

THE EFFECTS OF GROUP, GROUP-INDIVIDUAL, AND INDIVIDUAL
COUNSELING ON CHANGES IN SELF-PERCEPTIONS OF HIGH
SCHOOL SOPHOMORES OF LOW-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

by

Cary Donald Atkins,

Dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
in
Counseling and Student Personnel Services

APPROVED:

D. L. Hummel, Chairman

S. A. Tschumi

T. H. Hohenshil

N. A. Sheppard

D. E. Hinkle

February, 1977
Blacksburg, Virginia

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

My sincerest thanks is given to the following members of my doctoral committee: _____, _____, _____, _____, and _____ Committee Chairman. To _____ goes a special note of appreciation for his valuable advice and genuine interest during the investigation which inspired me to "Never Give In!"

Without the assistance of _____, Director of Pupil Personnel Services for the Roanoke City Public Schools and _____, Coordinator of Guidance, William Fleming Senior High School, Roanoke City, this study would have been difficult to accomplish.

I also thank _____ (my marriage partner) and my dog, _____, for their patience and sacrifice in this venture.

Finally, my hearty appreciation is given to both _____ and _____ for their meticulous proof-reading and typing of this manuscript respectively.

C. D. A.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	ii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iii
LIST OF TABLES	vii
LIST OF FIGURES	viii

Chapter

1	INTRODUCTION	1
	Basic Assumptions	3
	Statement of the Problem	4
	Definition of Terms	5
	Hypotheses	6
	Significance of the Problem	7
	Limitations of the Study	9
	Summary	10
	Organization of the Study	10
2	REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	12
	Self-Perceptions in Middle Childhood and Adolescence	14
	Middle Childhood	14
	Adolescence	16
	Discussion and summary	18
	Sex, Social Difference and the Self-Perception	20
	Discussion and summary	24

Chapter		Page
	Client-Centered Counseling	25
	Discussion and summary	27
	Group-Counseling	28
	Discussion and summary	32
	Group-Individual Counseling	33
	Discussion and summary	36
	Individual Counseling	36
	Discussion and summary	39
	Summary	39
3	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	44
	Population and Sample	44
	Selection of the Subjects	45
	Procedures	46
	Treatment Process	46
	Data Collection	47
	Counseling Style	48
	Investigator	50
	Instrumentation	51
	Personal Orientation Inventory	51
	Validation of the POI	51
	Reliability of the POI	52
	Range of Scores	52
	Experimental Design	53
	Treatment Variables	54

Chapter		Page
	Group Counseling	54
	Group-Individual Counseling	54
	Individual-Counseling	54
	No Counseling	54
	Concomitant Variable	56
	Sex	56
	Independent Variables	56
	Self-Perception	56
	Self-Regard	56
	Self-Acceptance	56
	Data Analysis	56
	Summary	58
4	RESULTS	59
	Hypotheses	59
	Multivariate Analysis of Covariance	60
	Discussion	67
	Non-Statistical Aspects of the Findings	69
	Summary	73
5	DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS	74
	Discussion	74
	Self-Perception	74
	Sex and Self-Perception	76
	Group Counseling	78
	Group-Individual Counseling	82

Chapter	Page
Individual Counseling	86
The Self-Regard/Self-Acceptance Paradox	89
Conclusions	92
Summary	94
Recommendations for Action and Further Research	96
Recommended Actions	96
Recommended Research	98
BIBLIOGRAPHY	100
APPENDIXES	
A. CRITERIA AND PROCEDURES FOR IDENTIFYING LOW-ECONOMIC STUDENTS	103
B. TREATMENT PROCESS AND CONTENT	113
VITA	136

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1	Summary of Multivariate Analysis of Covariance for Treatment and Sex of Subjects Relating to Self-Regard and Self-Acceptance	61
2	Pretest-Posttest Mean Scores for Self-Regard and Self-Acceptance by Sexes and by Treatment Group	63
3	Pretest-Posttest Mean Scores for Self-Regard and Self-Acceptance by Sexes Within Groups	66

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1.	A Paradigm of the Design Used in this Study Indicating the Subjects Beginning (n=40) and Completing (n=28) Treatment	55

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

The way in which young persons of today meet the problems of months and years hence will be contingent upon their present self-perceptions and attitudes toward a rapidly changing world. Erikson (1960) indicated that adolescents look for some understanding of themselves and their significance in the world. Consequently, educators have encouraged counselors to become attuned to their clients' personal development. Wrenn (1966) voiced his concern that counselors had not developed basic insights into the nature of human development and the adjustment problems faced by clients in this change oriented world.

A major contemporary challenge for school counseling programs is that of providing more effective approaches in aiding disadvantaged students. With this challenge there has evolved a call for efforts to facilitate the assessment and enhancement of students' self-perceptions (Clark, 1963; Marston, 1968; Tannenbaum, 1967). Few research studies were found that dealt with the self-perceptions held by disadvantaged students. Closson (1972), Densley (1968), Dixon (1972), Gordon (1974), Healey (1970), Keller (1963), Long, et al. (1968), Lord (1970), Odom (1973), Owen (1972), Rosenberg and Simmons (1968), Soares and Soares (1969), Soares and Soares (1971), Trowbridge, et al. (1972), and Whiteman and Deutsch (1968) though not unanimous in agreement, have given credence to the

assumption that disadvantaged students have lower self-perceptions than non-disadvantaged students.

The assumption that disadvantaged students possess lower self-perceptions than non-disadvantaged students poses the challenge to educators. Research should be designed to determine the effects on self-perception which will result in optimum achievement and positive growth (Brookover & Thomas, 1963; Caplin, 1968; Campbell, 1965; Closson, 1972; Coleman, 1966; Epps, 1969; Frerichs, 1970; Myers, 1966; Paschal, 1968). Jersild (1960) has given an explanation of what occurs when the self is observed in derogatory terms.

He will have difficulty in seeing or learning anything better, and, although he may not openly express self-depreciatory attitudes, he has a depreciatory attitude toward others and towards himself (p. 42).

The Educational Policies Commission (1963) stated:

The disadvantaged are the main victims of practices that frustrate the development of self-respect The resulting sense of inferiority and exclusion is most severe among Negroes, but it is seriously felt among Puerto Ricans and Mexican-Americans, whom other whites commonly regard as nonwhite (p. 33).

Since low-economic students were depicted by many researchers as viewing themselves in derogatory terms, the present study attempted to determine the extent to which the assessed self-perception of low-economic sophomores was influenced by group counseling, group-individual counseling, or individual counseling. These three procedures were selected because group counseling appeared to be approximately as effective as individual counseling (Rohde, 1965; Scofield,

1969; Stockey, 1961). If group counseling and individual counseling are approximately as effective; then, the use of the combination group-individual counseling may be a potent procedure for influencing self-perception.

A study that contains these three alternatives: group counseling, group-individual counseling, and individual counseling offered the opportunity to observe these counseling procedures within the same experimental design and with a common population. Other studies have used only two of these procedures in any one study and each study used different populations (Dunkleberger, 1967; Easterwood, 1973; Glover, 1973; Lipscomb, 1967; Rohde, 1965; Scofield, 1969).

In this study, one counselor utilized three procedures, eleven weeks each, to aid forty students in taking a realistic view of their self-perceptions: group counseling, group-individual counseling, individual counseling, and no counseling (control). This study attempted to assess the effectiveness of those procedures as an approach to facilitating changes in the self-perceptions of adolescents from low-economic backgrounds.

Basic Assumptions

It is axiomatic that pervasive in many studies are assumptions not tested, because they are viewed as being based on accepted concepts. The assumptions accompanying this investigation are as follows:

1. Low-economic students have self-perceptions that are more negative than the self-perceptions possessed by affluent students.

2. A positive self-perception is important for optimum educational achievement.

3. Group-counseling, group-individual counseling, and individual counseling are effective in facilitating positive changes in self-perceptions.

4. The subjects would candidly answer the questions on the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) to the best of their understanding.

Statement of the Problem

The central problem of this study was to investigate the effects of group counseling, group-individual counseling, and individual counseling on changes in self-perceptions of high school sophomores of low-economic background. More specifically, the following questions provided the major focus of the study:

1. Is there a difference among counseling procedures with respect to the effects upon changes in self-regard and self-acceptance of low-economic sophomores on the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI)?

2. Is there a difference between the sexes with respect to changes in self-regard and self-acceptance of low-economic sophomores on the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI)?

3. Is there an interaction between treatment and sex with respect to changes in self-regard and self-acceptance on the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI)?

Definition of Terms

Group Counseling. Group counseling is defined as "an accepting, trusting, encouraging relationship between a counselor" (facilitator) and ten clients to work on self-exploration and self-understanding. (Ohlsen 1970, p. 24)

Group-Individual Counseling. Group-individual counseling consists of group counseling defined as "an accepting, trusting, encouraging relationship between a counselor" (facilitator) and ten clients to work on self-exploration and self-understanding, and individual counseling defined as "an accepting, trusting, encouraging relationship between a counselor" and one client to aid the client in self-exploration and self-understanding alternated weekly. (Ohlsen 1970, p. 24)

Individual Counseling. Individual counseling is defined as "an accepting, trusting, encouraging relationship between a counselor" and one client to aid the client in self-exploration and self-understanding. (Ohlsen 1970, p. 24)

Low-Economic Students. Low-economic students are identified as being low-economic according to federal guidelines disseminated to local governments. Their identification results in free meals, milk, or reduced priced meals. (Appendix A.)

Self-Regard. Self-regard is the "ability to like one's self because of one's strengths," as measured by the POI. (Shostrom 1966, p. 20)

Self-Acceptance. Self-acceptance is the "ability to like one's self in spite of one's weaknesses," as measured by the POI. (Shostrom 1966, p. 20)

Self-Perception. Self-perception is the concurrent interpretation of the "Self-Acceptance" and "Self-Regard" scales on the POI.

Self-Concept. "A unique set of perceptions, ideas, and attitudes which an individual has about himself." (Felker 1974, p. 2)

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses, developed from the research questions and stated in the null form, were tested at the .05 level of significance.

Ho_{1a}: There is no difference between the mean self-regard score on the treatment groups.

Ho_{1b}: There is no difference between the mean self-acceptance score on the POI for the treatment groups.

Ho_{2a}: There is no difference between the mean self-regard score on the POI for males and females.

Ho_{2b}: There is no difference between the mean self-acceptance score on the POI for males and females.

Ho_{3a}: There is no difference between the mean self-regard score on the POI for males and females within treatment groups.

Ho_{3b}: There is no difference between the mean self-acceptance score on the POI for males and females within treatment groups.

Significance of the Problem

In an attempt to respond to the need to aid students in adjustment, research has been conducted in the area of self-perception. Studies found were concerned with procedures used in an attempt to facilitate growth in self-perception. Clausen (1971), Duncan (1965), Gaston (1972), Jones (1971), and Letner (1969) all used group counseling but obtained inconsistent results. Dunkleberger (1967), Easterwood (1973), Glover (1973), Lipscomb (1967), Rohde (1965), Scofield (1969), and Smith (1971) used group individual counseling. They concluded that group counseling, group-individual counseling, and individual counseling have potential for facilitating positive growth in the self-perception.

The studies cited have emphasized research concentrating on three counseling procedures to change self-perception. Glover (1973), Lipscomb (1967), and Zirkle (1972) emphasized the need for more research to develop techniques that enhance the self-perception and self-concept of disadvantaged students. The importance of the need to enhance the self-concept of disadvantaged students appeared to support an investigative study for the purpose of assessing the effectiveness of three counseling procedures to facilitate changes in the self-perception.

Counseling is considered an essential part of programs that are designed to help students from low-economic backgrounds. Ohlsen (1970) explained what counseling offers the individual client.

Counseling is an accepting, trusting, and safe relationship between a counselor and one or more clients. Within this relationship clients learn to face, express, and cope with their most disturbing feelings and thoughts; they also develop the courage and self-confidence to apply what they have learned in changing their behavior (p. 1).

Counseling is used not to encourage low-economic students to accept middle class values, but to encourage the valuing of one's self based upon self worth and peer support. A study by Davidson and Lang (1960) indicated that the assessed value a child makes of himself is based upon the evaluation significant people such as teachers make of him. Since it is impossible to report precisely that teachers value low-economic students highly; it is essential to offer services to low-economic students that encourage the valuing of self.

In connection with the value of counseling (Eysenck, 1965), the question may arise as to whether counseling brings about changes in self-perception. A further question is whether differences in the changes in self-perception can be attributed to counseling or the lack of it among the groups that received different treatments: group counseling, group-individual counseling, individual counseling, or no counseling?

In light of the few studies relevant to the self-perceptions held by low-economic students, the need for additional studies to

examine the effects of group, group-individual, and individual counseling on the self-perceptions of low-economic sophomores as measured by the self-regard and self-acceptance scales on the POI appeared important.

Limitations of the Study

This study was conducted in an attempt to determine whether changes in self-perceptions by means of three counseling procedures were possible, but certain limitations were placed upon this investigation, due to its developmental approach. Specifically, they were:

1. The investigator was the counselor for all treatment groups. A post-hock evaluation of audio-taped counseling sessions revealed a number of counselor variations from what is considered appropriate for counselor behavior in client-centered counseling (a discussion of these variations and the effects they may have had on process is found in Chapter 4, pages 67 through 69).
2. The use of low-economic students from a population of one public high school reduced the generalizability of the findings of this study.
3. The instrument used in this study was a self-report instrument. The subjective nature of the instrument was acknowledged.
4. Instrumentation posed a possible threat to internal validity because the results may have been contaminated by the apparent difficulty that some subjects experienced in answering questions on the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI).

Summary

A problem exists as to whether students from disadvantaged backgrounds have lower self-perceptions than students from advantaged backgrounds. According to prior research (Densley, 1968; Keller, 1963; Long, et al., 1968; etc.) credence is given to the assumption that disadvantaged students have self-perceptions more negative than advantaged students. Consequently, there appeared a strong basis for examining the possibility of changing disadvantaged students' self-perceptions.

Group counseling, group-individual counseling, and individual counseling are viewed as having potential for facilitating positive changes in self-perceptions. Researchers (Glover, 1973; Lipscomb, 1967; Zirkle, 1972) have also emphasized the need for more research to develop new techniques and to confirm established procedures that enhance the self-perceptions of disadvantaged students.

The need to enhance the self-perceptions of disadvantaged students appeared to support an investigative study designed to assess the effectiveness of three counseling procedures to facilitate changes in the self-perceptions of low-economic sophomores.

Organization of the Study

A review of the literature related to self-perceptions in middle childhood and adolescence, sex, social difference and the self-perception, client-centered counseling, group counseling, group-individual counseling and individual counseling is reported in Chapter 2.

A description of the basic design of the study is found in Chapter 3. It indicates a report on sample selection, methodology and procedures, an analysis of the measurement instrument, and the manner in which the data were collected and analyzed.

An analysis of the data is found in Chapter 4.

And finally, the discussion, conclusions, summary, and recommendations are found in Chapter 5.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The context of this chapter is research related to the study of the effects of group counseling, group-individual counseling, and individual counseling on changes in self-perception of high school sophomores of low-economic background. The first section of this chapter reviews results of studies concerned with the self-concepts of disadvantaged students during middle childhood, 6 to 12 years old, and during adolescence, 12 to 18 years old (Havighurst, 1953). Section two reviews studies on sex, social difference and the self-perception. In section three research studies which used the client-centered counseling approach are reviewed. Section four reviews studies which attempted to change self-concepts held by individuals through group counseling procedures. In section five one finds research studies which attempted to influence the self-concepts held by individuals through group-individual counseling or combinations of the three counseling procedures being studied. One finds a research study in section six which attempted to change self-concepts through individual counseling procedures.

The review of literature was limited to: (1) research studies which attempted to indicate the view of self-concepts or self-perceptions held by disadvantaged students, (2) research studies dealing with the client centered counseling approach, and (3) to research studies that attempted to change self-concept, self-perception,

self-acceptance, or self-regard in individuals through group counseling, group-individual counseling or individual counseling procedures.

Dynamic changes in the world of work and society in general have created the need for greater understanding and insights into the perception of self held by individuals from economically deprived backgrounds (Cook, 1971). A point of view expressed by Combs and Snygg (1959) is that the concept of self is based upon an individuals organized perception of self and the environment resulting in action through motivation. Rogers (1947) looked at individual behavior in terms of self-theory. He described the situation in the following manner:

It would appear that when all of the ways in which the individual perceives himself . . . all perceptions of the qualities, abilities, impulses, and attitudes of the person, and all perceptions of himself in relation to others . . . are accepted into the organized conscious concept of the self, then this achievement is accompanied by feelings of comfort and freedom from tension which are experienced as psychological adjustment (p. 364).

A person's self-concept is reflected in his behavior (McCandles, 1971). Good behavior reflects good personal and social adjustment, and poor self-concept reflects poor adjustment. Research has been conducted to relate the dimensions of self-concept to middle childhood and socioeconomic background and to adolescence and socioeconomic background.

Self-Perceptions in Middle
Childhood and Adolescence

Middle Childhood. In an attempt to relate self-perceptions to socioeconomic backgrounds Soares and Soares (1969) exposed 229 disadvantaged and 285 advantaged fourth through eighth grade subjects to a variety of measuring devices. They reported that subjects from disadvantaged area schools were found to have higher mean self-perception scores than subjects from advantaged area schools, but the self-perceptions held by disadvantaged subjects tended to deviate more from the mean.

Trowbridge, Trowbridge and Trowbridge (1972) supported the findings of Soares and Soares that low socioeconomic students have more positive perceptions of self than students of middle class backgrounds. The self-concepts of 3,789 subjects in the third through eighth grades were assessed with the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory. The authors indicated that socioeconomic status was significantly related to self-perception.

Odom's (1973) findings failed to support both Soares and Soares and Trowbridge, et al. that low socioeconomic status indicates high positive self-concept. Odom assessed the self-perceptions of sixty-eight disadvantaged fourth- and sixth-graders. Teachers were found to constantly rate students higher in self-perception than students rated themselves. Students consistently indicated low-positive self-perceptions for themselves.

Disadvantaged elementary students also felt more negatively about themselves as "Learners" than advantaged students in Owen's

(1972) study. Students were rated by their homeroom teachers. Those students in the fifth-and-sixth-grades were administered Self-Concept As A Learner, a standardized instrument. Owen found disadvantaged students to score significantly lower on all factors rated by homeroom teachers and on three of four factors found on the standardized instrument.

Other reported research substantiates the findings of both the Odom and Owen studies that disadvantaged students feel more negatively about themselves than advantaged students. Keller (1963) described some aspects of low-economic New York City school children. Her sample consisted of forty-six first-and-fifth-grade students (black and white) who were living and attending school in the poorer section of New York City. The forty-six students studied by Keller expressed a low self-esteem and drew unfavorable comparisons between themselves and their school mates. The proportion of unfavorable self-concepts increased from the first grade (55 percent) to the fifth grade (65 percent).

Whiteman and Deutsch (1968) attempted to identify some specific background variables which were related to the development of linguistic and cognitive skills. One hundred sixty-five fifth and 127 first grade subjects were categorized as being in one of three socioeconomic levels. The authors formed a deprivation index. They found the deprivation index and self-concept to be highly related. Whiteman and Deutsch concluded that more deprived children tend to have lower self-concepts than advantaged children.

Lord (1970) performed dissertation research with third, sixth and tenth grade students to determine if the self-concepts of economically poor, Appalachian "hollow" children differed from the self-concept of urban, economically advantaged Appalachian children. The self-concepts of 299 children were assessed in Lord's study. She found the self-concepts of economically advantaged children to be more positive than the self-concepts of the economically disadvantaged children.

Adolescence. Rosenberg and Simmons (1968) investigated the self-esteem among black and white children. The sample consisted of 1,917 children from the third-through-twelfth-grades. Each student was interviewed resulting in answers to questions from a Guttman scale. Socioeconomic status was found to have a bearing upon the self-esteem of white children, but no effects upon the self-esteem of blacks. Forty-five percent of the white students in the lowest economic levels scored low in self-esteem, but socioeconomic level appeared to make virtually no difference in the self-esteem of black children.

The results of Dixon's (1972) study did not support the findings of Rosenberg and Simmons. Dixon investigated the self concepts of 200 disadvantaged Negro children in grades eight through twelve to compare their self-concepts with the self-concepts of non-disadvantaged Negro children. The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale was used to assess self-concept. Dixon found negative self-concepts in disadvantaged Negro subjects and positive self-concepts in advantaged Negro subjects.

The self-concepts of disadvantaged and advantaged Negro subjects were significantly different. Dixon concluded that advantaged/disadvantaged was the major distinguishing variable in determining the self-perceptions of Negro children.

In a study by Soares and Soares (1971) both disadvantaged and advantaged high school subjects were found to have lower self-perceptions than elementary subjects. Six hundred sixty-one subjects were administered an inventory of bi-polar traits. The self-images held by younger children were found to be higher than those held by high school adolescents.

Other research consistently supported the relationship that appeared to exist between low-economic status and low self-perception. Long, Liller and Henderson (1968) examined the self-esteem held by 295 students in the sixth-through-twelfth-grades from different economic levels. The student's form of the Social Self-Esteem Measure was used to assess change. The authors concluded that self-esteem and socioeconomic status were positively associated in their sample of subjects.

Healey's (1970) dissertation research investigated the self-concepts held by Negro, Anglo-American, and Spanish-American students to determine if a difference existed. Six hundred seven ninth-grade students composed the sample. The Tennessee Self Concept Scale was used to measure self-concept. Healey concluded that individuals in lower socioeconomic classes were not as happy with the way they saw themselves as were those individuals in higher socioeconomic positions.

Gordon (1974) compared the self-concept of 160 inner city adolescents and dropouts. Eighty subjects were from a continuation school (drop-outs), and eighty subjects were attending a large inner city high school. Each group was half male and half female. The subjects were administered the Adjustive Check List (Gordon, 1974) to obtain information on their self-concepts. Gordon found that continuation subjects tended to score lower on those variables related to positive self-esteem than the adolescents. Gordon indicated that both groups had lower self-concepts when compared with the Adjustive Check List's normative group.

After conducting a study on the influence of living in communities of different sizes, socioeconomic status, and the general learning ability on the student's formulation of his aptitude self-concept for 143 eleventh-grade boys, Densley (1968) found that students with lower socioeconomic status had lower self-concepts of their ability in relation to actual ability than students of a higher economic status.

Closon (1972) indicated that remedial needs of the disadvantaged should focus initially on non-academic factors. He studied 120 sixteen year old disadvantaged subjects to examine the effects of open classroom on their self-concepts. The Tennessee Self Concept Scale was used to assess change. Closon found the self-concepts of disadvantaged students gained significantly.

Discussion and summary. There was some inconsistency among research studies as to the relationship of advantage/disadvantage and

positive/negative self-perception. Soares and Soares (1969) and Trowbridge, et al. (1972) found that low-socioeconomic students had more positive perceptions of self than students of middle class backgrounds. However, their findings were not supported by other researchers. Odom (1973), Whiteman and Deutsch (1968), Lord (1970), Rosenberg and Simmons (1968), Dixon (1972), Long, et al. (1968), Healey (1970), and Gordon (1974) found that disadvantaged students had lower self-perceptions than advantaged students. There also appeared a strong positive relationship between self-perception and economic deprivation. On a deprived/affluent (middle class) continuum, there seemed a gradual increase in positive self-perception as one moved from deprived to more affluent. A marked difference in self-perception appeared when students at the extremes were compared. Disadvantaged students at the elementary level seemed to have had higher self-perceptions than disadvantaged students at the junior and senior high school levels (Keller, 1963; Soares and Soares, 1971). Disadvantaged students also appeared to have lower concepts of their academic ability in relationship to actual ability than students of a higher economic status (Owen, 1972; Densley, 1968). In order that disadvantaged students might take full advantage of academic challenges, they should be offered remedial needs that focus initially on non-academic factors such as their self-perceptions (Closon, 1972).

In summary, the research cited on self-perceptions in middle childhood and adolescence seemed to indicate the following:

1. There appeared a positive relationship between low-economic status and low self-perception.
2. Self-perceptions of low socioeconomic students seemed to become more negative as they move from elementary to high school.
3. Disadvantaged children in middle childhood and adolescence seemed to have lower self-perceptions than advantaged children in middle childhood and adolescence.
4. A student's self-perception seemed to affect his perception of his academic ability.

Sex, Social Difference and the Self-Perception

Research concerning the degree to which females and males have accepted society's sex role stereotypes has been attempted (McKee & Sherriffs, 1957, 1959; Sherriffs & McKee, 1957). The findings indicated that both female and male college students depicted males as being superior to females.

Studies referred to in Lynn (1959) suggested that there is a progressive increase from age eight in the unfavorability of the female stereotype.

The self-concepts held by females and males without regard to stereotypes have been investigated in recent studies.

Prendergast (1974) investigated the relationship of self-image to race, social class, urban city, and age among 1,800 girl

scouts aged nine through seventeen. During personal interviews, each girl was asked to respond to six questions. Each question was scored on a four point scale. The author found social class not to be a significant variable in depicting self-images held by girls in the sample.

Bohan (1973) investigated two classes each of 4th, 6th, 8th, and 10th-grade middle class students to determine if there were an age or sex difference in self-concept. All subjects were administered the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory. A significant sex difference was found at the 10th grade level, with girls showing lower self-concept scores than their male peers. Tenth-grade girls also showed significantly lower self-concept scores than did girls of any other age group. Bohan concluded, "Both age and sex comparisons, then, reveal significantly lower self-concept scores for 10th-grade girls than for any comparison group" (p. 382). Bohan also supported Prendergast's conclusion that social class was not a significant variable in discerning positive or negative self-concept.

Hishiki (1969) did not support either Prendergast or Bohan's findings. Hishiki investigated the self-concept of sixth-grade girls of Mexican-American descent. She examined two groups of girls; one group was Mexican-American and the other Caucasian. A child self-description scale and a self-concept scale, developed by investigators of a similar study, were used to examine self-concepts. Hishiki found the self-concepts held by Mexican-American girls to be significantly lower than the self-concepts of the Caucasian girls.

Carpenter and Busse (1969) joins Hishiki in the belief that social class is a significant variable in discerning positive or negative self-concept. They investigated the belief that black children systematically showed increasingly negative self-concepts when compared with a group of white children of equal social status. The subjects were forty first-grade children and forty fifth-grade children from welfare homes. One-half of each group was black and the other one-half white. Each subject was administered the "Where Are You Game." Girls were found to be significantly more negative in self-concept than boys. First-grade black girls showed the lowest self-concepts. First grade boys of both races had higher self-concepts than fifth grade boys of both races. Girls were found to be more negative in self-concept than boys, and fifth graders were more negative in self-concept than first graders.

One other investigation supported the findings of both the Hishiki and Carpenter and Busse studies that social class was a significant variable in discerning positive or negative self-concept. Miskimins and Baker (1973) examined 600 economically disadvantaged adults (17 years of age and up) on six dimensions of self-concept. The results indicated that the whole sample was characterized clearly by cultural rejection and suspiciousness of others and by relationship problems with others and maladjustment problems that were slightly higher than the society as a whole. The authors concluded that the disadvantaged do have more than their share of self-concept problems. They also concluded that females bear the burden of economic

disadvantage more directly than men through lower self-esteem and higher self-derogation.

Wiggins (1973) investigated the hypothesis that no significant difference existed between the self-perceptions of 100 ninth-grade boys and girls. An adaptation of the How I See Myself Scale was used to obtain the required data. Wiggins found that of the sixty variables rated by the subjects, fifteen were significantly different for boys and girls. Wiggins concluded that boys and girls did perceive themselves differently.

Bledsoe (1964) examined the self-concepts of 271 fourth and sixth-grade students. Bledsoe found no significant difference between the self-concept of boys in the two grades or of girls in the two grades. But the girls in each grade scored significantly higher than the boys in the corresponding grades. "The significant differences in mean self-concepts of boys and girls at both the fourth and sixth grade levels would seem to indicate that at these levels girls have greater self-esteem than boys" (p. 57). Bledsoe does not support the research findings of either Carpenter and Busse or Miskimins and Baker that girls have lower self-concepts than boys, but Wiggins conclusion that boys and girls perceive themselves differently is supported.

Rubin (1974) compared the self-attitudes of seventy-three lower class black fifth-and-sixth-graders having no male adults in the home with 207 lower class black fifth and sixth graders having male adults in the home. Rubin found no difference in self-attitudes

in boys with or without males at home. However, girls showed a higher positive self-attitude than boys. Rubin supported the conclusion drawn by Bledsoe.

Bingham (1974) in his dissertation research found that black female students demonstrated a significantly more positive self-concept than black male subjects. His findings supported those of both Bledsoe and Rubin. He investigated the relationship between self-concept and attitudes toward counseling in 109 predominately black high school students.

Discussion and summary. There appeared a consensus among the research studies that male and female students did perceive themselves differently. Prendergast (1974) and Bohan (1973) supported the view that social class was not a significant variable in discerning positive or negative self-perceptions, and that depicting low self-perception as being based upon a low-economic criterion was unjustified. However, Hishiki (1969), Carpenter and Busse (1969), and Miskimins and Baker (1973) supported the view that social class was a significant variable and that low-economic status was indeed positively related to low self-perception. Bohan (1973) also joined Hishiki, Carpenter and Busse, and Miskimins and Baker in supporting the position that girls were significantly more negative in self-perception than boys, because girls bore the burden of economic disadvantage more directly than boys through lower self-esteem and higher self-derogation. Disadvantaged girls and boys also appeared to become more negative as they moved from first grade through the tenth grade, but at the senior high level boys

appeared to have higher self-perceptions than girls. Bledsoe (1964), Rubin (1974), and Bingham (1974) agreed that males and females perceived themselves differently, but no support was given the contention that girls had lower self-perceptions than boys.

In summary, the research cited on sex, social difference and the self-perception seemed to indicate the following conclusions:

1. Each of the few studies cited used different instruments to measure self-perception, and matter-of-fact conclusions were not justifiable. Concurrently, no two samples were similar.

2. Self-perception appeared to be related to social class.

3. There appeared to be a decline in the self-perceptions held by low-economic females and males at least into early adulthood.

4. Disadvantaged boys seemed to have lower self-perceptions than girls of similar economic status during elementary and junior high ages, but there appeared a tendency for boys to have higher self-perceptions than girls in high school and early adulthood.

Client-Centered Counseling

Client-centered as an approach to counseling is continually developing as an aid in facilitating human growth and change. It functions through a relationship in which the counselor is experiencing and communicating realness, caring, and exhibiting nonjudgmental understanding. These three states are not separate or distinct but interdependent and significantly related.

In the first place, the therapist must achieve a strong, accurate empathy. But such deep sensitivity moment-to-moment "being" of another person requires that the

therapist first accept, and to some degree prize, the other person. That is to say, a sufficiently strong empathy can scarcely exist without a considerable degree of unconditional positive regard. However, since neither of these conditions can possibly be meaningful in the relationship unless they are real, the therapist must be, both in these respects and in others, integrated and genuine within the therapeutic encounter. Therefore, it seems to me that genuineness or congruence is the most basic of the three conditions (Rogers, 1959, p. 184).

The client-centered approach is process-oriented and deals with the content generated in each counseling session. Early research in one-to-one therapy (Aidman, 1951; Bowman, 1951; Raimy, 1948; Raskin, 1952; Rosenman, 1955; Sheerer, 1949; Stock, 1949; Vargas, 1954) supported the use of client-centered therapy as significant in facilitating positive changes in both self-respect and self-acceptance.

On the whole, current research which indicated that the client-centered approach was used to facilitate changes in self-perception was virtually impossible to find.

Ward (1966) investigated the effects of nondirected group counseling upon cognitive functioning (thinking, remembering and perceiving) and interpersonal relationships on forty-eight junior high school students. The subjects composed three treatment groups of eight each and one control group of twenty-four. The treatment groups met 50 minutes each week for sixteen weeks. Ward found no significant change between the treatment group that received nondirected group counseling and the control group that received no counseling.

Lamb (1968) concluded that client-centered group counseling facilitates positive self-concept changes more effectively than directive group counseling. Forty white subjects composed his study sample. The subjects were separated into groups of twenty, and subsequently each group received six group counseling sessions.

Sanchez (1969) found that client-centered group counseling did effect positive changes in the self-concepts of sixty-four seventh-and-eighth-grade subjects, but her results were not found to be statistically significant. Subjects were equally separated into treatment and control groups with the treatment group receiving 60 minutes of counseling each week for twelve weeks.

Helberg (1969) also found a trend toward better adjustment for post-secondary students who received client-centered group counseling. He examined the effect of client-centered group counseling on personality adjustment among small groups of six to eight students who met two hours a week for sixteen weeks.

Discussion and summary. The client-centered counseling approach deals with the content generated in each counseling session. Early research with client-centered counseling dealt with one-to-one therapy in which a therapist helped a client. The results of that research supported the use of client-centered therapy as a significant procedure in facilitating positive changes in both self-respect and self-acceptance.

Lamb (1968), Sanchez (1969), and Helberg (1969) found that client-centered group counseling was also an effective approach for

facilitating positive changes in self-concepts, but on the whole, research studies in which the client-centered counseling approach was used to facilitate changes in self-perception or self-concept were impossible to find.

In summary, the research cited on client-centered counseling seemed to indicate the following conclusions:

1. Individual counseling that used the client-centered approach appeared to facilitate positive changes in both self-respect and self-acceptance.

2. There appeared a trend toward positive change in the self-concepts of group counseling recipients when the client-centered approach was used.

3. Different standardized instruments were used to assess the effects of client-centered counseling in each study.

Group Counseling

Clausen (1971) attempted to determine the way in which group counseling influenced sixty high school aged youths on attitudes toward self, others, and society. Two group counseling methods were used. Group I watched films with subjects dealing with human relations. The counselor led discussions were limited to the assumed intentions and behaviors of characters depicted in the films. Group II interacted in relations to processes within the group. Group III had no counseling but met for group recreational activities. Each group met for thirteen sessions. Clausen's study failed to

show a difference in the effects of group counseling on the attitudes toward self, others or society.

In a study performed to examine the effectiveness of group counseling to expand or improve the self-perception in ninety-nine male ninth-grade students, Jones (1971) concluded that group counseling did not significantly effect self-perception. His four treatment groups met five weeks for two hours each week. They received counseling in groups of twenty-five.

Gaston's (1972) findings concurred with those of Clausen and Jones that group counseling was insignificant in changing self-concept. The Tennessee Self Concept Scale was administered to 200 economically disadvantaged women between the ages of sixteen and twenty-two who were enrolled in a federal job training program. Subsequently, the subjects were divided into groups of fifty and counseled using the client-centered approach (Rogers, 1951) for twelve weeks. Upon posttesting, Gaston found that all groups scored below the norms on mean total self-concept score.

In a study performed at the Indiana State Reformatory, Letner (1969) found all three experimental groups (treatment and control) changed their self-concepts significantly in the positive direction. Forty-one subjects composed the two treatment groups, and forty-five composed the control group. Letner's treatment groups met twice each week for twelve weeks with each session lasting two hours. It appeared that Letner's study lacked true control.

The group procedure as an approach to counseling appeared to have gained impetus during the 1950's. Caplan (1957) proposed that group counseling be used to facilitate the counselors' work. He used thirty-four junior high school boys in his study. Seventeen subjects composed the experimental group and seventeen composed the control group. The Q-sort technique was used to measure self-concept and ideal self-concept at the beginning and end of the study. Ten fifty-minute group counseling sessions were held with the experimental group. Caplan found an increase in self-concept and ideal self-concept in the experimental group but not in the control group. Caplan concluded that "The results indicated that group counseling is a promising method for dealing with many of the problems of adolescents, and warrants serious consideration and further investigation." (p. 128)

Duncan (1965) responded to Caplan's call for additional investigations that used the group counseling approach with adolescents. Duncan studied the effects of short-term group counseling on the change in self-concept of seventy-two disadvantaged ninth-grade students. Eighteen boys and eighteen girls were placed in treatment groups of nine each. They participated in group counseling for two hours each week for seven and a half weeks. The other thirty-six students composed the control group. Duncan found some improvement of self-concept in males. The findings approached positive significance, but evidence was inconclusive.

Moates (1969) supported the use of group counseling as having a tendency to produce change in self-concept. He investigated the effects of activity group counseling on the self-concept of sixty disadvantaged seventh-grade Negro boys and girls. Thirty subjects were assigned to treatment groups and thirty to control groups. Each of the four groups contained fifteen subjects. Treatment groups received twenty sessions of activity group counseling and were subsequently administered the Junior High School Index of Adjustment and Values to measure change.

Recent research studies substantiated the findings of both Duncan and Moates that group counseling tended to facilitate positive change in the self-concept. Payne and Dunn (1970) investigated the effect of group counseling upon the self-concepts of forty-five disadvantaged fourth-and-fifth-grade subjects. Treatment groups met eighteen weeks for fifty minutes weekly. Payne and Dunn concluded that group counseling altered favorably the self-concept of their subjects.

Kern, Kelly and Downey (1973) conducted a study to determine if out-of-the classroom group experiences and an indication to the teacher, "Your children are certainly improving" (halo consultation) achieved the same effect on self-perception as group counseling. The subjects were fifty-four fourth, fifth, and sixth-graders who were randomly assigned by classroom units to experimental groups. The treatment sessions lasted for eight weeks and met once each week. The authors concluded that group counseling produced a significant

change in self-perception. It was also indicated that teachers' expectations affected children's self-perceptions.

Mackeen and Herman (1974) investigated the effects of group counseling on self-concept and selected variables in forty-eight women. The women were separated into three groups. Group I was composed of twenty-four middle class women. Group II was composed of nine women who were heads of households and who had been receiving state assistance longer than three months. Group III was composed of fifteen women who had been receiving state assistance for less than three months. The authors found that Group II changed significantly on the variable of self-esteem. The other groups showed change but nothing significant. The self-esteem of Group II was initially lower than that of Group I or Group III. An indication was given that these results could be interpreted as indicating that Group II benefited from early small group experiences which enhanced the possibilities of immediate successful experiences.

Stockey (1961) said,

. . . the group method offers an excellent opportunity to extend service to more youngsters since it is approximately as effective as individual counseling (p. 491).

Discussion and summary. Group counseling was viewed by Stockey (1961) as being approximately as effective as individual counseling. Clausen (1971), Jones (1971), and Gaston (1972) failed to support Stockey's view. However, it appeared that their research studies were conducted either with groups containing more than twenty subjects or

designed with inadequate controls. Caplan (1957, Duncan (1964), Moates (1969), Payne and Dunn (1970), Kern, Kelly and Downey (1973), and Mackeen and Herman (1974) supported Stockey's view. Since group counseling appeared approximately as effective as individual counseling one might consider using group counseling to facilitate the counselor's work.

In summary, the research cited on group counseling seemed to indicate the following conclusions:

1. Group counseling appeared more effective in facilitating positive changes in self-perception with groups of twenty members and less.
2. It appeared that a minimum of eight hours or a maximum of 126 hours of group counseling can facilitate positive changes in self-perception.
3. Group counseling appeared most successful in changing positively the self-perceptions of children from age ten to adulthood.
4. It appeared that disadvantaged students in the elementary and junior high school grades have successfully benefited from the use of group counseling to change their self-perceptions.

Group-Individual Counseling

Lipscomb (1967) investigated the effectiveness of group and individual counseling on the self-concept of sixty-six low socioeconomic sophomore girls. The subjects were randomly assigned to three groups: control, individual counseling, and group counseling. The treatment groups met from thirty to sixty minutes once a week for thirteen

weeks. Lipscomb found no significant change in self-concept or self-acceptance of either the control group or experimental groups that received individual and group counseling.

Rohde's (1965) study does not support Lipscomb's findings. Rohde reported on the findings of her study involving seventy-one university freshmen in which she used two types of counseling methods, group counseling and individual counseling to determine which method was more effective in changing students' attitudes toward greater acceptance of self. Five professional counselors were each assigned group counseling and individual counseling sessions for ten weeks. The groups met twice each week for one hour. The individual counseling was for one hour each week. She found that individual counseling increased acceptance of self. However, no support was given to the hypothesis that group counseling would increase acceptance of self. She also found that the mean scores for both group and individual counseling increased, but individual counseling showed the higher mean.

In a study with 120 adolescents of low-sociometric status, Dunkleberger (1967) found gains in self-acceptance in all study groups. He examined the effectiveness and efficiency of group and individual counseling. Individual counselees received ninety minutes of counseling, and group counselees received twelve school periods of counseling. Dunkleberger attributes the gains by both control and experimental subjects to inadequate controls.

Scofield (1969) concluded that individual counseling (weekly appointments) should be used instead of regular counseling to improve student self-concepts. Also, Scofield indicated that group counseling showed some promise of being effective in improving self-concept. He investigated the effects of short-term group, individual, and regular counseling (normal counseling in students' school) on ninety high school seniors. Individual counselees were counseled twenty-five minutes weekly for twelve weeks, and group counselees met forty-two minutes weekly for twelve weeks.

Glover (1973) investigated the effectiveness of individual and group counseling in helping 160 disadvantaged elementary students to better cope with problems. The subjects were placed in groups of eights, creating ten experimental groups and ten control groups. The study lasted ten weeks. Glover found a significant difference in self-concept between the experimental groups and the control groups. He concluded that the subjects in the experimental groups had significant gains in self-concept.

Easterwood (1973) studied the effectiveness of group counseling and group-individual counseling on total positive concept of thirty-two randomly selected senior high students. The students were randomly placed in two counseling groups of nine and one control group of sixteen. The two counseling groups met twice weekly. One group met in the morning and the other group met in the afternoon. A third group was composed of nine students who attended either of the two group sessions and volunteered to receive individual counseling.

Easterwood concluded that the counseling group that met during the morning showed a significant increase in total positive concept. Also concluded was that the group receiving group-individual counseling experienced more positive gains during the study.

Discussion and summary. Group counseling and individual counseling were viewed as having potential for facilitating positive changes in self-perception (Scofield, 1969; Glover, 1973; Easterwood, 1973). The potential attributed to each counseling approach was supported by research studies. Consequently, one might infer that combining the two counseling approaches (alternated) has potential for being an extremely potent procedure for facilitating changes in self-perception.

In summary, the research cited on group-individual counseling seemed to indicate the following conclusion:

1. Individual counseling appeared effective in facilitating positive changes in self-acceptance and self-perceptions.
2. The tendency toward being effective in improving self-acceptance and self-perception seemed attributable to group counseling.
3. Sufficient research on group counseling and individual counseling (alternated) was not available; consequently, conclusions on that counseling approach would have been speculative.

Individual Counseling

Counseling as a therapeutic approach has been traditionally depicted as a client (patient) receiving help from a counselor (therapist). From this approach the concept has generated that

individual counseling was the most desirable approach to "good counseling."

The concept that individual counseling is most desirable for good counseling has come under attack in the last two decades. Bilousky, McMasters, Shorr and Singer (1953) initiated a challenge to the concept that individualized counseling relationships are more desirable for "good counseling" than a "depersonalized" group procedure. Their research dealt with vocational goals, but their findings challenged traditional thoughts held about counseling procedures.

The authors found that:

The realism of vocational goals selected by the group of students of the same senior high school under two methods of counseling, individual and group, shows no significant statistical difference in such a comparison (p. 365).

Hoyt (1955) with the impetus provided by Bilousky, et al. also challenged the traditional thoughts held about counseling procedures. Hoyt's research attempted to evaluate group and individual counseling programs in vocational guidance. Hoyt's research supported the findings of Bilousky, et al. and argued for the initiation of group programs. Hoyt's findings were:

1. No differences were found between the effectiveness of the individual counseling program and the group counseling program.
2. The time-saving quality of the group program, together with its demonstrated effectiveness, argues for the institution of group programs in vocational guidance (p. 30).

Froehlich (1958) questioned the thought that counseling must be individual. He studied high school seniors who were interested in

learning more about themselves in order to make post high school plans. Froehlich's study did not support one counseling procedure beyond another. He said,

Insofar as the criteria used in this study reflect desirable counseling outcomes, the findings do not support the claim that counseling must be individual (p. 689).

Other studies supported the findings that group counseling was as effective as individual counseling (Light & Alexakas, 1970; Smith, 1971; Glover, 1973).

In studies attempted by Rohde (1965) and Scofield (1969) individual counseling was found to be more effective in producing increased acceptance of self than group counseling and more effective than group counseling in improving self-concept, respectively.

Only one study was found that attempted to determine the effects of individual counseling exclusively on the self-concept of disadvantaged subjects. Mason (1972) assessed the effects of a "Special Counseling Program" on the self-concept and academic achievement of forty disadvantaged dropouts enrolled in an adult education program. An experimental group of twenty and a control group of twenty composed the study sample. Mason believed that a special counseling program would help disadvantaged dropouts in bridging the gap between their disadvantaged background and the demands of the classroom, resulting in improved self-concept and academic achievement. Mason concluded that the self-concepts of the subjects were significantly raised by the special counseling program.

Discussion and summary. Individual counseling has been viewed for many years as the most desirable approach to counseling, but such a view has rightly come under close scrutiny in the last two decades. Counselors and therapists have been placed under new demands, because society appeared to function in such a way as to generate individuals who needed their assistance. Schools as institutions of the society have had their share of distressed students. School counselors by necessity have had to direct their energies toward meeting the needs of groups of individuals with similar problems or needs. Consequently, individual counseling with its potential for facilitating changes in self-perception appeared destined to be relegated to group counseling which appeared approximately as effective as individual counseling in facilitating changes in self-perception.

In summary, the research cited on individual counseling seemed to indicate the following conclusions:

1. Individual counseling appeared an effective approach for facilitating positive changes in self-perceptions.
2. Individual counseling appeared to encourage disadvantaged students to improve academically.

Summary

Behavior was viewed as a reflector of self-concept (McCandles, 1967). Good behavior reflected good personal and social adjustment, and poor self-concept reflected poor adjustment. A variety of factors have been used in examining studies on self-perception: factors of being disadvantaged and in middle childhood and in

adolescence (Closson, 1972; Densley, 1968; Dixon, 1972; Gordon, 1974; Healey, 1970; Keller, 1963; Long, et al., 1968; Lord, 1970; Odom, 1973; Owen, 1972; Rosenberg and Simmons, 1968; Soares and Soares, 1969; Soares and Soares, 1971; Trowbridge, et al., 1972; Whiteman and Deutsch, 1968). Though caution is used when interpreting the above studies, their results appeared to indicate a positive relationship between low-economic status and low self-perception. Disadvantaged children in middle childhood and adolescence also seemed to have lower self-perceptions than advantaged children in middle childhood and adolescence.

Research studies that investigated sex, social difference and the self-perception were examined for information about the self-perceptions held by females as opposed to males. Bingham (1974), Bledsoe (1964), Bohan (1973), Carpenter and Busse (1969), Hishiki (1969), Miskimins and Baker (1973), Prendergast (1974), Rubin (1974), and Wiggins (1973) though not unanimous indicated that disadvantaged boys seemed to have lower self-perceptions than girls of similar economic status during elementary and junior high school ages, but there appeared a tendency for boys to have higher self-perceptions than girls in high school and early adulthood. There also appeared to be a strong relationship between social class and self-perception.

Investigative studies were examined to obtain information on the effectiveness of the client-centered counseling approach in facilitating changes in self-perception. Helberg (1969), Lamb (1968), Sanchez (1969), and Ward (1966) though not in total agreement

supported the use of client-centered counseling as having potential for facilitating positive changes in self-perception. More research studies appeared to have been conducted in one-to-one therapy with client-centered counseling than in group therapy. Consequently, sufficient support was given this counseling approach as appearing to facilitate positive changes in both self-respect and self-acceptance when used in the individual counseling procedure.

Research studies have attempted to facilitate changes in self-perceptions through the use of various counseling procedures: group counseling, group-individual counseling, and individual counseling. Group counseling appeared most successful in changing positively the self-perception of children from age ten to adulthood, and it also appeared more effective in facilitating positive changes in self-perception with groups of twenty members and less (Caplan, 1957; Glausen, 1971; Duncan, 1965; Gaston, 1972; Jones, 1971; Kern, et al., 1973; Letner, 1969; Mackeen and Herman, 1974; Moates, 1969; Payne and Dunn, 1970). Research studies conducted with group-individual counseling supported all three counseling procedures as having potential to facilitate changes in self-perception and self-concept (Dunkleberger, 1967; Easterwood, 1973; Glover, 1973; Lipscomb, 1967; Rohde, 1965; Scofield, 1969). Sufficient research on group counseling and individual counseling (alternated) was not available; consequently, conclusions on that counseling approach would have been speculative. Mason (1972) supported individual counseling as capable of facilitating changes in self-concepts.

During an intense review of the literature only six related studies were found that attempted to change self-perceptions in disadvantaged students. Group counseling was used by the following three researchers: Duncan (1965) conducted his research on ninth-graders; he found some positive changes in males only. Moates (1969) conducted his research on seventh-graders; he found a change in self-concept among girls and boys. Payne and Dunn (1970) conducted their research on fourth-and-fifth-graders; they found that the group counseling approach tended to facilitate positive change among their subjects.

Lipscomb (1967) used group and individual counseling with tenth-graders. She found no significant change in the self-perceptions of her subjects. Glover (1973) used group and individual counseling with elementary subjects, and a significant difference was found in self-perceptions as reported by subjects. Mason (1972) used individual counseling with high school students and significant difference was found in their self-perceptions. Additional research which supported the results of the six research studies was not found.

The review of the literature, the need to learn new ways to more effectively use the counselor's time and skills, and the need to examine three counseling procedures within an individual study with low-economic students as the population supported the need for a study to investigate the effects of group counseling, group-individual

counseling, and individual counseling on changes in self-perceptions of high school sophomores of low-economic background.

Chapter 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The central problem of this investigation was to determine the effects of group counseling, group-individual counseling, and individual counseling on changes in the self-perceptions of high school sophomores of low-economic background. The design for this investigation was a two by four factorial with the purpose of determining the main effects of the treatment variable and the concomitant variable (sex) as well as the interaction of the two variables.

In this study, treatment consisted of three procedures in which the client-centered counseling approach was used. The treatment portion of this study lasted eleven weeks. Each group counseling and/or individual counseling session lasted fifty minutes weekly. All four groups (three treatment and control) were pretested and posttested with the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI).

Population and Sample

Seventy-eight (78) of sixteen hundred (1600) students from one public senior high school in a Southwest Virginia city were the subjects of this study. The school was selected based upon availability of subjects and its willingness to investigate new methods of improving services to its population. The school was one of two that serves an urban community of over 92,115 population, of which

16,000 were public school students. The median income was \$8,216 (Roanoke City Planning Department, 1970 census).

The criteria used for initial identification and selection of subjects for this study were those disseminated as federal guidelines to local governments for identifying low-economic students. The criteria were employed for this purpose at the time this study was conducted, because it was an efficient and appropriate method for selecting the desired subjects. The category for subjects identified by the above mentioned criteria was developed for the selection of those who came from low-economic home environments. The criteria, including family income, number of siblings, unusually high medical bills, shelter costs in excess of thirty percent of family income, special education expenses due to the mental or physical condition of a child, or disaster or casualty losses are detailed in Appendix A.

Selection of the Subjects

The initial eighty subjects identified as being low-economic were screened by individual interviews to find those who met established criteria. Ohlsen (1970) indicated that screening was necessary for selecting group members. He gave general guidelines under which group leaders could establish screening procedures and criteria. The criteria below were developed by the investigator but in conformance with Ohlsen's guidelines:

1. Subjects could neither be under psychiatric care nor display any emotional difficulty that might appear destructive to a group receiving counseling.

2. Subjects were made cognizant of the need for them to participate and also to assist others in giving and receiving help.

3. Subjects agreed to report to the designated place for counseling each week.

After screening the initial eighty subjects, only seventy-eight were found to be acceptable. Consequently, the population of this study was composed of those seventy-eight subjects.

Forty subjects were randomly selected and then randomly assigned to either one of three treatment groups or a control group with only the male-female ratio being controlled. The subjects for each group were fifty percent male and fifty percent female.

Procedures

Treatment Process. Treatment was initiated four weeks after the academic school year had begun. Group counseling, group-individual counseling, and individual counseling subjects were requested to report to the investigator's office after receiving a "to report slip." Each week before group counseling was initiated group and group-individual counselees' reportings were preceded by their names being placed on the school's daily bulletin. Subjects reported for counseling at the beginning of a fifty minute class period. Individuals or groups who failed to report at the designated time were retained into the

following class period until the counseling session (50 minutes) had been completed. For example, a subject who reported in the middle of a fifth period class was retained until the middle of his sixth period class. Upon completing a session, subjects returned to class. Subjects were counseled for one fifty-minute session each week.

Immediately before pretesting, subjects composing the control group were told that sufficient members had been selected for all treatment groups, but new groups would be initiated in mid-December. This was done to make subjects cognizant of the investigator's intention of offering counseling to them at a later date. The control group received no counseling during the treatment period. This is not to say that they did not use the guidance services available in the school as provided by four counselors.

Data collection. The Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) was administered during the fourth week after the beginning of the 1975-1976 school year and during the fifteenth week by the investigator. The POI was administered according to the instructions in the inventory manual (Shostrom, 1966). The pretest was administered individually to each subject composing the study sample. Subjects were asked to report to the investigator's office. They were subsequently taken to the guidance department's conference room and administered the POI. Upon completing the POI, subjects returned to class. At the end of the eleven week treatment period, subjects who had remained with treatment were retested. The posttest was administered to each individual or group immediately following the eleventh

treatment session. Dropouts were subjects who attended fewer than seven of the eleven possible counseling sessions or missed two successive sessions. The control group was also administered the POI as a unit, during the eleventh treatment week.

Counseling Style. The counseling style used was client-centered as understood by the investigator. It was basically the passive mode from Roger's (1951) earlier work. A post-hock evaluation of audio-taped counseling sessions revealed a number of counselor variations from what is considered appropriate for counselor behavior in client-centered counseling (a discussion of these variations and the effect they may have had on process is found in Chapter 4 pages 67 through 69.

Counseling content was concerned with any and all problems seen as being important by individuals or by the groups involved. Educational, vocational, social, and personal problems were presented at various times by the subjects. All sessions were mainly "Client-Centered" in which the subject or group dealt with concerns important to them. The investigator intervened only in an attempt to facilitate individual or group development (Appendix B). The sessions were guided by the subjects' responsiveness and needs.

The counseling dealt primarily with problems of academic adjustment and personal adjustment. Emphasis was given in the counseling sessions to use them as learning situations in which the subject(s) became better informed and developed self-understanding.

Rogers (1959) published a formal theory of the counseling process. In his theory, Rogers spelled out the necessary conditions and propositions which are abridged and summarized below.

For counseling to occur the following conditions must exist:

1. The counselor and one or more clients are in contact.
2. The clients are in a state of incongruence, being vulnerable, or anxious.
3. The counselor is congruent in his relationship with the clients.
4. The clients are experiencing unconditional positive regard from the counselor.
5. The counselor is experiencing and exhibiting an empathic understanding of the clients' internal frame of reference.
6. The clients perceive the unconditional positive regard and empathic understanding of the counselor.

The theory indicated that if the above conditions are established and maintained over a period of time, then the following counseling processes are engendered.

1. The client(s) become freer in expressing his/their feelings in verbal or motor channels and those feelings increasingly refer to self rather than to the nonself.
2. The client increasingly differentiates and discriminates the objects of his feelings and perceptions, including his environment, other persons, himself, his experiences, and the interrelationship of these (Rogers, 1959). His (their) experience(s) become(s)

more accurately symbolized in his consciousness and gradually he (they) become(s) aware of experiences he (they) had denied or distorted.

3. "His expressed feelings increasingly have reference to the incongruity between certain of his experiences and his concept of self" (Rogers, 1959, p. 216). He (they) gradually become(s) aware of the threats of such incongruity. His (their) awareness is facilitated by the continued unconditional positive regard of the counselor, which is extended to incongruence as much as to congruence, to anxiety as much as to absence of anxiety (Rogers, 1959).

4. His (their) self-concept(s) and experience(s) increasingly become congruent, as the self continues to be reorganized. Defensiveness is decreased, because there are " . . . fewer perceptual distortions in awareness, or denials to awareness, since there are fewer experiences which can be threatening" (Rogers, 1959, p. 216).

5. The client(s) increasingly feel(s) positive self-regard and reacts less to personal experience(s) in terms of conditions of worth based upon evaluations by others and more in terms of an organismic valuing process (actualizing tendency).

Investigator. The investigator had earned a Master of Arts Degree in Counseling and completed the major course requirements for the post-masters degree. Included in his training were three courses in group practices and procedures and the experience as counselor and

co-facilitator of several structured and unstructured groups in a public senior high school. He had coordinated and helped design two student human relations workshops. He held certification as a school counselor in Virginia with two years experience as an employed secondary high school counselor. The investigator was twenty-nine years of age and had served as a teacher of disadvantaged students.

Instrumentation

Personal Orientation Inventory. The POI was developed by Shostrom (1966) to meet the need that counselors and therapists felt existed for measuring the values and behavior seen as important in self-actualizing development. Maslow's (1954; 1962) idea of the self-actualizing person was the fundamental concept reflected in the POI's development. The items were based upon information supplied by several counselors who had seen clinically troubled patients over a five year span, and, also the research and theoretical formulations of many authors (Maslow, 1954; 1962; Perls, 1951; Riesman, 1950) agreed. The POI consists of 150 two-choice value and behavior judgments that are stated both positively and negatively. The inventory is self-administering. The examinee reads the directions on the front cover of the booklet and follows those directions.

Validation of the POI. Shostrom (1965) conducted research using the POI with twenty-nine "relatively self-actualized" persons and thirty-four "non-self-actualized" persons. Shostrom reported that the inventory discriminated effectively between the groups on

eleven of the twelve scales. Shostrom and Knapp (1966) correlated POI scales with certain scales on the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory and found them consistent in the same direction and significant, but each measured different aspects of mental health. Twenty-four correlation coefficients were obtained in the study from a correlation of the POI scales and the MMPI social scale. Twelve correlation coefficients were .40 or greater and found significant at the .01 level of significance. The self-regard scale correlated over $-.40$ with the depression scale on the MMPI.

Other research has been conducted with this instrument. Lamb (1968) investigated the consequences of directive and client-centered group counseling techniques. Client-centered group counseling was found to facilitate positive self-perception change. Lewis (1968) evaluated the effectiveness of small-group procedures to aid adjustment of college freshmen. The small-group members made better adjustment and better grades than those students in the larger groups.

Reliability of the POI. Test-retest reliability for the POI scales were based upon a sample of forty-eight undergraduate college students. The inventory was administered to the sample twice, a week apart. The reliability coefficients for the "Self-Regard" and "Self-Acceptance" scales are .71 and .77 respectively (Shostrom, 1966).

Range of Scores. The self-regard and self-acceptance scales were the two scales used for this study (POI). Hence, their raw scores shall be the only scores dealt with here.

The self-regard scale ranges from a raw score of 1 through 17. The normal range for high school students (male and female) is between 9 and 12, with a mean score of 10.9 and a standard deviation of 2.2. The self-acceptance scale ranges from a raw score of 1 through 26. The normal range for high school students is between 13 and 17, with a mean of 14.1 and a standard deviation of 3.0.

It should be noted that self-perception was a primary concern of the investigation. One obtains a self-perception score by interpreting the self-regard and self-acceptance scales "concurrently." In order for a high school student to be in possession (on the POI) of a normal self-perception he/she must score between 9 and 12 on the self-regard scale and between 13 and 17 on the self-acceptance scale.

Experimental Design

The experimental design for this study was a 2 by 4 factorial with multiple dependent variables (Campbell & Stanley, 1963; Winer, 1971). The factors were Treatment (T) and Sex (S). The experimental design controlled all threats to internal validity, because it used random selection of subjects and included a control group from the same population. However, the investigator was cognizant of the possibility of experimental mortality. Consequently, the investigator was careful during screening to obtain commitments from subjects agreeing to attend each counseling session. Some concern arose when threats to external validity, interaction effects of the treatments, and other variables were considered. Did the treatments in fact

produce changes? Did the results hold true only for the population from which the experimental groups were selected? Were the subjects reacting, because they knew they were participating in a study? These were questions with implications that the researcher had to live with when this design was used.

Treatment Variable

1. Group Counseling. Group counseling is defined as "an accepting, trusting, encouraging relationship between a counselor" (facilitator) and ten clients to work on self-exploration and self-understanding. (Ohlsen, 1970, p. 24)

2. Group-Individual Counseling. Group-individual counseling consist of group counseling defined as "an accepting, trusting, encouraging relationship between a counselor" (facilitator) and ten clients to work on self-exploration and self-understanding, and individual counseling defined as "an accepting, trusting, encouraging, relationship between a counselor" and one client to aid the client in self-exploration and self-understanding (alternated weekly). (Ohlsen, 1970, p. 24)

3. Individual Counseling. Individual counseling is defined as "an accepting, trusting, encouraging relationship between a counselor" and one client to aid the client in self-exploration and self-understanding. (Ohlsen, 1970, p. 24)

4. No Counseling. The ten subjects composing the control group were screened and administered the POI pre- and post-treatment. They received no treatment counseling.

Sex	Treatment							
	Group Counseling		Group-Individual Counseling		Individual Counseling		Control No Counseling	
	Beginning	Completing	Beginning	Completing	Beginning	Completing	Beginning	Completing
Male	5	4	5	3	5	2	5	4
Female	5	4	5	4	5	2	5	5

Figure 1

A Paradigm of the Design Used in This Study
 Indicating the Subjects
 Beginning (n=40) and Completing (n=28) Treatment

Concomitant Variable

Sex. Sex was categorized as male and female tenth-graders.

Dependent Variables

1. Self-Perception. Self-perception is the concurrent interpretation of the "Self-Regard" and "Self-Acceptance" scales on the POI. It was one of the primary concerns of the study (see range of scores on page 52).

2. Self-Regard. Shostrom (1966) defined self-regard as the "ability to like one's self because of one's strengths" as measured by the POI. (p. 20)

3. Self-Acceptance. Shostrom (1966) defined self-acceptance as the "ability to like one's self in spite of one's weaknesses" as measured by the POI. (p. 20)

Data Analysis

The pretest and posttest data collected from the twenty-eight subjects remaining after treatment was transferred from the self-regard and self-acceptance scales (POI - answer sheet) to IBM computer cards. The only analytical procedure was Multivariate Analysis of Covariance-Two-Way Classification: the computer program employed was MANOVA (Clyde, 1969). The facilities of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University computer center were used to conduct the analysis.

Treatments and sex of the respondents were the independent variables in the study; the adjusted posttest means on the "Self-Regard" and "Self-Acceptance" scales of the POI were the dependent variables. The posttest means were adjusted for the respective pretest scores in the covariance analysis. The adjustments made for the two covariates attempted to obtain a reduced estimate of experimental error by taking into account the regression of the two covariate measures (pretest scores) on the two criteria measures.

The focus of the analysis was in response to the following null hypotheses:

$H_{0_{1a}}$: There is no difference between the mean self-regard score on the POI for the treatment groups.

$H_{0_{1b}}$: There is no difference between the mean self-acceptance score on the POI for the treatment groups.

$H_{0_{2a}}$: There is no difference between the mean self-regard score on the POI for males and females.

$H_{0_{2b}}$: There is no difference between the mean self-acceptance score on the POI for males and females.

$H_{0_{3a}}$: There is no difference between the mean self-regard score on the POI for males and females within treatment groups.

$H_{0_{3b}}$: There is no difference between the mean self-acceptance score on the POI for males and females within treatment groups.

Summary

As noted, this chapter described the instrumentation and procedures designed and used to determine the effects of group counseling, group-individual counseling, and individual counseling on changes in self-perceptions of high school sophomores from low-economic backgrounds. The sample included forty male and female high school sophomores from a population of seventy-eight. They represented a Southwest Virginia city that had 16,000 public school students. The control group responded to the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) without being exposed to treatments.

The data on the two scales of the POI was collected pre- and post-treatment and analyzed to obtain information on the effects of the three counseling procedures on self-perception in terms of both the respondents' sex and treatments. Multivariate analysis of covariance was employed to determine the effects of treatments on self-perceptions. Sex differences and the interaction of treatment and sex were also considered.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

The Personal Orientation Inventory was completed by low-economic high school sophomores pretreatment (N=40) and posttreatment (N=28). Twelve subjects were lost during the treatment period. The treatment period was initially scheduled to run for twelve consecutive weeks. However, the investigator decided to terminate after treatment week eleven, because subjects began to inquire as to when treatment would be terminated. Those inquiries preceeded the loss of three subjects following counseling session nine, and two additional subjects following counseling session ten. Therefore, the investigator decided to terminate treatment. The self-regard and self-acceptance scales on the POI were used to obtain data about the effects of Group 1 (group counseling), 2 (group-individual counseling), 3 (individual counseling), and 4 (no counseling) upon self-perception. The sample was representative by sex and enrollment of low-economic sophomores in a Southwest Virginia city high school. The data were analyzed here according to the research hypotheses.

Hypotheses

Ho_{1a}: There is no difference between the mean self-regard score on the POI for the treatment groups.

Ho_{1b}: There is no difference between the mean self-acceptance score on the POI for the treatment groups.

Ho_{2a}: There is no difference between the mean self-regard score on the POI for males and females.

Ho_{2b}: There is no difference between the mean self-acceptance score on the POI for males and females.

Ho_{3a}: There is no difference between the mean self-regard score on the POI for males and females within treatment groups.

Ho_{3b}: There is no difference between the mean self-acceptance score on the POI for males and females within treatment groups.

Multivariate Analysis of Covariance

To determine the effects of respondents' sex and the effects of treatments on the subjects' self-regard and self-acceptance, a Multivariate Analysis of Covariance was run on the data employing the MANOVA (Clyde, 1969) Computer Program. This program provided multivariate tests of significance by using the Wilks Lambda Criterion which is converted to Rao's approximate F statistic (Clyde, 1969). The adjusted posttest mean scores on the self-regard and Self-acceptance scales of the POI were the dependent variables; they were adjusted for the respective pretest scores. Treatments were the independent variables; sex was a concomitant variable.

As a result of the Multivariate Analysis of Covariance, all three sets of null hypotheses were not rejected; that is,

1a. There were no significant differences between the mean self-regard score on the POI for treatment groups.

1b. There were no significant differences between the mean self-acceptance score on the POI for treatment groups.

Table 1

Summary of Multivariate Analyses of Covariance
for Treatment and Sex of Subjects Relating
to Self-Regard and Self-Acceptance

Source of Variance	F	df _H	df _E	p
Treatment	1.483	6	34	.213
Sex	1.096	2	17	.357
Interaction	.404	6	34	.871

2a. There were no significant difference between the mean self-regard score on the POI for males and females.

2b. There were no significant difference between the mean self-acceptance score on the POI for males and females.

3a. There were no significant difference between the mean self-regard score on the POI for males and females for treatment groups.

3b. There were no significant differences between the mean self-acceptance score on the POI for males and females for treatment groups.

Pretest-posttest mean scores for self-regard and self-acceptance (Table 2) when compared by sex indicated an increase in both self-regard mean score and self-acceptance mean score for males. Females declined in their mean self-regard score but increased in their mean self-acceptance score.

Males had a slight increase in posttest mean scores on self-regard, but females showed a decline in posttest mean scores on self-regard. Both males and females had increases in posttest mean scores on self-acceptance, but the increase in the females' posttest mean score on self-acceptance was almost three times as great as the increase for males on the posttest mean score on self-acceptance.

When pretest-posttest mean scores for self-regard and self-acceptance were compared by groups, those subjects who received group counseling decreased in mean self-regard score and increased in mean self-acceptance score. Those subjects who received group-

Table 2

Pretest-Posttest Mean Scores for Self-Regard and Self-Acceptance by Sexes and by Treatment Groups

Scales						
Groups	Self-Regard			Self-Acceptance		
	Pre	Post	Difference	Pre	Post	Difference
Sexes						
Males(N=13)	11.154	11.231	.077	12.385	13.154	.769
Females(N=15)	11.200	10.867	-.333	12.667	14.867	2.200
Treatment Groups						
Group Counseling(N=8)	11.375	11.250	-.125	10.625	13.250	2.630
Group-Individual Counseling (N=7)	11.286	10.714	-.572	12.714	12.714	0
Individual Counseling(N=4)	12.500	12.750	.250	13.000	16.750	3.750
Control Group (N=9)	10.333	10.333	0	13.889	14.667	.778

individual counseling decreased in self-regard mean score but remained constant on their self-acceptance mean score. Individual counselees increased on both self-regard mean score and self-acceptance mean score. The control group remained constant on its mean self-regard score, but increased on its mean self-acceptance score.

Positive changes were noted in all but one posttest self-acceptance mean scores; females, group counselees, and individual counselees showed the largest increases in pretest-posttest self-acceptance mean score differences of 2.20, 2.63, and 3.75 points, respectively, as indicated in Table 2. Negative changes were found in three posttest self-regard mean scores; group counselees, females and group-individual counselees showed the largest declines in pretest-posttest self-regard mean score differences of $-.125$, $-.333$, and $-.572$ points, respectively, as indicated in Table 2.

Overall, two posttest self-regard mean scores increased (males $[.077]$ and individual counseling $[.250]$), three declined (females $[-.333]$ group counseling $[-.125]$ and group-individual counseling $[-.572]$), and one remained constant (control group $[0]$) in Table 2. Also in Table 2, five posttest self-acceptance mean scores increased (males $[.769]$, females $[2.200]$, group counseling $[2.630]$, individual counseling $[3.750]$ and the control group $[.778]$), and one remained constant (group-individual counseling $[0]$). It appeared that males and individual counselees showed the greatest positive changes in mean scores for both self-regard and self-acceptance.

Observing the differences in pretest-posttest mean scores for self-regard (Table 3), males who received group counseling and females who received individual counseling appeared to have changed self-regard mean scores positively. Females who received group counseling and males who received individual counseling decreased in self-regard mean scores. Both males and females who received group-individual counseling showed a decline in self-regard mean scores. Those subjects (males and females) in the control group showed no changes in self-regard mean scores either positively or negatively.

On the differences in pretest-posttest mean scores for self-acceptance (Table 3), males who received group-individual counseling declined in self-acceptance. All other subjects including those in the control group showed an increase in posttest self-acceptance mean scores. However, neither males' nor females' posttest mean scores of the control group were found to be greater than their counterparts who received group counseling or individual counseling.

The differences in pretest-posttest mean scores on self-acceptance for the control group and the group-individual counselees' were found to be equal for females, but male control subjects showed a pretest-posttest difference score of .800; while male group-individual counselees' showed a pretest-posttest difference score of -1.000, as indicated in Table 3. It should be noted that females who received individual counseling showed a posttest mean score on self-acceptance that was greater than either males or females in the other three study groups.

Table 3

Pretest-Posttest Mean Scores for Self-Regard and Self-Acceptance by Sexes within Groups

Sex	Scores					
	Self-Regard			Self-Acceptance		
	Pre	Post	Difference	Pre	Post	Difference
	Group Counseling (N=8)					
Males	10.667	12.333	1.666	9.000	11.000	2.000
Females	11.800	10.600	-1.200	11.600	14.600	3.000
	Group-Individual Counseling (N=7)					
Males	12.000	11.000	-1.000	13.667	12.667	-1.000
Females	10.750	10.500	-.250	12.000	12.750	.750
	Individual Counseling (N=4)					
Males	13.000	12.500	-.500	14.000	15.500	1.500
Females	12.000	13.000	1.000	12.000	18.000	6.000
	Control (N=9)					
Males	10.200	10.200	0	13.000	13.800	.800
Females	10.500	10.500	0	15.000	15.750	.750

Discussion. The statistical aspects of the findings offered some insight into the effects of the three counseling procedures on the self-perceptions of low-economic sophomores, but that insight must be tempered and held in the proper perspective for two significant reasons. First, reading and comprehension was a particular problem for some subjects in this study. Shostrom (1966) indicated that students 13 years of age and older could finish the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) in approximately 30 minutes. However, the subjects in this study required from 30 minutes to two hours and 30 minutes, and they were 15 through 17 years of age. Some asked the investigator to define words. The second reason is that even though the investigator attempted to be consistent in his counseling with each treatment group, he was inconsistent and tended to use the passive mode of client-centered counseling as depicted in Roger's (1951) earlier work. Consequently, the treatment process (Appendix B) and counseling style which appeared related to the statistical findings deserve some consideration at this juncture.

A description of the treatment process is contained in Appendix B. The subjects who received the group treatment never really became a cohesive counseling group, because in the end, as in the beginning, they demonstrated little concern for one another and little self-understanding. Counselor variations from what is considered appropriate for counselor behavior in client-centered counseling during the treatment process (Appendix B) have been identified as the following:

1. Specific parameters of group behavior were not set in the first counseling session;
2. A number of disclosed feelings and non-verbal behaviors were not picked-up on or followed through;
3. The facilitator was not completely honest and open, as indicated in his inconsistency in relating his personal feelings about what was happening during the group process;
4. Interactions on external topics were encouraged by asking subjects to relate problems that occurred prior to the treatment session;
5. Both the passive and active modes of client-centered counseling were used within selected treatment sessions;
6. The facilitator exhibited teacher behavior by asking subjects about the number of feeling words they knew and by offering examples of words that disclose feelings.

The first four variations in counselor style were also prevalent in the group portion of the group-individual treatment process (Appendix B). In the individual portion of this treatment group two additional counseling variations were also infused by the investigator. He was (1) inconsistent in giving feedback, and (2) more active (counseling style) in the individual counseling sessions than in the group counseling sessions. These same two variations in counselor style were also characteristic of the individual treatment process (Appendix B).

The variations in counselor style cited were limited only to those recognized by the investigator. They were offered in hope of shedding additional light on the statistical results of the study.

Non-Statistical Aspects of the Findings

The individual counseling group lost six subjects during treatment. The first of these subjects terminated after treatment session two, and the second subject terminated after treatment session three. After treatment session eight two additional subjects terminated. A fifth subject dropped out after treatment session nine, and the sixth subject dropped out after treatment session ten. The group-individual treatment lost three subjects. One subject did not attend any treatment sessions. A second subject was lost after treatment session two, and the third subject dropped out after treatment session nine. The group treatment lost two subjects. One subject did not attend any treatment sessions. The second subject elected to drop out after treatment session two.

Four of the subjects who failed to complete the individual counseling treatment dropped out after treatment session eight. Those dropouts followed subjects' inquiries as to the number of additional treatment sessions remaining. It appeared that eight weeks was the optimum number of weeks that interest in receiving this approach to counseling was retained by the subjects in this study. Since many subjects avoided dealing with feelings, their dropping from treatment was construed as a manifestation of the fear of revealing themselves.

Apparently, even though the investigator did his best to communicate his attitudes of unconditional positive regard, genuineness, and empathy some subjects remained suspicious.

Upon disregarding the subjects who failed to appear for any treatment session or the subjects who dropped out after completing a treatment session, the absentee rate (the number of times all subjects were absent from a treatment group) was thirteen (13) for group counseling, twelve (12) for individual counseling, and seven (7) for group individual counseling. There also was a relationship (non-statistical) between lateness of arriving for treatment and later dropouts in the individual counseling treatment group, but no such relationship existed for the other two treatment groups. When subjects arrived late or missed a treatment session, they would offer forgetfulness as the reason. Perhaps they felt the need to justify their lateness to the investigator or to peers by disclaiming responsibility.

The fact that subjects who received the group counseling treatment (group and group-individual) were either neighbors, acquaintances, or friends prior to treatment proved to be an obstruction to counseling. They tended to reinforce established repertoires of communicating at the expense of learning more effective ways of relating. This was particularly preeminent in the subjects who received the group treatment. The individual counseling sessions of the group-individual treatment appeared to have facilitated their taking risks in the group. Even though most subjects in the group treatment knew each other prior

to treatment, they interacted with more cruelty than genuine friendship, and fifty-minute treatment sessions once each week appeared insufficient to facilitate positive changes. No real caring appeared present, just behaviors that tended to reinforce inappropriate, unproductive and self-defeating interactions. Furthermore, interactions that dealt with positive feelings were virtually non-existent.

According to the central problem of this investigation, the subjects were limited to those with low-economic backgrounds. Apparently, the subjects who received the group treatment failed to find among their peers any who could be used as positive role models. Kvaraceus (1959) and Ohlsen (1970) indicated that it is important to include positive role models in groups of adolescents who have had inappropriate and antisocial behavior reinforced by negative circumstances. Flanders (1968) described role modeling as the situation in which

. . . observation of the behavior of a model . . . affects the observer so that the observer's subsequent behavior becomes more similar to the observed . . . behavior of the model (p. 316).

It appears that when counseling groups of low-economic adolescents the inclusion of positive role models should be considered. One might also note that Maccoby and Wilson (1957) reported that children attended more closely to same-sex models, but social class similarity of models and observers yielded no differential effects. So, if positive role models are used, the counselor need not be concerned with including only those positive models with similar

economic backgrounds as that of the observers, because it appears insignificant.

An active counseling approach appeared more effective in facilitating low-economic subjects to deal with feelings and personal data. The active mode of client-centered counseling with specific emphasis on confronting low-economic students with the reality of their ineffective behavior appeared conducive to personal disclosures.

As a treatment group, group-individual counselees were more open and honest than either the group counselees or the individual counselees, and the individual counseling treatment was more threatening to the subjects than the group counseling treatment.

It was obvious to the investigator that several subjects who received the individual treatment and several who received the individual counseling portion of group-individual treatment were experiencing considerable stress. The stress was manifested through silence, rapidly talking (few pauses), noticeable swallows, shivering, slouching with hand over face or mouth, the aversion of eye contact with investigator, stuttering, or quivering voices.

One subject associated counseling with being mentally retarded and different from other students in the school. The investigator's void of sensitivity in placing subjects' names on the school's daily bulletin prior to group counseling sessions probably did nothing to either alter their perceptions of counseling or their feelings about how other students in the school perceived students who received counseling. Apparently, their prior experiences with counseling have

been crises oriented; so, it appeared that subjects associated any counseling as an indictment of being mentally deficient or possessing unmanageable problems.

Summary

The forty subjects composing the sample were pretested with the Personal Orientation Inventory. Only twenty-eight subjects remained to be posttested after the eleven week treatment period. Two scales on the POI (self-regard and self-acceptance) were used to obtain data about the effects of group counseling, group-individual counseling, and individual counseling when the client-centered counseling approach was used. The sample was representative by sex and enrollment of low-economic sophomores in a Southwest Virginia city high school.

A multivariate analysis of covariance was run on the data employing the MANOVA (Clyde, 1969) Computer Program, to determine the effects of respondent's sex and the effects of treatments on the subjects' self-regard and self-acceptance. The data was analyzed according to the research hypotheses. All research hypotheses were retained; no difference among the groups were found. However, the discussion indicated that the statistical findings should be tempered and held in the proper perspective, because some subjects possessed poor reading and comprehension skills, and also, because of variations in counselor style during the treatment process (Appendix B).

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND SUMMARY

Discussion

The data resulting from this study can best be described and related to previous findings through discussions in terms of the variables which were under examination.

Self-Perception. Self-perception is the concurrent interpretation of the "Self-Regard" and "Self-Acceptance" scales on the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI). It was one of the primary concerns of the investigation (see range of scores on page). The subjects' self-perceptions were important in terms of the effects of the three counseling treatments. The self-perception of males receiving group counseling had consistent positive changes. The subjects composing the control group also showed consistency with their self-perceptions changing slightly (positive) in the area of self-acceptance. Average and normal self-perceptions were found among the low-economic tenth grade subjects completing the treatment phase of this study. This finding is indicated with some reservations because some subjects experienced difficulty in reading and comprehending questions on the POI. However, the finding that low-economic sophomores had average and normal self-perceptions was consistent with both the Soares and Soares (1969) and Trowbridge, et al. (1972) studies that described low-economic adolescents as having normal and above average

self-perceptions. No support was given to Dixon's (1972) belief that disadvantaged/advantaged is the major distinguishing variable in determining the self-perceptions of low-economic subjects. Furthermore, no support was given to a number of studies (Densley, 1968; Gordon, 1974; Healey, 1970; Keller, 1963; Long, et al., 1968; Lord, 1970; Odom, 1973; Owen, 1972; Whiteman and Deutsch, 1968) that depicted low-economic students as having low self-perceptions. Because some subjects experienced difficulty in answering questions on the Personal Orientation Inventory both on the pretest and posttest, the accuracy of their answers, and the result that indicated they possessed average and normal self-perceptions are subject to doubt. Shostrom (1966) indicated the testing time to be approximately 30 minutes, but some subjects required approximately two hours and 30 minutes to complete the inventory. The POI manual indicated that the POI had been used with school age children down to age 13 with no apparent difficulty in interpreting the items. Yet the subjects in this study were 15, 16, and 17 years of age, and a substantial number experienced difficulty in interpreting the questions. Few subjects finished the POI pretreatment or posttreatment in less than 30 minutes.

Shostrom's suggestions as to the POI's administration time and to the youngest age below which the inventory should not be administered appeared inaccurate for the low-economic subjects in the present study. The standard English language was not a common language for this study's sample, and terminology presented a problem in using the POI; for words in the POI were not normally spoken by the low-economic

subjects in this sample, and it appeared for many questions that their choices might be moot. It also appeared that the POI's administration time for low-economic sophomores needs to be increased, and/or the lowest age at which the POI should not be administered appeared to need adjusting for low-economic students. Another alternative would be to read the POI questions to low-economic sophomores; defining terms in selected questions would expedite comprehension.

Sex and Self-Perception. The subjects' sexes appeared important, though not statistically significant, in terms of the effects of the three counseling treatments. Males and females were found to score at an average level in self-perceptions according to the normative data in the POI manual (see range of scores on page 52). This occurrence should be viewed with the understanding that some subjects experienced difficulty in reading and comprehending questions on the POI as indicated by the time required to complete the inventory. However, males and females did appear to see themselves differently as indicated by Wiggins (1973). These findings were in accordance with both the Bohan (1973) and Prendergast (1974) studies which indicated that social class was not a significant variable in discerning positive or negative self-concepts. Males were found to be lower in self-regard than females on the pretest but higher in self-regard than females on the posttest. Females were found to be consistently higher than males on the self-acceptance pretest and posttest. These findings are not consistent with the studies (Carpenter and Busse, 1969; Miskimins and Baker, 1973) which suggested that girls have lower self-concepts than

boys. Self-acceptance and self-concept are not to be construed as the same variable. Shostrom (1966) defined self-acceptance as the "ability to like one's self in spite of one's weaknesses." (p. 20) Felker (1974) defined self-concept as "a unique set of perceptions, ideas, and attitudes which an individual has about himself." (p. 2) Self-acceptance is only a partial view of the whole person; whereas, self-concept encompasses the whole view of self. Overall, treatment appeared more effective for males than females, but females had a much larger change in self-acceptance than males had in self-acceptance.

The appearance of the treatment being more effective for males than for females is based upon pretest and posttest difference scores (self-regard and self-acceptance) that were slightly above zero for males. Its legitimacy could possibly be challenged, because the females' pretest and posttest difference score for self-regard (-.333) did not decline nearly as much when compared with the males' pretest and posttest difference score on self-regard (.077) in relationship to the increase in the females' pretest and posttest difference score on self-acceptance (2.200) when compared with the males' pretest and posttest difference score on self-acceptance (.769). Consequently, were it not for the abnormal pretest and posttest difference score (18.000) on self-acceptance for females in the individual treatment group, it might be appropriate to say that treatment was more effective for females. Such a score indicated that the answers given to questions pertaining to self-acceptance by females

in that group were likely an over estimation of their self-acceptance and subject to scrutiny and doubt by the investigator.

Group Counseling. The effects of this counseling procedure on self-perception though not statistically significant appeared to have some importance. Males receiving group counseling had increases in both self-regard and self-acceptance. Females receiving group counseling had a decline in self-regard but a large increase in self-acceptance. It appeared that the increase in self-acceptance for females was at the expense of self-regard. Overall, those subjects receiving group counseling had a small decline in self-regard and a moderate increase in self-acceptance. Subjects who received group counseling were found to have normal and average self-perceptions (see range of scores on page 52) pretest and posttest according to answers on the POI. The findings in this study appeared somewhat consistent with those of other studies (Duncan, 1965; Moates, 1969; Payne and Dunn, 1970) that indicated a tendency for group counseling to facilitate positive changes in self-perception. Also supported were the findings of Jones (1971) and Gaston (1972) that group counseling did not significantly effect the self-perceptions of low-economic students. Perhaps group counseling is more effective in facilitating positive growth in self-perception for males than females, but it is important to note that two male subjects were lost from the group during treatment. One male subject failed to show for any of the eleven group counseling sessions and another subject showed for the second session, but failed to return again. All other subjects

who attended the first group session stayed with the treatment until its termination. Each subject missed an average of 1.5 treatment sessions, but no subject missed more than three treatment sessions.

This treatment group never appeared to get beyond a superficial level of communicating. They appeared to stumble through the whole treatment period looking for external topics to discuss. One would have thought that sports was their major love to hear them talk. On numerous occasions, they released tension through laughter. Eighty percent of the subjects appeared to know one another from the group's beginning, because most of them lived in the same neighborhood. Instead of attempting to communicate on a feeling level, they appeared to enjoy being cruel to one another by either taking verbal potshots or by teasing because of something they had heard external to the group. They appeared to enjoy attempting to oneup (embarrass) one another. It appeared that they found it easy to function in old established patterns of behavior.

The fact that this treatment group never became a cohesive counseling group can be contributed to variations in counselor style during the treatment process (Appendix B). The investigator was not specific enough during the first counseling session in setting parameters of group behavior. He unconsciously encouraged subjects to speak for him by suggesting that feedback be given to other subjects who spoke about external topics. In doing this, he was attempting to manipulate group members instead of confronting those subjects who spoke on external topics himself. He was not completely

honest and open in relating his personal feelings about what was happening during the group process. He mostly used the passive mode of client-centered counseling, but he deviated at times and used an active mode of client-centered counseling, which was found to be more effective in facilitating self-disclosures. The investigator was inconsistent in his counseling style, because he facilitated the group in the client-centered counseling style as understood by him. His understanding was basically the passive mode from Roger's (1951) earlier work. Such an approach appeared ineffective and of little value in facilitating self-understanding among the subjects; consequently, during portions of the first three treatment sessions and particularly in treatment session four (Appendix B), he used an active counseling style, but he returned to the passive mode in treatment sessions five through eleven in an attempt to be consistent as possible during the remaining treatment sessions, but it might be that the group never perceived the necessary conditions in the counselor (unconditional positive regard, congruence, empathic understanding).

At the beginning of selected treatment sessions, the investigator encouraged interactions on external topics without being conscious of it, by asking subjects to relate problems that had occurred prior to the treatment session. He also seemed to ignore a number of disclosed feelings and non-verbal behaviors. A point that deserves some forethought, when counseling more than six low-economic subjects in a group, is the need for a co-facilitator or positive role models.

With an additional facilitator, one might be assured of minimizing the number of disclosures or non-verbal behaviors missed during treatment sessions. On the other hand, positive role models would exhibit behavior that warrants emulation by peers.

Another counselor variation from client-centered counseling occurred when the investigator exhibited teacher behavior by asking subjects the number of feeling words they knew and at other times offering examples of words that disclosed feelings. He exhibited such behavior, because the subjects appeared to know virtually no feeling words as indicated by the words they used to disclose feelings (Appendix B). Owning feelings appeared difficult for them and saying them openly without hesitation seldom occurred. It should be noted that this teacher behavior may have biased the subjects perception of the counselor.

Upon viewing the three counseling procedures used in the study, the investigator appeared to use the passive mode of client-centered counseling more during the group treatment than during either the group-individual treatment or the individual treatment. Perhaps such a statement has merit because the subjects' behavior in the group-individual and individual treatments were such that they required the investigator to use a more active mode of client-centered counseling. They were either willing to disclose feelings, to be silent or to vacillate between disclosures and silence.

Group-Individual Counseling. This counseling procedure had no statistically significant effects upon self-perception, but it did appear associated with interesting trends. Male and female subjects who received group-individual counseling appeared to have decreased in self-regard. Males were found to decrease more in self-regard than females. Male subjects were also found to decrease in self-acceptance, but female subjects showed a slight increase in self-acceptance. The females increase in self-acceptance appeared equal to the increase found in self-acceptance for females in the control group. Females in the other two treatment groups had increases in self-acceptance that were four or more times greater than the increase found in those females who experienced group-individual counseling. The findings of this study did not concur with Easterwood's (1973) findings that group-individual counselees would experience more positive gains in self-perceptions than those subjects who received group counseling only. Overall, group-individual counselees appeared to show a decrease in self-perception. The no-counseled control group appeared to have come through the treatment period slightly better than the group-individual counselees. However, the appearance of a decline in self-perception on the POI, in itself, is deceiving; for the group-individual counselees were perceived by the investigator as seriously dealing with honest feelings and thoughts. The appearance of a decline in self-perception for this group, perhaps, was nothing less than a candid view of reality testing on its part. Its members had begun to consider serious thoughts about themselves that appeared to

have lead to critical introspection. Such introspection could only lead to scores on the POI's self-regard and self-acceptance scales that might lead one to surmise that the subjects benefited little from the treatment. Had treatment continued for additional counseling sessions, a marked positive change in self-perception might have been achieved by the group-individual counseling subjects.

The concept of delayed effects of treatment deserves some consideration at this juncture. According to Gurman (1969) and Tschumi (1973), there exists an interval of time following the treatment period before there are noticeable effects from the counseling experience. Consequently, there exists the possibility that subjects in this treatment group will eventually show some more positive effects of the treatment.

Perhaps it is a credit to the combination of group and individual counseling (alternated weekly) that the group portion of this treatment became a cohesive counseling group. The investigator's counseling style varied with the group portion of this treatment as it varied in the group counseling treatment. Apparently the individual portion of this treatment with its tendency toward dealing with self-disclosures and personal needs assisted the group to move in a similar direction. As in the group counseling treatment, the investigator's major counseling variation was in not being specific enough during the first counseling session in setting parameters of group behavior. Consequently, other variations in counselor style appeared an outgrowth of an incomplete orientation. It should be

understood that only the first four variations in counselor style (see group counseling treatment) were common for both the group portion of this treatment and the group counseling treatment. Moreover, the counseling style for this treatment group tended to be more toward the passive mode of client-centered counseling, but the subjects' needs and disclosures (Appendix B) made it difficult for the investigator to maintain the passive mode of client-centered counseling.

The investigator used a similar approach to counseling the subjects in the individual portion of this treatment as that used in the individual counseling treatment. Between treatment sessions two and eleven, only two subjects were lost from this treatment group; however, six subjects were lost from the individual counseling treatment during the same period of time. Apparently, the stress experienced by subjects in this treatment group during the individual sessions was relieved by the group sessions. Had the subjects in this treatment group received nothing but the individual treatment, they probably would have dropped from treatment as some did in the individual treatment group for the subjects in this treatment group manifested similar indications of stress, e.g., silence, stuttering, and quivering voices as the subjects in the individual counseling treatment.

The combination of group and individual counseling (alternated weekly) tended to be more effective in facilitating self-understanding and the willingness of subjects to give feedback to one another than

either the individual counseling treatment or the group counseling treatment. Disclosures in individual sessions tended to compliment and supplement disclosures in the group sessions and vice versa. Disclosures in any one particular group session facilitated other subjects to disclose self in that group session and subsequent group sessions, but no relationship (non-statistical) was observed between disclosures in prior group sessions and disclosures of a similar nature by different subjects in later counseling sessions; however, such a relationship was viewed within group sessions during the treatment process (Appendix B). Some subjects also initiated disclosures during individual sessions and subsequently shared them with the group, and the group was supportive.

Subjects who received group-individual counseling talked more openly during individual sessions than those subjects who only received the individual counseling treatment. Group sessions with this treatment group seemed more open and honest than those sessions experienced with subjects who received the group counseling treatment only.

The combination of group and individual counseling appeared to have had a profound effect upon the group-individual counselees, because they could not hide themselves or be semi-passive during each counseling session. Each subject knew that one-to-one counseling sessions would be given to them, and they would have considerable time during which to learn about themselves and simultaneously be given the investigator's complete attention. They were sometimes

obscure in group sessions but not in individual sessions. Their trusting the investigator in individual sessions appeared to have facilitated their risk-taking in the group sessions.

Individual Counseling. The individual counseling treatment did not produce any statistically significant changes in self-perception, but a few trends appeared associated with this counseling procedure. Males appeared to have decreased in self-regard but increased in self-acceptance. Females appeared to have increased in self-regard and self-acceptance. The increase in self-acceptance by female individual counselees appeared twice that shown by females who received group counseling and eight times that by females who received group-individual counseling or no counseling. Overall, individual counseling appeared to facilitate positive changes in the self-perception of female subjects. The findings of this study appeared to support Mason's (1972) conclusion that individual counseling tends to positively change self-perception.

During the treatment process (Appendix B), the investigator appeared to use a more active mode of client-centered counseling than the mode of client-centered counseling used with the group subjects. Such a change in counseling style was contributed to the subjects' behavior. They were either willing to disclose feelings, to be silent, or to vacillate between disclosures and silence. The investigator responded to their needs as perceived by him. Generally, the subjects in this treatment group found dealing with feelings difficult. They did not care to talk about their feelings, because

for them talking of personal feelings and concerns was not characteristic of their behavior. Feelings were like something they had hidden away to protect. The fear of retrieving those feelings meant becoming vulnerable, and their fears were usually manifested through silence, noticeable swallows, shivering, slouching with hand(s) over face or mouth, the aversion of eye contact with investigator, stuttering, or quivering voices.

The silent subjects were a particular concern for the investigator. They tended to initiate few verbalizations. The males tended to be more silent than the females. Perhaps the tendency toward silence by male subjects was indicative of an unwritten understanding among males from low-economic backgrounds that one learns to take care of his own problems and concerns, and only females and sissies knowingly express feelings or show emotions. It was necessary for the investigator to intervene during three to five minute intervals of time to facilitate verbalizations by several silent subjects. If not for interventions by the investigator, some subjects would have sat silently for the entire treatment session. Apparently, the only way to obtain verbalizations from extremely silent subjects is to either continuously intervene or rationally confront their behavior.

Upon reviewing the treatment process (Appendix B), the investigator learned that when subjects did not desire to deal with an intervention, they would pretend not to hear what the counselor said. Such a technique was simply a method of avoidance which acted to thwart treatment. Another technique used by the subjects to

thwart treatment was the lateness of arriving for treatment sessions and absenteeism. Absenteeism for this treatment group was high and only one less than that of the group counseling treatment (thirteen) and five higher than the group-individual treatment (seven). There was also a non-statistical relationship between lateness or arriving for treatment sessions and those subjects who later became dropouts. A behavior pattern was evident for those subjects who dropped. They would either come to the investigator's office late for treatment sessions and/or completely fail to arrive for treatment sessions. If they were absent from school, the investigator would send for them during another day of that treatment week. The lateness for treatment sessions, absenteeism, and dropouts were perhaps indicative of the threat perceived by subjects during the treatment sessions. It might be that the subjects who dropped never perceived the necessary conditions in the counselor (unconditional positive regard, congruence, empathic understanding). There appeared no other reason for six subjects to drop from this treatment group. Especially when compared to the dropout rates of three for the group-individual treatment group and two for the group treatment. But it could be that the necessary conditions as projected by the investigator were not sufficient, not perceived adequately by the subjects, or because of internal stress not perceived to any degree by the subjects.

Individual counselees appeared to believe that they were selected because they were different from other sophomores in school. In fact, one mentioned feeling "mentally retarded" for coming to the

investigator for counseling. Subjects in the group treatment and group-individual treatment knew that other sophomores were receiving the same services; for they were in groups with peers.

The Self-Regard/Self-Acceptance Paradox. Ohlsen (1970)

suggested that "counseling is an accepting, trusting, encouraging relationship between a counselor and one or more clients Clients not only try to change their own behavior and attitudes, they expect to change them, and they expect fellow clients to change theirs, too." (p. 24-25) The counseling procedures utilized in this investigation tended to facilitate results that were contrary to the basic philosophy engendered in Ohlsen's definition of counseling; that is, clients should expect positive results from their investment of time and resources to counseling. Such distinguished results were not apparent in this study. Upon looking at self-perception from its two composing factors (self-regard and self-acceptance), the treatments in this investigation appeared to facilitate a decrease in self-regard and an increase in self-acceptance. Results of this gender contradict the nature and intentions of counseling and challenges the value of such procedures. When counseling procedures give the appearance of having facilitated negative changes in subjects that indicate growth in aversion of personal strengths, but facilitate positive changes in those subjects to like and accept themselves more because of personal weaknesses; then, those counseling procedures must be viewed as inappropriate for those subjects. However, it is important to note that the statistical findings are based upon answers

to questions (POI) on which some subjects experienced difficulty in reading and comprehension.

The passive mode of client-centered counseling as an approach for facilitating positive changes in both self-regard and self-acceptance tended to be unproductive and inappropriate for most of the low-economic subjects in this study. Consequently, the passive mode of client-centered counseling can be challenged because of its want of active and assertive interventions or task orientation, which appear as important factors in facilitating positive changes in both self-regard and self-acceptance of low-economic subjects.

Thorne (1973) spoke to the limitations of client-centered counseling. He said:

. . . its limitations in relation to more directive reorganization quickly become evident, and its primary successes were with mildly upset persons having relatively intact resources who can solve their own problems with a minimum of protection and facilitation of emotional expressivity (p. 454).

Client-centered counseling as an approach to facilitating the self-perceptions of low-economic sophomores should not be condemned on the bases of the findings in this study. However, the passive mode of client-centered counseling as understood by the investigator and utilized in this investigation resulted in no statistically significant positive changes in self-perceptions. An active mode of client-centered counseling (i.e., rational and based upon immediate interaction and/or disclosures) might be a more effective counseling style with low-economic sophomores. This is suggested because upon those occasions when the active mode of client-centered counseling was

used as understood by the investigator, it appeared to facilitate sufficiently more self-disclosures by subjects than did the passive mode of client-centered counseling. The exclusion of positive role models from the group treatment also appeared to be a significant factor in the dearth of self-disclosures. As indicated by Kvaraceus (1959) and Ohlsen (1970), it is important to include positive role models in groups of adolescents who have had inappropriate and anti-social behavior reinforced by negative circumstances. If positive role models are not included, then peers tend to reinforce unproductive behavior which is simply their manner of relating to one another.

A task oriented behavior counseling style may also be an appropriate procedure for facilitating both a positive self-regard and self-acceptance in low-economic sophomores. Each client would have a greater investment in achieving goals set for himself/herself (with the counselor's assistance) but achieved in measurable task. Such a procedure might minimize the stigma of counseling as being for mentally deficient students.

Behavioral counseling in small groups would also give low-economic students the opportunity to try learning principles designated to assist them in achieving goals in effective and efficient manners (Cormier & Cormier, 1975). Specifically designated exercises would facilitate group goals.

Conclusions

The following is a summary of the major conclusions and trends established in the present study:

1. The three counseling procedures investigated in this study failed to significantly increase self-perceptions. The findings of Jones (1971) and Gaston (1972) that group counseling did not significantly affect the self-perception of low-economic students were supported. Easterwood's (1973) findings that group-individual counselees would experience more positive gains in self-perception than those subjects who received group counseling only were not supported. However, Mason's (1972) conclusion that individual counseling tended to positively change self-perception was given support.

2. The subjects' sexes were not found to be a significant variable in the facilitation of positive growth in self-perception. However, both males and females were found to have average and normal self-perceptions. This was consistent with both the Soares and Soares (1969) and Trowbridge, et al. (1972) studies that described low-economic adolescents as having normal and above average self-perceptions.

3. Each sex did appear to see itself differently as indicated by Wiggins (1973). Males liked themselves more because of their strengths (self-regard) and less because of their weaknesses (self-acceptance); however, females liked themselves more in spite of their weaknesses and less because of their strengths. Their low-economic

status appeared not to have negatively affected their self-perceptions as the findings of Hishiki (1969), Carpenter and Busse (1969), Miskimins and Baker (1973), and Bohan (1973) indicated.

4. Group counseling appeared more effective in facilitating positive growth in the self-perceptions of male subjects. This finding supported the findings of Duncan (1965) who found some improvement in the self-concept of his ninth-grade male subjects but not in his female subjects.

5. Individual counseling appeared more effective in facilitating positive growth in the self-perception of female subjects.

6. Group-individual counselees appeared not to have benefited from treatment. Such a finding is inconsistent with the findings of Rohde (1965) and Easterwood (1973) who found group-individual counseling to be more effective in facilitating positive changes in self-concepts than either group counseling or individual counseling alone.

7. The group-individual treatment (alternated weekly) facilitated trust, self-disclosures, and good attendance at treatment sessions. The group portion appeared to relieve the stress experienced by subjects during the individual sessions, and the individual sessions appeared to facilitate self-disclosures by the subjects during group sessions. The alternated counseling procedure appeared to facilitate a more productive treatment group than the group counseling treatment or individual counseling treatments alone.

8. The passive mode of client-centered counseling as understood by the investigator and utilized in the study was ineffective

in facilitating statistically significant positive changes in the self-perceptions of low-economic sophomores.

9. The POI can be challenged as an effective instrument for measuring the self-perceptions of the low-economic sophomores. Some subjects experienced difficulty in reading and comprehending questions on the instrument.

Summary

The central problem of this study was to investigate the effects of group counseling, group-individual counseling, and individual counseling on changes in self-perceptions of high school sophomores of low-economic background.

Low-economic male and female subjects appeared to have average self-perceptions according to the normative data in the POI manual (Shostrom, 1966). This finding was consistent with the findings of both Soares and Soares (1969) and Trowbridge, et al. (1972) that described low-economic adolescents as having normal and above average self-perceptions. However, as indicated by Wiggins (1973) males and females did appear to see themselves differently. These findings were in accordance with both the Bohan (1973) and Prendergast (1974) studies which indicated that social class was not a significant variable in discerning positive or negative self-concepts. No support was given to a number of studies (Densley, 1968; Gordon, 1974; Healey, 1970; Keller, 1963; Long, et al., 1968; Lord, 1970; Odom, 1973; Owen, 1972; Whiteman and Deutsch, 1968) that depicted low-economic students as having low self-perceptions.

Some subjects experienced difficulty in answering the questions on the instrument used to determine self-perceptions (POI) on both the pretest and posttest. Consequently, the statistical findings should be interpreted with the understanding that the answers given to questions on the POI by some subjects were subject to question.

The male subjects in this study who received group counseling showed increases in both self-regard and self-acceptance. Female group counselees showed a decline in self-regard but a large increase in self-acceptance. The findings in this study appeared somewhat consistent with those of other studies (Duncan, 1965; Moates, 1969; Payne and Dunn, 1970) that indicated a tendency for group counseling to facilitate positive changes in self-perception. Also supported were the findings of Jones (1971) and Gaston (1972) that group counseling did not significantly affect the self-perceptions of low-economic students. However, it should be noted that the subjects composing the group treatment never became a cohesive counseling group.

Male group-individual counselees appeared to decrease in both self-regard and self-acceptance. The females composing this group also appeared to decrease in self-regard, but they appeared to show a small increase in self-acceptance. The findings of this study did not agree with Easterwood's (1973) findings that group-individual counselees would experience more positive gains in self-perceptions than those subjects who received group-counseling only.

Female individual counselees appeared to increase in self-regard and self-acceptance. The males in this group appeared to

decrease in self-regard but increase in self-acceptance. The findings of this study appeared to support Mason's (1972) conclusion that individual counseling tends to positively change self-perceptions.

The present study has added to the literature on the self-perceptions of low-economic sophomores and on the effects of three counseling procedures on their self-perceptions. It raised additional questions and suggestions for action and other studies.

Recommendations for Action and Further Research

Recommended Actions. The first seven recommendations to follow should immediately be incorporated into schools that serve low-economic students. The last two should be worked toward as a long range objective, but their inclusion should be accomplished within a specific time.

1. Counselor's should be specific in setting parameters of group behavior during orientation sessions with low-economic students.

2. When counseling groups of low-economic students, co-facilitators or positive role models should be used with groups of more than six students.

3. In further studies that use the present form of the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI), it is recommended that selected terms be defined and questions read to expedite subjects' comprehension.

4. Group facilitators should include only subjects with similar concerns or problems as a norm group when counseling low-economic subjects.

5. Schools should examine the tardiness and absenteeism of their low-economic students and their relationship to dropouts. If a positive relationship is found, school administrators should release their most competent (student oriented) counselors from administrivia and allow those specialists to work with prospective dropouts. Empirical evaluations of the programs should be periodically submitted to the school administration.

6. Preventive and developmental counseling should be offered to low-economic students. They appeared to view counseling as for mentally deficient and problematic students.

7. Counselors should neither place students' names on the daily bulletin before or after group counseling sessions, nor announce them over the public address system. Some procedure should be worked out with the students and teachers.

8. The reading and comprehension skills possessed by the low-economic students were found wanting. Schools should design or broaden innovative and interesting reading programs at the secondary level and encourage students through parental support to learn to read. If that approach fails, then reading programs should be offered, and students should not be permitted to graduate from high school until they can demonstrate an adequate reading competence.

9. School administrators and guidance personnel should work together to increase low-economic students, teachers, and parental access to counselors' services. Counselors should be released from administrivia with guidance workers (aides or work study students).

Recommended Research. 1. The design, employed in this study, utilizing the three counseling procedures should be replicated in high schools in other geographical areas where counselors and low-economic students are interested in investigating new ways of serving their school population. The active mode of client-centered counseling is recommended.

2. A longitudinal investigation should be undertaken to examine the effects of client-centered counseling on the self-perceptions of low-economic students over a nine-month period (academic year). At intermittent points, e.g., 12 weeks and 24 weeks, observations should be made.

3. Studies are recommended that determine the effects of task oriented behavioral counseling on the self-perceptions of low-economic students. Such procedures appear potentially valuable for low-economic students, because each student could achieve concrete goals through measurable tasks.

4. A study should be conducted to determine if school counselors are perceived by low-economic students as specialists who can be trusted with feelings and personal data.

5. Studies should be conducted to examine the relationship between self-perception (self-regard and self-acceptance) and other counseling variables such as beginnings, processes, and outcomes.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books

- Campbell, D., & Stanley, J. Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research. Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1963.
- Clark, K. Educational simulation of racially disadvantaged children. In H. A. Passow (Ed.), Education in depressed areas. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1963.
- Coleman, J. et al. Equality of educational opportunity. Washington, D.C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1966.
- Combs, A., & Snygg, D. Individual behavior. (Rev. ed.). New York: Harper and Row, 1959.
- Cormier, W. & Cormier, L. Behavioral counseling: initial procedures, individual and group strategies. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1975.
- Educational Policies Commission. Education and the disadvantaged American. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1962.
- Erikson, E. Childhood and society. New York: Norton, 1960.
- Felker, D. Building positive self-concepts. Minnesota: Burgess Publishing Company, 1974.
- Havighurst, R. Human development and education. New York: Longmans, Green, 1953.
- Jersild, A. In search of self. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1960.
- Kanfer, F., & Phillips, J. Learning foundations of behavior therapy. New York: Wiley and Sons, 1970.
- Maslow, A. Motivation and personality. New York: Harper, 1954.
- Maslow, A. Toward a psychology of being. New York: Van Nostrand, 1962.

- McCandles, B. Children: behavior and development. Atlanta: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1967.
- Ohlsen, M. Group counseling. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1970.
- Perls, F. Ego, hunger and aggression. London: George Allen and Unwin, Ltd., 1947.
- Raskin, N. An objective study of the locus-of-evaluation factor in psychotherapy. In W. Wolff & J. Precker (Eds.), Success in psychotherapy. Chapter 6. New York: Grune and Stratton, 1952.
- Riesman, D., Glazer, N., & Denney, R. The lonely crowd. New York: Doubleday, 1950.
- Rogers, C. Counseling and psychotherapy. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1942.
- Rogers, C. Client-centered therapy: its current practice, implication, and theory. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1951.
- Rogers, C. Client-centered therapy. In S. Arieti (Ed.), American handbook of psychiatry, Vol. 3. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1959.
- Rogers, C. A theory of therapy, personality, and interpersonal relationships, as developed in the client-center framework. In S. Kock (Ed.), Psychology: A study of a science. Vol. III. Formulations of the person and the social context. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1959.
- Rosenberg, M., & Simmons, R. Black and white self-esteem: the urban school child. Washington, D.C.: American Sociological Association, 1968.
- Shostrom, E. Manual for the personal orientation inventory. Educational and Industrial Testing Service, 1966.
- Tannenbaum, A. Social and psychological consideration in the study of the socially disadvantaged. In P. Witty (Ed.), Sixty-sixth year-book of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part 1, The educationally retarded and disadvantaged. Chicago: Chicago University Press, 1967.
- Morn, B., & Eclectic, F. Psychotherapy. In R. Corsini (Ed.), Current psychotherapies. Itasca: F. E. Peacock Publishers, Inc., 1973.
- Vargas, M. Changes in self-awareness during client-centered therapy. In C. Rogers and R. Dymond (Eds.), Psychotherapy and personality change. Chicago: Chicago University Press, 1954, 145-165.

Whiteman, N., & Deutsch, M. Social disadvantaged as related to intellectual and language development. In M. Deutsch, I. Katz, & A. Jensen (Eds.), Social class, race and psychological development. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968.

Wrenn, C. The counselor in a changing world. Washington, D.C.: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1962.

Periodicals

Bilousky, D., McMasters, W., Shorr, J., & Singer, S. Individual and group counseling. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1953, 31, 363-365.

Bledsoe, J. Self-concept of children and their intelligence, achievement, interests, and anxiety. Journal of Individual Psychology, 1964, 20, 55-58.

Bohan, J. Age and sex differences in self-concept. Adolescence, 1973, 8, 379-384.

Brookover, W., & Thomas, S. Self-concept of ability and school achievement. Sociology of Education, 1963, 37, 271-275.

Caplan, S. The effect of group counseling on junior high school boys' concept of themselves in school. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1957, 4, 124-128.

Caplin, M. Self-concept, level of aspiration, and academic achievement. Journal of Negro Education, 1968, 27, 435-439.

Carpenter, T., & Busse, T. Development of self-concept in Negro and white welfare children. Child Development, 1969, 40, 935-939.

Davidson, H., & Land, G. Children's perceptions of their teachers' feelings toward them related to self-perception, school achievement, and behavior. Journal of Experimental Education, 1960, 11, 107-118.

Epps, E. Correlates of academic achievement among northern and southern urban Negro students. Journal of Social Issues, 1969, 25, 55-70.

Eysenck, H. The effects of psychotherapy: an evaluation. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1965, 16, 319-324.

- Flanders, J. A review of the research of imitative behavior. Psychological Bulletin, 1968, 69, 316-337.
- Froehlich, C. Must counseling be individual. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1958, 18, 681-689.
- Gordon, B. Self-concept and need factors of inner-city high school adolescents and dropouts. Child Study Journal, 1974, 4, 21-31.
- Gurman, A. Group counseling with underachievers: a review and evaluation. International Journal of Psychotherapy, 1969, 19, 463-474.
- Hishiki, P. The self-concept of sixth grade girls of Mexican-American descent. California Journal of Educational Research, 1969, 20, 56-62.
- Hoyt, D. An evaluation of groups and individual programs in vocational guidance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1955, 39, 26-30.
- Keller, S. The social world of the urban slum child: some early findings. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1963, 33, 823-831.
- Kern, R., Kelly, J., & Downey, M. Research and innovation in elementary school guidance and counseling. Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, 1973, 8, 68-70.
- Kvaraceus, W. Nature of the problem of juvenile delinquency in the United States. Journal of Negro Education, 1959, 28, 190-198.
- Light, L., & Alexakos, C. Effects of individual and group counseling on study habits. Journal of Educational Research, 1970, 63, 450-454.
- Long, B., & Henderson, E. Self-social concepts of disadvantaged school beginners. Journal of Genetic Psychology, 1968, 113, 41-51.
- Long, B., Ziller, R., & Henderson, E. Developmental changes in the self-concept during middle childhood. School Review, 1968, 76, 210-230.
- Lynn, D. A note on sex differences in the development of masculine and feminine identification. Psychological Review, 1959, 66, 126-136.
- Maccoby, F., & Wilson, W. Identification and observational learning from films. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1957, 55, 76-87.

- Mackeen, B., & Herman, A. Effects of group counseling on self-esteem. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1974, 21, 210-214.
- Marston, A. Dealing with low self-confidence. Educational Research, 1968, 10, 134-138.
- McKee, J., & Sherriffs, A. The differential evaluation of males and females. Journal of Personality, 1957, 25, 356-371.
- McKee, J., & Sherriffs, A. Men's and women's beliefs, ideals, and self-concepts. American Journal of Sociology, 1959, 64, 356-363.
- Miskimins, R., & Baker, B. Self-concept and the disadvantaged. Journal of Community Psychology, 1973, 1, 347-361.
- Paschal, B. The role of self-concept in achievement. Journal of Negro Education, 1968, 37, 392-396.
- Payne, B., & Dunn, C. Using group counseling to alter self-concepts of culturally different elementary children. Childhood Education, 1970, 47, 107-108.
- Prendergast, P., Zdep, S., & Sepulveda, P. Self-image among a national probability sample of girls. Child Study Journal, 1974, 4, 103-114.
- Raimy, V. Self-reference in counseling interviews. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1948, 12, 153-163.
- Rogers, C. The organization of personality. The American Psychologist, 1947, 2, 358-368.
- Rosenman, S. Changes in the representations of self, others, and interrelationship in client-centered therapy. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1955, 2, 271-277.
- Rubin, R. Adult male absence and the self-attitudes of black children. Child Study Journal, 1974, 4, 33-46.
- Sheerer, E. An analysis of the relationship between acceptance of and respect for self and acceptance of and respect for others in ten counseling cases. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1949, 13, 169-175.
- Sherriffs, A., & McKee, J. Qualitative aspects of beliefs about men and women. Journal of Personality, 1957, 25, 251-264.
- Shostrom, E. A test for the measurement of self-actualization. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1965, 24, 207-218.

- Shostrom, E., & Knapp, R. The relationship of a measure of self-actualization (POI) to a measure of pathology (MMPI) and to therapeutic growth. American Journal of Psychotherapy, 1966, 20, 193-202.
- Soares, A., & Soares, L. Self-perception of culturally disadvantaged children. American Educational Research Journal, 1969, 6, 31-45.
- Soares, A., & Soares, L. Comparative differences in the self-perception of disadvantaged and advantaged students. Journal of School Psychology, 1971, 9, 424-429.
- Stock, D. An investigation into the interrelationships between the self-concept and feelings directed toward other persons and groups. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1949, 13, 176-180.
- Trowbridge, N., Trowbridge, L., & Trowbridge, L. Self-concept and socio-economic status. Child Study Journal, 1972, 2, 123-142.
- Wiggins, R. Differences in self-perceptions of ninth grade boys and girls. Adolescence. 1973, 8, 491-496.
- Zirkle, P. Enhancing the self-concept of disadvantaged students. California Journal of Educational Research, 1972, 23, 125-137.

Dissertation Abstracts

- Aidman, T. An objective study of the changing relationship between the present self and wanted self pictures as expressed by the client in client-centered therapy. Unpublished dissertation, University of Chicago, 1951.
- Bowman, P. A study of the consistency of current, wish and proper self-concepts as a measure of therapeutic progress. Unpublished dissertation, University of Chicago, 1951.
- Campbell, P. Self-concept and academic achievement in middle grade public school children. Dissertation Abstracts, 1966, 27-4A, 1535.
- Clausen, R. The effects of group counseling on selected attitudes of economically disadvantaged high school age youth in a residential setting. Dissertation Abstracts International, 1971, 32-4A, 1847.

- Closson, E. An investigation of the relation between academic and non-academic achievement and self-concept of disadvantaged high school students. Dissertation Abstracts International, 1972, 33-6A, 2706.
- Cook, V. A comparison of work values of disadvantaged black males with work values of advantaged black males in an urban setting. Dissertation Abstracts International, 1971, 32-4A, 1848.
- Densley, K. Determining discrepancies that might exist between aptitude self-concept and measured aptitude. Dissertation Abstracts, 1968, 28-8A, 2981.
- Dixon, C. A comparative study of the self-concept of disadvantaged and advantaged Negro students. Dissertation Abstracts International, 1973, 33-7A, 3253.
- Duncan, J. The effects of shor-term group counseling on selected characteristics of culturally deprived ninth grade students. Dissertation Abstracts, 1965, 27-2A, 387.
- Dunkleberger, C. Group or individual counseling: an analysis of the effective use of counselors in personal counseling. Dissertation Abstracts, 1967, 28-5A, 1676.
- Easterwood, H. An investigation of the effectiveness of group versus group-individual counseling with potential high school dropouts. Dissertation Abstracts International, 1974, 34-7A, 3865.
- Gaston, M. Group counseling as a means of changing the self-concept of the economically disadvantaged. Dissertation Abstracts International, 1972, 33-6A, 2709.
- Glover, W. Selected effects of individual and group counseling on disadvantaged elementary pupils. Dissertation Abstracts International, 1973, 34-7A, 3869.
- Healey, G. Self-concept: a comparison of Negro, Anglo, and Spanish-American students across ethnic, sex, and socioeconomic variables. Dissertation Abstracts, 1970, 30-7A, 2849.
- Helberg, D. The effects of educational-vocational group guidance and client-centered group counseling on personality factors, student problems, and vocational direction of junior college students in a developmental program. Dissertation Abstracts, 1970, 30-10A, 4222.

- Jones, A. An investigation of self-concept using group counseling with Afro-American male ninth grade students. Dissertation Abstracts International, 1971, 32-9A, 3031.
- Lamb, D. Demonstrated internal-external reward expectancies as a variable in group counseling. Dissertation Abstracts, 1968, 29-8A, 2568.
- Letner, R. The effect of group counseling on the self-concept as measured by the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. Dissertation Abstracts, 1969, 30-7A, 2804.
- Lewis, S. A test of small-group procedures. Dissertation Abstracts, 1968, 30-6A, 2337.
- Lipscomb, I. The effects of counseling, both group and individual, on changes in self-concept of high school sophomore girls of low socio-economic background. Dissertation Abstracts, 1967, 28-9A, 3466.
- Lord, S. Self-concepts of Appalachian children: a comparative study of economically poor and economically advantaged children using the Piers-Harris Self-Concept Inventory. Dissertation Abstracts International, 1971, 31-12A, 6406.
- Mason, C. The effects of counseling on self-concept and academic achievement of disadvantaged dropouts. Dissertation Abstracts International, 1972, 33-6A, 2718.
- Meyers, E. Self-concept, family structure, and school achievement: a study of disadvantaged Negro boys. Dissertation Abstracts, 1967, 27, 3960A.
- Moates, H. The effects of activity group counseling on the self-concept, peer acceptance and grade-point average of disadvantaged seventh grade Negro boys and girls. Dissertation Abstracts, 1970, 30-9A, 3795.
- Odom, N. Disadvantaged black elementary school children's self-concepts and attitudes toward school versus their teachers' perceptions of the children's self-concept and attitudes toward school. Dissertation Abstracts International, 1973, 34-10A, 6268.
- Owen, E. A comparison of disadvantaged and nondisadvantaged elementary school pupils on two measures of self-concept as learners. Dissertation Abstracts International, 1973, 34-1A, 175.

- Rohde, N. Comparative effects of individual counseling and group counseling in increasing acceptance of self and others. Dissertation Abstracts, 1965, 26-3A, 1486.
- Sanchez, M. The effects of client-centered group counseling on self-concept and certain attitudes of seventh and eighth grade students. Dissertation Abstracts, 1970, 30-8A, 3283.
- Scofield, R. The comparative effects of short-term group, individual, and regular counseling on self-concept. Dissertation Abstracts International, 1969, 30-8A, 3286.
- Smith, R. A comparison of experimental group guidance and individual counseling methods to facilitate college students' vocational development. Dissertation Abstracts International, 1971, 32-10A, 4967.
- Stockey, M. A comparison of the effectiveness of group counseling, individual counseling, and employment among adolescent boys with adjustment problems. Dissertation Abstracts, 1961, 22, 491.
- Tschumi, S. Changes in self concept resulting from a crisis intervention marathon group process treatment for non-achieving two-year college freshmen. Unpublished dissertation, State University of New York at Albany, 1973.
- Ward, H. The effects of nondirective group counseling upon selected cognitive functioning and interpersonal relationship of junior high students. Dissertation Abstracts, 1967, 27-8A, 2363.

Miscellaneous

- Clyde, D. Multivariate analysis of variance on large computers. Miami: Clyde Computing Service, 1969.
- Frerichs, A. Relationship of self-esteem of the disadvantaged to school success. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Minneapolis, March, 1970. ERIC: ED 040 223.
- Roanoke City Planning Department, 1970 census, Roanoke City, Virginia.

APPENDIX A

CRITERIA AND PROCEDURES FOR IDENTIFYING
LOW-ECONOMIC STUDENTS

APPENDIX A (1)

CRITERIA AND PROCEDURES FOR IDENTIFYING
LOW-ECONOMIC STUDENTS

During the first week of school, each student is given a copy of Appendix A to take home to his parents. If his parents believe they qualify because of family income, then the application is completed and returned to the assistant principal. If the assistant principal finds the family's income to be appropriate according to the income scale, the application is approved, and the student is given a lunch ticket for free or reduced price meals and free milk.

FAMILY-SIZE AND INCOME SCALE FOR FREE
AND REDUCED PRICE MEALS AND FREE MILK

This is the income scale used by _____ to
School Division
determine eligibility for free or reduced price meals and free milk in
the 1974-1975 school year.

Family Size	Maximum Family Income For Free Meals and Free Milk	Family Income For Reduced Price Meals
1	\$ 2,910	\$ 2,911 - 4,080
2	3,830	3,831 - 5,360
3	4,740	4,741 - 6,630
4	5,640	5,641 - 7,900
5	6,480	6,481 - 9,070
6	7,310	7,311 - 10,240
7	8,060	8,061 - 11,290
8	8,810	8,811 - 12,340
9	9,510	9,511 - 13,320
10	10,190	10,191 - 14,260
11	10,860	10,861 - 15,200
12	11,530	11,531 - 16,140
Each additional family member	670	940

Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D.C.

APPENDIX A (2)

(For Use by Schools Participating in the Lunch and Special Milk Programs)

Dear Parent or Guardian:

The _____ School serves nutritious lunches every school day. Students may buy lunch for .45 & .50 cents and extra milk for .08 cents.

Children from families whose income is at or below the levels shown on the attached scale are eligible for free milk and for lunches free or at the reduced price of .20 cents. If your income is greater than those shown but you have unusually high medical bills, shelter costs in excess of 30 percent of your income, special education expenses due to the mental or physical condition of a child, or disaster or casualty losses, your children may still be eligible.

To apply at any time during the year for free or reduced-price lunches and free milk for your children, complete the attached application and return it to the school. Within 10 working days of receiving your application, the school will let you know whether or not your children are eligible. If you do not agree with the school's decision you have a right to a fair hearing. This can be done by calling or writing

_____ at _____
 (Name) (Address)

 (Phone)

In certain cases foster children are also eligible for those benefits. If you have foster children living with you and wish to apply for such lunches and milk for them, please notify us or indicate it on the application.

All children are treated the same regardless of ability to pay. In the operation of child feeding programs, no child will be discriminated against because of his race, sex, color, or natural origin.

If we can be of any further assistance or if your income changes during the year, please contact us.

Sincerely, _____
 (Name)

 (Title)

APPENDIX A (3)

APPLICATION

Parents: To apply for free or reduced price meals and free milk for your children, fill out this form and return it to the school office.

Date: _____

Name of children for whom application is made:

NAME

GRADE

<u>NAME</u>	<u>GRADE</u>
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Name and address of parent or guardian:

1. Total number in family living at home. _____

2. Total family income before deductions (include welfare payments, wages of all working members, pensions, social security, and all other income).

Fill in one: Yearly _____ Monthly _____ Weekly _____

3. If your gross family income exceeds the amount indicated in the attached family income scale, and you wish to apply under any of the special hardship conditions cited in the letter, please complete the application form and also describe the nature of your hardship here:

4. In certain cases foster children are eligible for free or reduced price meals regardless of your family income. If you have such children living with you and wish to apply for such meals for them, please give the amount of foster care payment received: _____

I hereby certify that all of the above information is true and correct to the best of my information and belief.

(Signature of Adult Family Member)

APPENDIX B

TREATMENT PROCESS AND CONTENT

APPENDIX B

TREATMENT PROCESS AND CONTENT
(As Analyzed From Audio-taped Counseling Sessions)

The counseling style used was client-centered as understood by the investigator. It was basically the passive mode from Roger's (1951) earlier work. In light of the investigator's understanding of client-centered counseling, he intervened in the individual or group process (movement) only when it was necessary to facilitate development. During those interventions, the following techniques were used when appropriate:

1. Listening, hearing and reflecting subjects' feelings;
2. Sharing personal experiences and feelings;
3. Feedback to individual subjects and to the whole group;
4. Confrontation;
5. Open-ended sentences and questions;
6. Paraphrasing; and
7. Summarization.

The investigator also used skills that contributed to the quality of his interventions such as eye contact, physical attentiveness, and verbalizing observations of behavior and interactions within the group and how the behavior appeared to affect individuals within the group.

With the exception of the intervention techniques appropriate for only the group counseling sessions, the investigator utilized the same approach with all subjects who composed the treatment groups.

Group Counseling

Session Number One (Friday afternoon - eight subjects present)

The investigator initiated this counseling session by having the subjects pin on name tags and share demographic information about themselves. The facilitator intervened to assist the subjects in disclosing their personal data. He explained how the counseling sessions would be scheduled and the necessity for subjects to arrive on time. Subsequently, each subject was asked to disclose his/her personal goals and expectations for counseling. The facilitator intervened to ease subjects interactions, so that all subjects would understand what each was interested in working toward in the group. He also discussed confidentiality and allowed subjects to relate the meaning such a concept had for them. The facilitator explained that the group could be used for self-understanding and growth. One subject related his feelings about the differentiated treatment given the school football teams. His feelings were shared by other subjects. The facilitator encouraged the subjects to develop a plan of action for change, but the facilitator failed to pick-up on the subjects' feelings. He gave feedback to the whole group that one subject was doing most of the speaking. The facilitator attempted to get the whole group to relax and to see the group members as being worthy of confidence.

Session Number Two (Friday afternoon - seven subjects present)

The investigator initiated this counseling session by having the new member introduce himself. This was followed by the other

subjects citing their names and disclosing personal feelings brought to the group. Two subjects moved into an interaction pertaining to one of the subject's boyfriend. The facilitator encouraged two other subjects to offer some feedback to the subjects relative to the inappropriateness of the topic, but they appeared unconcerned about the interaction. The facilitator finally confronted their interactions as not being the kind of exchanges that builds friendly relations among members in the group. He intervened many times in an attempt to facilitate feelings engendered by interactions between members. He also related his perception of the group's interaction at appropriate times during the session. The trust and cohesion among subjects appeared negligible during this session.

Session Number Three (Friday morning - six subjects present)

The investigator initiated this counseling session by encouraging subjects to share experiences that had caused them some concern during the past week. He attempted to facilitate their disclosure of those experiences, but the subjects were either not willing to share or indicated that they had no concerns worth sharing with the group. The facilitator related his perception of a subject's feelings who had been absent during the prior session. She acknowledged having things on her mind, but she did not care to share them with the group. The facilitator attempted to encourage interactions by silent subjects with interventions pertaining to the kinds of feelings they were having at different times during the session. One subject talked most of this session about topics that included little concern about

personal data or feelings. The facilitator did not confront his behavior. The investigator attempted unsuccessfully to get most subjects interacting.

Session Number Four (Friday morning - six subjects present)

The investigator initiated this counseling session by confronting the group with the need to discuss the interactions within the group and the apparent lack of trust among subjects. He shared his feelings and facilitated opinions and feelings contributed by the subjects. Several subjects mentioned that interacting about feelings and personal data was boring. The facilitator did not intervene to get at the feelings that engendered those reactions. The active facilitation tended to engender considerable feeling interactions and feedback among subjects. The facilitator related his observation of the tension within the group, but he continued to facilitate feeling interactions. He encouraged interactions and feedback from silent subjects. He subsequently gave feedback to the whole group relative to how they were feeling as perceived by him, and then, he gave feedback to individual subjects.

Session Number Five (Friday afternoon - eight subjects present)

This counseling session was initiated with the investigator intervening to encourage subjects to disclose personal feelings (at that moment) to the whole group. He attempted to facilitate feeling interactions through offering examples of feeling words and his perceptions of the way each subject was feeling. The group appeared

to stumble through this session. The facilitator gave feedback to the group pertaining to his perception of what was going on in the group. The group was allowed to determine its direction and development.

Session Number Six (Friday morning - seven subjects present)

This counseling session was initiated with the investigator asking subjects to disclose the kinds of personal feelings brought to the group. They appeared to find it difficult to say things other than they felt all right, O.K., etc. The investigator attempted to facilitate the use of feeling words by offering examples of words that disclosed feelings.

Two sets of girls appeared to form cliques which acted to inhibit personal disclosures. One set of girls shared a relationship that appeared to allow minimal interaction on personal data. The other two girls attempted to interact among themselves about superficial topics. The facilitator confronted their behavior, but they appeared unwilling to disclose personal data or feelings to the group.

The investigator attempted to facilitate the group's movement toward feeling types of interactions, but the subjects avoided talking about feelings or personal data by not following through on the facilitator's interventions.

Session Number Seven (Friday morning - six subjects present)

This counseling session was initiated with one subject relating his experiences about the football team that week. The facilitator

confronted the subject, but not immediately. And subsequently, he intervened to facilitate the subjects' interactions about their personal experiences during the week. The subjects failed to follow through and to relate their experiences on a personal level. The facilitator gave feedback to the whole group to assist the subjects in focusing on personal data and feelings. He asked the group how many feeling words they knew, but only one subject responded. One subject subsequently initiated feedback to another subject about his behavior in the group. The investigator intervened to facilitate that feedback. Feedback was subsequently given to the same subject by several other group members.

Session Number Eight (Friday morning - seven subjects present)

This counseling session was initiated with the subjects being encouraged to disclose personal feelings brought to the group, and their feelings at that particular moment. The investigator facilitated their interactions through interventions that appeared appropriate. One subject spoke during a large portion of the session about external topics. The facilitator confronted the subjects at various intervals of time during the session. The subject paused but gradually returned to inappropriate topics.

The two sets of cliques were functioning in this session with few verbal contributions to the group from the four girls who composed the cliques. The facilitator neither related his observations or feelings to the girls or to the group, nor did he intervene to facilitate interactions by the other three subjects who were mostly silent.

Session Number Nine (Monday afternoon - seven subjects present)

The investigator initiated this counseling session by asking group members about personal problems that surfaced during the week. This was followed with an intervention by the facilitator to ease their disclosure of personal feelings brought to the group. One subject talked considerably during this session about external topics. The facilitator intervened and facilitated confrontation and feedback from other group members on their perceptions of his behavior. However, the group by acquiescence allowed this subject to do most of the talking. The facilitator did not confront or relate this observation to the group. He allowed the group to develop its direction.

Session Number Ten (Monday morning - seven subjects present)

The investigator initiated this counseling session by encouraging subjects to disclose personal feelings brought to the group. The investigator attempted to facilitate expression of personal feelings by offering examples of feeling words. Since many subjects qualified their feeling statements with the word guess, the facilitator confronted them in an attempt to get exact feeling statements. The group was initially slow to interact, and the facilitator shared that observation with the group. A subject who reported late to this session started interacting about inappropriate topics. The facilitator did not confront his behavior or the group's behavior for allowing this subject to speak about inappropriate topics

for a large portion of the time. The facilitator allowed the group to determine its direction.

Session Number Eleven (Monday afternoon - seven subjects present)

The investigator initiated this session by allowing group members to share information on superficial topics. The group was allowed to determine its own direction and development. However, the direction was toward interactions pertaining to external topics. The facilitator did not confront their topical interactions. One subject was continuously seeking the group's attention through his distracting behavior. The investigator confronted him twice. During the second confrontation, the facilitator indicated that the subject was seeking the group's attention, but the group failed to pick-up or follow through on that observation. The facilitator also failed to follow through with interventions that might have directed the subject and the group toward feeling interactions. He asked the subjects if there were any final things they wanted to say to any other group member before the session ended. Then the group was dispersed.

Individual Counseling

The investigator initiated each individual treatment by explaining to the subject that the sessions could be used to learn and understand more about themselves. He also explained the importance of confidentiality in counseling and its meaning for him.

1. Subject number one was a female. She met with the investigator for the eleven counseling sessions. All sessions were

similar except for the feelings and data disclosed by the subject. She spoke about feelings and personal data readily, e.g., nervousness, aversion to eye contact and hatred for stepfather. The counselor intervened to facilitate her examining those things she disliked about herself and her feelings toward family members with greater understanding. The investigator focused on feelings during each session that were perceived as most important and frustrating to the subject. A large portion of the counselor's interventions were reflections, paraphrases and feedback, but the other intervention techniques were also used at different times.

2. Subject number two was a male. He met with the investigator for ten of the eleven counseling sessions. The subject seldom initiated interactions or sustained interactions but for brief answers. In sessions one through five, seven, and eight the investigator used open-ended sentences and questions to get the subject to verbalize. The questions almost reached the point of probing. The subject indicated that he did not think about his feelings, and as a person he was of little value anyway. The investigator reflected such feelings, but rarely did the subject deal with those feelings. In counseling sessions six, nine, and ten the investigator attempted to get the subject to verbalize through reflections of previous responses made by the subject. However, the subject made few attempts to interact and the sessions were mostly silent. He was not included in the final statistics, because he refused to report for post-testing.

3. Subject number three was a male. He met with the investigator for the first two of the eleven counseling sessions. This subject talked for most of each counseling session. He never mentioned feelings. The investigator listened to the subject during most of the two counseling sessions. The investigator intervened to help the subject clarify ideas about personal, but non-feelings data. The subject was requested to report for treatment on two successive weeks, but he failed to show. At that point, he was considered a dropout and not included in the final statistics.

4. Subject number four was a male. He met with the investigator for eight of the eleven counseling sessions. All eight sessions were similar. The subject was extremely silent during most of each session. The investigator intervened with open-ended sentences and questions and he reflected the responses in an attempt to facilitate disclosures by the subject. The subject always returned to a silent posture. During session four the investigator gave feedback to the subject pertaining to his observations about the subject. The investigator also allowed the subject to sit silently during part of each counseling session with the expectation that if the subject was given enough opportunities he would talk. His initiated interactions were few.

5. Subject number five was a female. She met with the investigator for ten of the eleven counseling sessions. All counseling sessions were similar concerning the data dealt with and the feelings it engendered. She spoke about personal data and feelings during

portions of each session, e.g., aversion to eye contact, aversion to discussing feelings, and hatred for mother and father. The counselor intervened to facilitate her examining in greater detail any feelings and personal data that she was willing to disclose. The investigator used all the intervention techniques during the ten counseling sessions. At points during each session, the subject shifted to superficial topics, but the investigator gradually refocused her verbalizations toward personal data and feelings.

6. Subject number six was a male. He met with the investigator for ten of the eleven counseling sessions. All ten counseling sessions were similar. The subject tended to be silent during most of each session. When the subject sat silently, the investigator would intervene with open-ended sentences and questions followed by reflections of feelings that he perceived. The investigator also gave feedback to the subject about the inconsistency of statements made during counseling sessions and his behavior in academic classes. The investigator attempted to get the subject to initiate interactions by observing the subject silently.

7. Subject number seven was female. She met with the investigator for two of the eleven counseling sessions. During the first session she spoke about her career plans and other external topics. The investigator allowed such interactions, because it was the orientation session. During session two she mostly sat and slouched. The investigator confronted her behavior, but she complained of being tired. The investigator used open-ended sentences and

questions in an attempt to get her to verbalize. He had minimal success. She was not included in the final statistics.

8. Subject number eight was a female. She met with the investigator for seven of the eleven counseling sessions. In counseling sessions one through three, five, six, and eight the subject dealt with personal data, feelings, and at times external topics. The investigator intervened to facilitate her dealing with feelings other than on a superficial level. He reflected feelings particularly from data that appeared to engender considerable concern. The investigator also gave feedback in the form of observations about the subject. In counseling sessions five and eight, the subject had some concerns that she would not talk about. The investigator gave feedback about how she appeared to have some concerns that needed to be dealt with, but she did not desire to disclose them. The counselor did not probe. She was not included in the final statistics.

9. Subject number nine was a male. He met with the investigator for five of the eleven counseling sessions. He disclosed personal data readily with the need for few interventions by the investigator. However, he dealt with feelings rarely when disclosing personal data. The investigator focused on those feelings that were perceived as being indicative of internal stress. The investigator reflected his perception of the subject's feelings and gave feedback, but the subject seldom followed through on the investigator's feedback. He was not used in the final statistics.

10. Subject number ten was a female. She met with the investigator for seven of the eleven counseling sessions. She talked readily about personal concerns and feelings that accompanied those concerns. The investigator intervened few times to encourage the disclosure of concerns during the first three counseling sessions. However, sessions four through eight contained considerable silence, and during each session she indicated that she was ill. The investigator intervened with open-ended sentences and questions. He reflected the feelings beneath her responses, but on numerous occasions her responses were that she had nothing to say. The investigator did not confront the subject's behavior. She dropped from treatment after counseling session eight. She was not included in the final statistics.

Group-Individual Counseling

The subjects comprising this group were exposed to six sessions of group counseling and five sessions of individual counseling. The odd sessions, beginning with session one and terminating with session eleven were utilized for group counseling, and the even sessions, beginning with session two and terminating with session ten were utilized for individual counseling.

In order to eliminate any misconstructions or incoherence, it appeared inappropriate to depict the treatment facilitative process of this group in a manner other than in two separate descriptions that are presented as a continuous whole.

Session Number One (Friday afternoon - nine subjects present)

The investigator initiated this counseling session with the subjects sharing their name and demographic information. During the introductions, the investigator observed and related nonverbals to the subjects. Such an intervention came too early in the treatment and served no useful purpose. Confidentiality was also discussed. The facilitator focused on the group and gave feedback pertaining to his perception of the feelings within the group. Several subjects also related personal feelings. Group members were asked to share their personal expectations and goals for counseling. The facilitator assisted the subjects in clarifying their feelings relative to their goals and expectations. An external topic was brought up, and the facilitator attempted to encourage subjects to deal with the values and feelings engendered by the topic. The facilitator focused on the whole group and attempted to obtain verbal indications as to how they were feeling. Subsequently, one member disclosed that she had problems talking to special boys. The investigator facilitated her dealing with the feelings stimulated by that disclosure. He also encouraged other subjects to offer feedback, but they appeared uncomfortable with their personal feelings because she talked about her concern openly. Other subjects also shared personal concerns with the group.

Session Number Three (Friday morning - seven subjects present)

The investigator initiated this counseling session with a focus on the subjects' personal concerns that had surfaced immediately

prior to this session. The subjects expressed no concerns that they desired to share with the group. They subsequently moved into topical interactions about sports. The facilitator reflected group members' feelings that were engendered by the discussion in an attempt to shift the interactions toward personal data and feelings. They failed to respond in a positive manner to those interventions. The facilitator did not confront the group with his feelings that the topics were inappropriate and unproductive for self-understanding.

Session Number Five (Friday morning - six subjects present)

The investigator initiated this counseling session with his concern that the group lacked trust. A few subjects disclosed their feelings about the need for trust in the group. They also related their reasons for trusting the investigator while remaining skeptical of the trustworthiness of the group members. The facilitator encouraged subjects to speak for themselves. The facilitator related his concern that a group member had been evaluated (by teacher) as being poor in citizenship. The subject explained his poor citizenship mark, but the facilitator did not pick-up on his (subject) feelings. Another subject went into her feelings about being paddled by a first grade teacher in front of four boys. She was assisted in dealing with her feelings by the investigator. The facilitator also gave feedback to the group's silent members in an attempt to get them involved in the group process. One subject's inability to talk to boys came up again. An attempt was made by the facilitator to obtain feedback from other subjects for her. One group member said

that she could tell that the members did not trust each other, because some members would not talk. The investigator did not facilitate her attempt to give feedback to the silent subjects.

Session Number Seven (Friday afternoon - seven subjects present)

This counseling session was initiated with the disclosure of personal feelings that subjects were bringing to the group. Several subjects disclosed their feelings with little apparent difficulty. Still, a few remained mostly silent. The facilitator attempted to encourage the silent subjects to interact with open-ended sentences but silence usually followed their responses. During this counseling session sports came up briefly, but the subjects knew that sports was considered an inappropriate topic, because of the interactions in group counseling session number five. The subjects exhibited more trust through personal disclosures and feedback in this session. However, two subjects appeared unwilling to initiate interactions on their own; consequently, the investigator encouraged them to interact through open-ended sentences and the reflection of their feelings as perceived by him.

Session Number Nine (Monday morning - seven subjects present)

This counseling session was initiated with the disclosure of feelings that subjects brought to the group. The subjects interacted about what was going on within them from the beginning of the session. One subject disclosed his feelings about himself. He disclosed his self hatred. The group responded well. They supported

him and wanted to know more about his problem and the feelings related to it. The facilitator was required to intervene negligibly to facilitate his interactions. One of the silent subjects also got involved. The subject sharing the problem felt that he could never do anything right. Plus, he disclosed that his mother never appeared proud of him. After dealing with his problem for a considerable portion of the counseling session, the group subsequently shifted to a less tension producing problem shared by another subject. The facilitator intervened at appropriate points during the counseling session to facilitate in depth understanding, but he mostly allowed the subjects to direct the group's development.

Session Number Eleven (Monday morning - seven subjects present)

This counseling session began with considerable silence by the group. The investigator made that observation known to the subjects, and they subsequently moved into interactions about Thanksgiving and failing grades. The facilitator did not attempt to facilitate in-depth understanding of feelings by the subject who spoke about the failing grade. The group subsequently moved into a discussion about siblings. One subject expressed her feelings about being a middle child and why she disliked that position. The facilitator intervened to help her adequately deal with her concern. Another subject shared similar feelings. The facilitator intervened in an attempt to assist them in understanding the feelings engendered by their positions in their family constellations. The group interactions shifted to external topics. The facilitator did not

intervene to redirect interactions to personal data and feelings, because the discussion was oriented toward curriculum and careers. The investigator allowed the group much leeway in directing its development. The facilitator asked if anyone desired to say anything to another subject before the session ended. Then the group was dispersed.

1. Subject number one was a female. She met with the investigator for the five individual sessions, and attended all six group sessions. She disclosed concerns that disturbed her with the need for little encouragement from the investigator. However, he did intervene when appropriate to facilitate her dealing with personal feelings in greater detail. He also intervened when she appeared unaware of her feelings relevant to certain disclosures. The investigator found it necessary when intervening to reflect her feelings, offer feedback, and to ask open-ended and closed questions.

2. Subject number two was a male. He met with the investigator for four of the five individual sessions, and attended four of six group sessions. The investigator facilitated his working with personal data and feelings, but there were instances when the investigator should have given feedback of confronted the subject but he did not. The subject was anxious during the four counseling sessions as indicated by his rapid speech and stuttering. The investigator did not make his observations known to the subject, but he did attempt to deal with the anxiety and stuttering. The subject was quite verbal and the investigator attempted to facilitate the subject's

self-understanding by appropriate intervention techniques. He was not included in the final statistics, because he missed two consecutive counseling sessions.

3. Subject number three was a female. She met with the investigator for three of the five individual sessions, and attended all six group sessions. The investigator listened most of the time. He intervened at appropriate times to facilitate her verbalizing but he did little to facilitate her dealing with feelings about certain concerns in greater detail. She appeared fragile and exhibited a shy and helpless demeanor. The investigator allowed her manner to diffuse his intentions to facilitate self-understanding. The investigator perceived the need but failed to follow through. The subject failed to appear for the last two individual counseling sessions, but she continued in the group.

4. Subject number four was a male. He met with the investigator for the five individual sessions and attended four of six group sessions. The investigator subtly confronted this subject several times during the first three counseling sessions, because he (subject) appeared anxious and talked rapidly and continuously. The investigator attempted to facilitate his dealing with feelings, but the subject stayed away from feelings most of the time. The investigator also attempted to facilitate his dealing with personal data, but the subject spoke rapidly and made many speech errors. The investigator gave feedback to the subject and managed to get him talking slower by the last session, but he (subject) was not willing to deal with his feelings.

5. Subject number five was a female. She met with the investigator for all five individual sessions, and attended all six group sessions. She was quite verbal. The investigator had only to facilitate her dealing with feelings instead of losing them as her disclosures developed. All the intervention techniques were used at one time or another.

6. Subject number six was a female. She met with the investigator for all five individual sessions, and attended all six group sessions. A large portion of each counseling session was utilized by the investigator in getting the subject to talk. He used many open-ended sentences and questions followed by the reflection of feelings pervasive in her responses, in hope that she would continue to initiate verbalizations. Rarely did she initiate verbalizations or deal with feelings. When the investigator attempted to allow her to initiate interactions, she would sit silently. She would disclose personal data, but interactions about the feelings that data engendered were few. The investigator observed that she began to deal with feelings several times, but she failed to bring those feelings forth. The investigator made those observations known to her.

7. Subject number seven was a male. He met with the investigator for all five individual sessions, and attended all six group sessions. In the first three sessions, the investigator worked to get the subject to relax. The subject spoke rapidly and his speech impediment was obvious. The investigator approached him about the speech problem and the subject disclosed the feelings that

accompanied that problem. During the first three sessions, the counselor attempted to reassure the subject, and to facilitate a state of calmness. In sessions four and five the subject was less anxious. He interacted about feelings inconsistently. The investigator found that dealing with feelings for this subject engendered considerable stress, which was manifested in rapid talk about external topics. The investigator gave feedback to the subject, and he also made the subject aware of his observations about the difficulty with which he (subject) dealt with feelings.

8. Subject number eight was a male. He met with the investigator for all five individual sessions, and attended four of six group sessions. The investigator utilized each of the intervention techniques with this subject at one time or another. This subject was verbal and quite willing to share personal data and the feelings it engendered. The investigator functioned primarily to facilitate the subject in giving adequate consideration to personal data and feelings; since, he disclosed many concerns that disturbed him at home and about himself. The facilitator also assisted him in coming up with alternative ways of behaving.

9. Subject number nine was a male. He met with the investigator for only one of the five individual sessions, and attended one of six group sessions. During the counseling session, he shared considerable personal data. The investigator mostly listened and reflected those feelings that he perceived as being possible sources of concern for the subject. The subject rarely disclosed feelings

and the investigator accepted the subject's decision not to share what he was not ready to share. The subject was sent for during two successive treatment weeks, but he failed to show. He was not included in the final statistics.

10. Subject number ten was a female. She did not meet with the investigator for any of the group or individual counseling sessions. He sent for her several times during the first three treatment weeks, but she never appeared. The investigator learned later that she had transferred to another high school. She was not included in the final statistics.

**The vita has been removed from
the scanned document**

THE EFFECTS OF GROUP, GROUP-INDIVIDUAL, AND INDIVIDUAL
COUNSELING ON CHANGES IN SELF-PERCEPTIONS OF HIGH
SCHOOL SOPHOMORES OF LOW-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

by

Cary Donald Atkins

(ABSTRACT)

The central problem of this investigation was to determine the effectiveness of group counseling, group-individual counseling, and individual counseling, on changes in self-perceptions of high school sophomores (boys and girls) of low-economic background. The subjects were selected for the study on the basis of information gathered from free lunch forms that were submitted by parents when the subjects were in the ninth grade. The criteria used was that disseminated as federal guidelines to local governments for identifying low-economic students.

A 2 by 4 factorial (Treatment and Sex) with multiple dependent variables was the experimental design for this study. The original sample consisted of forty students who were randomly assigned to four groups; however, during the study twelve students were lost. The four groups were assigned randomly, with the male/female ratio being controlled (five males and five females per group), for treatment with Group 1 receiving client-centered group counseling, with Group 2 receiving client-centered group-individual counseling

(alternated weekly), with Group 3 receiving client-centered individual counseling, and with Group 4 as the control group that received no treatment. The students in the experimental groups met once a week for counseling sessions of one hour for eleven sessions. The counselor had a master's degree in counseling and two years experience as a high school counselor. He has had courses in group practices and procedures and the experience as counselor and co-facilitator of several structured and unstructured groups.

The counseling style used was client-centered as understood by the investigator. A post-hock evaluation of audio-taped counseling sessions revealed a number of counselor variations from what is considered appropriate for counselor behavior in client-centered counseling.

To measure changes in self-perception, the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) was administered in September, 1975, before counseling began, and in December, 1975, when counseling was concluded.

The results for the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) were analyzed with the multivariate analysis of covariance. The four groups were compared with respect to possible differences among the groups at the time of the pretest and at the time of the posttest. It was found that the four groups did not differ significantly from one another. However, the pretest and posttest mean scores for self-regard and self-acceptance indicated that group counseling tended to facilitate positive changes in the self-perceptions of male subjects,

and individual counseling tended to facilitate positive changes in the self-perceptions of female subjects.

Overall, the results of this study failed to refute the null hypotheses that there would be no statistically significant differences between the control group and the experimental groups that received client-centered group counseling, client-centered group-individual counseling (alternated weekly), and client-centered individual counseling on the following variables: (1) self-perception, (2) self-regard, and (3) self-acceptance.