles. In these latter areas, the teacher is required to change cos role far more radically from the traditional model of authority and power. In crisis intervention and class discussion, a large part of the locus of control is still with the teacher. Teaching responsibility, on the other hand, cannot be accomplished by withholding it. As stated in Chapter I, most teachers do tend to teach as they were taught (Hunter, 1957; Silberman, 1971), i.e., by traditional and authoritarian methods. They therefore have a large reservoir of behavior to overcome to reach a democratic mode of behavior. "The

longer a behavior is reinforced, the more patterned it becomes
and the more difficult it is to change" (Hersey and Blanchard,
1969, p. 22).

This concept is congruent with the fact that the older
and most experienced teachers reported the least amount of
change. As Hersey and Blanchard (1969) state:

> The older a person gets, the more time and new ex-
> periences are necessary to effect a change in behav-
> ior. While it is possible to change behavior in
> older people, it will be difficult to accomplish
> except over a long period of time under conducive
> conditions. (p. 22)

A ten-week course can hardly compete with fourteen or more
years of experience. By the end of the program, the older
teachers were indicating a willingness to change; one stating
that "you can teach an old dog new tricks--it just takes
awhile." It would be interesting to study such teachers over
a longer period of time to determine the factors that would
facilitate change in them.

The most successful teacher in terms of cos perception
of change in cos students was the teacher who had the most
difficult classroom assignment. This teacher felt unable to
cope with, much less effectively help, cos students before
the Dreikurs course. Cos desperation for practical tools
for dealing with an impossible situation acted as a strong
motivator for change. The two teachers, on the other hand,
who were most confident in their abilities to manage their
classes and whose students were less disturbing saw little

need for change and thus were not as motivated to incorporate Dreikurs's method into their teaching style. The irony here is that the students in the three classrooms were almost equally "disturbed" according to the WPBIC at the beginning of the program. At the end of the program, the teacher with the difficult class had perceived major positive behavioral changes in cos students while the other two reported that their students had either remained unchanged or had become worse; a major example of the self-fulfilling prophecy at work.

Conclusions and Implications

Due to the nature of the design of this study, i.e., no control group or random sampling procedures, caution must be exercised in generalizing from the results. However, some trends can be extrapolated from the study for further exploration.

It appears that an in-service program in Dreikurs's method can be an effective means for training teachers to deal more effectively with classroom management and discipline. Even when compressed into an intensive format, knowledge and behaviors were affected to a significant degree. Attitude change was negligible and may remain so for a considerable time after the initiation of a Dreikurs program.

Certain factors, confirmed by change theorists, seem to contribute to a given teacher's predisposition to acceptance of Dreikurs's method. Among these are age, experience

as a "traditional" teacher, feelings regarding the effective-
ness of current teaching style and perceptions regarding the
effectiveness of the new method. Facilitator reinforcement
and peer approval also may act as powerful motivators for
change in behavior.

For others who wish to extend the findings of this study,
the following suggestions are made:

1. Provide a research design with a control group and
    random sampling so that generalizations can be made
    with more veracity.

2. Design and/or implement an effective instrument for
    measuring actual changes in student behaviors. If
    the purpose of an in-service program is to teach
    teachers to redirect the behaviors of children, a
    direct measure of precisely that would be useful.
    This study focuses on teacher perceptions more than
    on provable change in students.

3. Observation by trained process observers who are
    not involved with the course itself could be used
    to confirm teachers' reports of changes in their
    own and their students' behaviors.

4. Include follow-up investigations at regular time
    intervals to determine if teacher and student
    behavior changes are maintained and to ascertain
    whether attitude change in teachers does occur
    over time. Attitudes of students might also be
    considered.

5. Additional standardized measurement devices for
    each level under consideration should be tried and
    empirical studies of effectiveness made.

Although this study does not offer empirical proof of
the effectiveness of an in-service Dreikurs program, it does
make a close and systematic attempt to evaluate the program
on three overlapping levels; knowledge, attitudes, and be-
haviors. It is exploratory in nature and it does indicate

tendencies that may be empirically examined in future studies.

There is a need for effective in-service programs that can produce desired changes in teacher and, subsequently, student behaviors that will create and maintain classroom atmospheres maximally conducive to learning. Data collected in this study indicates that these goals were being reached by a particular group of teachers and that the Dreikurs method is a viable approach to classroom management that deserves further exploration.

APPENDIX A

TEACHER BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

Teacher number _____

Age _____   Sex _____

Currently teaching grade level _____ Class size _____

Years of teaching experience _____

Years in Easthampton _____

Own education level (degrees, graduate work, etc.) _____

_____

Other courses you have taken in the practical application of
behavior theories for the classroom:

APPENDIX B

COURSE OUTLINE

Session 1:   An Introduction to Alfred Adler and Rudolf
               Dreikurs
             The Influence of Birth Order as one method for
               understanding children

Session 2:   Considering birth order. group dynamics and
               atmosphere
             Considering how the atmosphere in the family
               group influences life style; inferiority
               feelings and inferiority complexes

Session 3:   Birth Order: The child's interpretation and
               private logic
             Some of Dreikurs's philosophy which underlies
               his methodology
             Using the Class as a social system

Session 4:   More about Dreikurs's philosophy
             Diagnosing the four goals of Misbehavior; what
               they are, how to diagnose

Session 5:   Accurate observation and description of behavior
             Practicing diagnosing and describing misbehaviors

Session 6:   Case study analysis
             Learning basic principles for redirecting
               misbehavior
             Learning the "psychological approach"
             Learning about natural and logical consequences
               as an alternative to praise and punishment
             Review

Session 7:   More work on natural and logical consequences
             Using the case study to assist in diagnosing and
               redirecting misbehaviors
             Learning how to collect a complete case study
             More work on the "psychological approach"
             Psychological disclosure as feedback

Session 8:   Set forth final project alternatives
             Learning concept and practice of the class
               discussion and class council

Session 9:   Learning how to use the art of encouragement
               Learning specific elements of the art of
                 encouragement
               Using sociogram as one method of encouragement
               Some non-competitive activities for use in the
                 classroom

Session 10:   More work with sociograms
               Class discussion continued
               Considering similarities and differences between
                 Dreikurs's method and Behavior Modification

APPENDIX C

DREIKURS COURSE – FINAL FEEDBACK

1. Have you noticed any specific behavior changes in the selected children (the three you were doing Walker Lists for) since you began using Dreikurs's method? If so, please describe.

2. Have you noticed any specific behavior changes in other children in your class? If so, please describe.

3. Have you noticed any significant changes in the way you analyze and handle problems in your own classroom since learning about Dreikurs's method? Please describe.

4. In what significant ways, if any, do you feel more able to manage your class since taking the course?

5. Have you noticed any changes in the general tone of your classroom? the school? If so, how is this reflected in behaviors? attitudes?

6. When a problem occurs in your classroom, would you say that you use Dreikurs's methods:

   Always   Most of the time   Frequently   Seldom   Never

7. What parts of Dreikurs's method have you found most useful? How are you using them in your teaching?

8. If it were offered again, would you encourage other teachers to take the Dreikurs course? Reasons?

9. What problems, if any, have you had in implementing Dreikurs's methods?

10. Open comment:

APPENDIX D

MAINTAINING SANITY IN THE CLASSROOM:
PROJECT CHECKLIST

Teacher number _____

	Concepts/Skills to be Learned
1.	demonstrates the ability to accurately describe behavior
2.	utilizes correct procedures for diagnosing the child's goal(s)
3.	demonstrates the ability to correctly diagnose the child's goal(s)
4.	demonstrates an understanding of the role of the family constellation in the development of the child's life style
5.	demonstrates knowledge and application of appropriate corrective measures for each goal
6.	understands rationale for and demonstrates the ability to apply psychological disclosure as one technique
7.	negotiates reasonable contracts with disturbing children to help them systematically deal with their problems
8.	indicates a knowledge of the group dynamics of the classroom and applies that knowledge to improve class relationships (use of sociogram, grouping, etc.)
9.	demonstrates the ability to allow the children to take responsibility for dealing with disturbing behaviors in others (when appropriate)
10.	Class discussion skills: a. established ground rules with children

b. encourages each student to participate

c. teacher acts as facilitator, not preacher

d. focuses on useful and constructive thinking

e. stimulates ideas through open-ended questioning; problems that require observation, evaluation and conclusion by the group

f. gives practice in decision-making

g. allows time for evaluation and assessment of past performance and making plans for future

h. bring each session to closure

11. uses encouragement regularly and effectively

12. uses natural and logical consequences accurately and effectively

13. understands the difference between class discussion and class council

14. successfully sets up a class council (when group is ready to do so)

15. understands and is able to articulate the basic premises of Adlerian psychology that underlie Dreikurs's work

APPENDIX E

RESULTS: WALKER PROBLEM BEHAVIOR
IDENTIFICATION CHECKLIST:

INDIVIDUAL CHANGE SCORES

The following graphs were constructed to illustrate
the changes in WPBIC scores for each of the sample students.
Light bars (left in each sub-scale) indicate the pre-
treatment profile; dark bars (right in each sub-scale) indi-
cate the post-treatment profile. According to the test
developer, scores of 60 percentile or higher indicate that
a child may be classified as "disturbed" and that co
probably would benefit from counseling or treatment by the
school psychologist.

No. 0201
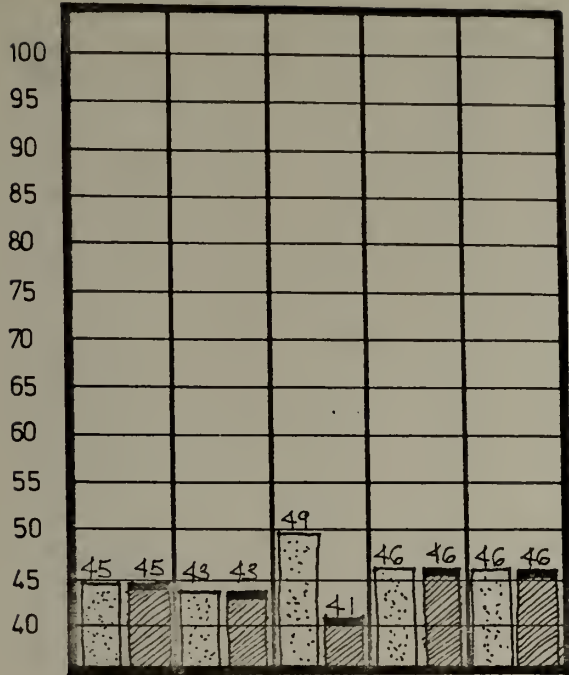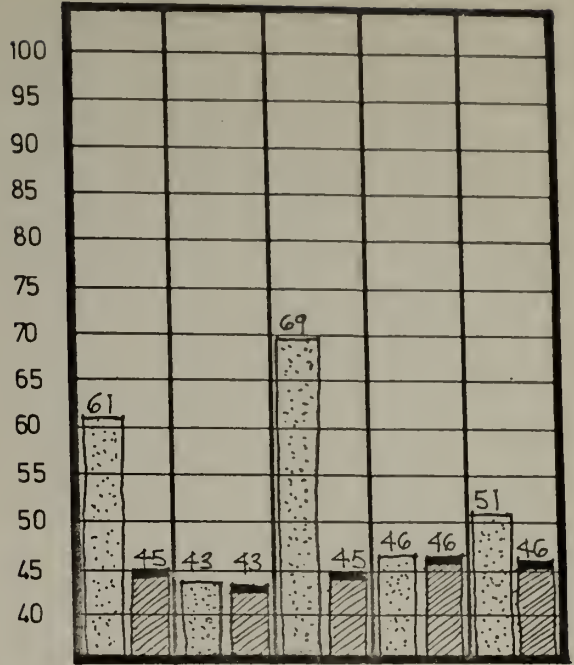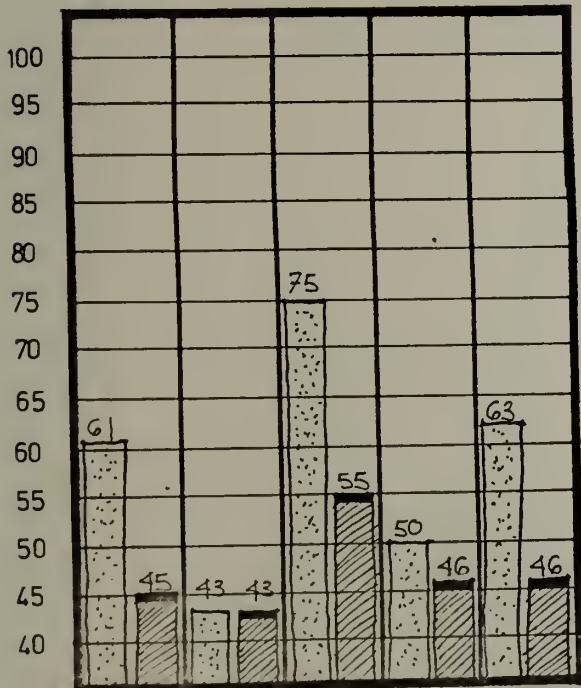
No. 0202

No. 0203

LEGEND

SUB-SCALES

1 ACTING OUT

2 WITHDRAWAL

3 DISTRACTABILITY

4 DISTURBED PEER RELATIONS

5 IMMATURITY

PRE-TEST SCORES ———
POST-TEST SCORES ———
PERCENTILES SCORES — 40-100
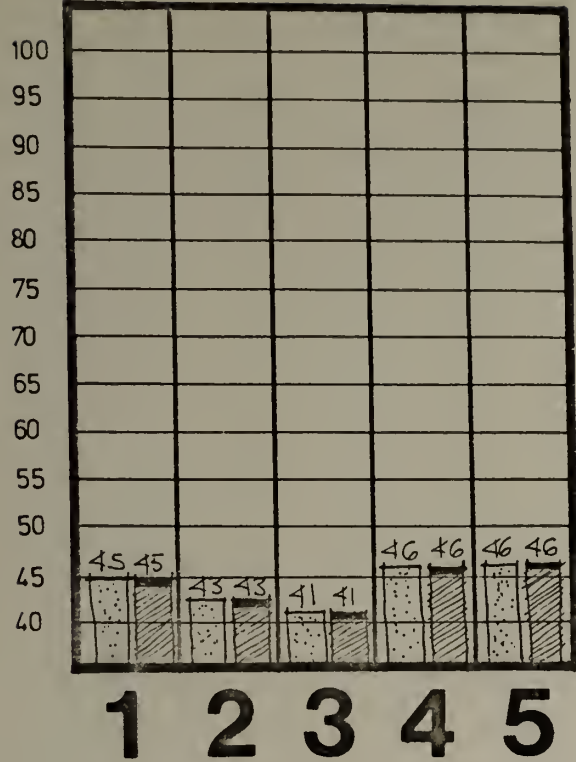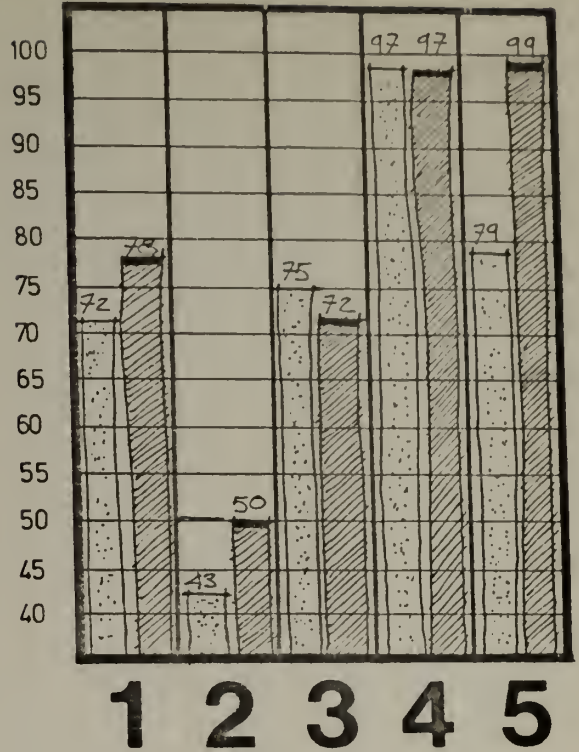STUDENT NUMBER ——— **No.**
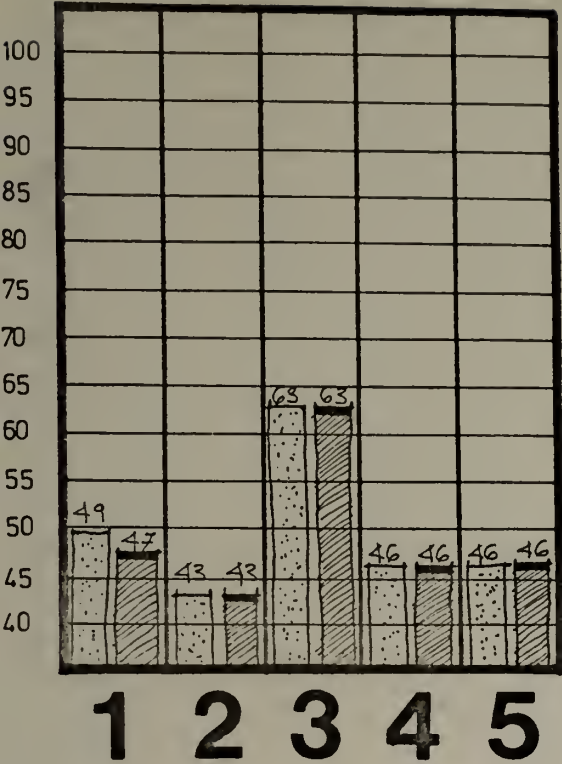
No. 0401

No. 0402
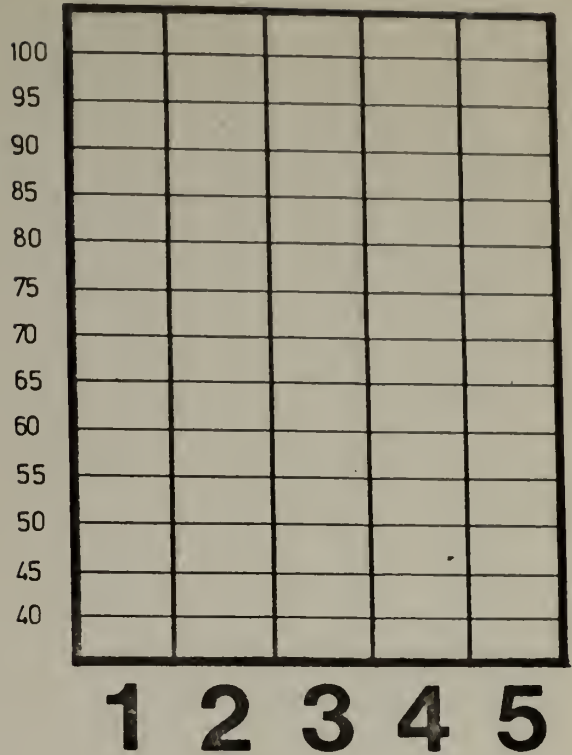
No. 0403
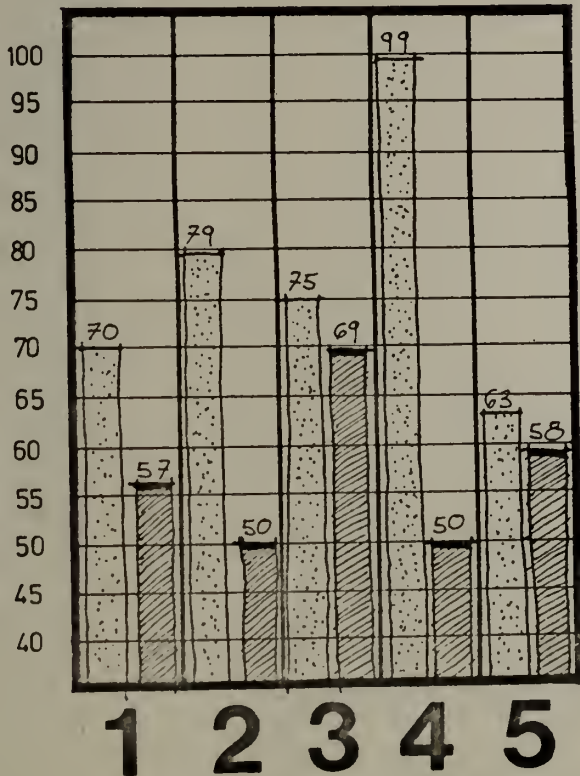
LEGEND

SUB-SCALES

1 ACTING OUT

2 WITHDRAWAL

3 DISTRACTABILITY

4 DISTURBED PEER RELATIONS

5 IMMATURITY

PRE-TEST SCORES ———
POST-TEST SCORES ———
PERCENTILES SCORES — 40-100
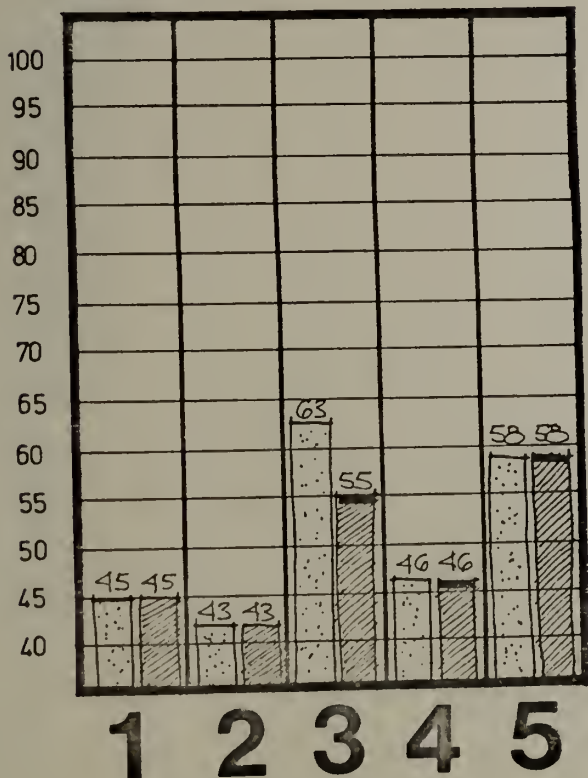STUDENT NUMBER ——— **No.**

No. 0501
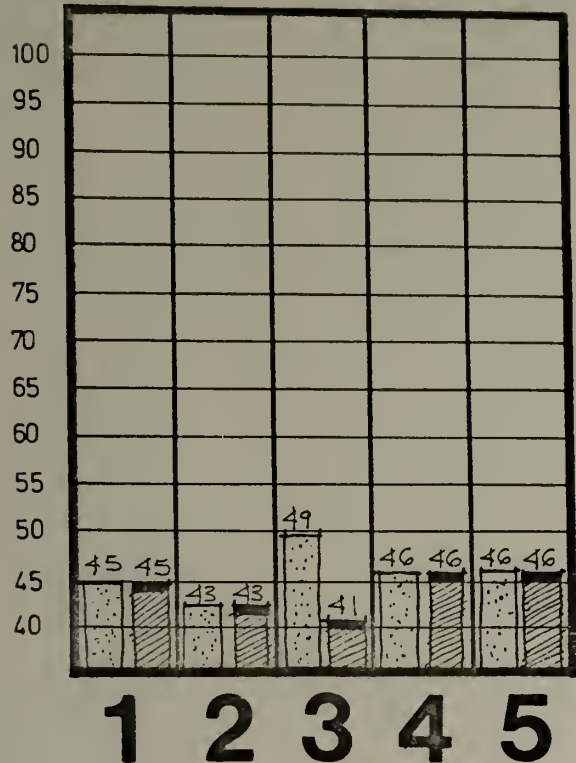
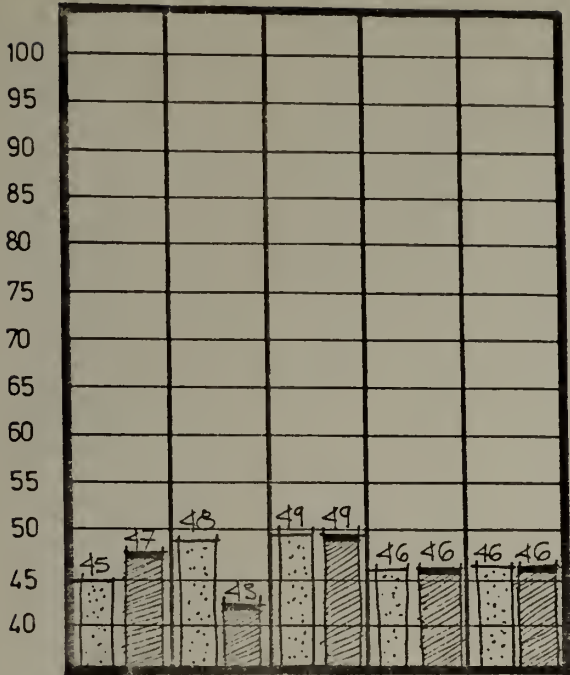**No.** 0502
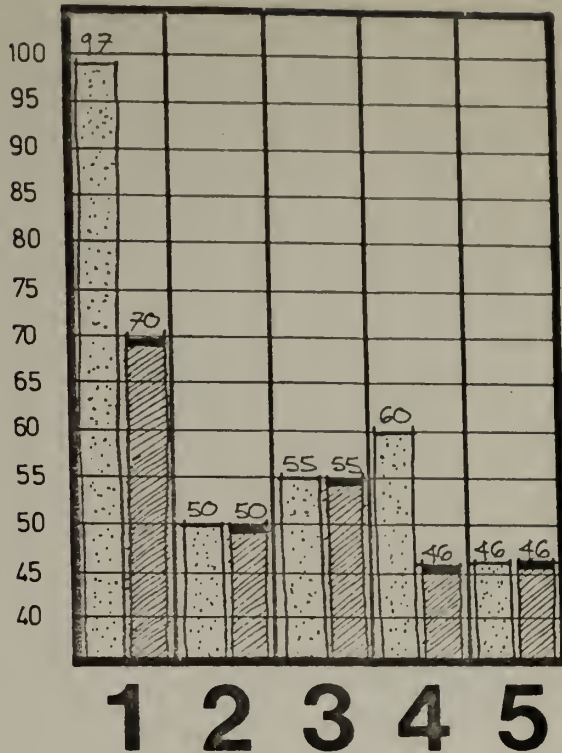
No. 0503
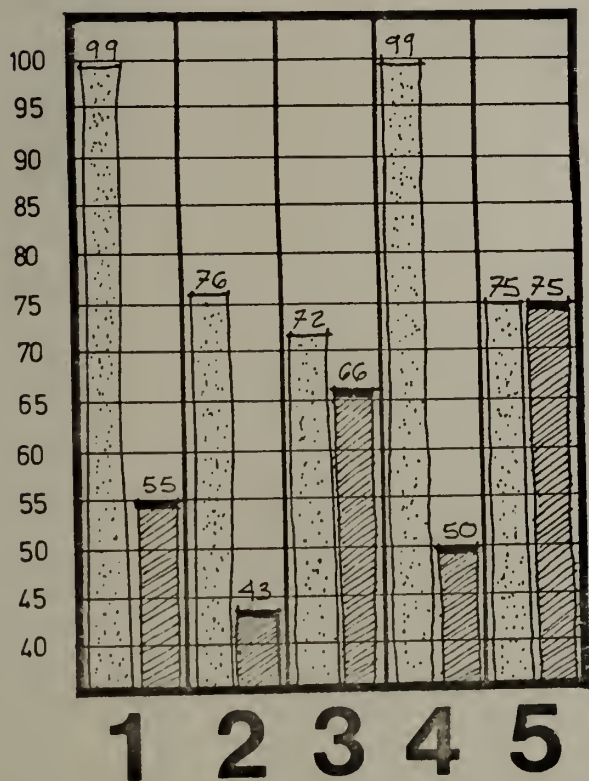
LEGEND

SUB-SCALES

1 ACTING OUT

2 WITHDRAWAL

3 DISTRACTABILITY

4 DISTURBED PEER RELATIONS

5 IMMATURITY

PRE-TEST SCORES ——— 61

POST-TEST SCORES ——— 45

PERCENTILES SCORES — 40-100

STUDENT NUMBER ——— **No.**

No. 0701

No. 0702
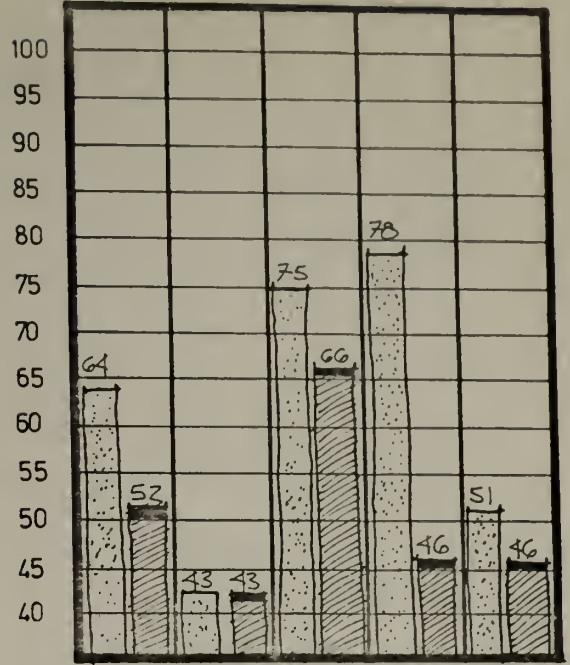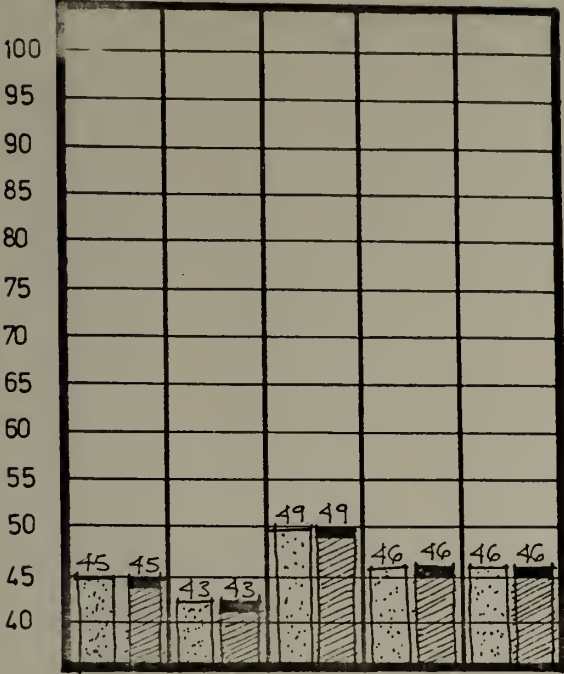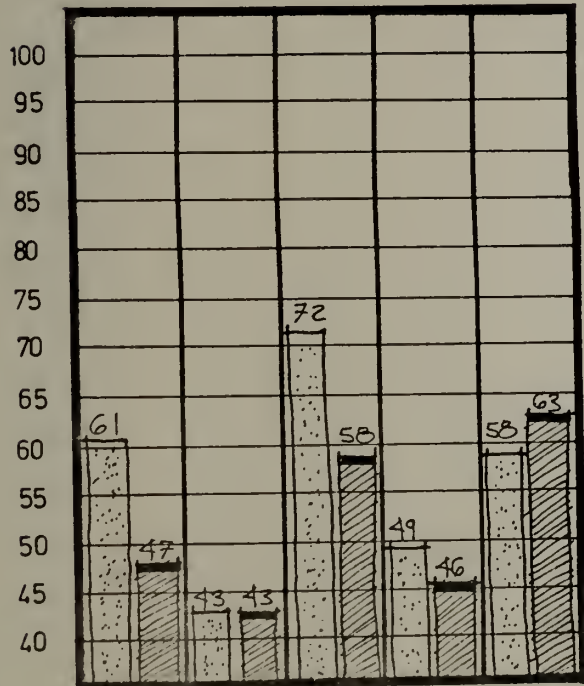
No. 0703

LEGEND

SUB-SCALES

1 ACTING OUT

2 WITHDRAWAL

3 DISTRACTABILITY

4 DISTURBED PEER RELATIONS

5 IMMATURITY

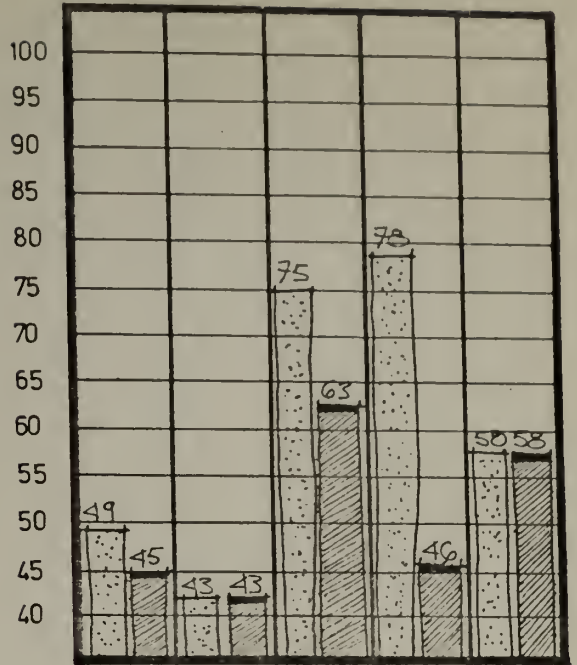PRE-TEST SCORES ——
POST-TEST SCORES ——
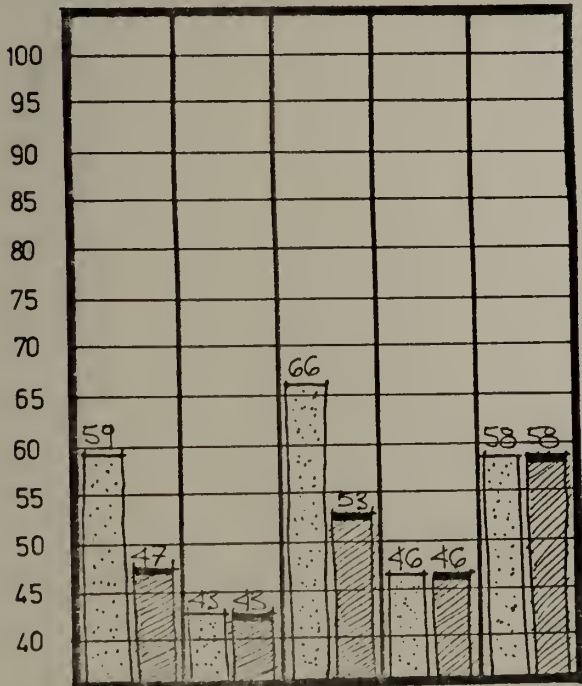PERCENTILES SCORES —— 40-100
STUDENT NUMBER —— No.
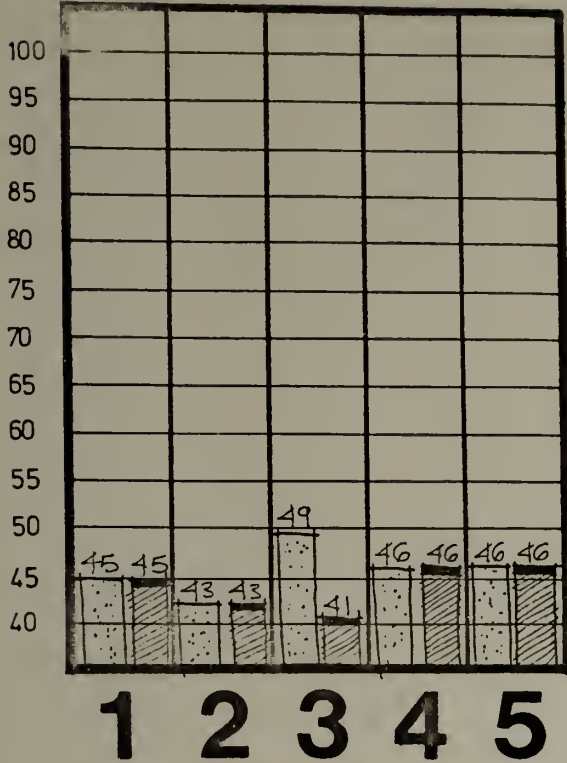
No. 0801

No. 0802
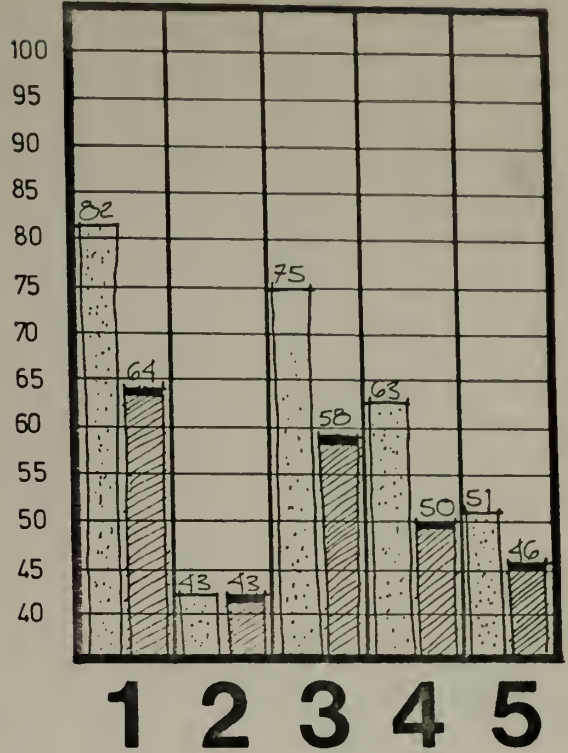
No. 0803
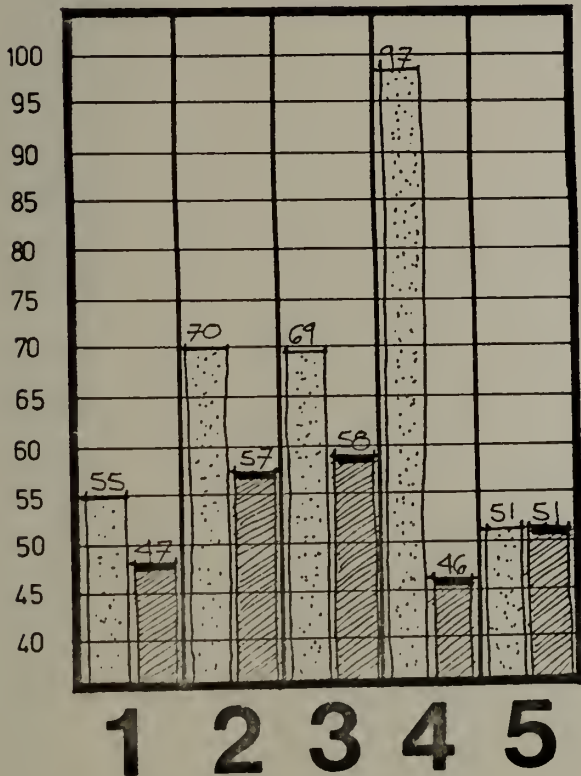
LEGEND

SUB-SCALES

1 ACTING OUT

2 WITHDRAWAL

3 DISTRACTABILITY

4 DISTURBED PEER RELATIONS

5 IMMATURITY

PRE-TEST SCORES

POST-TEST SCORES

PERCENTILES SCORES — 40-100

STUDENT NUMBER — **No.**

No. 0901
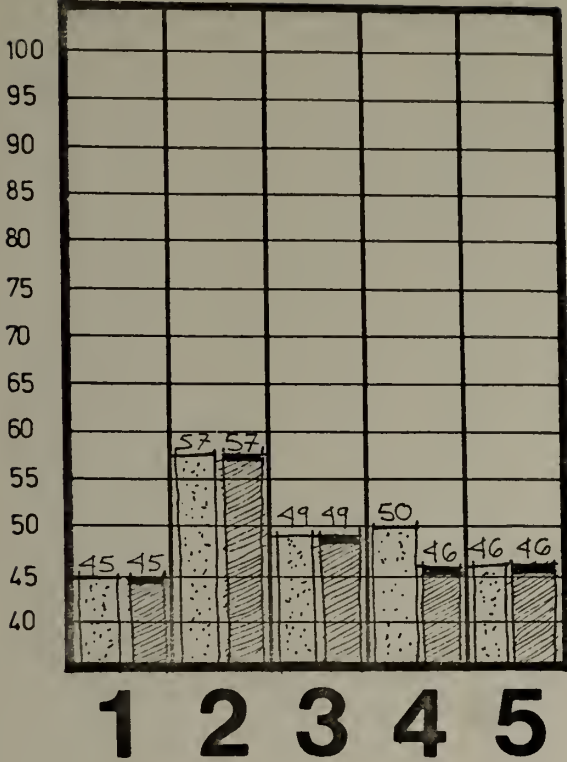
No. 0902
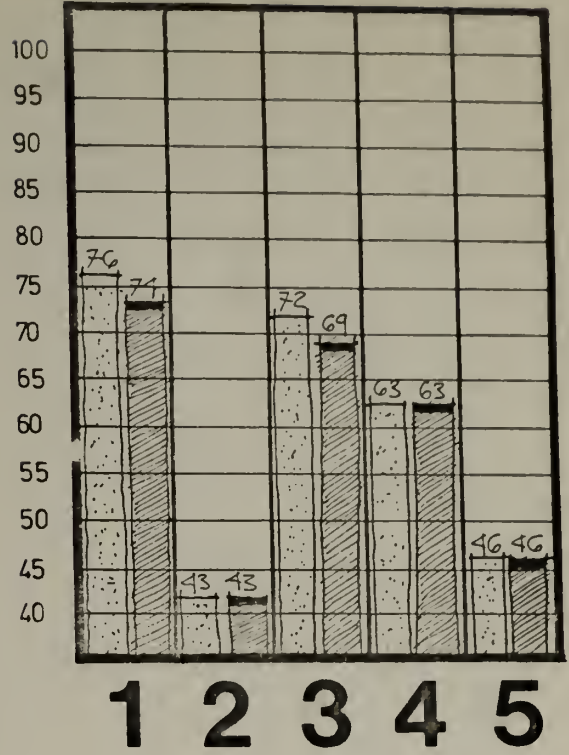
No. 0903
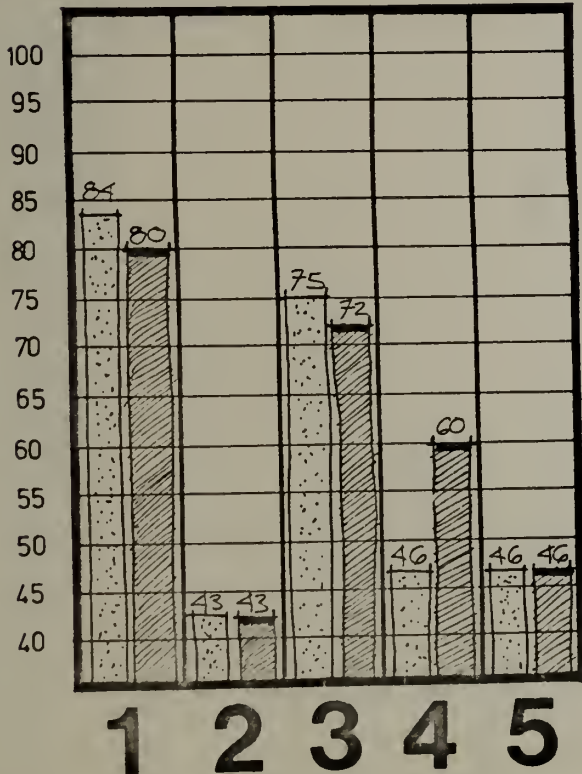
LEGEND

SUB-SCALES

1 ACTING OUT

2 WITHDRAWAL

3 DISTRACTABILITY

4 DISTURBED PEER RELATIONS

5 IMMATURITY

PRE-TEST SCORES ——— 61
POST-TEST SCORES ——— 45
PERCENTILES SCORES — 40-100
STUDENT NUMBER ——— No.

No. 1101
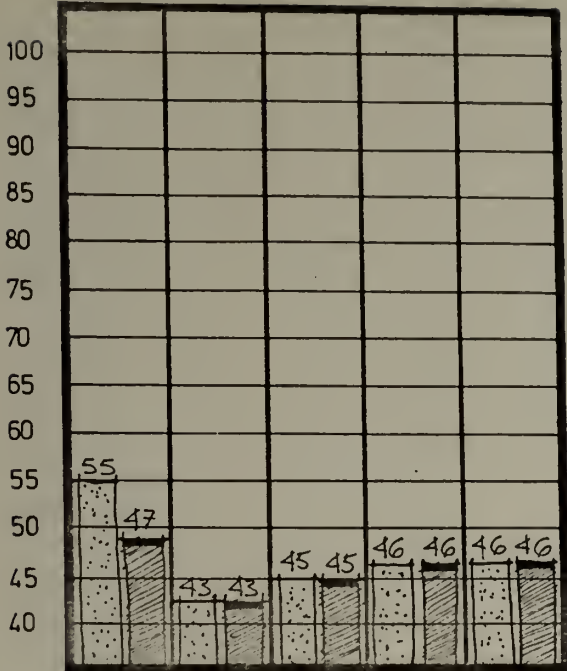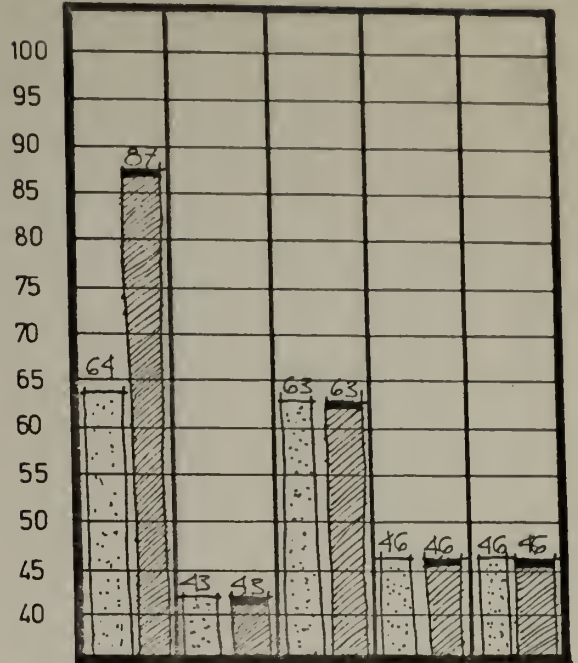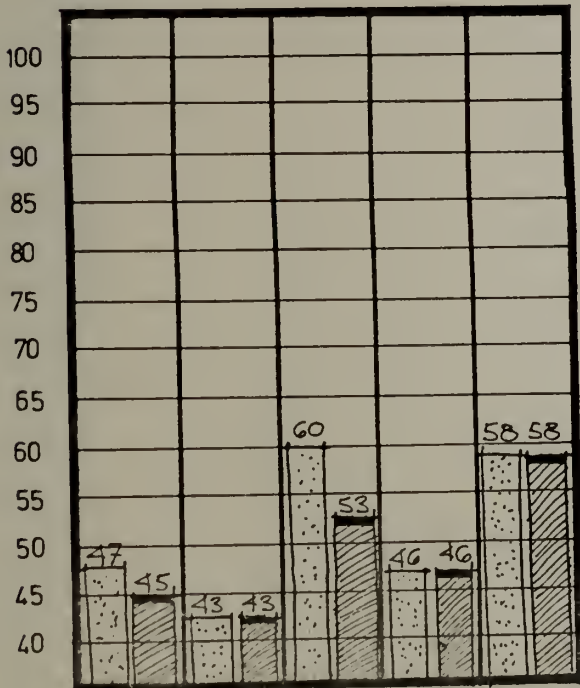
No. 1102

No. 1103

LEGEND
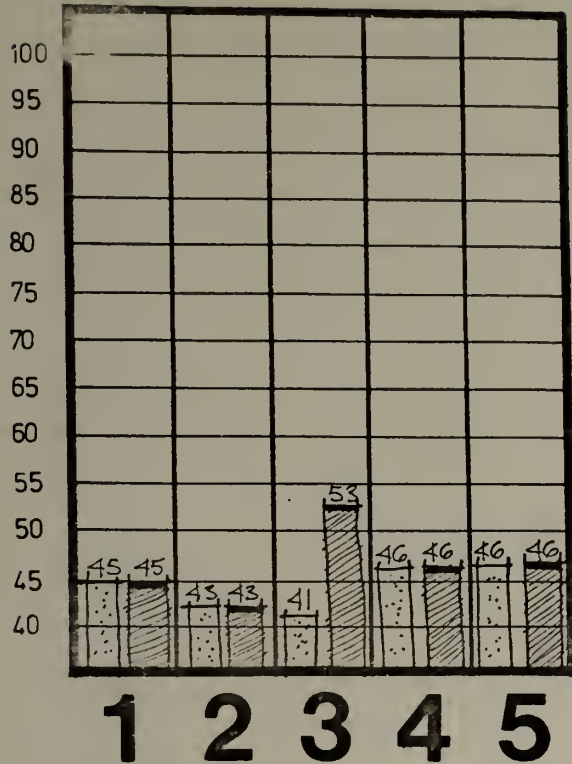
SUB-SCALES

1 ACTING OUT

2 WITHDRAWAL

3 DISTRACTABILITY

4 DISTURBED PEER RELATIONS

5 IMMATURITY

PRE-TEST SCORES ——

POST-TEST SCORES ——

PERCENTILES SCORES —— 40-100

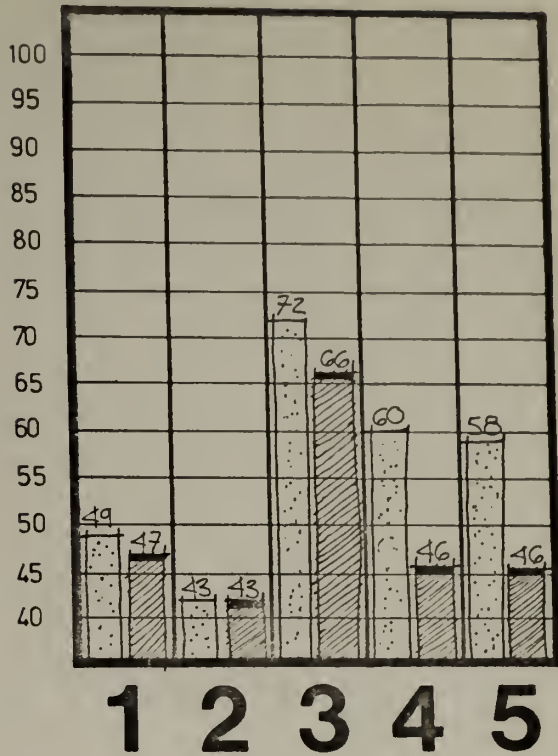STUDENT NUMBER —— **No.**

83
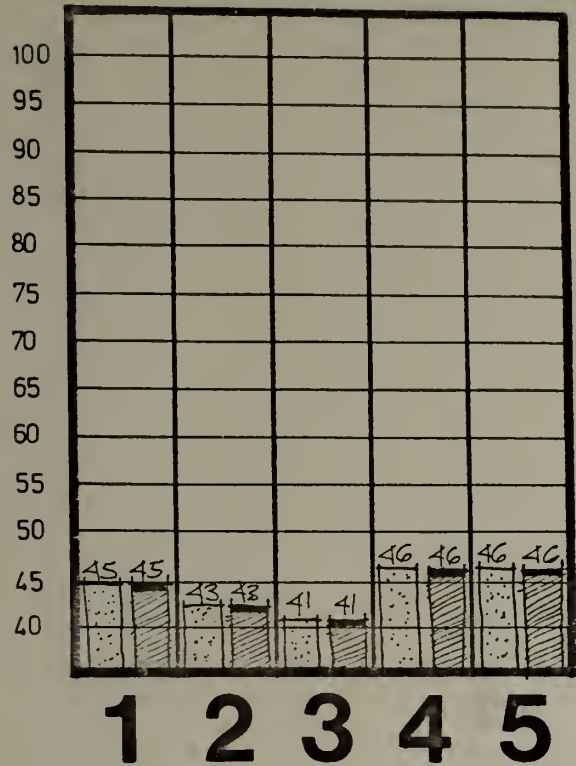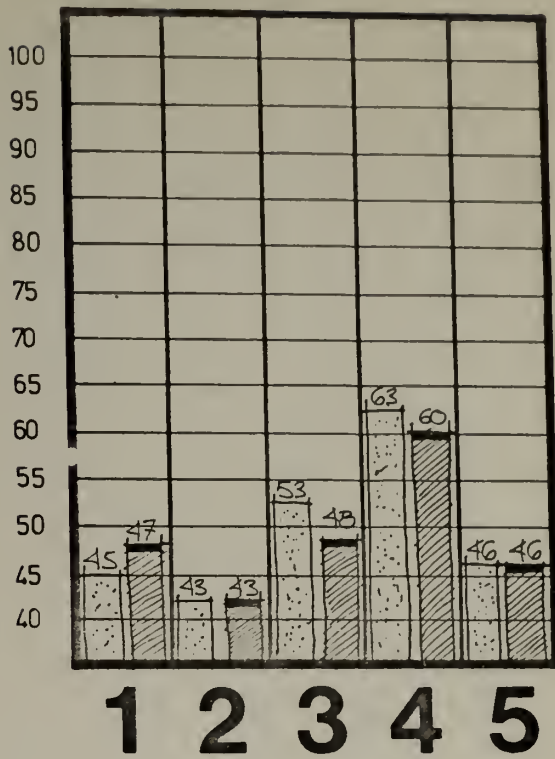
No. 1201

No. 1202

No. 1203
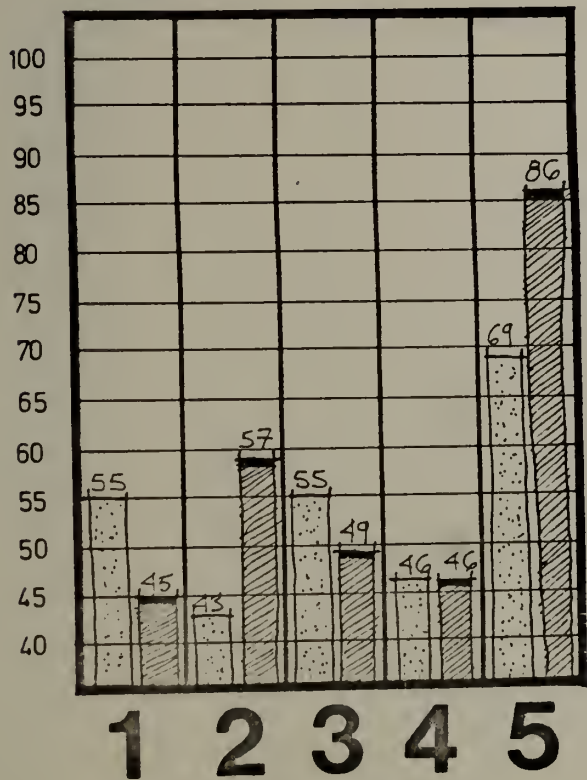
LEGEND

SUB-SCALES

1 ACTING OUT

2 WITHDRAWAL

3 DISTRACTABILITY

4 DISTURBED PEER RELATIONS

5 IMMATURITY

PRE-TEST SCORES — 61

POST-TEST SCORES — 45

PERCENTILES SCORES — 40-100

STUDENT NUMBER — No.

No. 1501
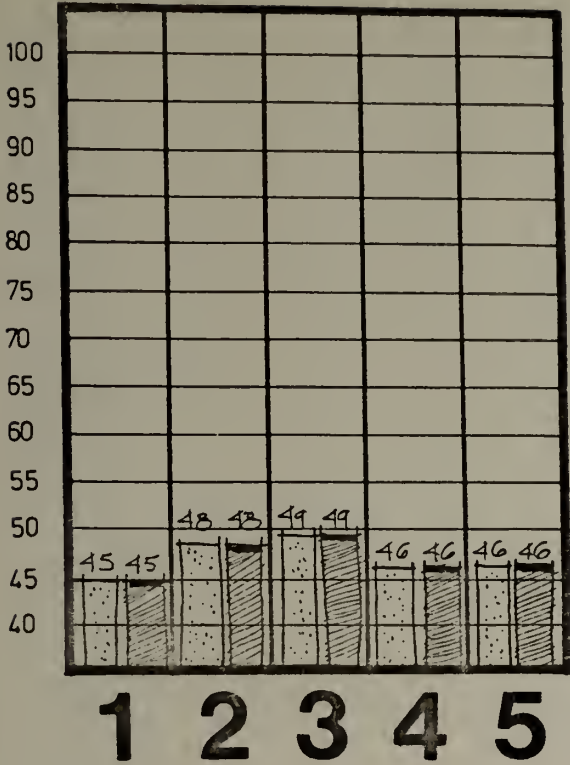
No. 1502
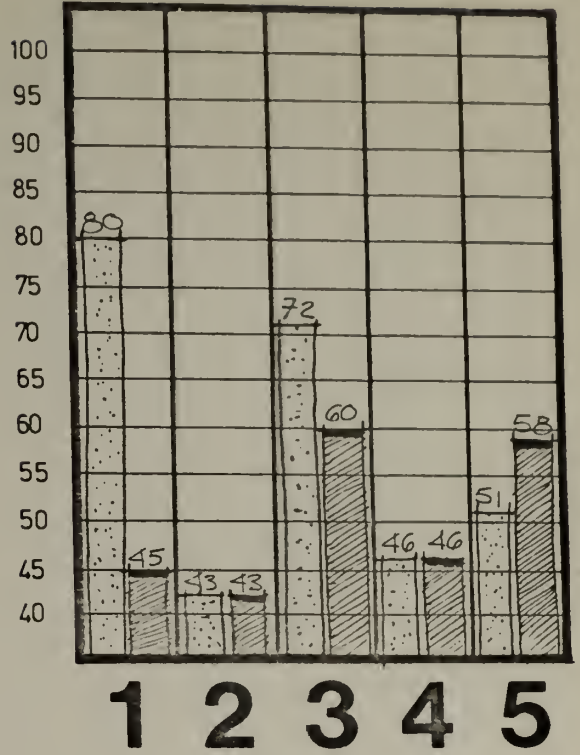
No. 1503

LEGEND

SUB-SCALES

1 ACTING OUT

2 WITHDRAWAL

3 DISTRACTABILITY

4 DISTURBED PEER RELATIONS

5 IMMATURITY

PRE-TEST SCORES ——
POST-TEST SCORES ——
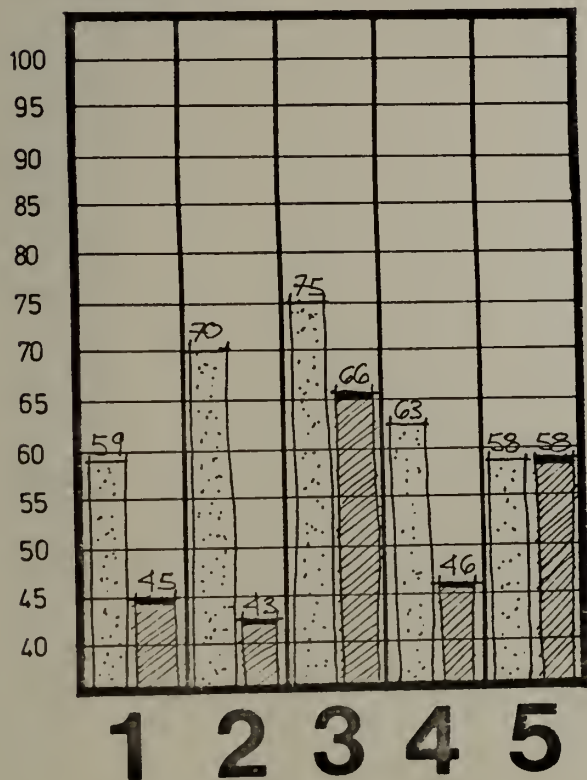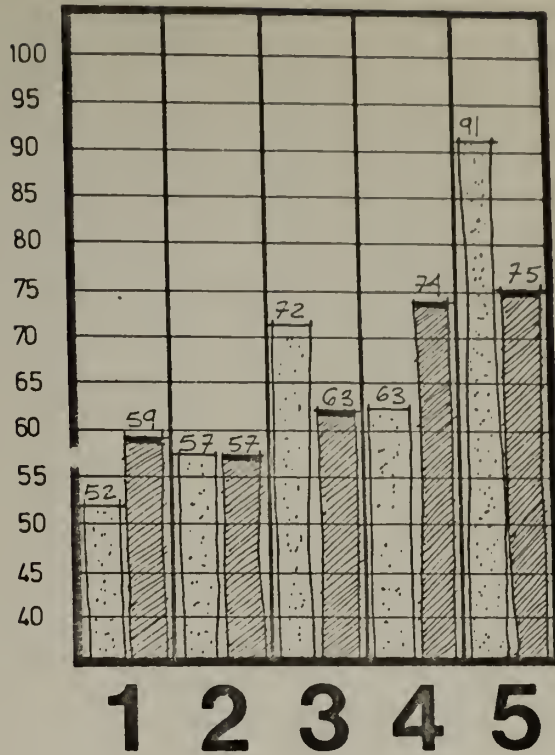PERCENTILES SCORES —— 40-100
STUDENT NUMBER —— **No.**

No. 1601

100 95 90 85 80 75 70 65 60 55 50 45 40

45 45　43 43　41 41　46 46　46 46

1 2 3 4 5

No. 1602

100 95 90 85 80 75 70 65 60 55 50 45 40

72 78　43 50　75 72　97 97　79 99

1 2 3 4 5

No. 1603

100 95 90 85 80 75 70 65 60 55 50 45 40

45 45　43 43　63 55　46 46　58 58

1 2 3 4 5

LEGEND

SUB-SCALES

1 ACTING OUT

2 WITHDRAWAL

3 DISTRACTABILITY

4 DISTURBED PEER RELATIONS

5 IMMATURITY

PRE-TEST SCORES ——— 61

POST-TEST SCORES ——— 45

PERCENTILES SCORES ——— 40-100

STUDENT NUMBER ——— **No.**

No. 1701

No. 1702

No. 1703

LEGEND

SUB-SCALES

1 ACTING OUT

2 WITHDRAWAL

3 DISTRACTABILITY

4 DISTURBED PEER RELATIONS

5 IMMATURITY

PRE-TEST SCORES — 61

POST-TEST SCORES — 45

PERCENTILES SCORES — 40-100

STUDENT NUMBER — **No.**

No. 1801
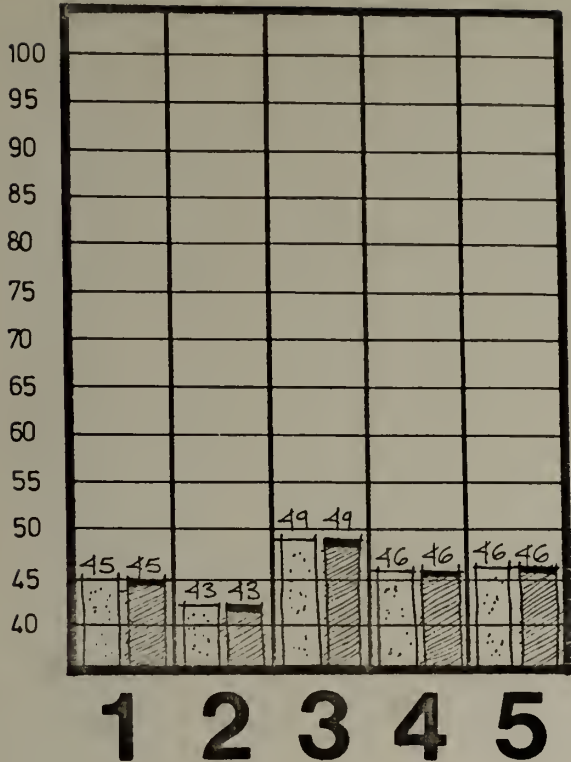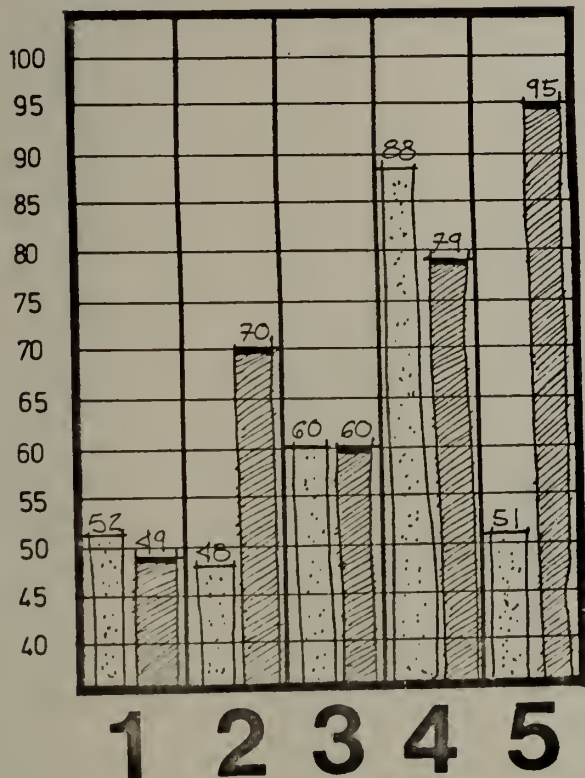
No. 1802

No. 1803

LEGEND

SUB-SCALES

1 ACTING OUT

2 WITHDRAWAL

3 DISTRACTABILITY

4 DISTURBED PEER RELATIONS

5 IMMATURITY

PRE-TEST SCORES ———— 61

POST-TEST SCORES ———— 45

PERCENTILES SCORES —— 40-100

STUDENT NUMBER ———— **No.**

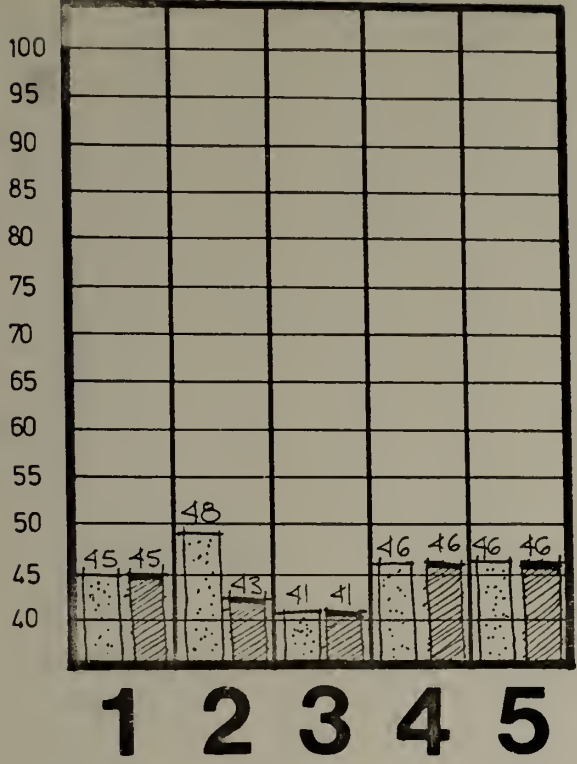**No.** 2001

No. 2002
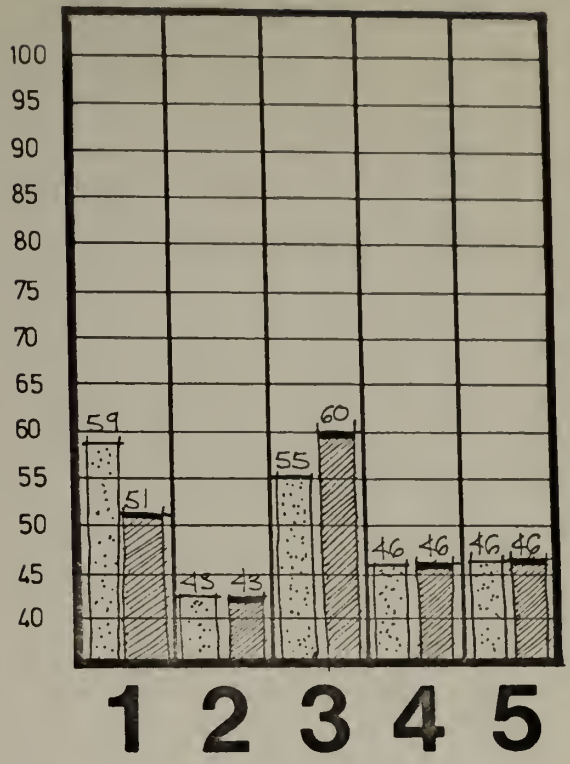
No. 2003

LEGEND

SUB-SCALES

1 ACTING OUT

2 WITHDRAWAL

3 DISTRACTABILITY

4 DISTURBED PEER RELATIONS

5 IMMATURITY

PRE-TEST SCORES ——— 61

POST-TEST SCORES ——— 45

PERCENTILES SCORES ——— 40-100

STUDENT NUMBER ——— **No.**

No. 2101

No. 2102

No. 2103

LEGEND

SUB-SCALES

1 ACTING OUT

2 WITHDRAWAL

3 DISTRACTABILITY

4 DISTURBED PEER RELATIONS

5 IMMATURITY

PRE-TEST SCORES — 61
POST-TEST SCORES — 45
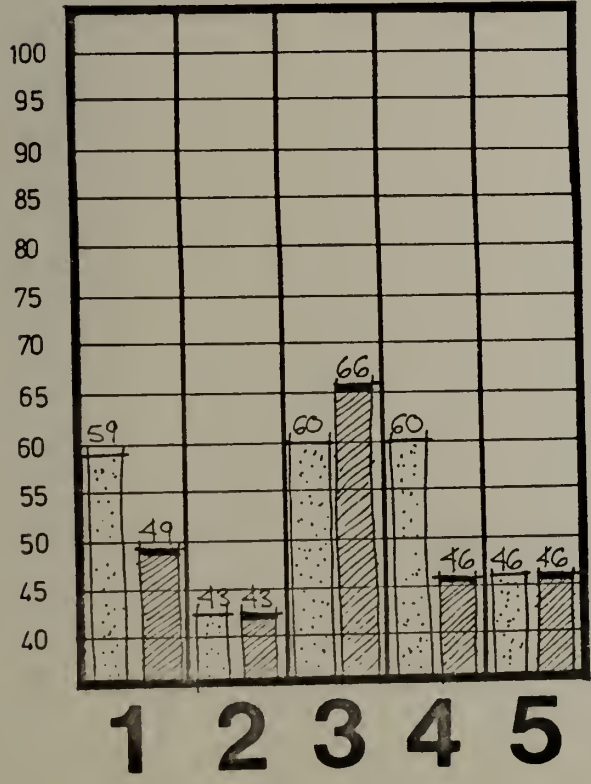PERCENTILES SCORES — 40-100
STUDENT NUMBER — **No.**

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books

Adler, Alfred. Individual Psychology. Totowa, New Jersey:
    Littlefield, Adams & Co., 1925.

_____. The Education of Children. Chicago: George Allen
    and Unwin, Ltd., 1930.

Agel, J., et al. The Radical Therapist. New York:
    Ballantine Books, Inc., 1971.

Amos, William, and Oren, Reginald. Managing Student Behavior.
    St. Louis, Mo.: Warren H. Green, Inc., 1967.

Asher, J. In-service Education: Psychological Perspectives.
    Berkeley, Calif.: Far West Laboratory for Educational
    Research and Development, 1967.

Borton, Terry. Reach, Touch and Teach: Student Concerns and
    Process Education. New York: McGraw Hill, 1970.

Combs, Arthur; Avila, D.; and Purkey, W. Helping Relation-
    ships. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1971.

Dewey, John. Democracy and Education. New York: The
    Macmillan Co., 1963.

Diebert, Alvin, and Harmon, Alice. New Tools for Changing
    Behavior. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press, 1970.

Dreikurs, Rudolf. Psychology in the Classroom. New York:
    Harper and Row, 1957.

Dreikurs, Rudolf, and Soltz, Vicki. Children: The Challenge.
    New York: Hawthorne Books, Inc., 1964.

Dreikurs, Rudolf, and Cassel, Pearl. Discipline without
    Tears. New York: Hawthorne Books, Inc., 1972.

Dreikurs, Rudolf; Grunwald, B.; and Pepper, F. Maintaining
    Sanity in the Classroom. New York: Harper and Row,
    1971.

Harris, B., and Bessent, W. Inservice Education: A Guide to
    Better Practice. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-
    Hall, 1969.

Hersey, Paul, and Blanchard, Kenneth. Management of Organizational Behavior. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1969.

Homme, Lloyd. How to Use Contingency Contracting in the Classroom. Champaign, Ill.: Research Press, 1970.

Keyoth, Jean S. The Teacher and School Discipline. Metuchen, N.J.: The Scarecrow Press, Inc., 1970.

Larson, Knute. School Discipline in an Age of Rebellion. New York: Parker Publishing Co., Inc., 1972.

Lindberg, Lucile. The Democratic Classroom. New York: Columbia University Press, 1954.

McGregor, D. The Human Side of Enterprise. New York: McGraw Hill, 1960.

Maslow, Abraham. Toward a Psychology of Being. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold Co., 1968.

Moffitt, John C. In-Service Education for Teachers. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1963.

Piaget, Jean. The Moral Judgment of the Child. New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, 1932.

Reichart, Sandford. Change and the Teacher: The Philosophy of a Social Phenomenon. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1969.

Silberman, Charles E. Crisis in the Classroom. New York: Vantage Books, 1971.

Strang, Ruth, and Morris, Glyn. Guidance in the Classroom. London: Macmillan Co., 1964.

Stretch, Lorena. Guiding Child Development in the Elementary School. Philadelphia: Educational Publishing Inc., 1959.

Toby, Jackson. Contemporary Society. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1964.

Toffler, Alvin. Future Shock. New York: Random House, 1970.

Van Hoose, William H. Counseling in the Elementary Schools.

Walker, Hill M. Walker Problem Behavior Identification
    Checklist Manual. Los Angeles, Cal.: Western Psycho-
    logical Services, 1970.

Webster, Staten W. Discipline in the Classroom. San
    Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1968.

Westby-Gibson. In-service Education: Perspectives for Edu-
    cators. Berkeley, California: Far West Laboratory for
    Educational Research and Development, 1967.

Wrenn, C. Gilbert. The Counselor in a Changing World.
    Washington, D.C.: American Personnel and Guidance
    Assn., 1962.

Articles

Arciniega, Guillermo Miguel. "Teacher In-Service Education
    Model." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Univer-
    sity of Arizona, 1972.

Barr, A. S., and Rudisell, M. "Inexperienced Teachers Who
    Fail--And Why." The Nations Schools 5 (February 1930).

Beilin, E. "A Process for Early Identification of Emotionally
    Disturbed Children." Bulletin of the California State
    Department of Education 27 (1958):1-111.

Bennett, Elizabeth. "An Ounce of Prevention." Discipline
    in the Classroom. Washington, D.C.: NEA Publications,
    1969.

Brandon, B. "Inservice Education for Elementary Teachers."
    Educational Leadership 17 (1960).

Buellesfield, Henry. "Causes of Failure Among Teachers."
    Educational Administration and Supervision, 1 (Sept.
    1915).

Christensen, O. C. "Education: A Model for Counseling in
    the Elementary School." Elementary School Guidance and
    Counseling 4 (1969).

Cunningham, Richard. "Resurrecting Meaningful Inservice
    Training." Journal of Reading (April 1972).

Denemark, G., and MacDonald, Jr. "Pre-service and In-service Education of Teachers." Review of Educational Research 37 (1964):233-247.

Dewey, John. "How Much Freedom in New Schools?" The New Republic, July 9, 1930.

Dodge, Emelie Ruth. "Classroom Control in the High School." Discipline in the Classroom. Washington, D.C.: NEA Publications, 1969.

Gallup, George. "The Third Annual Survey of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools, 1971." Phi Delta Kappan 53 (Sept. 1971).

Hunter, E. "Changes in Teachers' Attitudes Towards Children's Behaviors Over the Last Thirty Years." Mental Hygiene 41 (1957):3-11.

"In Service Programs: Many Enroll But Few Get Credit." The Nations Schools (July 1968).

Kradel, Paul F. "Adlerian Role Playing for the Reorientation and Reeducation of High School Students with Behavior Problems." Dissertation Abstracts International 33 (May 1973).

Littler, Sherman. "Cause of Failure among Elementary Teachers." School and Home Education 33 (1914).

Maes, W. R. "The Identification of Emotionally Disturbed Children." Exceptional Children 32 (1966):604-613.

Marchant, William. "Counseling and/or Consultation: A Test of the Education Model in the Elementary School." Elementary School Guidance and Counseling 7.

Meade, E. S. "No Health in Us." In Improving In-service Education. Edited by L. Rubin. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1971.

Morse, William C. "The Crisis Teacher." Today's Education (Sept. 1972).

Oppenheimer, Robert. "Prospects in the Arts and Sciences." Perspectives U.S.A. 11 (1955).

Palmo, Artis, and Kuzmiar, Joseph. "Modification of Behavior Through Group Counseling and Consultation." Elementary School Guidance and Counseling 6 (May 1972).

Platt, John. "Efficacy of the Adlerian Model in Elementary School Counseling." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Arizona, 1970.

Roberts, Jack D. "A Hard Look at Quality in In-service Education." National Elementary Principal 44 (Sept. 1964).

Ruediger, W. C., and Strayer, G. "The Qualities of Merit in Teachers." Journal of Educational Psychology 1 (1910).

Stormer, G., and Kirby, Edward. "Adlerian Group Counseling in the Elementary School: Report of a Program." Journal of Individual Psychology 25 (Nov. 1969).

Strom, R. D. "Education's Role: Dignity of the Individual." The Clearinghouse 46 (1971).

Swift, David. "Changing Patterns of Pupil Control." Educational Forum 36 (1970).

Thoma, Elizabeth. "Group Psychotherapy with Underachieving Girls in a Public High School." Journal of Individual Psychology 20 (May 1964).

Wagner, Victoria. "Self-Discipline is the Best Discipline." Discipline in the Classroom. Washington, D.C.: NEA Publications, 1969.

Walker, Paul L. "The Effect of Two Counseling Strategies with Black Disadvantaged Clients." Dissertation Abstracts International 33 (Feb. 1973).

Washington, Bennetta. "A Social Imperative: Respect for the Individual." To Nurture Humaneness: Commitment for the 70's - ASCD Yearbook, 1970. Washington, D.C.: NEA Publications, 1970.