

SMALL GROUP COUNSELING COMPARED WITH FRESHMAN
ORIENTATION CLASSES IN REDUCING ATTRITION
OF FRESHMAN JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENTS

APPROVED:

Graduate Committee:

Harold D. Holloway

Major Professor

Darryl L. Landreth

Minor Professor

Ray L. Bellamy

Committee Member

Jack R. Hays

Committee Member

Lwane Kingery

Dean of the School of Education

Robert B. Toulouse

Dean of the Graduate School

SMALL GROUP COUNSELING COMPARED WITH FRESHMAN
ORIENTATION CLASSES IN REDUCING ATTRITION
OF FRESHMAN JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENTS

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Graduate Council of the
North Texas State University in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

by

Charles Kenneth Locke, B.A., M. Ed.

Denton, Texas

January, 1970

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES.	iv
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Background and Significance	
Statement of the Problem	
Hypotheses	
II. A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.	17
Attrition	
Self	
Group Counseling	
The Allport-Vernon-Lindzey	
Study of Values	
Bills' "Index of Adjustment	
and Values"	
III. METHODS AND PROCEDURES	47
Participants and Experimental Design	
Instruments	
Procedure	
IV. ANALYSIS OF DATA	58
General Description	
Attrition	
Grade Point Averages	
Value Changes	
Changes in Self-Concept	
V. SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND	68
RECOMMENDATIONS	
Summary of Method and Procedure	
Conclusions	
Recommendations	
VI. APPENDIX.	79
VII. BIBLIOGRAPHY	99

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
I. Experimental Schema, Number of Subjects and Sex Distribution	49
II. Attrition Rates of the Experimental and Control Groups	59
III. Grade Point Averages of the E and C Groups .	60
IV. An Analysis of Pre-to-Post-Test Scores of the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey <u>Study of Values</u> .	62
V. Comparison of Mean Change and Variances Between E and C Groups on the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey <u>Study of Values</u>	92
VI. Comparison of Mean Change and Variances Between E ₂ and C ₂ on the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey <u>Study of Values</u>	93
VII. Comparison of Mean Change and Variances Between E ₃ and C ₃ on the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey <u>Study of Values</u>	94
VIII. Pre-to-Post Comparison of Means and Variances of the E and C Groups on Bills' "Index of Adjustment and Values"	65
IX. Comparison of Means and Variances of Pre-Post Changes on the Variables of Bills' "Index of Adjustment and Values" for E ₁ and C ₁	95
X. Comparison of Means and Variances of Pre-Post Changes on the Variables of Bills' "Index of Adjustment and Values" for E ₂ and C ₂	96
XI. Pre-to-Post Comparison Means and Variances of E ₃ and C ₃ on Bills' "Index of Adjustment and Values"	66
XII. Raw Means and Gains for Pre- and Post-Test of Bills' "Index of Adjustment and Values" and National Means	97

XIII. Raw Means and Gains for Pre- and Post-Test of
the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values
and National Means 98

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background and Significance

The large number of students who have the ability to succeed in college, but who fail or drop out, is of concern not only to the colleges, but to the nation as a whole. Manpower shortages, particularly in the technical and professional field could be somewhat relieved if better techniques for reducing college attrition were developed. With an increasing percentage of high school graduates attempting college and with rising entrance standards into many occupations, the problem is more likely to worsen than to improve.

Studies in this area have repeatedly shown the rate of attrition to be high and the effects to be dysfunctional. Gekoski and Schwartz (8) have estimated that nearly half of all college students leave before graduating and that most of these leave during their freshman year. Summerskill (20), after reviewing thirty-five different studies on the college dropout, dating from 1913 to 1957, came to the following conclusion:

Colleges lose, on the average approximately half their students in the four years after matriculation. Some 40% of the college students graduate on schedule and, in addition, approximately 20% graduate at some college someday. (18, p.629).

Summerskill (20) lists three reasons why colleges are interested in attrition. The first of these is the fact that American colleges are often seen as training centers rather than as intellectual centers. When students fail to make the grade, the college is criticized as having failed to do its job. Secondly, a high rate of attrition reflects badly on the efficiency of the institution. The third reason is financial; colleges depend on student fees and state appropriations for their budgetary needs. Attrition reduces these amounts.

While these problems are common to all colleges and universities, they are accentuated at the junior college level. In the summary of Baxter's study, he states: "The open-door junior college has little choice as to which persons may become its students and no enforceable power to retain students who do enroll; consequently, it must rely upon system adaptation to maintain its contingent of students" (2,p.82). Again attention is focused on attrition in junior colleges in Sidwell's (19) study. He found that 30 per cent of the freshman class left the particular junior college under study during, or at the close of, their freshman year. The public junior colleges of Texas draw their students and financial support from the area in which they are located. This means that the supporting public is aware of existing problems and is able to bring pressure on the institution for improvement. This

might be achieved by simply voicing opinions or by the more serious means of voting down new tax programs. Consequently, the problem of attrition is felt keenly on these campuses.

The question is not should attrition be reduced, but what method shall be used. Most colleges answer this question with some type of orientation program which may be two or three days in the summer or a full semester course. Blocker, Plummer, and Richardson say in their book on The Two-Year College:

Orientation procedures of varying degrees of effectiveness are in practice in most two-year colleges. Although some programs are based on little more than traditional practice and a vague idea that something termed orientation ought to occur, many programs represent well-thought-out attempts to analyze and meet the needs which arise among students as a result of the transition from secondary school to college . . . (4,p.257).

Beamer (3), in an address given at the American Personnel and Guidance association in 1968, stated that while objectives vary, freshman orientation programs seek to present the college's philosophy, rules, and regulations. Social and academic information are both given. Beamer pointed out that most literature recommends working in small groups.

No matter what is taught, most students feel like those reported in Iffert's study, namely:

Students were almost unanimous, regardless of their ability level or the type of institution in which they were enrolled, in expressing a low opinion of the performance of the counseling, guidance, and orientation functions in higher education. (12,p.42).

The fact that freshman orientation classes for three days or for one semester are unpopular, however, does not mean that all efforts should be abandoned. Iffert (12) calls for the attention of student personnel workers by saying:

It is apparent that institutions of higher education should take appropriate steps to improve the effectiveness of their guidance and counseling services if dropouts are to be reduced. (12,p.41).

Group counseling as an approach to reducing attrition has received attention from Jones (13), Sheldon and Landsman (18), and Anderson (1). The favorable results of these and similar studies suggest that the approach might profitably be explored for possible adoption by a community junior college.

Jones (13) found that three times as many students who had participated in required counseling, individually or in small discussion groups were graduated as students who did not participate in regular counseling. Sheldon and Landsman (18) used nondirective group therapy with students in academic difficulty and reported significant changes in grade point averages at the end of the semester. A follow-up study made a year later revealed that 47 per cent of the control group had left school while only 25 per cent of the experimental group had left. Anderson (1) used group counseling with normal students in an attempt to determine if this treatment might help them with personal

problems such as lack of friends, academic adjustment, courtship, and marriage. He was also interested in the effect group counseling would have on academic achievement and dropout rates. His results were conflicting. The clients responded favorably to counseling and stated that it had been helpful, but the statistical analysis of the data failed to show a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of grade point average or attrition. The decision to use group counseling then in this situation is based on the fact that it has effectively been used by the above-mentioned experimenters in similar situations and has shown promise as a method of bringing about the combination of outcomes desired.

Krumboltz (14) answers the question of why counsel in groups in his discussion titled "A Behavioral Approach to Group Counseling and Therapy." He gives two primary justifications for group instead of individual counseling. These are greater efficiency and greater effectiveness. For the efficiency argument, he states that if a counselor can help three or more students in the same amount of time that he would otherwise use to help one, then his time is being used more wisely because more students are being benefited. He goes on to state that a stronger justification for group counseling is that in some cases, clients can learn better from each other in a group than they can in a one-to-one situation. Brammer and Shostrom

(5) support this concept by stating that group guidance is beneficial in that it provides support, stimulation, and reality opportunities for members of the group.

Group counseling is defined by Muro and Freeman (16) as the effort through interpersonal interaction to help the individual gain perspectives on the many experiences he has in coping with a world of change. These new perspectives assist him in finding a personal meaning and set of values which will guide his decision-making and problem-solving outside the group situation.

The necessity to aid the individual more now than in times past is a direct result of rapidly changing times.

To earlier generations, the meaning, or at least the appearance of meaning for one's life was given by instinctive patterns and tradition. . . . we now are endangered by a culture in which direction and meaning for life is given to us by others without the stability of traditional values. The challenge for each person now is to increase his autonomy, to construct meanings and values with which he may deliberately choose his behavior. (16, pp. 6, 7).

This may mean the development of cognitive dissonance rather than its dissolution, but some such tension is necessary for mental health and the resolving of conflicts between values. Group counseling is one of the ways in which conditions can be provided so that this search for meaning and values may go on.

Gazda and Larsen (8), in an appraisal of group and multiple counseling research, state that the majority of

such counseling has been done in educational settings with approximately one third of the total being done at the college level. Most of these were done with underachievers or some other special group. Reports of success vary from no difference to significant differences.

One major point that needs to be considered in relation to group counseling is that there is no standard measure of its effectiveness. Gazda and Larsen state:

The "Shotgun" method of evaluating the research in group counseling appears to be the rule rather than the exception. In view of the infancy of this area of research, this is to be expected as the experimenter attempts to glean as much from his hard-to-obtain data as is possible (8,p.61).

Research in group counseling and self-concept, their relationship to each other and their usefulness in freshman orientation programs should be explored. Lifton (15) points out that although there have been numerous surveys of existing practices, ". . . the entire area of orientation is one in which there is a marked lack of definitive research." (15,p.304). He stated that the basic questions concerning the comparative effectiveness of various orientation techniques need to be explored and that these questions include student growth in security and self-knowledge as reflected by his adjustment and success in college. Interest in studying self-knowledge and self-concept is derived basically from the idea that as perceptions of self and reality change, behavior also changes.

The significance of research done in counseling on the Junior College level can hardly be over-emphasized since a void exists in this area. The Winter, 1968 edition of the Journal of Research and Development in Education lists 104 studies and experiments in the chapter entitled "Abstracts of Group and Multiple Counseling Research" (8). Only one of these 104 studies was focused on the Junior College level. When less than one per cent of the research reported in multiple counseling has been conducted on a given level, obviously that level has been neglected.

The void of material on Junior College counseling causes one to generalize from research done on other educational levels. While there is some benefit to be gained from studying such research, information gleaned from studies made in four-year institutions and in secondary schools can not be unreservedly applied to junior colleges.

Donald P. Hoyt (11), examined diversity in student characteristics at 79 junior colleges and attempted to predict each of 22 student characteristics on the basis of factor scores developed by Richards, Rand, and Rand from published information. In his discussion chapter, Hoyt refers to this problem of generalizing. He states, "It is not unusual for junior college personnel to object when generalizations are made from the four-year to the two-year setting." He even goes a step further and warns that

. . . extreme caution should be employed in generalizing from one junior college to the next. Indeed if educational research is expected to play an important role in junior college planning and policymaking, it appears necessary that provision be made to conduct such research in the local setting. (11,p.1002).

Hoyt is supported in his approach by Richards, Rand, and Rand (17) in their study of the regional differences in junior colleges. The researchers classified and analyzed 581 junior colleges by geographical region, and significant differences were found among regions on six selected factors: Cultural Affluence (or Private Control), Technological Specialization, Size, Age (or Conventionalism), Transfer Emphasis, and Business Orientation (or High Cost). In the discussion of this research, they state:

The implications of this study for research appear obvious. If a researcher wishes to investigate general trends in junior college education, he should be careful to sample representatively from the various regions of the country. . . .

Similar implications for student counseling can be drawn from these results. Such counseling should, of course, be based on characteristics of the particular junior college under consideration." (17,p.991-992).

One is warned against generalizing from studies made on different levels, and to take caution in generalizing even from one junior college to another. Yet, the fact remains that there is only a comparatively small amount of research in counseling to work from when studies from junior and senior institutions are considered.

Gladstein (10), in a study of "Doctoral Research in

College Student Personnel Work," classified all the dissertations in this area which were written between 1912 and 1964. There were 589 different dissertations studied which he divided into twenty-one categories. Two of these categories, counseling and orientation, accounted for 17.7 per cent of the research topics. Counseling included marriage, academic, personal, vocational, testing, and advising. Orientation included programs to orient the entering students to facilities and policies of the institution as well as finding out about the students. It appears that there were not even enough studies on group counseling or attrition for them to be categorized separately.

There is also the practical consideration of attempting to meet as great a variety of student needs as possible. The junior college student body encompasses a greater variety of student abilities and needs (due to the open-door policy) than is normal at the senior college level. This in turn leads to a greater range of possible solutions to problems. Some students need to realize they are not senior college material; others that they are. Some need help in realistically lowering their sights or in raising them. Others living at home, but independent, need help in gaining their independence or in maintaining this independence in a dependent situation. Group counseling offers a way in which professional assistance can be provided for

each student to work out his individual solutions.

Not only does the scarcity of studies done in attrition and multiple counseling in junior colleges point to the need for more research, but those who have studied junior college student personnel programs have also recommended these areas for special studies. Collins (6) wrote a discussion of the report presented to the Carnegie Corporation in November of 1965 on the appraisal and development of junior college student personnel programs. Under a section of the report titled "A Catalog of Priority Research," the following is recommended:

Development of techniques to measure the characteristics of students who do not attend any college and the characteristics of dropout students from the junior college. (6,p.44).

Studies on the impact of contrived curricular, co-curricular, and counseling experiences on the value structure of junior college students (6,p.45).

With these studies in mind and a clear need for information shown, this study was developed. It was seen as a realistic approach to a real problem that is faced by many junior colleges.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to determine the effectiveness of small group counseling in reducing the attrition rate and in altering the adjustment and values of freshmen in a community junior college.

Specifically, the problem involved the following objectives:

A. To determine whether or not small group counseling is more effective than freshman orientation classes in reducing the rate of attrition and in raising the grade point average of college freshmen.

B. To determine the extent to which small group counseling affects the values and adjustment of the junior college freshman in basic areas such as religion, aesthetics, social, politics, theoretical, economics, and self-concept.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were relevant to Purpose A:

1. The general effects of small group counseling will be superior to freshman orientation classes, resulting in a significant reduction in the number of dropouts.

2. The students who undergo the small group counseling sessions will have significantly higher grade point averages than those who attended freshman orientation classes.

The following hypotheses were relevant to Purpose B:

3. Small group counseling will produce significantly more positive change in selected values of students than will freshman orientation class experiences. The values as measured by the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values are: theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political, and religious.

4. The students receiving small group counseling will show a significantly greater positive change in self-concept as measured by the Bills' "Index of adjustment and Values" than those students in freshman orientation classes.

Definition of Terms

The following list defines the key terms used throughout this report. As far as possible words were used with commonly accepted definitions given in standard reference sources.

A dropout is a freshman who withdraws during the first semester or one who does not re-register for the succeeding semester.

Attrition is defined as the number of students who did not re-enroll for the second semester and all those who withdrew from all courses during the fall semester expressed as a per cent of the number of students enrolled at the beginning of the semester. (Synonymous term used in this study: dropout rate.)

Self-concept is a combination of all the beliefs the individual holds concerning the kind of person he is.

Small group is defined as a group ranging from 10 to 15 persons in membership. The group may be smaller than 10 but will not exceed 15.

College freshman is a student enrolled for the first time on a college campus and who is enrolled for 12 or more semester hours.

Community Junior College is defined as an accredited school which offers an Associate of Arts degree, and which is supported by state and community tax funds.

Group counseling is used here in the sense of using groups to aid the individual in his educational, vocational, social, and personal development and adjustment. Through interaction with others in the small group situation, the individual is assisted in gaining perspectives on the many experiences he has in coping with a world of change. The test of the method is the effect of the interaction upon the individual and the group as a whole.

Gazda says about group counseling that

The small group setting represents a microcosm of social reality and as such affords the participants the opportunity of several unique therapeutic experiences. They learn that others have problems such as theirs and they are not alone or "different"; support from the group gives the individual faith in himself and others and strength to attack his problems; individuals have the opportunity to learn from each other by observing how others have been able to solve certain problems; the group offers a safe place to try out behavior and experiment with newly acquired attitudes and values; the group setting permits the very shy to gain vicariously until he is capable of participating directly; and, unlike individual counseling and therapy, the participant has the opportunity to give help as well as to receive it. (8,p.2).

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Anderson, R. L., "An Experimental Investigation of Group Counseling with Freshmen in a Woman's College," Dissertation Abstracts, XVI(1965), 1100-1101.
2. Baxter, Cecil W. J., "Relationships Between Organizational Variables and Student Withdrawal Rates in Junior Colleges," unpublished dissertation, University of Texas, Austin, Texas, August, 1967.
3. Beamer, George C., "Orientation to College: Past, Present, and Future," Detroit Convention Abstracts, Washington, The American Personnel and Guidance Association (April, 1968), 475.
4. Blocker, Clyde E., Robert H. Plummer, and Richard C. Richardson, Jr., The Two-Year College: A Social Synthesis, Englewood Cliffs, Prentice-Hall, 1965.
5. Brammer, Lawrence and Everette Shostrom, Therapeutic Psychology, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960.
6. Collins, Charles C., Junior College Student Personnel Programs: What They Are and What They Should Be, American Association of Junior Colleges, 1967.
7. Dickerson, Walter A. and Charles B. Truax, "Group Counseling with College Underachievers," Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLV(November, 1966), 243-247.
8. Gazda, George M. and Mary Juhan Larsen, "A Comprehensive Appraisal of Group and Multiple Counseling Research," Journal of Research and Development in Education, I(Winter, 1968), 57-66.
9. Gekoski, Norman and Solomon Schwartz, "Student Mortality and Related Factors," Journal of Educational Research, LIV(January, 1961), 192-194.
10. Gladstein, Gerald A., "Doctoral Research in College Student Personnel Work," The Journal of College Student Personnel, IX(January, 1968), 15-20.

11. Hoyt, Donald P., "Description and Prediction of Diversity Among Junior Colleges," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLVI, 997-1004.
12. Iffert, Robert E., Retention and Withdrawal of College Students, Bulletin No. 1, Washington, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1958.
13. Jones, Edward S., "Why Students Fail in Colleges," Association of American Colleges Bulletin, XXXIX (May, 1953), 282-287.
14. Krumboltz, John D., "A Behavioral Approach to Group Counseling and Therapy," Journal of Research and Development in Education, I (November, 1968), 4-5.
15. Lifton, Walter M., "Orientation," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, 3rd ed., edited by Chester W. Hamis, New York, The MacMillan Co., 1960.
16. Muro, James J. and Stanley L. Freeman, editors, Readings in Group Counseling, Scranton, Pennsylvania, International Textbook Co., 1968.
17. Richards, James M., Jr., Leonard P. Rand, and Lorraine M. Rand, "Regional Differences in Junior Colleges," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLV (June, 1967), 987-992.
18. Sheldon, William D. and Theodore Landsman, "An Investigation of Nondirective Group Therapy with Students in Academic Difficulty," Journal of Counseling Psychology, XIV (1950), 210-213.
19. Sidwell, Paul Phillip, "A Case Study of Selected Factors Relating to Continuance or Withdrawal of Full-Time Freshmen at Grand Rapids Junior College," Dissertation Abstracts, XXIII(1962), 1256-1257.
20. Summerskill, John, "Dropouts from College," The American College, edited by Nevitt Sanford, New York, John Wiley and Sons, 1962, 629-631.
21. Warters, Jane, Group Guidance: Principles and Practices, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1960.

CHAPTER II

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Since this experiment was concerned with group counseling and the effect it was expected to have on the students and on College attrition, a review was made of the existing literature concerning (a) the problem of college attrition and its effect on the institution and on the student; (b) the value of a subject's self-concept and how this might be influenced; and (c) the previous studies of experiments using group counseling with students.

Reviewed in the fourth and fifth sections of this chapter is literature concerning the two instruments used for pre- and post-testing, namely, the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values and the Bills' "Index of Adjustment and Values."

Attrition

Attrition in colleges and universities today is of such importance that studies have been made from various approaches and have focused on many of the various aspects of the problem. Marsh (38) reviewed the literature of the past ten years and indicated that three major approaches to the problem have been prevalent; these have been ". . . (a) philosophical and theoretical, (b) descriptive studies,

and (c) predictive attempts." (38,p.148). Literature from these approaches is reviewed in the following discussion.

While there is no question that college attrition affects national resourcefulness, the labor market, and other broad areas of society, the studies to be cited are limited to two factors which are most related to this study: (a) the effect of attrition on the institution (the public junior college) and (b) the student who becomes a dropout before his sophomore year.

The public junior college, which may be thought of as a service organization in its relationships to the students, has both manifest and latent functions. Therefore, attrition is accepted as dysfunctional, since it prevents the institution from completing these functions for the students. Yet a review of the literature does not suggest that retention goals are such that every student should complete every semester which he starts. "No one should and no one will keep lazy people, blockheads, or morally unscrupulous persons in higher educational institutions just for the sake of maintaining the contingent students." (5,p.36).

Public junior colleges are concerned with retaining all of their students except those who lack ability or who would be harmful to the institution. Often an educational re-channeling is necessary when a student's aspirations are

not in relation with his abilities. The process is discussed by Simon (50) in an article titled "The Cooling-Out Function of the Junior College." She states that ". . . society needs each individual's best efforts and needs these on many different levels." (50,p.973). Students whose ambitions exceed their abilities may not be simply dismissed from the school of engineering or the school of nursing as the case might be, but may be guided into a related technical vocation and therefore, "cooled out" before entering the senior institution.

One of the factors related to attrition may well be due to this function. The junior college needs to help the student during this transitional stage. Blocker and Anthony (7) discuss the junior college's role in meeting the needs of students who would be dropouts in a senior institution. The authors point out that prestige plays a large part in the selection of goals by college students which cannot be condemned as such because it is a part of the American dream of advancement through study. The high percentage of college dropouts reminds us, however, that desire alone is not enough. The student who fails to adequately assess his strengths and weaknesses may doom himself to failure. Many such students could, no doubt, succeed in appropriate terminal programs offered by the junior college if they could be led to see the opportunities that lie in them.

There is considerable evidence, fortunately, that students' attitudes toward occupations can be changed through information and counseling. If adequate counseling is provided, a greater percentage of youth is likely to take advantage of the junior college's terminal programs as these become better known and more generally accepted as proper training for a wide variety of jobs. The diversity of curriculums in the community junior college enables the student to move from one level of program to another in keeping with his abilities. He is then spared the shock and frustration of academic suspension which would be inevitable in an institution which offers only baccalaureate degree programs.

Baxter (5) made a study of relationships between organizational variables and the student withdrawal rates in junior colleges. He states that if the indifferent student, whom no one particularly encourages or discourages from further study drops out, the institution has failed to achieve its goal of completing the work begun. If the student who is regarded as superior withdraws during a semester, however, the junior college has failed to meet its goal of retaining the student and encouraging him to continue higher education.

Baxter's study supports the "cooling out" idea that attrition is dysfunctional, because it reduces the effective use of resources. Furthermore, student attrition causes

the loss of public good will.

A pilot study done at Diablo Valley College in the fall of 1956 provides evidence that the attrition rate in junior colleges is high. Forty-two per cent did not re-enroll for the second semester, because of personal reasons or because they had been dismissed because of lack of academic achievement.

The total attrition rate at the beginning of the fourth semester was 46.5 per cent with 9.7 per cent of the group continuing on probation. The great drop in attendance between fall and spring semesters seems to also be characteristic of the junior college. (7,p.129).

Therefore, while all colleges and universities are concerned about attrition, it is of particular importance to the junior college. Having only freshmen and sophomore students, the institution is unevenly affected, since the highest withdrawal rates are found in freshmen classes. Iffert (29) found in a study of over 2,500 students that 273 per 1,000 subjects withdrew during their freshman year while only 283 per 1,000 withdrew during their entire next three years.

Wideman (54) explains that attrition is attributed by the students to the failure of both the institution and the individual. He states, "There is for most (dropouts) an oppressive sense of failure . . . their own, the college's and/or failure of connection in any meaningful way between the two." (54,p.225).

Millinger (41), in a study concerned with changing

trends among the student bodies of public junior colleges, found through interviewing the students that they tended to feel separated or not a part of a cohesive group. The public junior college is particularly vulnerable to this lack-of-identification problem or even to open hostility. In many instances this was not the college of the student's choice, and perhaps he has faced up to the reality that " . . . only an unselective college would have him." (41,p.174).

Although the effects of attrition on the institution and on the student is a somewhat overlapping study, a number of studies focus on the dropout himself. Warner (52), in a study concerning the scholastic ability of school dropouts, states that it has been reliably established that the image of a dropout as a lazy and unambitious person who is below average in academic ability is an oversimplified stereotype based on uncritical judgement.

Carlson and Wegner (14) conducted a study to determine potential failures among entering students at the University of Oregon. They used regression techniques in an attempt to predict grade point averages. Summer counseling was then given students who had potential academic difficulties. When the dropout rate of the control group was compared with that of the predicted failures, the experimenters concluded that, "Even among the most academically able there is reason to suspect that the dropout rate is not

greatly different from that of the general student body." (14,p.327).

These studies indicate that the problem cannot be brushed off as being confined to students of hopelessly limited capacity. Buschman (11) would add to this that neither is time the key to the problem. He made a study at Vanport College on probationary students where he interviewed the subjects to determine the cause of their poor academic records and to evaluate the effectiveness of the policies of the college's academic committee. He concluded that few students actually lacked the time for adequate lesson preparation, but that less than one half of the group had any definite plans for improving their work.

Anxiety as an underlying cause of underachievement or attrition and its effect on the student has been discussed in several studies. Being a new freshman student can be a traumatic experience (12). Chambers (15), who advocated an admissions policy in an attempt to reduce attrition, recognized the effect of new pressures and experiences of college life as being factors contributing to student attrition. He recommended adequate counseling during this period of adjustment as a means of solving some of the problems associated with dropouts.

Lafferty (33) wrote an article in which he blamed educators for the student's anxiety. We relate self-worth and accomplishment for the student, and this brings about a high level of anxiety.

Clements (17) focused on anxiety in a study where 180 college-bound high school seniors were studied to determine whether small group counseling would affect their anxiety level. Six counseling sessions were held in the spring of their senior year and six more in the fall after the subjects had entered college. Clements states, "Students fail to reach college and others leave prematurely for a variety of reasons, and a feeling of anxiety concerning self in relation to the new environment probably contributes substantially to a majority of these reasons." (17,p.67). His study was concluded by comparing the anxiety levels at the close of the two series of small group counseling sessions and the experimental students were found to have significantly lower anxiety scores than did those of the control group.

Grace (26) relates anxiety and attrition in a study made on personality factors and college attrition. She hypothesized that students who value both independence and responsibility would be most likely to continue their education while students who are irresponsible and dependent would be most likely to leave college. As a result of this study, she recommended that personality factors be considered as indicative of graduation potential and that anxious students be counseled in the direction of greater independence and responsibility.

Studies have been made to determine if the student's

sex and the likelihood of attrition are significantly related, but no outstanding results have been found. One such study was made by Jane Matson (40). She studied the characteristics of students who withdrew from a public junior college, and found both sex and academic aptitude to be unrelated to dropout incidence.

In reviewing these studies concerning the effects of attrition on the institution and on the student who drops, one may summarize thus: (a) a high rate of attrition is dysfunctional to the institution in that it prevents the achievement of retention goals, prevents the completion of the services undertaken to the student, prevents the proper or most effective use of resources, and is harmful to the college's public relations, and (b) concerning the student, these studies have served to point the way for further research. Although studies have been made concerning the dropout and ability, anxiety, sex and many other variables, a definite set of personal characteristics which are reliable predictors of student withdrawal has not been successfully compiled as yet.

Self

The concept of self-study and self-knowledge is tied to the concept of self-actualization. In a discussion on Rogers' self-concept, Maddi says, "The self-actualization tendency is the pressure to behave and develop--experience

oneself . . . consistently with one's conscious view of what one is." (37,P.74).

This self-actualizing tendency is developed from the two secondary or learned needs of positive regard and refers to the person's satisfaction at receiving the approval of others, and frustration at receiving disapproval" (37,p.74). In the process of gaining approval and disapproval then, he will develop a conscious sense of who he is, called a self or self-concept. Along with this, he will develop a need for positive self-regard, which assures that the tendency toward self-actualization will take the form of favoring behavior and development that is consistent with this need for positive self-regard.

Andras Angyal (3) says that every human being has the tendency to increase his self-determination in his expanding personal world. This can also be seen in research done by Schuldt and Truax in a mental hospital setting. Although the experimenters were working with rather extreme cases, they concluded that ". . . even severely disturbed clients do have significant capacity for constructive self-direction; their ideal self-concepts are more closely related than their current self-concepts to optimal adjustment." (47, p.159).

Studies by Brookover et al. state:

. . . self-concept of ability functions independently of measured intelligence in predicting school achievement. Additional findings

have shown that a student's self-concept of academic ability is associated with the evaluations which he perceives significant others such as parents, teachers, and friends hold of his academic ability (27,p.502).

Nevit Sanford (46) discusses the freshman whose self-esteem is so instable that he hopes for the best while fearing the worst. The student has been told that he is pretty good by the important others in his life, but during his freshman year he has experiences which cause him to feel that he may not be so good after all. When he suddenly realizes his own limitations, he will perhaps feel that he has disappointed his parents and himself. Such self-doubts usually extend not only to academic achievement but into his interpersonal relationships. He is concerned about both his skill in heterosexual relations and his ability to handle friendships with those of his own sex. He may waver between underestimating and overestimating himself. In an attempt to convince himself that he is actually 'pretty good' he may exhibit bravado and arrogance. Then when he conceives of himself as being worthless, he will exhibit depression and withdrawal.

The theoretical basis for the assumption that self-concept is of great importance in motivating and guiding behavior has been amply provided by Combs and Snygg (19), Lecky (35), and Carl Rogers (44). The idea that a student's self-concept might be established, made more realistic, or improved through group counseling has been considered in

several studies. Guller (28) experimented with 18 voluntary clients at the Franklin and Marshall College Counseling Center. These were matched with 25 students who served as a control group. In discussing this study, Guller stated that in a period of ten weeks, those who received counseling did increase in self-concept stability and that this self-concept stability measure was an additional indication that the counselees had become more like their peers who were presumably adjusted.

Caplan (54) measured the effect of group counseling on self-concept, school achievement, and behavior when he studied 34 junior high school boys who had long-term records of conflict with school authorities. The 17 students in the experimental group met for 50-minute group counseling sessions weekly for ten weeks. The experiment included a pre-and-post-test Q-sort criterion (50 self-referrent phrases dealing with self in school.) When the experimental and control groups were compared at the end of the ten-week period, the experimental students showed a significant increase in congruence of self-ideal-self Q-sorts, and a decrease in poor citizenship grades. There was no significant increase or decrease in grade point average.

Carton (54) selected an experimental group of 46 essentially normal students and matched them with a control of equal size for the purpose of measuring changes in perception of self and others through educational-vocational

group counseling. The experimental group met for 9 one and one-half hour counseling sessions during a three-week period in the summer. The entire sample was pre-and-post-tested with a seventy-item Self-Ideal Person, Ordinary Person Q-sort. The experimental group showed a statistically significant increase on "Self" adjustment scores, but there was no significant difference in their scores on the other variables concerning ideal and ordinary person adjustment.

Clements (17) used both the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values and Bills' "Index of Adjustment and Values" to measure the effects of group counseling on college-bound high school seniors prior to and following college enrollment. His experimental and control groups numbered 60 students each. Six 50-minute group counseling sessions were provided for the experimental group over a six-week period. Again in the Fall, counseling was provided but on a volunteer basis for the experimental students. The final analysis showed the experimental group to have less anxiety concerning self before and after college entrance than the control group.

Combs (18) also related self-concept to guidance in an article discussing the goals of guidance and special services in general. He pointed out that, ". . . the proper function of guidance is the nurturing of fulfillment, creativity of self-actualization." (18,p.92)

The literature on self-concept then says that self-

knowledge is tied to self-actualization or the need for a person to be what he feels he is capable of being. Every person has a need for positive self-regard and a tendency to increase his self determination. The student's self-concept is associated with the evaluations of significant others and his own evaluation of others. Group counseling has been shown to be useful in helping the student to know himself and bringing closer together his real and ideal self-concepts.

Group Counseling

Various authors, including Warters (53), Corsini (20), Dye (23), and Zimpfer (55), have discussed the advantages of using group counseling rather than relying upon a one-to-one relationship. Mathewson (39) points out that group guidance is not new, since Jesse Davis used this technique as early as 1907 in the public schools with personal as well as social development as specific objectives.

Warters (53) explains that group counseling is based on the principle of group process, that is, interaction of group members. The effect of the interaction upon the individual participants and the group as a whole is the test of the method and of the group experience. She says that one must assume that the members have the capacity to understand both themselves and the facets of their lives which are troubling them and have the capacity to

reorganize their relationships to life in the direction of self-actualization. A primary objective for the group member is to explore himself and his perceptions so that he can come to an understanding of reality which is consistent with truth and thus may be able to deal with life adequately.

Dye (23) supports Warters' discussion but goes into depth by dividing and listing the advantages related to the group process into ten areas. Among these he discusses the opportunities to utilize the resources of one's peers, to learn to manage interpersonal responsibility, to learn vicariously as well as personally when group members perceive factors in the interpersonal relations, and to participate in what can be an educative and broadening experience.

In an article entitled "Some Conceptual and Research Problems in Group Counseling," Zimpfer (55) points out the following advantages of group counseling:

It could be said that the most constructive changes to come about as a result of group counseling may be those which focus on the individual's competence to deal effectively with social situation; to evaluate the . . . objectives of a group, . . . to move the group towards its goals, and to make the group a viable medium for his own personal purposes. (55,p.332).

Corsini focuses attention on group counseling as being a corrective measure. He explains his reasoning thus:

There seems to be no question that society in its development has isolated people from one another. Paradoxically, increases of communication and of transportation appear to decrease

intimacy relationships. It may be that group therapy represents a correction against social isolation engendered by technological improvements. In short, a strong need has developed for people to get closer together; it is met to some extent by group psychotherapy. (20,p.7).

The use of group work in educational institutions has a long history for the same reasons that it has been used in other settings, and for the additional reason of attempting to assist the student who does not do well academically in school. The demand for trained personnel far exceeds the supply and has become a major point of concern at all educational levels. Calhoun (12) elaborates that tensions which exist between the democratic and totalitarian ways of life have brought into focus the need for every person to make maximum use of his learning capacity. He goes on to say that ". . . serious shortages of trained personnel looming in the future require that the most effective use of human intellectual resources become a major educational objective." (12).

Higgins and Thurston (32), in their assessment of student personnel work in the years ahead say, "Much of our work with students will necessarily be in groups. With tomorrow's enrollments and tomorrow's staff shortages, where will there be time to see students on a one-to-one basis? We will need to experiment to find ways to use the group process effectively." (32,p.56).

Group counseling experiments with students, particularly

under-achievers, have been numerous and have sought to assist the student in making the most of his abilities. Enough positive results have been found in these studies to establish a general agreement as to the value of this technique. The following research of the literature bears this out.

In response to letters sent out by Dickenson and Truax (22), forty-eight underachieving college freshmen participated in a small group counseling experiment. The students were divided equally into an experimental and control group, with the experimental group subdivided again into three small groups. The small groups met for counseling a total of 24 one-hour sessions over a period of twelve weeks. At the end of the experiment, the control and experimental groups were compared on five specific measures: (a) number in each group receiving passing grades during the semester post-therapy, (b) the number whose post-therapy grades were higher than their pre-therapy grades, (c) the G.P.A. obtained during the semester following the experiment, (d) a score obtained by taking the difference in each subject between his predicted G.P.A. based on his A. C. T. scores and his actual G.P.A. following the experiment, and (e) a score obtained by subtracting underachievement scores secured before the experiment and those secured during the semester post-treatment. Dickenson and Truax (22) concluded their experiment by showing that the counseled (or experimental)

group showed improvement in each of the five measures over the control group. In discussing the results, they stated: "The implication is that with adequate group counseling of even brief duration the attrition rate in college could be cut by one-half at relatively low cost and without any lowering of academic standards (22,p.247).

Broedel (9) used an experimental design similar to the one proposed in this study. An experimental group of under-achieving adolescents were counseled sixteen times over an eight-week period, and a control group received no counseling. His experimental subjects scored significantly higher on achievement tests given immediately after counseling and on those given 16 weeks later. Another variable in which he found a significant difference was increased acceptance of self. However, there were no significant differences in increase in school marks.

Roth (45) used group counseling in an effort to help 52 failing college students improve their grade point average. The first five to eight sessions were spent identifying particular study problems and receiving prescriptions for change from the counselor. The remaining sessions were used to explore the assumed basic reasons for the students failure. The students who had received counseling showed a significant increase in their grade point averages and control students indicated a chance increase.

Christenson (16) conducted a study to ascertain the

possible effect of group counseling with academically able college freshmen. The students were divided into high and low categories with two experimental and two control groups in each category. The experimental groups were provided twelve group counseling sessions during the course of one semester. Even though no significant results were found in the established hypotheses, most of the students evaluated the groups as helpful.

Garneski and Heiman (25) reported on a program where the entering freshmen of a junior college were counseled in the summer. The program covered test interpretation, vocational and educational aptitude, and prediction of first semester grades. The counseled students did significantly better on grade point average and suffered a significantly lower per cent of attrition. There was, however, no significant difference in the number of semester hours earned.

An article by Hosford and Briskin (29) referred to an experiment done by Thelen and Harris which provided group counseling for 127 underachieving college students. The students were divided into three groups: group 1 were those who did not respond to written invitations; group 2 were those who only took tests; and the last group were those individuals who agreed to tests and counseling sessions. The last group was divided into a control and an experimental group of 15 students each. The experimental students met for counseling one and one-half hours weekly for an average of

7.7 times. The experimental students experienced significantly greater grade point average change than did the control students. The students who took the tests but who declined counseling made almost as great a gain as did the counseled group. The authors suggest that since this group showed the greatest maladjustment according to scores on Cattell's 16 Personality Factors Questionnaire and self-rating scales, their improvement may have been due, at least partially, to motivation based on anxiety and self-doubt.

Leib and Snyder (36) worked with 28 underachieving college students. They attempted to determine the effect of specific group counseling procedures on underachievement and self-actualization. The students were assigned randomly to either one of three group discussion sections or to a special lecture session. The data indicated that there was a significant increase in self-actualization (the self-actualization scale of the Personal Orientation Inventory was used) within groups as well as significant improvements in grade point averages. There was, however, no significant difference between the lectured and counseled groups on either variable.

Bates (4) worked with high school students who were counseled in groups designed around either a "traditional" or an "accelerated interaction" format. The so called "traditional" group counseling consisted of weekly class period meetings over a period of 13 weeks. The "accelerated

interaction" program consisted of the same amount of time spent in group counseling, but the sessions were continuous and were completed within two school days. There were control groups for both the "traditional" and "accelerated interaction" groups. At the close of the experiment pre-test, post-test gain scores indicated that the traditional model assisted the counselees to maintain their grade point averages while the accelerated interaction counselees and their controls and the traditional model controls all suffered a loss in their grade point average. Bates also stated that positive behavioral change was measured (citizenship grades analyzed) and that only the traditionally counseled groups demonstrated a statistically significant improvement.

Calia (13) experimented with still another variation of small group counseling sessions. This was on the junior college level. The counselor led the groups only in alternate meetings and the groups were student led for the other meetings. This was not very successful, however; and Calia recommended that student leaders be trained or replaced by counselors in order to maintain continuity and depth of discussion. He also recommended the use of case studies as a means of moving the group into depth discussion quickly.

The possibility of group counseling reducing attrition was considered by Faries (24), who used a short-term counseling technique on an experimental group of 140 college

freshmen. A matched control group received no counseling. The experimental group graduated in significantly higher numbers than did their control counterpart. These findings are also supported by Smith (50), who experimented with college freshmen. He reported that those students who participated in small group discussion had a lower attrition rate than the non-participant.

When discussing student reactions to a small group orientation approach, Pappas made this point:

A sample of entering Kent State University freshmen met in orientation groups of eight to twelve students for eight weekly sessions. Each hour-long session had a presentation of a topic followed by group discussion. (43,p.89).

The best-liked topics were those dealing with practical improvement of college study habits, etc. Nearly all students preferred the small group sessions to larger ones and all wanted more group discussions.

The desirability of small groups over large ones is also pointed out by Anderson and Johnson (2), who discuss Scoresby's experiment with the orientation of new students at Brigham Young University. He showed that students who were oriented in small groups of eight to ten members achieved a higher level of self-acceptance and a higher grade point average than comparable students who met in groups of 50 or 100 members. The small group members also achieved higher levels on these variables than did the control students who did not meet at all.

Certainly, as this review of the literature on small group counseling points out, not all experiments rendered significant results in all of the areas where positive significance results were expected. Yet, sufficient positive results have been found to justify further time and energy being spent in research to provide additional evidence of the value of group counseling in educational institutions.

The Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values

The Study of Values was originally published in 1931, the theory was based on Spranger's formulations of six values: (a) theoretical, (b) economic, (c) aesthetic, (d) social, (e) political, and (f) religious. The second edition was published in 1951 and reflected a redefining of social values which had taken place over the 20-year period. More discriminating items were added, and the test's reliability was increased. The last edition was published in 1960, with only slight revisions which included more recent norms and changes in the scoring. The present edition is recommended for use with subjects who have had college experience because the vocabulary is twelfth-grade level.

Hundleby's review of the Study of Values (1) states that there is considerable supportive evidence that the test is useful, particularly in counseling and selection. He further explains that the Study of Values holds a particular interest for psychologists who wish to have

standardized tests more closely tied to psychological theory and to those who are concerned with quantitative assessment of values and interests.

Radcliff terms the Study of Values as having ". . . both internal consistency and split half consistency for group use, as attested by the results it has produced." (1,p.387).

Scott (48) conducted a study titled "Comparative Validities of Forced-Choice and Single-Stimulus Tests" in which he examined the Edwards Personal Preference Survey, the Study of Values, and Scott's Value Scales. He agreed with both Hundleby and Radcliff by concluding that the Study of Values is a valid test.

The literature indicates then that the test is useful and valid, and that it is suitable and has been recommended for experiments involving counseling of college students such as this one.

Bills' "Index of Adjustment and Values"

Since Bills' "Index of Adjustment and Values" (IAV) is not a printed test, it is not reviewed in the publications which discuss the research used and backgrounds of tests in print. However, Bills, in the test manual, reports on research that has been done and discusses the reliability and the validity of the test. The material which follows is taken from his discussion in the manual.

The reliability was measured using the split-half and test-retest techniques over a six-week and sixteen-week

period with a minimum N of 100 students. Correlations were corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula; all coefficients were significantly different from zero at less than the $p=.01$ level.

Validity is discussed under the headings of concurrent and construct validity, since the IAV has not been validated as a predictive instrument. Concurrent validity was measured through the technique of correlating the results of the IAV with those of other tests. The tests used were the Phillips Attitudes Toward Self and Others Questionnaire, the California Test of Personality, and the Washburne S-A Inventory.

"Although the coefficients are small, statistically significant relationships appeared between the acceptance of self-measure of the IAV and both the Phillips self score and the total scores on the California." (6,p.64). Several other studies are discussed and the statistical results given, but all are similar.

Construct validity is discussed in much greater detail and using a greater number of criteria as measures. These criteria were group study of acceptance of self, psychosomatic symptoms, blame for unhappiness, an experimental validation study using the self-ratings of the index as indices of emotionality, changes during student-centered teaching, schizophrenics, and language characteristics. In all of these studies the IAV was shown to give meaningful scores and construct validity could then be assured in these areas.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Allport, Vernon, Lindzey, Study of Values Manual, 3rd edition, Boston, Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1960.
2. Anderson, Alan R. and Donald L. Johnson, "Using Group Procedures to Improve Human Relations in the School Social System," The School Counselor, XV (May, 1968), 334-342.
3. Angyal, Andras, Neurosis and Treatment, New York, John Wiley and Sons, 1965.
4. Bates, Marilyn, "A Test of Group Counseling," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, SLVI (April, 1968), 749-753.
5. Baxter, Cecil W. J., "Relationships Between Organizational Variables and Student Withdrawal Rates in Junior Colleges," unpublished dissertation, University of Texas, Austin, Texas, August, 1967.
6. Bills, Robert E., "Index of Adjustment and Values," unpublished manual, College of Education, University of Alabama, Birmingham, Alabama.
7. Blocker, Clyde E. and Donald M. Anthony, "Social Status and Prestige in the Selection of a Program of Study in the Community Junior College," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLVI (June, 1968), 1005-1009.
8. Blocker, Clyde E., Robert H. Plummer, and Richard C. Richardson, Jr., The Two-Year College: A Social Synthesis, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice-Hall, 1965.
9. Broedel, John W., "A Study of the Effects of Group Counseling on the Academic Performance and Mental Health of Underachieving Gifted Adolescents," Dissertation Abstracts, IX(1959), 3019.
10. Buros, Oscar K., The Sixth Mental-Measurements Yearbook, New Jersey, The Gryphon Press, 1967, 384-387.
11. Buschman, William O., "Probation Students," School and Society, LXXVI(October, 1952), 232-234.

12. Calhoun, S. R., "The Effect of Counseling on a Group of Underachievers" School Review, LXIV(October, 1956), 312-316.
13. Galia, Vincent F., "Small Group Experiences as an Adjunct to Counseling," Junior College Journal, XXIX(May, 1959), 401-404.
14. Carlson, J. Spencer, and Kenneth W. Wegner, "The Poor Shall Always Be With Us: College Dropouts," Phi Delta Kappan, XLVI(March, 1965), 324-327.
15. Chambers, Frank M., "A College Admission Policy to Reduce Attrition," Junior College Journal, XXI (January, 1961), 250-254.
16. Christenson, E. W., "Group Counseling with Selected Scholarship Students," Dissertation Abstracts, XXIV(1963), 619-620.
17. Clements, Barton E., "Transitional Adolescents, Anxiety, and Group Counseling," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLV(September, 1966), 67.
18. Combs, A. W., "Adjustment Through Guidance and Special Services," Educational Leadership XIV(November, 1958), 89-92.
19. Combs, A. W. and D. Snygg, Individual Behavior: A Perceptual Approach to Behavior, New York, Harper, 1959.
20. Corsini, Raymond J., Methods of Group Psychotherapy, Chicago, William James Press, 1964.
21. Davis, Kathleen L., "The Sensitivity of Selected Instruments to Personality Changes Produced by Group Counseling," Dissertation Abstracts, XXVIII(April-June, 1968), 3968-A.
22. Dickenson and Truax, "Group Guidance with Underachievers," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLV(November, 1966), 243-247.
23. Dye, H. Allan, "Fundamental Group Procedures for School Counselors," Guidance Monograph Series, Houghton-Mifflin Company, Boston, 1968.
24. Faries, Miriam, "Short Term Counseling at the College Level," Journal of Counseling Psychology, II (Fall, 1955), 182-184.

25. Garneski, Thomas M. and Robert Heiman, "Summer Group Counseling of Freshmen," Junior College Journal, XXXVII(May, 1967), 40-43.
26. Grace, H. A., "Personality Factors and College Attrition," Peabody Journal of Education, XXV(July, 1957), 36-40.
27. Guerney, Bernard G., Jr., Psychotherapeutic Agents, New York, Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1969.
28. Guller, Irving B., "Increased Stability of Self-Concept in Students Served by a College Counseling Center," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLVII(February, 1969), 546-551.
29. Hosford, Ray E. and Alan S. Briskin, "Changes Through Counseling," Review of Educational Research, XXXIX(April, 1954), 189-207.
30. Iffert, R. E., "Retention and Withdrawal of College Students," Bulletin, Washington, Government Printing Office, 1958.
31. Jones, Edward S., "What Is He Like, and What Can Be Done About It," Journal of Educational Research, XL(October, 1955), 93-102.
32. Klopff, Gordon, editor, College Student Personnel Work in the Years Ahead, Washington, The American College Personnel Association.
33. Lafferty, W. C., "Values That Defeat Learning," National Association of Secondary School Principals, Bulletin, LII(May, 1968), 201-212.
34. Lavin, David E., The Prediction of Academic Performance, New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1965.
35. Lecky, P., Self-Consistency: A Theory of Personality, Garden City, New York, Island Press, 1945.
36. Leib, J. W. and W. W. Snyder, "Effects of Group Discussion on Underachievement and Self-Actualization," Journal of Counseling Psychology, XIV(1967), 282-285.
37. Maddi, Salvatore R., Personality Theories, A Comparative Analysis, Homewood, Illinois, The Dorsey Press, 1968.
38. Marsh, Lee M., "College Dropouts-A Review," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLIV(January, 1966), 475-481.

39. Mathewson, Robert H., Guidance, Policy, and Practice, New York, Harper and Brothers, 1955.
40. Matson, Jane Elizabeth, "Characteristics of Students Who Withdrew from a Public Junior College," Dissertation Abstracts, XV(1955), 1787-1788.
41. Mellinger, Morris, "Changing Trends Among Public Junior College Student Bodies," Junior College Journal, XXXIII(November, 1962), 167-176.
42. Moustakas, Clark E., editor, The Self, Explorations in Personal Growth, New York, Harper and Row, 1956.
43. Pappas, John G., "Student Reactions to a Small Group Orientation Approach," College and University, XLIII(Fall, 1967), 84-89.
44. Rogers, Carl, Client-Centered Therapy: Its Current Practice, Implications, and Theory, Boston, Houghton-Mifflin, 1951.
45. Roth, Robert M. and Hans O. Mauksch and Kenneth Peiser, "The Non-Achievement Syndrome, Group Therapy, and Achievement Change," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLVI(1967), 393-398.
46. Sanford, Nevit, Self and Society, New York, Atherton Press, 1966.
47. Schuldt, W. J. and C. B. Truax, "Client Awareness of Adjustment in Self and Ideal-Self Concepts," Journal of Counseling Psychology, XV(March, 1968), 158-159.
48. Scott, William A., "Comparative Validities of Forced-Choice and Single Stimulus Test," Psychological Bulletin, 1969.
49. Sheldon, William D. and Theodore Landsman, "An Investigation of Nondirective Group Therapy with Students in Academic Difficulty," Journal of Counseling Psychology, XIV(1950), 210-213.
50. Simon, Lora, "The Cooling-Out Function of the Junior College," Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLIV (June, 1967), 973.
51. Smith, B. M., "Small Group Meetings of College Freshmen and Frequency of Withdrawals," Journal of College Student Personnel, IV(1963), 165-170.

52. Warner, O. Ray, "The Scholastic Ability of School Dropouts," School Life, XLVII(October, 1964), 21-22.
53. Warters, Jane, Group Guidance, Principles, and Practices, New York, McGraw-Hill Book company, 1960.
54. Wideman, John W., "College Undergraduate Dropouts," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 224-234.
55. Zimpfer, David G., "Some Conceptual and Research Problems in Group Counseling," The School Counselor, XV(May, 1968), 326-333.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Participants and Experimental Design

Basically the design utilized was a simple experimental-control group schema replicated three times. The principal criterion scores were experimental and control group differences in grade point averages, attrition rates, and pre-to-post-test gains. The experimental subjects received small group counseling, whereas the control groups underwent the 'regular' freshman orientation classes. These treatments will be described in greater detail subsequently.

Subjects for this study were first-semester freshmen who attended Weatherford Junior College, Weatherford, Texas, in the fall of 1968-69. All entering freshmen who were taking a course load of at least twelve semester hours, who had graduated from high school within the past year, and who had never enrolled in college previously were required to enroll in one of five orientation classes. These five freshman orientation classes constituted the population from which the experimental samples were drawn.

It was standard policy for students to be assigned to the orientation class which best suited their schedule, disregarding criteria such as ability, background, family,

or size of high school. The class met one hour per week for ten weeks, and was intended to acquaint the student with the facilities and regulations of the college, to assist him in acquiring effective study habits, to give him an understanding of the importance of scheduling his time, and to offer him some vocational guidance.

The sections of freshman orientation were numbered Psychology 101.01, 101.02, 101.03, etc. The five sections contained approximately 60 students each. Three of the classes were randomly selected to participate in the experiment. These were (a) Psychology 101.02, which met on Tuesday afternoon, (b) Psychology 101.03, which met on Wednesday afternoons, and (c) Psychology 101.05, which met on Friday afternoons. These classes will be referred to as Group I, Group II, and Group III, respectively. The three groups constituted the total sample of 185 students. The administration of small group counseling required the experimental group to be sub-divided into groups of relatively small numbers. The maximum number which could be handled satisfactorily was judged to be approximately 15 students. A table of random numbers was used to draw 15 students each from Group I, Group II, and Group III. The total 45 students were used as experimental subjects and are referred to as E_T. Those counseling groups drawn from Groups I, II, and III are henceforth designated as E₁, E₂, and E₃ respectively. Those remaining in Groups I, II, and III were labeled C₁, C₂,

and C₃, and constituted the corresponding control groups.

The following table shows the sex ratio within each group and each sub-division. This table also shows that the entire study consisted of three replications of the same experiment.

TABLE I

EXPERIMENTAL SCHEMA, NUMBER OF SUBJECTS, AND SEX DISTRIBUTION

Group	Sex		Total
	Male	Female	
Group I			
E ₁	8	7	15
C ₁	25	19	44
Group II			
E ₂	10	5	15
C ₂	31	18	49
Group III			
E ₃	13	2	15
C ₃	48	5	33

Certain steps were taken to attempt to control extraneous variables. Research indicates that sex ratio is an important variable in group dynamics. Therefore, an attempt was made to equate this factor by having the same

proportion of boys and girls in each experimental group and the matching control group.

Although no attempt was made to match the experimental and control groups (except in sex ratio) nor to equate E_1 , E_2 , and E_3 with C_1 , C_2 , and C_3 , respectively, other than by randomization, differences between the subdivisions were found between E_3 and C_3 and the other two E and C subdivisions. This was primarily a large difference in the sex ratio and that intangible which causes some people to put off action until the last moment. The students were registered for the fall classes in order of application, and at the time of registration could select whatever freshman orientation class they wished to attend. Since Group III was a Friday afternoon class and, therefore, traditionally the least desirable time for class, most of the students in it were those who registered late and had no other choice.

Instruments

For pre-and-post-testing the Bills' "Index of Adjustment and Values" (IAV) and the Allport, Vernon, Lindzey Study of Values were used. These are both pencil and paper type tests which may be administered to a large group or to an individual with a minimum amount of attention from the tester. The Study of Values can be taken in about twenty minutes by the average student and the IAV in about thirty minutes. Both were given in one class period and scored later.

Bills' "Index of Adjustment and Values"

Bills' "Index of Adjustment and Values" consists of 49 trait words on which the subject is asked to score himself six times. The first three of these scorings are done with a self-orientation, the second three with a peer- or other-orientation.

The three self questions are: (1) "How often are you this sort of person?" (2) "How do you feel about being this way?" (3) "How much of the time would you like this trait to be characteristic of you?"

The peer or other questions are answered in the same order except that the subject is told to answer as he thinks the average member of his peer group would answer it for himself.

The "self" ratings are to be completed before the "other" ratings.

The subject rates each of the 49 trait words on a scale from one to five according to the following key:

1. Seldom is this like me (him).
2. Occasionally, this is like me (him).
3. About half the time, this is like me (him).
4. A good deal of the time, this is like me (him).
5. Most of the time, this is like me (him).

Scoring is done by summing each of three columns. A discrepancy score can be found by summing the differences between Column I and Column III (Self-concept and Ideal-self ratings.)

Since one portion of this experiment in self-concept was concerned with what changes could be caused by small group counseling only, the mean difference of the change for the experimental and control group was analyzed.

Allport, Vernon, Lindzey Study of Values

The Allport, Vernon, Lindzey Study of Values was designed for use by college students or adults who have had some college education. It attempts to measure the relative prominence of six basic interests or motives in personality: the theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political, and religious. These are based on Edward Spranger's Types of Men, and therefore, contain whatever weaknesses are incorporated in the original theory. A full description of each of these values as given by the authors in the manual is included in the appendix.

The Study of Values contains 45 items and is designed to be largely self-administered. The instrument is contained in a booklet in which the subject indicates his response by writing in a number or blacking the appropriate space. After the test is scored, the results may be plotted on a profile so that the significance of the subject's standing on all of the values may be seen simultaneously.

It was used in this experiment to measure the changes that average value profiles underwent to help determine the relative effects of small group counseling as opposed to regular freshman orientation classes. Again, only

the mean differences in scores were analyzed.

This is an instrument widely used by those who are concerned with a quantitative measure of values and interests.

Procedure

Following the selection of Groups I, II, and III, the first step of the experiment was to administer the pretests. These groups took the Study of Values and the IAV under the direction of a trained counselor. At the next meeting of the class, the instructor read the names of the 15 experimental subjects in his class and advised them that they were being re-assigned. They were given the explanation that the classes were too large and that they had been randomly selected to be withdrawn from the class for two reasons: (a) to try a new approach to freshman orientation and (b) to reduce the size of the class.

The 15 students from each class which were then E₁, E₂, and E₃ were advised to report to the library conference room from that time on, at their scheduled orientation class period. The conference room was equipped with a large table and comfortable chairs where the subjects could sit facing each other. Noise and room temperature were not problems, and this proved to be a very satisfactory meeting place.

At the first meeting of each E group the experimenter explained the purpose and function of the group counseling process. More specifically, the subjects were asked to

talk about any topics which they felt affected their college life and achievement. The group would be expected to discuss honestly these topics and to strive as individuals to keep group confidence. Following the experimenter's explanation, the first meeting was completed by the subjects introducing and telling a little about themselves.

Each of the E sub-sections followed a similar pattern during the ten weeks of counseling. The first three or four sessions were basically question-and-answer periods, when the subjects asked the experimenter direct questions, and only a minimum amount of group discussion followed. Then came a type of transition period when the students discussed courses and teachers among themselves, but on a rather superficial basis. Not until the final stages of the experiment did the subjects engage in a serious discussion in depth. The experimenter met with each group for each counseling session, maintaining a non-directive position. The counselor did not attempt to guide the discussion into a particular area.

A summary of each session's discussion was written immediately following the session, and these summaries are appended.

During the last counseling session each E group took the IAV and the Study of Values again as their post-experiment tests.

During the ten weeks of the experiment the control

students continued meeting their regular freshman orientation classes. There were approximately 45 students in each group. The straightforward methods of lectures and discussions were used in these classes.

Topics for the first five weeks included an introductory lecture on the rules and regulations of the college, the availability of counselors, and a plea for students to involve themselves in the college. A talk by the Dean of the college, a lecture on study habits and the proper use of time, and two lectures including a short practicum experience in the library were also included.

The next three weeks were spent in attending departmental discussions given by the various departments of the college. There were approximately ten different groups, and each student attended the three in which he was most interested.

The remaining sessions of the semester were divided among lectures on personality development, vocational choice, dating habits, and taking examinations.

The lectures were organized around the text, So You're A College Freshman, by Elwood N. Chapman (30).

During their last class period the control subjects took the Study of Values and the IAV again as their post-test.

Absences were never a problem in either the experimental or the control groups. Attendance was controlled by the

regulations of the college, since one hour semester credit was given for freshman orientation.

Neither students in the experimental nor the control groups who withdrew were replaced, and no attempt was made to have those who dropped during the fall semester take the two personality measures before leaving. At its best, such a post-test would have been inconclusive, since it would have been an attempt to measure change brought by an incompleting experiment.

The experimenter was also the counselor and recognized that, in a situation of this type, there was a chance of possible bias. This possibility was actively controlled by the experimenter's having no knowledge of scores or information concerning the experiment until after the completion of all tests and counseling sessions.

The counselor, who was also the experimenter in this study, has had a comprehensive basic education in nondirective counseling. He has attended two National Defense Education Act Institutes centered around group counseling and has had a supervised practicum in a group counseling situation.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Allport, Vernon, Lindzey, Study of Values Manual,
3rd edition, Boston, Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1960.
2. Bills, Robert E., "Index of Adjustment and Values,"
unpublished manual, College of Education, Univer-
sity of Alabama, Birmingham, Alabama.
3. Chapman, Elwood N., So You're a College Freshman,
Science Research Association, Inc., 1967.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

General Description

An analysis was made of the data to determine the effectiveness of small group counseling in reducing attrition and in improving academic achievement of first semester freshman students at Weatherford Junior College. The procedure followed in evaluating the effectiveness of the small group counseling was to compare the rates of attrition, the college grade point ratios, and the pre-to-post changes of Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values and Bills' "Index of Adjustment and Values" between the experimental and control subjects.

The data were treated statistically by the use of a t-test for differences between the means of the experimental and control subjects for grade point ratio and percentages of attrition. Hotelling's T^2 was used to test for significance of pre-to-post-test change between the differences of the variables of the Study of Values and the IAV. Hotelling's T^2 was selected for use, because it is a method of comparing two groups, each with the number of variables and providing a comparison of each variable as well as the significance of the set as a whole.

The use of Hotelling's T^2 in this experiment thus provided a pre-post comparison of the two instruments involved and a comparison of each variable within the instrument plus its influence on the overall results. The technique provided a means for constructing highly meaningful interpretative tables. Such tables appear subsequently.

The critical level adopted for all tests of statistical significance was $p = .05$.

Attrition

The statistical null hypothesis that there would be no significant differences in attrition between subjects receiving small group counseling and those attending freshman orientation courses was tested through the use of a t-test for independent measures. The data concerning attrition were secured from the Registrar's office with the 12th day of the spring semester being the cut-off date for re-enrollment. A comparison of the percentage of drops from the Experimental and Control groups is shown in Table II.

TABLE II
ATTRITION RATES OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

Groups	N.	No. of Drops	Groups	N.	No. of Drops
E ₁	15	1	C ₁	44	5
E ₂	15	6	C ₂	49	12
E ₃	15	3	C ₃	47	9
E _T	45	10	C _T	140	26
Dropout Percentage	E _T 22%		C _T 19%		

It is fairly obvious from Table II that only a slight difference between the E and C subjects occurred, 22 per cent, versus 19 per cent, respectively. Application of a t-test to these percentages yielded a t = .428 with df = 183, which did not reach the critical level of significance. This evidence was directly related to a test of Hypothesis I. The hypothesis was therefore negated, since the subjects receiving small group counseling did not have a significantly lower attrition rate than did the students in the control group.

Grade Point Averages

The other principal criterion of academic advancement was assessed in terms of grade point averages. These data were secured from the Registrar's office and are reproduced in Table III.

TABLE III

GRADE POINT AVERAGES OF THE E AND C GROUPS

Groups	<u>M</u> G. P. A.	S. D.	Groups	<u>M</u> G. P. A.	S. D.
E ¹	2.8	.68	C ¹	2.5	.94
E ²	2.1	1.3	C ²	2.1	1.02
E ³	1.9	.95	C ³	1.8	.87
E ^T	2.3	.38	C ^T	2.1	.37

From Table III it is evident that the experimental group achieved a slightly higher mean grade point average

than did the control group. The obtained $t = .51$ with $df = 176$, however, was not significant at the .05 level. This evidence was directly related to a test of Hypothesis II. Therefore the working hypothesis was rejected that students who received small group counseling would achieve a significantly higher grade point average than would the control subjects who attended the regular freshman orientation classes.

Value Changes

The two secondary hypotheses concerned changes in values as measured (a) by the Study of Values and (b) by the IAV. These were proposed and treated statistically.

Hypothesis III stated that small group counseling would lead to a more positive change in values (as measured by the Study of Values) by the experimental than the control students. Hotelling's T^2 statistic was applied to determine significant differences in the mean and the variance for the six variables for the experimental and control subjects. These were pre-to-post-experimental gain scores. The results are shown in Table IV.

The mean change for the experimental subjects ranged from a loss of -1.59 to a gain of 1.21, and the mean change for the control subjects ranged from a loss of -.83 to an increment of 1.25. The obtained $T^2 = 1.07140$, and the F was less than 1, equalling .17269, with the $df = 6/147$.

This was not significant at the .05 level. Interpretively, this evidence signifies that there was no significant difference in the value changes of the experimental group when compared with the control group.

TABLE IV

AN ANALYSIS OF PRE-TO-POST-TEST SCORES OF THE ALLPORT, VERNON, LINDSEY STUDY OF VALUES FOR THE E AND C GROUPS

Variables	Mean Gain		Variance	
	<u>E</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>E</u>	<u>C</u>
Theoretical	1.05	.58	28.92	34.21
Economical	-.59	-.53	33.78	31.43
Aesthetic	1.21	1.25	44.83	58.14
Social	.44	-.01	35.32	47.99
Political	-.72	-.83	27.69	31.88
Religious	-1.59	-.70	33.83	31.38

Although the evidence shown in Table IV negated Hypothesis III that the experimental subjects who received small group counseling would have a statistically significantly greater change in values than the control students, the experimenter analyzed the statistics a step further by computing the mean and variance of the scores for Groups I, II, and III individually. It was realized that such a procedure capitalized on chance; however, significant results could have possibly led to interesting alternative hypotheses. Tables V, VI, and VII, which are appended, show the replications of the experiment.

The evidence shown in Tables V, VI, and VII does not add significantly to that already given in Table IV. Even

When the three groups were analyzed individually, there were no significant differences between the scores of the experimental and control subjects.

Even though not significant, some very interesting trends are suggested by the Experimental and Control comparison of the mean gains presented in Table IV. In an attempt to clarify some of these trends, a table was constructed of the raw pre-and-post means of both the Experimental and Control groups and these were compared with the national norms. This table is appended on page 91.

There is a discrepancy between the Weatherford College group and the national norm in the areas of religion and aesthetics. Both the Experimental and Control groups were higher in the area of religion than the national college norms. The difference is small, but helps to explain the drop in value on religion by both groups. These students come from a rural, conservative area, such as traditionally have higher religious values than other areas of the nation.

In the area of aesthetics, the values shown by the Experimental and Control groups are less than the national norms. The pre-to-post tests show that both groups gained higher aesthetic values during the time of the experiment. The Experimental group's mean gain was slightly higher than that of the Control group.

The changes in both the area of religion and the area of aesthetics are probably due to the broadening influence

of college itself rather than to any specific factor.

Changes in Self-Concept

Hypothesis IV stated that the students who received small group counseling would show a greater positive change in self-concept as measured by Bills' "Index of Adjustment and Values" than those students who attended the regular freshman orientation classes. Again Hotelling's T^2 statistic was applied to test for significant statistical differences.

In Table VIII the six variables which are listed numerically represent six questions which the subject answered on a five-point scale which ranged from an extreme negative to an extreme positive answer. The first three of the six variables indicated his concept of himself in relation to the 49 listed trait words. He responded to the questions (a) How often are you this sort of person? (b) How do you feel about being this way? (c) How much of the time would you like this trait to be characteristic of you? Then the subject was asked to answer the same three questions again as he thought the average person in his peer group would respond. Therefore, variables 1 through 3 are indicative of self-concept while 4 through 6 indicate his concept of his peer's opinions of themselves.

Table VIII compares the mean and the variance for each of the six variables for the experimental and control groups.

TABLE VIII

PRE-TO-POST COMPARISON OF MEANS AND VARIANCES OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ON BILLS' "INDEX OF ADJUSTMENT AND VALUES"

Variable	Mean		Variance	
	E	C	E	C
1. Self	5.69	5.60	123.75	232.95
2. Self	-1.95	2.43	393.38	533.41
3. Self	-2.67	.03	209.81	322.36
4. Peers	4.90	1.89	604.30	305.89
5. Peers	3.08	.43	352.17	557.18
6. Peers	4.23	-3.25	216.13	437.11

Obviously from the data given in Table III, there were only slight differences in the experimental and control groups' mean change in self-concept. The mean change ranged from -3.25 to +5.69, with the greater differences being found in variables 4 through 6 which indicated the subject's ideas of his peer's self-concept. It is interesting that both the Experimental and Control groups had a positive change in variable 1, self-concept. The largest pre-to-post mean change =5.69 shown by the Bills' was shown in column I by the Experimental group.

The obtained $T^2 = 8.68733$, $F = 1.40026$ with $df = 6/147$, did not reach the critical level of significance. This evidence was directly related to a test of Hypothesis IV; therefore, the working hypothesis that the experimental group would, when compared with the control subjects, show a significantly greater change in self-concept was rejected.

Again, the experimenter replicated the experiment three times by analyzing Groups I, II, and III individually. Groups I and II showed no significant changes in self-concept as measured by the IAV. Tables IX and X, which are appended, show these results.

Group III, however, did show a change in self-concept which, when analyzed statistically, was significant at the .05 level. The mean and variance pre-to-post-test change for E_3 and C_3 is shown in Table XI.

TABLE XI

PRE TO POST COMPARISON OF MEANS AND VARIANCES OF E_3 AND C_3 ON BILLS' "INDEX OF ADJUSTMENT AND VALUES"

Variable	Mean		Variance	
	E	C	E	C
1. Self	4.85	5.46	128.13	319.62
2. Self	-11.38	-1.80	277.78	730.16
3. Self	-.46	2.00	314.71	328.06
4. Peers	3.00	4.34	1099.08	471.31
5. Peers	.31	-.71	300.21	767.00
6. Peers	13.54	-3.91	231.48	539.28

In Table XI one may compare the mean and variance for each variable for E_3 and C_3 which are the sub-divisions of Group III. The greatest difference in mean change is in variable 6, which is a measure of what the subject believes his peers' ideal self-concept to be. The obtained $T^2 = 21.85476$, $F = 3.24654$ with $df = 6/41$, is statistically significant at the .05 level.

To analyze the data further, a table was constructed of the pre-and-post raw means and compared these with the national norms of college students. This table is appended on page 97. The raw pre- and post-test means did not reveal anything significant, but when these were compared with the national college means, they were consistently lower. The difference was not great. The experimental and control groups were always within one half of a standard deviation of the national college norm, but were always lower. Junior college student norms are also lower on national examinations such as the SAT and the ACT. It is possible, therefore, that this lower self-concept and these lower aspirations are a reflection of reality.

This evidence is directly related to Hypothesis IV and supports the working hypothesis that subjects receiving small group counseling will experience a significant change in self-concept as measured by the IAV.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The present research was an investigation to determine the effectiveness of small group counseling compared with freshman orientation classes in reducing attrition among freshman students at Weatherford College. This chapter contains a discussion of the findings of this study with relation to previous research and implications for educational practice. Included in this chapter are the following sections: (a) summary of method and procedures, (b) findings related to the rates of attrition and mean grade point ratio between experimental and control groups, (c) findings related to changes in values and self-concept between experimental and control groups, (d) conclusions, and (e) recommendations for educational practice and future research.

Summary of Method and Procedure

There were 185 college freshmen used as subjects in this study, with three experimental groups of 15 each making a total experimental group of 45 and three control groups of approximately 42 each giving a total control group of 140. These students were drawn from the freshman population at Weatherford College in the fall of the 1968-69

school year. The sex ratio was the only factor held constant between the experimental and control groups. It was felt that since sex is often a factor in the success of counseling groups this variable should be controlled. Each experimental group met with a counselor for ten 50-minute sessions of non-directive group counseling. The control groups met as regular freshman orientation classes. The measuring criteria for differences between the E and C groups were (a) percentage of dropouts, (b) mean grade point averages, (c) mean changes between pre- and post-test changes of the six variables of the Study of Values, and (d) mean changes between pre- and post-test changes of the six variables of Bills' "Index of Adjustment and Values."

Freshman Orientation, Attrition, and Grade Point Averages

The theoretical background presented in Chapter II, pointed out the diversity and inconclusiveness of the research that has been done concerning attrition and grade point averages. Simon (12) and Baxter (1) discussed the concept of the junior college "cooling out" the student or helping him to see that college is not for him. The results shown in Table II in chapter four could well be a result of the operation of this function. These results came from a test of Hypothesis 1, which stated that the small group counseling experience should result in a lower percentage of dropouts among the experimental rather than

the control group. The difference obtained was not significant and was in a direction opposite to the one hypothesized.

No studies have been found which discussed the use of small group counseling to reduce attrition and raise the grade point averages of unselected students in a junior college. The following studies are some in which small group counseling with select students was used. Clements (3) used this technique on college bound seniors and reported less anxiety in the group which received counseling. Dickerson and Truax (4) used small group counseling on underachieving college freshmen and concluded in their discussion of the results that the attrition rate in college could be cut in half. These studies support Hypothesis II, which states that the grade point average of the experimental group will be significantly higher than that of the control group. Broedel (2), on the other hand, found that small group counseling helped his experimental subjects do better on achievement tests, but they showed no significant increase in school marks. Sheldon and Landsman (11), in a study using non-directive counseling, found their experimental subjects had significantly raised their grade point average, and the attrition rate of the experimental group was less than that of the control group.

Hypothesis II predicted the experimental group would have a significantly higher grade point average than the

control group following counseling. While the obtained difference was not significant, it was in a positive direction. The size of the total sample was too small for minor changes to be significant, but the direction of change indicates that group counseling should continue to be explored.

Research concerning freshman orientation is best summarized by Iffert (8), who stated that no matter what presentation was used, it was unpopular with the students. As Millinger (9) puts it, the junior colleges are concerned with this, because the junior college student often feels openly hostile to the college in the first place. Another point of concern is the fact that most senior colleges to which the junior college student transfers will not accept this hour for graduation. With these feelings present, the college does not help itself by forcing all students to take an unpopular non-transferable course.

In summary, the research findings of the present study related to attrition, grade point averages, and freshman orientation were

A. The percentage of dropouts of the experimental group was larger than for the control group. This difference was small, but the negative direction makes it difficult to explain. The best answer seems to be that the counseling sessions more effectively "cooled out" the students. They were able to decide that college was not

what they wanted and left with no hard feelings.

B. The experimental group did have a higher grade point average than the control group, but the difference was non-significant. The results are statistically inconclusive, but like many of the research reports studied are tantalizing in their promise.

C. According to a study conducted by the instructors in the course, these classes are resented by the students and are ineffective. They should be changed or dropped.

Changes in Values and Self-Concept

The review of research in Chapter II shows that each individual has a need for positive feeling toward himself; and when he is placed in a position where he does not have this, he will work to change that position. Brookover and others (6) found that self-concept functioned independently of intelligence. Nevit Sanford (10) discussed the new student whose self doubts extended to areas beyond academic achievement. The changing of self-concept in a positive direction by group counseling is discussed by Guller (7), who, in a study with college students, found that the experimental subjects increased in self-concept stability after counseling. Clements (3), using the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values and Bills' "Index of Adjustment and Values," found a decrease in anxiety concerning self in the group which had received counseling.

The technique of using counseling to change concepts

of self has been used in many studies, and the research seems to indicate that this use is growing.

Hypotheses III and IV of this experiment stated that the experimental group would show greater positive mean changes than the control group on a pre-post-test basis using the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values and Bills' "Index of Adjustment and Values." These instruments were included in the present study as part of the "shotgun approach" discussed by Gazda and Larsen (5). No significant differences were found between the experimental and control groups on either instrument. Experimental sub-group E₃ did show a significant change when compared with C₃ on the variable of self-concept of Bills' "Index of Adjustment and Values." The only differences between this E sub-group and the other two were the difference in sex ratio and the fact that late-comers are often poor students. This indicates that small group counseling may be more effective with poor students.

In summary the findings related to changes in values and self-concept are

A. No significant changes were found in the relative position of values measured by the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values.

B. The significant change of self-concept on the Bills' "Index of Adjustment and Values" found in the one experimental sub-group may be due to the fact that they

were generally poorer students.

Conclusions

In reviewing the experiment and drawing conclusions, the experimenter feels that the experiment was worthwhile. There was a positive change in self-acceptance and a more positive view of one's peers for one of the sub-divisions of the experimental subjects (E₃). Although not statistically significant, the grade point averages for those who had experienced counseling were higher than the averages of those who had attended freshman orientation. The negative findings were not significant.

The slowness of the groups in moving into a counseling situation leads one to the conclusion that the first three or four group meetings were more nearly group guidance than group counseling. The fact that the groups started late in the semester, and that there was not sufficient time to orient them to group processes prior to the beginning of the counseling sessions possibly accounts for part of this.

One inescapable conclusion is that the experimental group had too few subjects for small differences to be significant. The direction of the changes found at the end of the experiment indicates that the concept of small group counseling might be helpful in improving grade point averages and self-concept if the weaknesses present in this investigation could be eliminated.

It is also necessary to conclude that the limitation of time should be recognized as a possible weakness. The groups were not sub-divided and the experiment begun until the fall semester was some six weeks old. The groups only met ten times each, with a break of two weeks for Christmas, near the end of the experiment. The groups were only beginning discussions in depth when the semester ended, and thus the experiment ended. If the counseling sessions could begin at the very first of the school year so that the groups could meet at least sixteen times, this might have a positive effect on the results.

Recommendations

Following the analysis of the results of this study, six recommendations are made for additional research:

1. Considering the research indications of the uniqueness of each college and university and the contradictory results of studies which utilized small group guidance, studies of this type should be made at other schools to better establish the effectiveness of small group counseling on attrition, academic achievement, and knowledge of self.
2. Research should be designed to study the effectiveness of small group counseling in this type of setting extended over a longer time period.
3. Studies of this type should use larger numbers of subjects in order to better be able to determine the significance of small changes.

4. Since the findings as shown by the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values were inconclusive, consideration should be given to the use of other instruments which measure self-concept rather than values and interests.

5. Techniques in addition to small group counseling should be used in assisting incoming freshmen. Self-concept measures might be used as learning devices by the counselor's going over the scores with the individual. The students involved in this study showed a need for information that might perhaps have been better met through the use of group guidance techniques rather than group counseling. A combination of the two should be most satisfactory.

6. Studies using groups differentiated on the basis of predicted achievement need to be made to determine the relative effectiveness of small group counseling.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Baxter, Cecil W., "Relationships Between Organizational Variables and Student Withdrawal Rates in Junior Colleges," unpublished dissertation, University of Texas, Austin, Texas, August, 1967, 82.
2. Broedel, John W., "A Study of the Effects of Group Counseling on the Academic Performance and Mental Health of Under-Achieving Gifted Adolescents," Dissertation Abstracts, IX(1959), 3019.
3. Clements, Barton E., "Transitional Adolescents, Anxiety, and Group Counseling," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLV(November, 1966), 89-92.
4. Dickerson and Truax, "Group Guidance with Underachievers," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLV (November, 1966), 243-247.
5. Gazde, George M. and Mary J. Larsen, "A Comprehensive Appraisal of Group and Multiple Counseling Research," Journal of Research and Development in Education, I(Winter, 1968), 57-66.
6. Guerney, Bernard G., Jr., Psychotherapeutic Agents, New York, Holt, Rinehart, Winston, Inc., 1969.
7. Guller, Irving B., "Increased Stability of Self-Concept in Students, Served by a College Counseling Center," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLVII(February, 1968), 546-551.
8. Iffert, R. E., Retention and Withdrawal of College Students, Bulletin No. 1, Washington, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1957.
9. Millinger, Morris, "Changing Trends Among Public Junior College Student Bodies," Junior College Journal, XXXIII(November, 1962), 167-176.
10. Sanford, Nevit, Self and Society, New York, Atherton Press, 1966.

11. Sheldon, William D. and Theodore Landsman, "An Investigation of Nondirective Group Therapy with Students in Academic Difficulty," Journal of Counseling Psychology, XIV(1950), 210-213.
12. Simon, Lora, "The Cooling-Out Function of the Junior College," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLV(June, 1967), 973-978.

APPENDIX

Summary of Small Group Counseling Sessions

Meeting 1

E₁

The first session was spent primarily discussing the purpose of the group and group procedures. After the experimenter had finished speaking, one of the group members voiced an interest in discussing the vote for 18-year olds. This was discussed by four or five of the members along with gun-law legislation, the war in Vietnam, and politics in general. There were a few periods of silence, but in general, the first meeting was productive. Everyone seemed to be at ease, and a certain amount of rapport was established.

E₂

At the first meeting of the group the purpose and method of the group meetings were stated, after which there was a period of silence. The group members then began asking direct questions of the experimenter. The group seemed to feel that they were together and the beginning of good rapport was established. About three students carried the conversation during the first meeting.

E₃

The third group met on Friday afternoon with three members absent. This group had a very light hearted spirit and were very animated. They listened to the counselor's explanation of the experiment and then spent the first part of the session asking direct questions of the counselor and then to cover the periods of silence between questions began discussing among themselves. About five members did most of the talking.

Meeting 2

E₁

Little progress was made in this meeting as far as discussion was concerned but there did seem to be some growth in group cohesion. Most of the conversation still concerned practical questions and answers of facts with little room for further discussion.

E₂

There was almost no progress in discussion during this session, but there seemed to be some growth in the feeling of togetherness. Most of the conversation was still concerned with direct and practical questions and answers concerning facts with little discussion.

E₃

All but one of the members of the group participated in the discussion in this session in some way. There were

several long periods of silence, but along with them was a very relaxed atmosphere and a feeling of ease.

Meeting 3

E₁

There was a general feeling of good will and something of a need to discuss was exhibited with approximately half of the group spending the whole time in friendly conversation. It was not, however, a conversation of depth.

E₂

There was a friendly discussion on varied subjects with approximately half of the group members participating. There was a growing feeling of group cohesiveness exhibited for the first time by this group.

E₃

This is still the most relaxed of the three subdivisions of E. The discussion was still general in nature, but participation was good and rapport was obvious.

Meeting 4

E₁

Group cohesiveness is increasing, but the discussion is still mainly centered around direct question and answer type problems which individual students have. Some feeling of group support and group action was shown.

E₂

The group cohesion shown at the previous meeting was still present and was increasing. This group began to show signs of being formed of two groups of students: (1) several who are interested in going to college and (2) several who are anxious to get out and go to work as soon as possible.

E₃

Group strength was very strong with the entire group. Several of the boys had to leave early to work on the rodeo preparations and the group had discussed this prior to the arrival of the counselor. They had taken a united stand. Discussion was general.

Meeting 5

E₁

This was the first real group discussion participated in by the majority of the members. They talked about group unity, group strength, the feeling of aloneness, and the need for self reliance.

E₂

A good feeling of group cohesiveness existed with a rather limited discussion on evolution, God, contemporary morals, and the mores of our society. There was good participation and a good feeling in the meeting.

E₃

This group went backwards instead of progressing in their discussion during this period. There was very little discussion but several questions and answers. There was still a feeling of being at ease together.

Meeting 6

E₁

This was the week of Thanksgiving holidays and this mood was exhibited during this session. There was good discussion with a lot of participation, and good in-group feeling.

E₂

The holiday meed prevailed, but there was still a good discussion and some attempt by the group to exert some force on one of the members who had been obstructing the discussion.

E₃

There was a good discussion concerned mainly with the place of the individual in the overall student body and how an individual might exert influence on bringing about change.

Meeting 7

E₁

There was no remarkable change from the previous weeks,

but there was a strong group feeling and the periods of silence were comfortable. The students began to make group decisions and be interested in their feelings as members of the group.

E₂

This session was very relaxed and had good participation by nearly all members. The first attempt was made by this group to control the behavior of a member.

E₃

There was a good discussion and a good feeling as a few of the group members began to mention personal problems and receive support from the group.

Meeting 8

E₁

The discussion was fairly general in the area of personal problems in school, but no one ventured into any real depth.

E₂

There was better participation in the discussion than in earlier sessions. The atmosphere was relaxed, and there was some discussion of problems.

E₃

This group was more settled than previously and had a good discussion with almost full participation. The

topic of concern still centered around the individual and his place in the whole.

Meeting 9

E₁

Discussions turned to problems of courses for the next semester and future plans of individual group members. These were offered tentatively as if the individuals were seeking approval from the group for what they wanted to do.

E₂

Several of this group had dropped out and part of the discussion centered around their reasons for dropping out and their prospects for future happiness. The discussion was very realistic.

E₃

Good discussion on the problems of being on probation or suspension and its effect on the individual.

Meeting 10

E₁, E₂, and E₃ all three sub-divisions took the two personality tests as their post-experiment tests.

BILLS' "INDEX OF ADJUSTMENT AND VALUES"

The following description of this instrument was taken from the introduction in the manual written by Dr. Bills. The IAV was designed to measure variables of importance to client-centered therapists and to perceptual theorists. In brief, this theory holds that behavior is consistent with a behavior's perceptions which are influenced by several variables including: his needs and values, the presence or absence of threat, opportunities for experience with stimuli, the perceiver's physiological state, and his beliefs about himself and other people. These latter beliefs include factors such as self-concept, concept of ideal self, acceptance of themselves.

The theory also states that behavior is the effort of a person to maintain or to enhance his self-organization. Stated in an oversimplified manner this implies, in part, that a person has information relative to his present self-organization (self-concept is part of this self-organization) and a view of himself as he wishes to be (concept of his ideal self). A significant portion of his behavior is aimed at bridging this gap. Furthermore, his self-satisfaction is directly related to the difference he perceives between his self-concept and his concept of his ideal self. Personal maladjustment exists when the discrepancy between

these two concepts is sufficiently large as to cause unhappiness.

Social maladjustment, on the other hand, develops in relationships with people where a person perceives himself as more or less adequate than his peers. Social adjustment is possible where a person believes he is adequate and has worth, dignity, and integrity and where he believes that other people have similar perceptions of themselves. A socially well-adjusted person cannot be personally maladjusted.

It is these variables which the IAV has been designed to measure. They include: self-concept, self-acceptance, concept of the ideal self, and perceptions of how other people accept themselves. In addition, the Index yields measures of the importance of each of 49 different traits in a person's value system.

ALLPORT-VERNON-LINDZEY STUDY OF VALUES

1. The Theoretical. The dominant interest of the theoretical man is the discovery of truth. In the pursuit of this goal he characteristically takes a "cognitive" attitude, one that looks for identities and differences; one that divests itself of judgments regarding the beauty or utility of objects, and seeks only to observe and to reason. Since the interests of the theoretical man are empirical, critical, and rational, he is necessarily an intellectualist, frequently a scientist or philosopher. His chief aim in life is to order and systematize his knowledge.

2. The Economic. The economic man is characteristically interested in what is useful. Based originally upon the satisfaction of bodily needs (self-preservation), the interest in utilities develops to embrace the practical affairs of the business world--the production, marketing, and consumption of goods, the elaboration of credit, and the accumulation of tangible wealth. This type is thoroughly "practical" and conforms well to the prevailing stereotype of the average American businessman.

The economic attitude frequently comes into conflict with other values. The economic man wants education to be practical, and regards unapplied knowledge as waste. Great

feats of engineering and application result from the demands economic men make upon science. The value of utility likewise conflicts with the aesthetic value, except when art serves commercial ends. In his personal life the economic man is likely to confuse luxury with beauty. In his relations with people, he is more likely to be interested in surpassing them in wealth than in dominating them (political attitude) or in serving them (social attitude). In some cases the economic man may be said to make his religion the worship of Mammon. In other instances, however, he may have regard for the traditional God, but inclines to consider Him as the giver of good gifts, of wealth, prosperity, and other tangible blessings.

3. The Aesthetic. The aesthetic man sees his highest value in form and harmony. Each single experience is judged from the standpoint of grace, symmetry, or fitness. He regards life as a procession of events; each single impression is enjoyed for its own sake. He need not be a creative artist, nor need he be effete; he is aesthetic if he but finds his chief interest in the artistic episodes of life.

The aesthetic attitude is, in a sense, diametrically opposed to the theoretical; the former is concerned with the diversity, and the latter with the identities of experience. The aesthetic man either chooses, with Keats, to consider truth as equivalent to beauty, or agrees with Mencken, that, "to make a thing charming is a million times

more important than to make it true." In the economic sphere the aesthetic sees the process of manufacturing, advertising, and trade as a wholesale destruction of the values most important to him. In social affairs he may be said to be interested in persons but not in the welfare of persons; he tends toward individualism and self-sufficiency. Aesthetic people often like the beautiful insignia of pomp and power, but oppose political activity when it makes for the repression of individuality. In the field of religion they are likely to confuse beauty with purer religious experience.

4. The Social. The highest value for this type is love of people. In the Study of Values it is the altruistic or philanthropic aspect of love that is measured. The social man prizes other persons as ends, and is therefore himself kind, sympathetic, and unselfish. He is likely to find the theoretical, economic, and aesthetic attitudes cold and inhuman. In contrast to the political type, the social man regards love as itself the only suitable form of human relationship. Spranger adds that in its purest form the social interest is selfless and tends to approach very closely to the religious attitude.

5. The Political. The political man is interested primarily in power. His activities are not necessarily within the narrow field of politics; but whatever his vocation, he betrays himself as a Machimensch. Leaders

in any field generally have high power value. Since competition and struggle play a large part in all life, many philosophers have seen power as the most universal and most fundamental of motives. There are, however, certain personalities in whom the desire for a direct expression of this motive is uppermost, who wish above all else for personal power, influence, and renown.

6. The Religious. The highest value of the religious man may be called unity. He is mystical, and seeks to comprehend the cosmos as a whole, to relate himself to its embracing totality. Spranger defines the religious man as one "whose mental structure is permanently directed to the creation of the highest and absolutely satisfying value experience." Some men of this type are "imminent mystics," that is, they find their religious experience in the affirmation of life and in active participation therein. A Faust with his zest and enthusiasm sees something divine in every event. The "transcendental mystic," on the other hand, seeks to unite himself with a higher reality by withdrawing from life; he is the ascetic, and like the holy men of India, finds the experience of unity through self-denial and meditation. In many individuals the negation and affirmation of life alternate to yield the greatest satisfaction.

TABLE V

COMPARISON OF MEAN CHANGE AND VARIANCES BETWEEN E AND C
GROUPS ON THE ALLPORT-VERNON-LINDZEY STUDY OF VALUES

Pre-Post Tests

Variable	Group I Mean		OBS 15 OBS 41 Variance	
	E ₁	C ₁	E ₁	C ₁
Theoretical	.20	1.32	14.29	36.36
Economic	2.20	.17	27.76	27.60
Aesthetic	2.13	- .71	32.25	30.01
Social	.67	- .68	28.49	46.26
Political	-1.53	.20	19.85	33.38
Religious	-3.80	- .78	18.69	25.88

TABLE VI

COMPARISON OF MEAN CHANGE AND VARIANCES BETWEEN E_2 AND C_2
 GROUPS ON THE ALLPORT-VERNON-LINDZEY STUDY OF VALUES

Variable	Group II Mean		OBS 15 OBS 39 Variance	
	E_2	C_2	E_2	C_2
Theoretical	4.82	.59	11.79	40.75
Economic	-2.18	-.18	17.60	40.20
Aesthetic	.09	1.44	38.81	80.55
Social	-.82	.13	30.88	40.21
Political	-2.36	-1.36	8.23	33.31
Religious	-.45	-.59	21.52	34.09

TABLE VII

COMPARISON OF MEAN CHANGE AND VARIANCES BETWEEN E_3 AND C_3
 GROUPS ON THE ALLPORT-VERNON-LINDZEY STUDY OF VALUES

Variable	Group III Mean		OBS 13 OBS 35 Variances	
	E_3	C_3	E_3	C_3
Theoretical	-1.15	- .29	42.59	23.00
Economic	-2.46	-1.74	39.79	23.96
Aesthetic	1.08	3.34	62.38	57.20
Social	1.23	.63	44.95	57.72
Political	1.62	-1.46	44.70	26.59
Religious	.00	- .71	52.46	34.78

TABLE IX

COMPARISON OF MEANS AND VARIANCES OF PRE-POST CHANGES ON THE
 VARIABLES OF BILLS' "INDEX OF ADJUSTMENT AND VALUES"
 FOR E₂ AND C₂

	Group I Mean		OBS 15 OBS 40 Variances	
	E ₁	C ₁	E ₁	C ₁
1. Self	3.60	5.00	121.30	180.70
2. Self	6.73	5.53	295.80	584.15
3. Self	6.87	-4.03	100.92	226.57
4. Peers	10.40	1.03	519.84	241.47
5. Peers	8.73	.63	431.00	599.68
6. Peers	2.13	-4.88	141.32	397.06

TABLE X

COMPARISON OF MEANS AND VARIANCES OF PRE-POST
 CHANGES ON THE VARIABLES OF BILLS'
 "INDEX OF ADJUSTMENT AND VALUES" FOR E_2 AND C_2

Variable	Group II Mean		OBS 11 OBS 40 Variances	
	E_2	C_2	E_2	C_2
1. Self	9.55	-6.33	100.25	208.49
2. Self	-2.64	3.05	454.60	284.90
3. Self	.64	2.38	194.60	387.83
4. Peers	-.36	.60	61.50	217.89
5. Peers	-1.36	1.23	233.69	329.27
6. Peers	-3.90	-1.50	125.36	379.90

TABLE XII

RAW MEANS AND GAINS FOR PRE-AND-POST TEST OF BILLS'
"INDEX OF ADJUSTMENT AND VALUES" AND NATIONAL MEANS

Variable	Control Group			Experimental Group			National Mean	Standard Deviation
	Pre	Post	Gain	Pre	Post	Gain		
1. Self	176	183	7	1. 191	185	-6	188.01	21.56
2. Self	166	169	3	2. 171	167	-4	177.68	26.19
3. Self	213	213	0	3. 212	216	4	219.49	21.80
4. Peer	180	183	3	4. 180	187	7	181.86	24.88
5. Peer	170	171	1	5. 171	173	2	178.24	26.25
6. Peer	211	207	-4	6. 210	215	5	210.41	25.66

TABLE XIII

RAW MEANS AND GAINS FOR PRE-AND-POST TEST OF ALLPORT,
VERNON, LINDZEY STUDY OF VALUES AND NATIONAL MEANS

Variable	Control Group			Experimental Group			National Mean	Standard Deviation
	Pre	Post	Gain	Pre	Post	Gain		
Theoretical	1. 41	42	1	1. 39	40	1	39.75	7.27
Economical	2. 42	41	-1	2. 43	43	0	40.33	7.11
Aesthetic	3. 34	35	1	3. 32	34	2	38.88	8.42
Social	4. 38	37	-1	4. 37	38	1	39.56	7.03
Political	5. 42	41	-1	5. 41	42	1	40.39	6.44
Religious	6. 44	43	-1	6. 44	43	-1	41.01	9.31

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Allport, Vernon, Lindzey, Study of Values Manual, 3rd edition, Boston, Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1960.
2. Anderson, R. L, "An Experimental Investigation of Group Counseling with Freshmen in a Women's College," Dissertation Abstracts, XVI(1965), 1100-1101.
3. Angyal, Andras, Neurosis and Treatment, New York, John Wiley and Sons, 1965.
4. Bates, Marilyn, "A Test of Group Counseling," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLVI(April, 1968), 749-753.
5. Baxter, Cecil W. J., "Relationships Between Organizational Variables and Student Withdrawal Rates in Junior Colleges," unpublished dissertation, University of Texas, Austin, Texas, August, 1967, 82.
6. Beamer, George C., "Orientation to College: Past, Present, and Future," Detroit Convention Abstracts, Washington, The American Personnel and Guidance Association (April, 1968), 475.
7. Bills, Robert E., "Index of Adjustment and Values," unpublished manual, College of Education, University of Alabama, Birmingham, Alabama.
8. Blocker, Clyde E. and Donald M. Anthony, "Social Status and Prestige in the Selection of a Program of Study in the Community Junior College," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLVI(June, 1968), 1005-1009.
9. Blocker, Clyde E., Robert H. Plummer, and Richard C. Richardson, Jr., The Two-Year College: A Social Synthesis, Englewood Cliffs, Prentice Hall, 1965.
10. Brammer, Lawrence and Everette Shostrom, Therapeutic Psychology, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960.
11. Broedel, John W., "A Study of the Effects of Group Counseling on the Academic Performance and Mental

Health of Underachieving Gifted Adolescents,"
Dissertation Abstracts, IX(1959), 3019.

12. Buros, Oscar K., The Sixth Mental Measurements Yearbook, New Jersey, The Gryphon Press, 1967, 384-387.
13. Buschman, William O., "Probation Students," School and Society, LXXVI(October, 1953), 232-234.
14. Calhoun, S. R., "The Effects of Counseling a Group of Underachievers," School Review, LXIV(October, 1956), 312-316.
15. Calia, Vincent R., "Small Group Experiences as an Adjunct to Counseling," Junior College Journal, XXIX(May, 1959), 401-404.
16. Carlson, J. Spencer and Kenneth Wegner, "The Poor Shall Always Be With Us: College Dropouts," Phi Delta Kappan, XXVI(March, 1965), 325-327.
17. Chambers, Frank M., "A College Admission Policy to Reduce Attrition," Junior College Journal, XXI (January, 1961), 250-254.
18. Christenson, E. W., "Group Counseling with Selected Scholarship Students," Dissertation Abstracts, XXIV(1963), 619-620.
19. Chapman, Elwood, So, You're a College Freshman, Chicago Research Associates, Inc., 1967.
20. Clements, Barton E., "Transitional Adolescents, Anxiety and Group Counseling," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLV(September, 1966), 67.
21. Collins, Charles C., Junior College Student Personnel Programs: What They Are and What They Should Be, American Association of Junior Colleges, 1967.
22. Combs, A. W., "Adjustment Through Guidance and Special Services," Educational Leadership, XIV(November, 1958), 89-92.
23. Combs, A. W. and D. Snygg, Individual Behavior: A Perceptual Approach to Behavior, New York, Harper, 1959.
24. Corsini, Raymond J., Methods of Group Psychotherapy, Chicago, William James Press, 1964.

25. Davis, Kathleen L., "The Sensitivity of Selected Instruments to Personality Changes Produced by Group Counseling," Dissertation Abstracts, XXVIII(April-June, 1968), 3968-A.
26. Dickenson, Walter A., and Charles B. Truax, "Group Counseling with College Underachievers," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLV(November, 1966), 243-247.
27. Dye, H. Allan, "Fundamental Group Procedures for School Counselors," Guidance Monograph Series, Houghton-Mifflin Company, Boston, 1968.
28. Faries, Miriam, "Short-Term Counseling at the College Level," Journal of Counseling Psychology, II (Fall, 1955), 182-184.
29. Garneski, Thomas M. and Robert Heiman, "Summer Group Counseling of Freshmen," Junior College Journal, XXXVII(May, 1967), 40-43.
30. Gazda, George and Mary J. Larsen, "A Comprehensive Appraisal of Group and Multiple Counseling Research," Journal of Research and Development in Education, I(Winter, 1968), 57-66.
31. Gekoski, Morman and Solomon Schwartz, "Student Mortality and Related Factors," Journal of Education Research, LIV(January, 1961), 192-194.
32. Gladstein, Gerald A., "Doctoral Research in College Student Personnel Work," The Journal of College Student Personnel, IX(January, 1968), 15-20.
33. Grace, H. A., "Personality Factors and College Attrition," Peabody Journal of Education, XXV(July, 1957), 36-40.
34. Guerney, Bernard G., Jr., Psychotherapeutic Agents, New York, Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1969.
35. Guller, Irving B., "Increased Stability of Self-Concept in Students, Served by a College Counseling Center," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLVII(February, 1968), 546-551.
36. Hosford, Ray E. and Alan S. Briskin, "Changes Through Counseling," Review of Educational Research, XXXIX(April, 1954), 189-207.

37. Hoyt, Donald P., "Description and Prediction of Diversity Among Junior Colleges," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLVI(June, 1968), 997-1004.
38. Iffert, R. E., "Retention and Withdrawal of College Students," Bulletin No. 1, Washington, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1957.
39. Jones, Edward S., "What Is He Like and What Can Be Done About It," Journal of Educational Research, XL (October, 1955), 93-102.
40. Klopf, Gordon, editor, "College Student Personnel Work in the Years Ahead," Washington, the American College Personnel Association.
41. Krumboltz, John D., "A Behavioral Approach to Group Counseling and Therapy," Journal of Research and Development in Education, I(November, 1968), 4-5.
42. Lafferty, V. C., "Values that Defeat Learning," National Association of Secondary School Principals, Bulletin, LII(May, 1968), 201-212.
43. Lavin, David E., The Prediction of Academic Performance, New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1965.
44. Lecky, P., Self-Consistency: A Theory of Personality, New York, Island Press, 1945.
45. Leib, J. W. and W. W. Snyder, "Effects of Group Discussion on Underachievement and Self-Actualization," Journal of Counseling Psychology, XIV(1967), 282-285.
46. Lifton, Walter M., "Orientation," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, 3rd ed., New York, The MacMillan Co., 1960.
47. Maddi, Salvatore R., Personality Theories, A Comparative Analysis, Homewood, Illinois, The Dorsey Press, 1968.
48. Marsh, Lee, "College Dropouts: A Review," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLIV(January, 1966), 475-481.
49. Mathewson, Robert H. Guidance Policy and Practice, New York, Harper and Brothers, 1955.

50. Matson, Jane Elizabeth, "Characteristics of Students Who Withdrew from a Public Junior College," Dissertation Abstracts, XV(1955), 1787-1788.
51. Mellinger, Morris, "Changing Trends Among Public Junior College Student Bodies," Junior College Journal, XXXIII(November, 1962), 167-176.
52. Moustakas, Clark E., editor, The Self, Explorations in Personal Growth, New York, Harper and Row, 1956.
53. Muro, James J. and Stanley L. Freeman, editors, Readings in Group Counseling, Scranton, Pennsylvania, International Textbook Co., 1968.
54. Pappas, John G., "Student Reactions to a Small Group Orientation Approach," College and University, XLIII(Fall, 1967), 84-89.
55. Richards, James M., Jr., Leonard P. Rand, and Lorraine M. Rand, "Regional Differences in Junior Colleges," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLV(June, 1967), 987-992.
56. Rogers, Carl, Client-Centered Therapy: Its Current Practice, Implications, and Theory, Boston, Houghton-Mifflin, 1951.
57. Roth, Robert M. and Hans O. Mauksch and Kenneth Peiser, "The Non-Achievement Syndrome, Group Therapy, and Achievement Change," The Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLVI(1967), 393-398.
58. Sanford, Nevit, Self and Society, New York, Atherton Press, 1966.
59. Schuldt, W. J. and C. B. Truax, "Client Awareness of Adjustment in Self and Ideal-Self Concepts," Journal of Counseling Psychology, XV(March, 1968), 158-159.
60. Scott, William A., "Comparative Validities of Forced-Choice and Single Stimulus Test," Psychological Bulletin, 1969.
61. Sheldon, William D. and Theodore Landsman, "An Investigation of Nondirective Group Therapy with Students in Academic Difficulty," Journal of Counseling Psychology, XIV(1950), 210-213.

62. Sidwell, Paul Phillip, "A Case Study of Selected Factors Relating to Continuance or Withdrawal of Full-Time Freshmen at Grand Rapids Junior College," Dissertation Abstracts, XXIII(1962) 1256-1257.
63. Simon, Lora, "The Cooling-Out Function of the Junior College," Personnel and Guidance Journal, XLIV (June, 1967), 973.
64. Smith, B. M., "Small Group Meetings of College Freshmen and Frequency of Withdrawals," Journal of College Student Personnel, IV(1963), 165-170.
65. Summerskill, John, "Dropouts from College," The American College, edited by Nevit Sanford, New York, John Wiley and Sons, 1962, 629-631.
66. Warner, O. Ray, "The Scholastic Ability of School Dropouts," School Life, XVII(October, 1964), 21-22.
67. Warters, Jane, Group Guidance: Principles and Practices, New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960.
68. Wideman, John W., "College Undergraduate Dropouts," Bulletin, National Association of Secondary School Principals, 224-234.
69. Williams, J. A. et al, editors, Journal of Research and Development in Education, I(Winter, 1968).
70. Zimpfer, David G., "Some Conceptual and Research Problems in Group Counseling," The School Counselor, XV(May, 1968), 326-333.