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## **A new guidance mission : a psychoecological model for helping in the schools.**

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A NEW GUIDANCE MISSION: A PSYCHOECOLOGICAL  
MODEL FOR HELPING IN THE SCHOOLS

A Dissertation Presented

by

David Powell Ovenell

Submitted to the Graduate School of the  
University of Massachusetts  
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements  
For the Degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

June, 1973

Major Subject: Counseling and Human Relations

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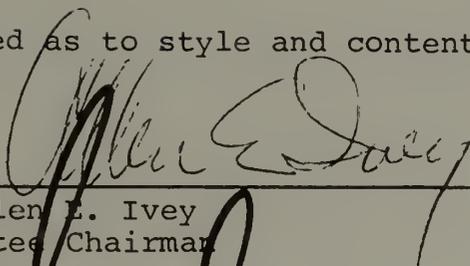
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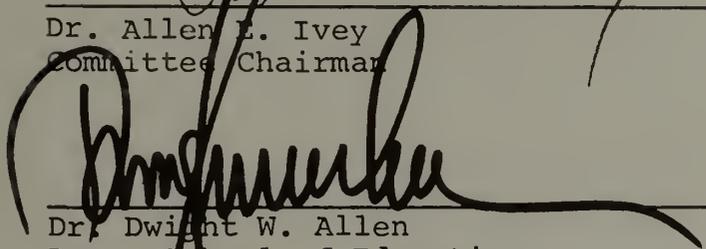
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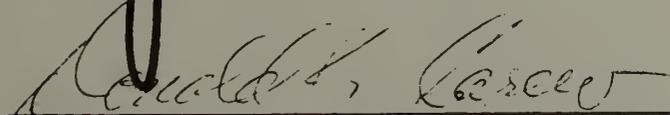
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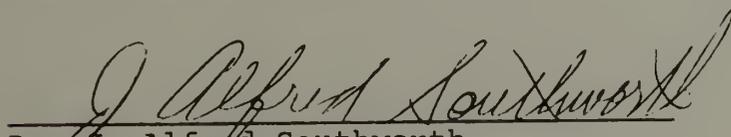
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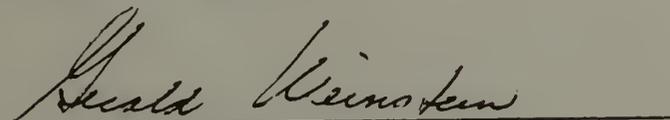
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To my parents who have nurtured and encouraged me;

To Michael and Stephen, who inspire me;

To Al Ivey, who challenged me, convinced me, and then walked with me -- those extra miles.

## ABSTRACT

A New Guidance Mission: A Psychoecological Model for  
Helping in the Schools (September, 1973)

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Directed by: Dr. Allen E. Ivey

This is a philosophical dissertation designed as a strong statement recommending a reformulation of the traditional role of Pupil Personnel Guidance Services in American schools. While a considerable amount of behavioral science research suggests needed changes in school systems, that knowledge, and the attendant skills, are not now being effectively "delivered" to the total school environment.

This thesis is concerned with the question of how Pupil Personnel Guidance workers can be more effective in promoting a more humane learning, and psychological growth-producing, school-community environment.

A clear philosophical statement based on the theory of mutualism, a definite value statement based on the concept of psychoecology, and a detailed conceptual framework are described and then made explicit with numerous illustrative examples. Thus, a new guidance mission is proposed in a way that provides practicing counselors and other educa-

tional personnel with both a rationale and practical methods for implementing indicated changes in educational environments.

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Let people realize clearly that every time they threaten someone or humiliate or hurt unnecessarily or dominate or reject another human being, they become forces for the creation of psychopathology, even if these be small forces. Let them recognize that every man who is kind, helpful, decent, psychologically democratic, affectionate, and warm, is a psychotherapeutic force even though a small one.

Abraham H. Maslow

## C H A P T E R I

### HUMANIZING OUR SCHOOLS: GUIDANCE AS A MISSION

#### Introduction

Humans are adaptive animals and education has traditionally been viewed as a process directed toward helping them adapt to their environment. A basic role of guidance and pupil personnel services has long been helping students adapt to the existing environment without seriously questioning the nature of that environment. The purpose of this thesis is to question the basic assumption of adaptation in guidance and to present an alternative, more active, function for pupil personnel services.

Humankind has increasingly found that the environment can be manipulated and changed to meet a wide variety of needs. These changes, of course, have been both for good and evil--they do represent shaping the environment rather than passive acceptance of "what is." The usual role of pupil personnel services programs can be described as helping students live within the system with no indications to them--or to the pupil personnel worker, that the system might be changed.

In a slowly changing society, the skills and techniques of the past are often adequate for use in the future; however, in a society of accelerating change, individuals and institutions must develop and acquire coping skills and

flexible techniques that can adapt to constant change. The acceleration of change in our society is, in itself, a potent force that has personal and psychological as well as sociological consequences. As Toffler (1970) has noted, "Our schools face backward toward a dying system, rather than forward to the emerging new society." Toffler's point is not new to pupil personnel services. Johnson, Stefflre and Edelfelt (1961) have stated that "Yesterday's best is not good enough. Yesterday's best is in fact, dangerously inadequate."

Pupil personnel guidance services people are not necessarily to blame for society's (including the school's) pathological manifestations of dehumanization, as evidenced by widespread impaired mental health and minimal human coping effectiveness. However, pupil personnel guidance services, as an integral part of American education, share responsibility for developing positive and humane educational programs that effectively respond to the needs of contemporary society. Justification for the future existence of pupil personnel guidance services will depend on demonstrated desire to develop effective educational leadership toward ameliorating some of these concerns.

Pupil personnel guidance practices that emphasize client behavioral adjustment to questionable institutional expectations are often not only dehumanizing to the client, but also tend to "defuse" valid and desirable protest

against an unhealthy system (Halleck, 1971; Freire, 1970). These practices must give way to a new and different guidance concept; one whose major thrust is towards adjusting the system more to the needs of individuals rather than adjusting individuals to the needs of the system.

Today's pupil personnel guidance mission is to facilitate human growth and effectiveness by humanizing the school environment.

#### On the Need to Humanize Schools

Gordon (1970) contends that schools have generally modeled their organization and leadership styles after military organizations wherein rules and regulations are determined unilaterally by adults without meaningful participation by the students. This has been coupled with a dull and irrelevant curriculum administered with minimal level teacher communication skills and a reward and punishment grading system that guarantees that a large number of children will be labeled "below average." In the classroom, children are frequently scolded and "put down" by their teachers. They are rewarded for their ability to recite back what they have been told to read, and are often chastised for dissent or disagreement. It is understandable why teachers find it difficult to get classes to participate in meaningful group discussions.

Silberman (1971) expresses some of his disillusionment

with school as he writes that:

Because adults take the schools so much for granted, they fail to appreciate what grim, joyless places most American schools are, how oppressive and petty are the rules by which they are governed, how intellectually sterile and aesthetically barren the atmosphere, what an appalling lack of civility obtains on the part of teachers and principals, what contempt they unconsciously display for children as children. (p. 10)

According to Holt (1967), very few students ever become adept at the kind of learning behaviors stressed in the usual broad educational learning objectives. "Most of them get humiliated, frightened, and discouraged" and in the process not only is character and intelligence undermined but children "are prevented from growing into more than limited versions of the human beings they might have become."

School indictments by Trump (1970) indicate that: "Our schools fail the middle class as much as they fail the deprived; each year the kids are in school, they have less enthusiasm for it; they dread going to school."

Students dread going to school because what goes on in schools often does not make much sense. The extent to which the school environment can provide learning experiences that have some personal meaning for students is the extent to which meaningful learning can happen. Any person who is required to spend 75% of each year struggling at tasks that seem meaningless will sooner or later develop negative and hostile feelings toward that system.

Considerable evidence exists to indicate that human

learning is a very personal and unique matter, yet schools persist in "educating" students impersonally with little concern for feelings and emotion.

Learning is not entirely controlled by teachers. It can only be accomplished with the mutual interest, involvement and cooperation of the student in the process. Yet schools still equate learning with the acquisition of irrelevant "right" answers, conformity to rules and regulations, the illusion that making mistakes is very "bad," that grades are the most important thing, that details are more important than concepts, etc.

Students sense the incongruities that abound in school curriculums. They also sense many other inherently dehumanizing aspects of schools, such as the preoccupation with objects and things rather than with people. As the current knowledge explosion magnifies and if learning continues to be equated with knowledge mastery, then new technology, such as computer assisted instruction, will most certainly tend to aggravate and perpetuate many of these undesirable educational symptoms and postpone the development and use of more meaningful, personalized learning methods and activities.

Psychological pollution is apparent in school communities, and students are more and more aware of this pollution. They seem to understand the social and political contradictions in their environment as well as some of the other vagaries of their psychological and educational

milieu. Moreover, they are often willing to act on the basis of their perceptions of what is happening to them and to their world. While they instinctively resist the negative and dehumanizing forces working against wholesome human development, they are generally resigned to the prevailing system by the time they enter the adult world. In retrospect, they must wonder about the role their school guidance staff has played in their growth and development. Too often they must conclude that the guidance program served the same master as everyone else.

Halleck (1971) confirms that the society or institution in which counselors work pretty well defines the limits of practice and uses him as a pawn to achieve social and institutional goals.

The typical counselor's role, according to Warnath (1972), "is what it is because institutional forces permit or determine that role using criteria consistent with the goals, purposes, and image of that institution." Furthermore, the promise of any real pressure for change being exerted by counselors is minimized by pervasive counselor predispositions toward preserving the values of society (Arbuckle, 1969).

The problem seems clear enough. The dehumanizing aspects of the school environment are effectively deterring the desired growth and development of students.

As the resident "caretaker" of the school psychological

environment and the avowed champion of good human relations, what has been the pupil personnel guidance position regarding these concerns?

### The Traditional Guidance Approach

Traditionally, the predominant guidance and counseling philosophy has keyed largely toward the concept of "adjusting" individuals to society and its institutions. The result has been an emphasis on the reactive "medical model" role for school guidance workers whereby "abnormal" individuals are provided "services" of a remedial nature in order to adjust them to the "normal" school and community environment. Well known guidance texts in the past have supported this model. More tragically, even today, we find similar statements. Let us look at some past and present statements.

Mathewson (1955) described this traditional "adjustment" approach in statements made almost twenty years ago; statements which unfortunately still describe the current scene in most pupil personnel programs:

It is the task of guidance to assist the individual in relating the developing self effectively and satisfactorily with the environment in the light of social, moral, and spiritual values....The five areas in which the individual searches for satisfactory adjustment are: personal status, social relationships, citizenship, occupational pursuit, and avocational activity....Greatest problems of reconciling individual and social good in guidance and education arise in social adjustment of individuals to necessary regulations, development of favorably social dispositions, and the relation of personal aspirations to economic needs and demands. (p. 100-101)

Hutson (1958) justified the "adjustment" or "providing services" theory of school guidance as follows:

When we consider adjustment of the environment--home, school, or community--it must be frankly acknowledged that oftentimes nothing can be done. There is the impossible home situation that cannot be improved. There is the slum community, devoid of wholesome, healthy influences. There is the teacher whose discipline is poor or assignments unreasonable, but whose subject is a required element in some curriculum. Much counseling service is devoted to helping pupils survive and grow in spite of such handicapping environments. The counselor assumes a strengthening, supportive role, his own confidence buoyed up by his adult knowledge of the hosts of people all around him who are living effective, wholesome lives despite unfavorable environments. (p. 534-535)

Recognized leaders in the area of pupil personnel guidance continue to emphasize this "adjustment" and "services" concept of counseling as indicated by the following recent statement by Peters and Shertzler (1969):

A guidance program in the schools is justified only because of the services which it offers to facilitate the child's personal development....The guidance point of view stresses that guidance functions help a student adjust to himself and his environment more effectively by helping him learn about both. (p.65-66)

The pupil personnel services' penchant for the adjustive, or "medical" model, philosophy of guidance may partly be explained from a historical perspective. If the various pupil personnel services are examined individually, it is evident that none of these services originated in the school setting. The social worker concept originated in a social service center; the psychologist's origins were in a mental hospital; the counselor emerged from a vocational counseling

clinic; and nurses and physicians came from clinics and general hospitals.

Today, pupil personnel specialists continue remedial or adjustment guidance practices that directly reflect current pre-service and in-service training based on the clinical, or "medical", therapeutic model. This, despite considerable evidence that, even in ideal clinical settings that employ highly trained psychiatrists, questionable therapeutic outcomes accrue to clients (Eysenck, 1965; Bergin, 1972). Perhaps even more to the point, the most exhaustive attempts to evaluate traditional school guidance programs--in terms of "favorable student changes"--yields unimpressive results (Cramer, et al., 1970).

It appears that while oppressive and dehumanizing aspects of the school environment are effectively deterring desirable student growth and development, the student's chief spokesman, i.e., pupil personnel guidance services, typically reacts with responses that are of questionable value to the student.

Assuming that more effective pupil personnel guidance interventions are developed, what trends are emerging and what evidence is available that might provide additional purpose and direction for these new interventions?

### Toward a Humanizing School

Concepts and methods useful for humanizing schools have

emerged from the work of individuals such as Abraham Maslow, Carl Rogers, Frederick Perls, as well as institutions such as the National Training Laboratories, Synanon, Esalen Institute, and mental health organization. The contributions of individuals and organizations such as these, coupled with evidence accumulated from his own work, have led Brown (1971) to conclude that we now have "knowledge of, and experience with, ways of incorporating the emotional dimension into the learning in the classroom."

Weinstein and Fantini (1970) have shown that education must reflect a broad human focus and that educational objectives should properly rest on a personal and interpersonal base that effectively deals with interests and concerns of students. Senn (1970) strongly endorses the idea that the human affective domain is a critical ingredient of meaningful learning. He observes that while there have been many attempts, historically, to assess educational practices and to devise new teaching approaches, "we have had to wait until now for strong evidence that feelings and emotions are primary ingredients in learning, and that affect must always be considered in planning education if meaningful and lasting learning is to result."

Recent trends indicate, according to Berenson (1971), that traditional teaching roles may be changing as a result of the influx of research relating to the guidance and mental health aspects of classroom instruction. From evidence

based on an exhaustive four-year study, Bane and Jencks (1972) concluded that "the primary basis for evaluating a school should be whether the students and teachers find it a satisfying place to be."

Gazda (1971) cites studies by Aspey (1969), Aspey and Hadlock (1967), Hefele (1971), Carkhuff and Griffin (1971), Truax and Tatum (1966), and Kratochvill, Carkhuff and Berenson (1969), to strongly suggest that students are likely to learn more from teachers who display high levels of understanding and respect for their students. It is made clear also that teachers can be systematically trained in these skills.

Perhaps the Coleman Report (Mosteller and Moynihan, 1972) provides the most compelling argument in support of programs designed to promote more responsive, humanized school environments. Evidence in the report indicates that:

Student attitudes toward themselves, toward learning and toward their environment showed the strongest relations to achievement at all school levels. The zero-order correlations of the attitudes with achievement were higher than those of any other variables, in some cases as high as the correlation of some test scores with others (between .40 and .50). (p. 396)

The major theme in each of the references cited above confirms the importance of providing a responsive and satisfying educational environment as a prerequisite to achieving desired educational objectives. The studies cited are representative of the mounting research evidence that is

pressuring school systems to create and adopt affirmative action programs that promote more humanistically oriented learning environments. The school community may be expected to look to its educational psychologists and human relations specialists; i.e., pupil personnel guidance services, to provide the indicated leadership and direction. Gordon (1971) supported this position in a speech delivered at a recent PPS conference:

I feel that pupil personnel people are going to be the ones who really bring about the significant changes that our schools need. You people are the potential change agents. I predict a change in your role from what it has been to that of a helping-agent for the entire school to move schools to become more of a therapeutic community. You people have the training and the experience and the humanistic orientation, it seems to me, to bring about these changes that are so urgently needed. I see a role for you that might be described as a human-relations consultant for the schools or a watchdog in the schools to make sure that every decision that is made takes into consideration the human dignity of not only the students but the teachers as well. In my work with school districts I am finding that not only are schools untherapeutic for students but they're frequently untherapeutic for teachers.

Therefore the mission of the school is indeed producing more humane and self actualizing individuals, and while academic learning remains important, the critical need exists to emphasize the learning of what it means to be a person.

#### The New Guidance Mission

Pupil personnel service workers urgently need a new

philosophical guidance approach that recognizes major current shortcomings and is more congruent with institutional realities. It must also provide ways of remediating institutional defects without provoking unnecessary and self-defeating organizational resistance and conflict. Above all, this approach must function so as to evoke educational changes that counteract depersonalizing and dehumanizing aspects of schools, while at the same time promoting a more responsive and positive psychological learning climate.

Kuriloff's (1973) description of the guidance worker as a "psychoecologist" incorporates many of the philosophical conditions necessary to formulate a more effective guidance approach. The term, "psychological ecology" or "psychoecology," metaphorically describes the interrelation and interdependence of individuals and their human environment. Implicit in this definition is the idea that changes in one part of the system influence other parts so as to affect the system's equilibrium. In this perspective, school interpersonal disturbances are viewed as symptoms of a psychoecological system imbalance possessing intervention potential for enhancing the broader learning environment.

The term "psychoecology" expresses the value in recognizing the interrelated nature of humans and their environment. It is analogous to the definition of autecology, (i.e., the branch of ecology dealing with interrelations between individual organisms and their environment). To

illustrate, psychoecological thinking recognizes the inevitable interdependence of humans within a given setting and values interactions that promote a more conducive learning environment. By way of comparison, authoritarian schools patterned after the military demonstrate a structural value on downward, one-way, communication with limited authentic interaction between students and staff. Educational psychoecology, as in the case of traditional authoritarian schools, may be thought of in terms of a structural value statement. Furthermore, similar to the concept authoritarianism, psychoecology cannot be totally understood from an isolated individual's point of view; rather it represents the confluence of all individual life spaces within a given natural setting (Kuriloff, 1973).

The dictionary describes "mutuality" as, "a state or quality of being mutual; interaction; interdependence." In the context of psychoecology, mutuality is the quality or nature of the interrelationships of the environmental parts; e.g., it describes characteristic elements of authentic human interactions.

Excellent examples of mutuality in dyadic human interaction may be found in Carkhuff's (1969b) Level Five description of facilitative behaviors; Kagan and Krathwohl's (1967) Interpersonal Process Recall procedures; and Ivey's (1971) Direct Mutual Communication. Another example may be readily found in Berne's (1961) concept of Transactional

Analysis, where the Adult-Adult relationship suggests a good analogy for mutuality, whereas the Parent-Child interaction is not analogous. Roger's (1951) client-centered counseling approach also provides for mutuality constructs, such as the client participation in therapy goal setting.

Mutuality describes characteristic elements of authentic human interactions and, as incorporated within the psychoecological perspective, becomes a basic philosophical and operational ingredient of various intervention strategies proposed in this study.

Psychoecology and mutuality are admittedly broad terms that take on additional meaning when observed in their more concrete applications. Later chapters will further clarify these concepts by providing examples of their practical applications.

The concepts of mutuality and psychoecology discussed above clearly convey a philosophical stance that is purposefully committed to producing positive changes in the school learning environment as opposed to one that perpetuates the status quo. As such, these concepts form the foundation of a new guidance mission for pupil personnel services.

This new guidance focus incorporates several assumptions and procedures that represent a departure from the more traditional guidance scene. The following will describe some of the concepts, methods, and assumptions that provide a rationale for this restatement of the basic

guidance mission.

1. A basic tenet of this mission is the importance of helping people maximize their own resources (Tyler, 1961). This presupposes a profound respect for, and confidence in, the inherent resources people possess. Mutuality concepts in the special issue of the Personnel and Guidance Journal, May 1972 (e.g., Atkin, Boyd and Casteel, Biehn, Tulson, Mazza and Garris) are crucial here. For example, professional facades and barriers must be eliminated in order to mutually share in the growth process with "clients." Clearly, this also means sharing client problems emerging from institutional pathology to the extent of participating in collaborative social change efforts. Maximizing human resources implies recognition of the necessary interdependence of helper and helpee, and that these roles change in the mutual struggle to survive and grow (Boyd and Casteel, 1972). In a very real sense then, as crises are shared, the appropriate counseling relationship may be described as one between co-helpers, co-workers, and co-seekers (Atkin, 1972).
2. The idea of demystifying guidance and counseling skills, learnings, and objectives is also a central concept. The rule of thumb here is, "if it can benefit people, pass the helping function along." Counseling skills "given away" should ideally

be transmitted in ways that initiate and facilitate a therapeutic chain reaction effect. Here then, as implied in the precept above, is the idea that human collaboration can provide an outreach system that effectively transmits "humanizing power" to students, teachers, administrators, parents, and to the community. This may be seen also as a survival strategy: an attempt to counteract ever-present threats of world conflict, rapid deterioration of the environment, and pervasive feelings of powerlessness and meaninglessness. As Atkin (1972) observes, "We must enlarge our concept of our own well-being to include a constantly increasing number of other people, whether they are extended family members, other racial or economic groups, or Vietnamese." This entails placing the guidance emphasis on ongoing programs for wholesome development for all learners, and less energy devoted to crisis situations, symptoms, and remedial services.

3. An assumption here is that basic human effectiveness training that enhances human relations and human coping behavior demands a high priority in pupil personnel guidance programs. A program prerequisite is that helpers have themselves attained acceptable levels of human effectiveness, as well as appropriate skills training effectiveness (Carkhuff, 1972). Ivey's (1972a) approach to the teaching of human relations

skills, along with his "pulsating thinking" model (Ivey, 1968) for decision-making, represent appropriate methodologies here. A basic contribution to the guidance mission then is the dissemination of human relations methodologies that specifically identify important interpersonal processes and prescribe viable skills learning procedures. This presupposes the recognition and use of methods that are known to be effective and productive (Tyler, 1961).

4. A major axiom for intervention strategies maintains that the extent to which students, staff, parents, community, etc., collaborate in the planning and implementation of a given guidance intervention largely determines the subsequent success of that venture. For example, human relations interventions can maximize outcome success by adhering to a collaborative model such as follows:
  - a) Insistence on consultant/client mutuality in arriving at project goals and objectives.
  - b) Insistence on mutuality in building community and trust; i.e., team building.
  - c) Insistence on mutuality in the teaching and acquisition of target skills.
  - d) Insistence on mutuality in developing, implementing, and evaluating project outreach and generalization goals.

5. Mounting research evidence (Rioch, 1965; Maggoon, 1969; Guerney, 1964; Stollak, 1965; Harvey, 1964; Aldrige, 1971; Haase, 1967; Gluckstern, 1972; and Ivey, 1968) supports the position that lay-counselors can be at least as effective, in many ways, as professionals. Moreover, specific skills can be attained by lay-counselors in a matter of days rather than months or years (Gluckstern, 1972). High priority then must be allotted to the strategic use of paraprofessional, volunteer, and peer counseling, if pupil personnel guidance programs are to make best use of available resources. For example, the best use of available resources often clearly includes the prospect of employing paraprofessionals to help bridge the communication or credibility gap between minority clients and institutionalized professionals.

### Summary

This Chapter has described the traditional pupil personnel guidance function as one which has counseled pupil "adjustment" to the school system without seriously questioning the nature of that system. Evidence presented has indicated the urgent need to humanize schools and has suggested a reconceptualization of the basic pupil personnel guidance mission; i.e., to facilitate student growth and development by creating a more humane and responsive school

learning environment. Several key concepts and methods basic to the proposed new mission statement have been listed.

Chapter II will discuss several recurring "themes" generally associated with pupil personnel guidance services and indicate how these have led to a new conceptual model.

C H A P T E R   I I  
TOWARD A PSYCHOECOLOGICAL MODEL  
FOR PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICES

Introduction

In 1952, Division 17 of the American Psychological Association stated that the profession of counseling psychology was reaching a balance between three major emphases: (1) the development of the individual's inner life through concern with his motivations and emotions; (2) the individual's achievement of harmony with the environment; and (3) the influencing of society to recognize individual differences.

The profession however has not yet achieved this desired balance, largely because of its apparent inability to mount and sustain guidance programs that can affectively deal with the issue set forth in the APA's third construct above; i.e., that of influencing the environment toward a more significant responsiveness to the needs and differences of individuals.

A review of the history of the guidance movement reveals that the various major trends have indeed neglected this issue, while at the same time contributing directly to one or both of the other two APA constructs. These movements, beginning with Parsons, have shown a marked tendency to avoid the development of guidance approaches that stress

the modification of the individual's environment in the interest of the individual's welfare. Conversely, counseling innovations and trends directed towards understanding the individual and towards the adjustment of the individual to the environment (i.e., (1) and (2) above) have been much more readily incorporated.

This professional preoccupation with analyzing individuals and adjusting individuals to their environment rather than seeking a more mutual individual-environmental accomodation, attests to the need for a more balanced and comprehensive guidance philosophy.

This Chapter will discuss themes and trends in the history of the guidance movement that have led towards a psychoecological model for pupil personnel guidance services.

#### Frank Parsons and the Vocational Guidance Movement

Frank Parsons has become something of a symbol of the vocational guidance movement for his pioneer work as the organizer, director, and vocational guidance counselor of the Boston Vocational Bureau in 1907. Within ten years following the initial impetus given by Parsons, school vocational guidance programs had appeared across the country. The early leaders were typically social workers interested in child labor and problems of pupil transition from school to work and included such figures as Anna Reed in Seattle, Edith Campbell in Cincinnati, Emma Cooley in New Orleans

and Ann Davis in Chicago.

Parson's writings, such as his "Philosophy of Mutualism" (1894), clearly define his humanistic interests as a social reformer seeking social and economic collaboration as opposed to competition and the elevation of the individual "over forces which compel him to become beastlike and a brother to the ox" (Davis, 1955). In the summary of his article, "The Philosophy of Mutualism," Parsons (1894) concluded, "Thus individuals and institutions continually react upon each other, the growth of each develops the other and the rhythm of their vibrations makes the music of their progress." His strong belief in the infinite goodness of humankind, while not original, certainly pre-dated Carl Roger's later position and was in direct opposition to the then newly emerging position of Sigmund Freud.

Parsons (1909) strongly advocated an extensive understanding of self as being of crucial importance to sound guidance. However, according to Paterson (1950), "when he went to the psychological laboratories for techniques he found the cupboard was bare." In what Williamson (1965) called "the return to over-simplification," Parsons then turned to the available techniques for attaining self-understanding and combined them with systematic occupational data-gathering to formulate a basic occupational guidance approach that subsequently prevailed in schools and elsewhere until after World War II.

With all due respect to Parsons, this over-emphasis on analyzing individuals and then adjusting them to their environment may be described as the "Parsonian error."

Nonetheless, Parson's advanced thinking bears further examination, particularly in light of the similarity of his philosophy to concepts presented here. His commitment to the importance of self-understanding, to the individual's achievement of harmony with his environment, and, perhaps most of all, his philosophical emphasis on the importance of mutually accommodating the environment to individual needs, could well have served as the prototype for the three 1952 A.P.A. goal statements for the guidance movement.

One of the theoretical formulations held by Parsons was the notion that the client's capabilities, interests, and temperament were to be mutually analyzed and compared with occupational opportunities primarily ascertained through client discovery rather than through counselor knowledge (Williamson, 1965). Rockwell and Rothney (1961) point out that "Parsons wanted counselors to work towards social goals as well as the development of the individual client," and later suggest that "Parson's guidance could have been used as a means towards the achievement of the mutualistic society which he sought." Unfortunately, Parson's broader counseling philosophy has been largely ignored despite the fact that a substantial emphasis in contemporary guidance stems directly from one of his major interests,

vocational guidance.

Although the basic Parsonian philosophy was commendable, neither he nor us have been able to effectively incorporate it into the guidance movement. However, it remains today as a challenge suggesting the intrinsic value of the psychoecological model which constantly forces us to deal with the critical interface area of human interaction with the environment.

#### The Impact of Psychotherapy and Psychometry

The beginnings of the psychological study of the individual may be found in industrial psychology and in various educational activities prior to 1900. While Freud's Clark University lectures on psychoanalysis in 1910 created an immediate widespread interest in psychotherapy, it was largely the work of Carl Rogers in the 1940's that established the clinical emphasis in guidance counseling that has been evident since World War II (Miller, 1971).

In 1950, the American Psychological Association identified important elements needed in the psychological preparation of counselors and clarified several existing relationships between counseling psychology and clinical psychology. Since then there has been a proliferation of counseling theories and methods. The prevailing influence of psychotherapy on guidance counseling over the last 15 years was given additional impetus by the many counselor training

programs that emerged as a result of the National Defense Education Act of 1958.

According to Thorndyke and Hagen (1955), the development of psychological measurement (e.g., psychometrics) can be thought of in three stages. From 1900 to 1915, the Binet scales, group intelligence tests, and standardized achievement tests appeared. During the psychometric "boom period" between 1915 and 1930, the World War I military aptitude tests were followed by the widespread school use of group achievement and intelligence tests along with many personality questionnaires. Since 1930, the emphasis has moved toward a more judicious use of these types of tests.

What are the contributions of the psychotherapy and psychometric movements to the three major guidance emphases outlined in the 1952 APA report?

Both of these movements have played a major role in shaping one or more of these guidance functions. The psychotherapy model has strongly influenced the recent guidance emphasis on the psychological aspects of an individual's emotional and motivational inner life. This emphasis has in turn, however, precipitated the questionable practice of using the "insights" thereby gained for the purpose of adjusting individuals to their environment (Halleck, 1971).

The field of psychometrics has also served to influence these same two areas of guidance emphasis. School

guidance testing has been used both to probe the individual's psyche and to "facilitate" the individual's adjustment to his environment.

Neither movement, however, has served to reconcile the environment more towards the individual's differences and needs. In fact, the net effect of the psychotherapy and psychometry trends has been to influence the guidance movement towards a de-emphasis on the educational importance of the individual's learning environment and to focus more attention on the individual. This, of course, represents a movement away from a more balanced guidance philosophy and compounds the so-called "Parsonian error " by not recognizing the critical importance of mutuality and the interdependence of individuals and their environment.

#### The Human Relations Movement and Its Impact

Historically, school human relations concerns have evolved from a much broader human relations movement that includes elements from the field of industrial management as well as the field of psychology. While it is difficult to trace and identify the beginnings of the human relations movement, Davis (1962) credits industrial management writers as early as 1835 with conveying the importance of good interpersonal relationships in human enterprise. Hersey and Blanchard (1972) describe the human relations movement as a relatively recent development that began to gather

momentum in the 1930's as a result of Elton Mayo's (1933) work at the Hawthorne, Illinois, plant of the Western Electric Company. It was there that Mayo and his associates advanced the notion that in addition to finding sound technological methods to increase organizational productivity, the more important considerations were in fact human relations concerns which suggested that organizations should be developed around the workers, with prime attention given to human feelings and attitudes.

Baldrige concurs with Hersey and Blanchard regarding the origins of the human relations approach. Baldrige (1972) writes that:

This approach has a rich heritage beginning with the pioneering work of Elton Mayo (1933) and the Harvard Business School investigations at the Western Electric plant. Further promoted by Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939), the approach rapidly became one of the dominant modes of organizational analysis. Kurt Lewin (1951) and his followers expanded the study of peer group actions to analyze their effect on organizations. Thus several generations of organization theorists have now been nurtured in the approach. Chris Argyris (1962, 1964); Warren Bennis (1966); Rensis Likert (1961), and D. M. McGregor (1960) are the current leaders and exponents of the approach. (p. 5)

Baldrige observes that the primary contribution of the human relations approach has been the organizational change produced by altering human interactions. He suggests that there is really no single human relations strategy; rather, that different approaches deal with different problems. However, the basic concern is solving interpersonal

relations problems, reducing tensions between groups, improving conflict resolution, and protecting personal values, thereby raising organizational morale and consequently enhancing organizational productivity.

In addition to the basic contributions of the field of industrial management many aspects of the human relations movement reflect the influence of the sensitivity and laboratory training group programs, as for example the Esalen and the National Training Laboratory (NTL) programs. This field of psychology has undoubtedly had a substantial impact.

From a psychoecological viewpoint, the human relations movement has demonstrated what might be described as a frustrating conflict pattern of approach-avoidance. Each time the movement has apparently confronted the critical social interdependence and mutuality issues, it has retreated or otherwise failed to sustain its position.

For example, the human relations movement gathered substantial momentum as a result of Mayo's study indicating the crucial contribution to human effectiveness obtained through the mutuality approach of worker and worker-environment collaboration. Although many industrial and educational institutions began to incorporate facets of Mayo's findings in order to improve human productivity, anything approaching an authentic and consistent implementation has been generally avoided, and the "Parsonian error"

re-enacted.

Again, the National Training Laboratories' human potential movement gave promise of successfully coping with these issues, "based on its singular appropriateness for dealing with some of the core crises facing contemporary society" (Schein & Bennis, 1965). However, one of its major contributions to date rests on the incidental "discovery" of the stultifying effect on personal growth and development of a "back home" environment that denied the individual a sense of mutuality and collaboration, and this condition had already been previously recognized and documented by Mayo, et al. In the final analysis, laboratory training in human relations has apparently repeated the "Parsonian error" of focusing on the individual rather than on the individual's effective interaction with the system. Katz and Kahn (1966) have summarized this as follows:

In short, to approach institutional change solely in individual terms involves an impressive and discouraging series of assumptions--assumptions which are too often left implicit. They include, at the very least the assumption that the individual can be provided with new insight and knowledge; that these will produce some significant alternation in his motivational pattern; that these insights and motivations will be retained even when the individual leaves the protected situations in which they are learned and returns to his accustomed role in the organization; that he will be able to adapt his new knowledge to that real life situation; that he will be able to persuade his co-workers to accept the changes in his behavior which he now desires; and that he will also be able to persuade them to make complementary changes in their own expectations and behavior. The weaknesses in this chain become apparent as soon as its many

links are enumerated. The initial diagnosis may be wrong; that is, the inappropriate behavior may not result from lack of individual insight or any other psychological shortcoming. (p. 391-392)

Katz & Kahn's concluding statement suggests another danger that accrues in the repetition of the Parsonian error. "Therapeutic" interventions directed towards the individual run the risk of defusing potentially beneficial social and institutional protest (Halleck, 1971; Laing, 1967; Szasz, 1963). Baldrige (1972) indicates that the typical human relations reaction defines conflict as symptomatic of a sickness in interpersonal relationships, overlooking the fact that conflicts are not always caused by blocks in communication or failures in interpersonal relations, but often stem from divergent values, scarce resources, and multiple goals.

Whereas the vocational guidance, psychometric and psychotherapy trends influenced the direction of the guidance movement toward the first two objectives of the APA's proposed "balanced guidance approach," the human relations movement seemed to hold promise as a method that would encourage pupil personnel guidance workers to give more emphasis to the third objective; to reconcile the learning environment more towards the individual's differences and needs. Unfortunately, there is little evidence that much progress in this direction has been made. Where organizational change has been sought through use of human relations

intervention strategies, faculty benefits, as opposed to demonstrated student benefits, have often been the result (Schmuck & Runkel, 1970).

Despite its shortcomings, however, recent innovative approaches to organizational development (Kuriloff, 1973), Freire (1970) and Schmuck and Miles (1971), distinctly related to the human relations movement, hold considerable potential for facilitating better balanced and more psycho-ecologically oriented pupil personnel guidance programming.

#### Psychological Education and the Guidance Movement

A very recent development in the guidance movement is one that is generally described as psychological education. Its ultimate impact on guidance may prove to be substantial, although this is still very much speculation.

Munson (1971) states that the most pervasive question in adolescence is the "Who am I"? question. The extent to which young people obtain appropriate answers to this question--thereby gaining self-understanding--to a large degree determines their subsequent ability to promote the development of competence and to adapt to, and gain a sense of mastery of, their environment. According to Smith (1972), the motivational core of competence consists of a cluster of attitudes toward the self as potent, efficacious, and worthy of being taken seriously by oneself as well as by others. Smith suggests that "if psychology can be made to

talk to this issue, it should become unmistakably relevant--to the problem of our time as well as to student interests."

The psychological education movement seeks, in part, to capitalize on students' natural and healthy interests in exploring themselves, while at the same time "talking to the issues" outlined by Smith as being the motivational core of personal competence. It is often assumed for instance, that one of the planned outcomes of the psychological education approach can be increased student achievement-motivation, including achievement-motivation in the more traditional areas of study such as reading and mathematics.

At the same time, psychological education acknowledges and reflects the general growing awareness that the instrumental values that have dominated American thought and action are losing some of their attractiveness, while expressive values are becoming more popular. Cook (1971) distinguishes "expressive" activity from "instrumental" activity by the fact that expressive activity has the activity itself as a goal, while instrumental activity is a means to an end outside of the activity; for example, a person who studies a foreign language "for fun" is involved in an expressive activity, while someone who is studying a foreign language to qualify for a job is engaged in an instrumental effort. This social value shift is seen in

the increased emphasis on maximizing human satisfaction and personal growth as opposed to increased "productive" work. Psychological education tends to encourage and prepare people for a more expressive personal growth and collaborative life style rather than emphasizing society's prevailing product-oriented, instrumental, and competitive existence with all of its ecological ramifications.

There is no one single approach to psychological education, although a common denominator is the recognition of the importance of affective components in personal growth and learning activities. Early humanistic educators, such as James and Dewey, gave impetus during the early 1900's to the educational importance of appropriate affective experiences. Dewey (1964) in fact maintained that learning experiences were not primarily cognitive.

Psychological education and its relevance to school guidance practices has only recently become an identified issue in education. In the 1950's and 1960's, the suddenly recognized educational deprivation of low income and minority groups stimulated innovative teaching efforts which revealed that even white middle-class pupils were being educationally "disadvantaged" by the prevailing educational practices. The major finding, for example, of an extensive Ford Foundation teaching project in the 1960's was that "the 'secret' to motivating the child to involve himself in the learning process, whatever his age, socio-economic level, or cultural

background, is to deal in some way with the deep underlying feelings, wishes and fears that stimulate his actions and color his responses to the world" (Weinstein and Fantini, 1970). Brown (1971) affirms that it has only been recently that psychological education has been available for school use. Brown also stresses the need for education to integrate affective learning with cognitive learning in order to benefit both domains.

The emerging concept of psychological education does not easily lend itself to a brief description or definition but encompasses many dimensions. For example, Ivey and Alschuler (1973) refer to psychological education activities that actively intervene into schools, communities, and agencies with programs designed to directly influence psycho-social health. They discuss psychological education interventions in terms of encouraging people to select their own education goals and of helping them develop effective processes such as a mutualistic approach to attain those goals.

Weinstein (1973), promotes psychological education interventions through "the trumpet" concept by providing a framework for personal self-analysis and growth. Psychological education also includes organizational development concepts such as Carkhuff's (1972) paradigm of interpersonal skills building, which in itself suggests an infinite variety of staff inservice training interventions.

Other examples of psychological education include Gluckstern's (1973) systematic training program for parents as community workers in drug education, and Gordon's (1970) Parent Effectiveness Training Program. Psychological education has also been associated with the idea of psychological demystification, or the "giving away of" psychology skills in ways that foster a humanizing chain reaction.

The impact of psychological education on guidance practices has not yet been fully felt, although it holds considerable potential for promotion of guidance programs and interventions that more effectively reconcile the school learning environment with individual differences and needs, as well as facilitating individual understanding and analysis. A very promising aspect here is the recurring mutuality theme that unites psychological education to psychoecological thinking. This theme centers on their common commitment toward facilitating the natural and wholesome transactional, or mutuality, dimension inherent in humankind's interaction with their learning environment. The concept of psychological education is broad enough to be compatible within the wide scope of psychoecological thinking. The pupil personnel guidance program that incorporates psychological education as its active intervention model necessarily embraces a commitment to the psychoecological philosophy.

Seen in perspective then, psychological education is a

most appropriate action model for the implementation of a psychoecologically sound pupil personnel guidance program.

Chapter III will discuss strategies of educational change for pupil personnel guidance services.

C H A P T E R I I I  
STRATEGIES OF EDUCATIONAL CHANGE FOR PUPIL  
PERSONNEL SERVICES

Introduction

Given that guidance has failed to meet its objectives of facilitating both man and his environment, and given the constancy of the "Parsonian error," the question then arises as to how guidance can avoid the mistakes of the past. How can we find a consistent strategy whereby we can meet our objectives?

When Frank Parsons went to the cupboard for techniques and theories to implement his ideas, he found it most difficult to set about implementing necessary change in institutions and in the world of work. It is not surprising that he returned to the individual, a system much more amenable to change and manipulation. Similarly, guidance workers through the years have often sought to change environments and to produce significant change in our society--but have failed for lack of conceptual frameworks and techniques.

The cupboard of planned change is no longer bare. What does exist is perhaps at best a beginning, but it is a beginning. This chapter will discuss a conceptual framework for the pupil personnel worker who seeks to be more effective, not only with individuals but also with producing change within the school system, perhaps eventually

leading to the larger goals that the guidance profession has held since its very beginnings.

### Why Mutuality in Change Strategies\*

Traditional pupil personnel guidance programs have too often been shaped by the prevailing authoritarian management model found in school systems that, in turn, reflect the way American Schools are legally, administratively, and professionally organized "as one of the most conservative and rigid institutions in our society" (Westen, 1969). Where the task of school administration is viewed as primarily maintaining the larger institution, the guidance worker's objective is too often defined as helping students adjust to that institution, thereby also maintaining the status quo (Halleck, 1971; Calia and Wall, 1968). School guidance has endured this situation ever since its inception, inasmuch as the bureaucratic structure of educational institutions has a controlling impact on the careers of counselors and a limiting effect on student-counselor interactions (Stubbins, 1970). There may in fact be fundamental incompatibilities between certain guidance objectives and the existing organization and administration of schools.

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\* A four-phase guidance strategy for inducing educational change, based on the philosophy of mutualism, is described in Appendix A.

For example, Shertzer and Stone (1963) point out that counselors are still frequently assigned administrative duties even though administrators have based their requests for counselor personnel upon the argument that counselors are needed to bolster guidance programs. Shertzer and Stone add that balanced guidance programs are still not supported by many administrators who favor services extended to the larger group rather than to individuals within the larger group. Moreover, there is evidence that, although many school administrators recognize their limitations in other speciality areas, they are prone to assume an expertise in the field of guidance that they do not possess (Landy, 1963). To illustrate, whereas prevailing guidance theories emphasize student decision-making based on individual values and factors, school principals often favor the counseling approach that: (1) supports the school's policies, (2) reinforces student conformity to social standards or norms of behavior, (3) reinforces student acceptance of status quo, and (4) promises to reduce the likelihood that students will overtly challenge or threaten the authority of the school (Filbeck, 1965).

Unfortunately these conflicts are generally resolved in favor of the administrator's position, inasmuch as the principal is usually the counselor's superior in the school authority hierarchy, and counselors who conform to this structure can themselves expect administrative advancement.

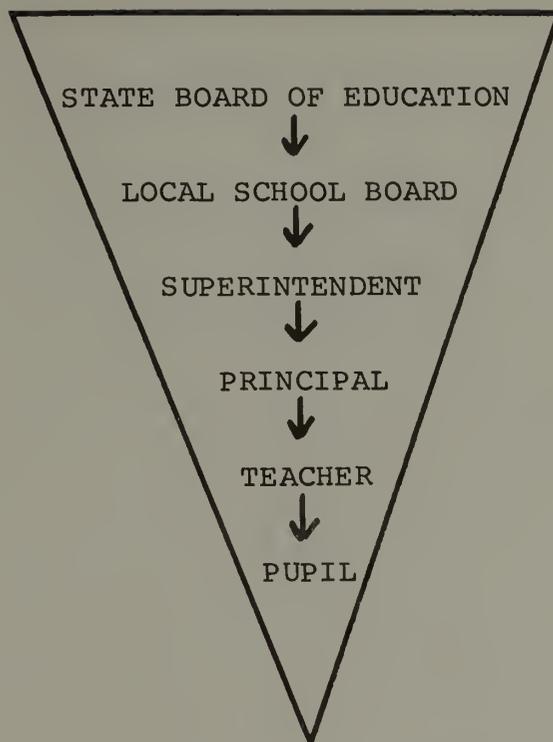
As may be expected, students often perceive guidance personnel as quasi-administrators who enforce authoritarian institutional doctrine. Their views and expectations of school counseling closely resemble what school administrators expect it to be--an integral part of the system and an extension of the institutional authority hierarchy. The accuracy of these student perceptions has been affirmed by Peter's (1963) findings that: (a) tradition and self-interest are rationalizations for the omission of needed guidance leadership, (b) guidance workers have tended to avoid the development of guidance theory, and (c) counselors resist change and new ways of doing things. Ginsberg (1971) has charged that guidance counselors have little professional commitment and do not identify with counseling and guidance as a profession.

The ultimate result of the traditional organization of schools is the establishment of an ill-disguised military-type, authoritarian, "pecking order" through which unilateral decision-making is imposed on the constituents; and while guidance workers are theoretically placed near the bottom of this power structure, they often adopt the general school management model and, in effect, "come from the top" when dealing with students and staff.

The lines of authority in public school organization, as noted in Figure I, virtually prescribe the downward and uni-directional flow of decision-making power that is

commonly exercised without significant mutuality or consultation with those at the bottom, or "receiving" end. Thus, the top-heavy "inverted pyramid of power" in Figure I aptly connotes how educational decisions are originated and disseminated, and since this is generally accepted and sanctioned as the basic school management model, it is not surprising that confirming evidence can be routinely obtained from most any school system.

Take for example the currently popular school administrator mission of implementing the performance-objective-approach to student learning, in which segments of the curriculum are specifically identified as target-learning-objectives to be achieved through specified progress criteria. The common administrative practice, first of all, is to decide unilaterally that the performance-objective-approach will be implemented as a school system policy. The second standard operating procedure is to generate staff and community involvement--normally token involvement--in the development of goals and learning-performance-objectives; a strategy that hardly conceals the lack of meaningful collaboration evidenced in the actual decision to proceed with this innovation. The example need not be described further since, from this point on, it can generally be presumed that it is largely the initiating administrator(s) who is sufficiently enthusiastic about the use of the performance-objective-approach and can see the



The American public school "chain of command";  
An inverted "pyramid of power."

Figure 1.

inherent potential in its use.

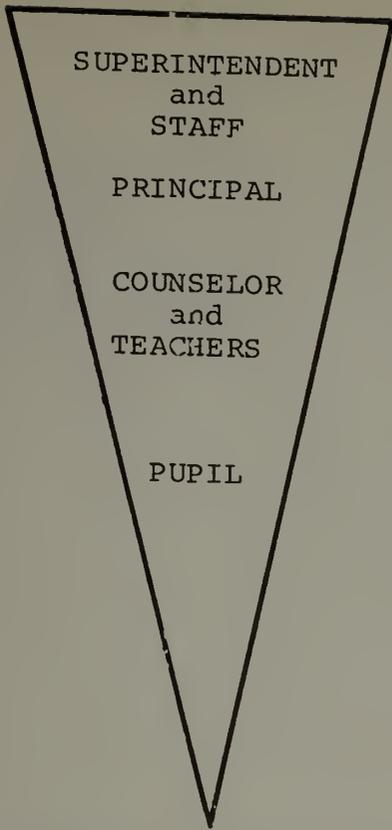
However, until those who are to implement the idea recognize its potential, it is going to be much more difficult to produce change in their behavior. When decisions are handed down rather than mutually developed, "the results are apparent in decreased involvement in task and personal interest and lowering of the worker's self-respect" (Calia and Wall, 1968). Perhaps more important, before the staff that is to implement the proposal can effectively internalize and identify with this "solution," (e.g., the performance-objective-approach) they first must recognize and take ownership in the precipitating problem for which the "solution" is proposed. This latter point is routinely overlooked by school administrators attempting to impose change-by-directive, from the "top" down (Hersey and Blanchard, 1972). At any rate, it may be anticipated that the bulk of the "harvest" resulting from this type of after-the-fact strategy will accrue to the self-serving illusion that the administration is somehow dynamic and effective. Thus, the intrinsic value of many educational innovations rarely surfaces because of ineffective authoritarian intervention strategies that preclude gaining essential collaborative commitment from those whose cooperation is most vital.

Unfortunately, guidance personnel are often similarly disposed in many of their relationships with groups and

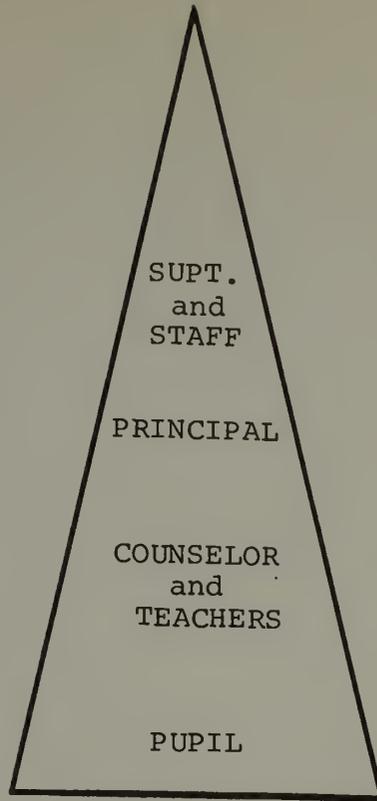
individuals within the school community. For instance, school counselors are found using personal and "position" power (i.e., the role of an enforcer) to influence teachers and students to conform to school system doctrine. Student course selection, class scheduling, master scheduling, questionable use of medical and private records, "compulsory" standardized testing, attendance matters, and "stacked" research are examples of conflict-of-interest situations that engender paternalistic and authoritarian responses in counselors.

In other instances, school vocational counseling has incurred considerable justified criticism, especially from spokesmen for minority students and female students, to the effect that paternalistic, "here's what-is-best-for-you" guidance advice has frequently dissuaded and aborted otherwise desirable pupil career aspirations (Jackson, 1972). At the 1970 White House Conference on Children, members of the Women's Movement, the Black Caucus, the Chicano Caucus, the Indian Caucus, angrily forced the delegates' attention toward the ways in which society denies the contribution and the potential contribution of their members. The representatives of these groups castigated guidance personnel for their judgmental roles and for their reinforcement of the status quo rather than their serving as agents of change (Lifton, 1971).

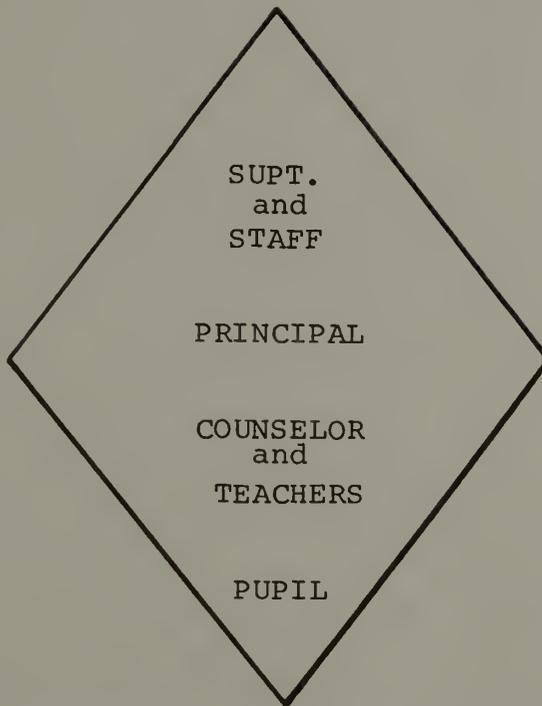
The diagrams in Figure 2, show three basic formulations



"Top-Down" Change Model



"Bottom-Up" Change Model



"Top-Middle-Bottom" Simultaneous Change Model

Figure 2.

for implementing dyadic, group, or institutional change. Traditional guidance-practices have too often made use of only one of these--the "top-down" approach--and, in using this one method, have generally used it in the authoritarian manner indicated in Figure 1. Used in a more creative way, the "top-down" approach does however have considerable value, as later discussions will indicate.

Individual freedom to choose--or not to choose--still remains a fundamental virtue of the American system; and just as it is generally ineffective administrative practice unilaterally to impose organizational change on constituents, so it is also unsound counseling practice to use personal and position power to say to students, "If I were you...."

#### Toward Mutuality in Guidance Interventions

By way of comparison, the philosophy of mutualism is essentially a philosophy of the collaborative diffusion and use of power and resources, and it is consequently often in conflict with the authoritarian philosophy that seeks to centralize and control decision-making power.

These two divergent philosophies may be compared to two major schools of thought concerning human behavior and organizational change; that is, scientific management and human relations. The scientific management theory which emerged in the early 1900's viewed people as instruments to

be manipulated by administrative management with little attention given to human affairs and emotions. The primary focus was on the needs of the organization rather than on individual needs. The result was that people were forced to adjust to the management system with little or no accommodation by management to the people. The human relations movement, a counter trend emerging from Mayo's (1933) work in the 1930's, stressed the benefits to be gained from developing organizations around the workers and from emphasizing consideration for human feelings and attitudes. The human relations theory provided for collaborative goal attainment among workers, in addition to providing opportunities for their personal growth and development. The main focus, contrary to scientific management theory, was on individual needs rather than exclusively on organizational needs (Hersey and Blanchard, 1972). The philosophy of mutualism incorporates the human relations approach to organizational development and behavior change, whereas the scientific management theory is essentially authoritarian. Within the context of promoting human behavioral change, the mutuality concept is a participative change method, while the authoritarian model represents a coercive technique.

As an intervention philosophy, both approaches have value. Hersey and Blanchard (1972) indicate that the authoritarian change style is often appropriate with

immature, dependent people who are not willing to take new responsibilities unless forced to do so. An advantage of the coercive style is that change can be imposed immediately. The major disadvantages of this style are that animosity and hostility are often aroused and that change is generally maintained only so long as the change agent retains sufficient power to enforce it. Schmuck, et al. (1972) observe that while consensus and mutual decisions are generally most effective, there are times when decisions should be made by one person or by a small committee; these are decisions about matters that do not require committed action, detailed coordination, and understanding by those implementing the decision. Hersey and Blanchard (1972) point out that the major disadvantage of the participative approach to change is that it is often slow and evolutionary, although once change is accepted, it tends to be long lasting, since the participants are highly committed to the change. These writers also suggest that this change strategy is more appropriate for working with mature people because they are achievement-motivated and possess useful knowledge and experience that can contribute toward accomplishing mutually agreed upon goals.

As indicated previously, there are three general approaches available for effectively mobilizing school resources for desired change: (1) from the top of the system, (2) from the bottom of the system, and, (3) from

the top, middle, and bottom simultaneously. All three approaches can be effective or ineffective, depending upon whether or not the intervention design and the interventionist incorporate appropriate components of collaboration and mutuality. For example, change initiated at the bottom without adequate collaboration with those above will most certainly encounter heavy resistance from the entrenched power hierarchy. As illustrated previously, the reverse is also true. In that regard, common sense dictates that those selected for higher organizational positions must assume a sizeable responsibility for exhibiting innovative and constructive leadership, if only because they are routinely exposed to a broader perspective and data base which suggest needed changes. In a complex institution, access to information and knowledge tends to invest individuals with added responsibility, as well as with varying degrees of additional power. This notion further suggests the advisability of initiating and pursuing organizational change from a mutualistic perspective. Generally speaking, mutually determined goals, initiated simultaneously from the top, middle, and bottom--similar to what McGregor (1960) calls a true "integration of goals"--represent a mutualism most effectively mobilized toward individual and institutional change.

One of the recognized pitfalls inherent in the second approach mentioned above--initiating change from the

bottom--lies in the danger that organized initiative may fail to emerge and thus nothing will happen. While this may be seen as a problem, it may also be viewed as an opportunity for a change agent to help those at the bottom clarify their needs and then assert their expertise and collaboratively implement their contributions.

Also, at this point, it should be restated that the general principles of mutualism and their relationships to human behavior change are equally applicable in dyadic, group, institutional, and community situations. For example, in a non-directive dyadic counseling situation, the pitfall inherent in the second approach, discussed above, can readily occur--and the counselor intervention response may well prove quite similar to that proposed above for the change agent.

Support for the mutualistic approach toward improving school learning environments is evidenced by extensive field studies of schools, such as those by Schmuck, et al. (1972). They found a good deal of evidence which indicated that a wider distribution of school system power yields significant benefits. Their evidence verifies the contentions that: (a) teachers are more willing to display their capabilities, and find greatest satisfaction with their principal and school district, when they have more access to powerful people within the district and feel mutually influential; (b) a positive relation exists between student

satisfaction with school and their perception of mutual influence between themselves and their teachers; and (c) the increased influence of those in lower echelons does not necessarily reduce management's control. "What usually occurs in effectively functioning organizations is that members at all hierarchical levels gain in power as the influence of their subordinates is relatively increased."

Conflicts of power in complex school organizations are unavoidable and often occur because of human factors such as differing points of view, differing role expectations, the frustration of individual goals, and the competition for promotions and for scarce resources. We must face the fact that participative and collaborative change interventions can also produce conflict.

The evidence, however, strongly suggests that, as a rule, individual, group, and school system change can be most effectively implemented within the philosophical framework of mutualism as contrasted with authoritarianism. It follows that the guidance mission of humanizing the school community largely represents a quest for mutualistic change strategies that more effectively diffuse responsibility and decision-making power, i.e., give humanizing power to the people.

#### Three Conditions for Initiating Mutual Change

Three basic conditions for initiating change strategies

may be postulated within the framework of the philosophy of mutualism. These conditions are: (1) the change agent consults with the potential client to ascertain client needs and to assist the client with subsequent action, if indicated; (2) the change agent is informed by the client regarding the changes that are desired, and then "retained" by the client to help achieve the indicated changes; or (3) the change agent and the client meet and negotiate changes--either party may propose changes--with the understanding, as in (1) and (2) above, that once goals are agreed upon, both parties assume some responsibility for pursuing these goals.

At least one of these elements is normally present as a condition for initiating effective human behavior change with individuals, groups, or institutions. For instance, in "Consultation: A Process for Continuous Institutional Renewal" (1972), the culminating report by the WICHE (Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education) task force recommends a master design for institutional change that incorporates various aspects of these mutuality conditions. The WICHE intervention design includes the following: (1) Change agents must become mutually involved with the target population in determining what, if any, changes are indicated. This needs assessment is achieved in various ways, including the use of paraprofessional outreach "sensors", as well as follow-up consultation and data

analysis. (2) Once change agents are mutually involved with clients, they must assume responsibility for participative responsiveness to identified issues. By this time, "sensory" and consultation efforts have cultivated mutual awareness, participation, and the wide outreach support necessary for effective planning and implementation. (3) Institutionalized programs must also respond to identified problems wherever possible, for example, by establishing positive change centers with a reservoir of human and other intervention resources.

Hersey and Blanchard (1972) provide a good example of number (3) above; the negotiating approach to organizational change. Their participative change cycle clearly requires client participation in helping to select or to formalize the goals and the methods for reaching the goals. In instances where staff commitment and organizational effectiveness are the goals, these authors suggest a management-by-objectives approach which emphasize mutualism in establishing personal objectives and the methods for achieving these objectives.

Paulo Freire (1970), a recognized Third World change agent, takes the position that the above first and second conditions can occur with some simultaneity; that is, an initial consultation dealing with speech and language problems may well result in the client later requesting the change agent's assistance in achieving seemingly unrelated

social objectives.

Schmuck and Runkel (1970) describe successful change strategies, that were applied to a junior high school, that were initially proposed on the assumption that, left alone, schools are not likely to solve their critical problems without first receiving outside consultation help in changing their internal organizational and administrative arrangements. Their initial strategies were implemented primarily from the perspective of the third category listed here; change mutually negotiated. Once the intervention process began, however, aspects of the second category were incorporated, wherein the staff within the school identified needed changes. The change method assumed that the decision-making should make fuller use of the teaching staff resources rather than relying on hierarchical directives. The intervention training goals were oriented toward real school tasks in order to help staff members to: (1) mutually identify their communication road blocks; (2) generate systematic communication problem-solving procedures; (3) translate the resolution of these first two goals into student-teacher relationships and classroom instruction; and (4) perpetuate and expand these gains through a self-renewing program of continuing activities. The "real-world" task orientation of the Schmuck and Runkel change model may well have been a significant element in the success of the intervention. This approach is supported

by Campbell and Dunnette's (1968) findings on the noticeable lack of the transfer of skills from T-groups to back-home work-a-day situations. Collaborative needs-assessments dealing with real client concerns seem crucial to the development of sufficient personal involvement necessary for effective client change.

Weinstein and Fantini (1970) incorporate the first two conditions of the constructs proposed here in their curriculum approach to "self" changes by individuals. This strategy, metaphorically termed "the trumpet," provides for an expanding awareness of self that fosters individual decisions to seek personal behavior changes. In addition, the trumpet strategy aids students in their selection of new behaviors and promotes the acquisition of selected behaviors. A variety of techniques are provided for students in order for them to recognize, weigh, and try on alternative behaviors prior to evaluating and choosing new behavior patterns. The teacher, as a change agent, functions as a resource person providing facilitative conditions for student growth, with an emphasis on peer-to-peer-help. With minimal alteration, the trumpet strategy could readily provide a psychoecologically oriented model for community and institutional change.

Raths, Harmon and Simon's (1966) values-clarification strategy suggests another teacher-as-change-agent model, whereby the client-student is provided a potent environment

for electing to modify his behavior and to modify it in the direction of his choice. The values-clarification method basically centers on the process of valuing rather than on the content of people's values. Through the technique of systematic questioning, students ascertain their individual "gradients" of personal commitment to the various values they hold. Then the seven hierarchical criteria of a true value are presented, thereby facilitating student decisions as to which, if any, values they wish to identify with and promote. The decision to adopt a value, by definition, involves a commitment by the value holder to act on that particular value, with consistency and repetition. Here again is a client-centered behavioral change model that is congruent with the first and second categories of the conditions for effective psychoecological and mutualistic interventions.

There are many other ways that mutualistic behavior change could be conducted, ranging from different counseling methods to different methods for religious training. An excellent counseling illustration is found in the concept of co-counseling in which people select partners and mutually commit themselves to reciprocating counselor-client roles in which each partner is assured of a regular "counseling" session in return for providing the other person with a like opportunity to be the "client." Similarly, Ivey (1971) has identified direct, mutual communica-

tion as a microcounseling skills-training intervention closely resembling the feedback and sharing typically found in sensitivity training sessions. Ivey elaborates as follows:

From a psychoanalytic point of view, direct, mutual communication is a frank analysis of the transference relationship occurring between two human beings. Viewed from learning theory, direct, mutual communication is teaching people another way of developing mutual reinforcement modalities with an emphasis on affective comments. Existentially, direct, mutual communication with its emphasis on here and now feelings and experiences may provide interviewers with insight into themselves and the nature of their own existence. (p. 65)

Other examples illustrating how mutualism may be conducted so as to facilitate change will appear in subsequent chapters. The following section will discuss a more comprehensive model for inducing educational change from a mutualistic guidance perspective.

#### Two Approaches to Guidance Administration: A Comparison

Given a common problem, as for example, the introduction of a new high school vocational education counseling program, how might a mutualistic guidance administrator's intervention approach compare with traditional procedures? An example of each type of intervention is presented in Figure 3 and 4 for comparison purposes.

Figure 3 depicts a more traditional guidance administrator intervention and has been adapted from a recent actual school district innovation attempt. Figure 4 out-

Figure 3

Traditional Guidance Administration Procedure for Introducing an Innovative Vocational Education Counseling Program: An Example.

<u>TASK</u>	<u>EVENT</u>	<u>DATE</u>	<u>PERSON RESPONSIBLE</u>
Establish policy to guide 1969-70 identification and enrollment of high school students; and use of facilities	Meet, establish policy and publish	On or before Jan. 22, 1969	Superintendent and Guidance Administrator
Finalize, edit and publish	Meet with the printer and disseminate copies	On or before Jan. 27, 1969	Guidance Administrator
Publish a form usable by counselors and students in adequate quantity to meet counselor needs	Publish vocational educational class descriptions	On or before Jan. 31, 1969	Guidance Administrator and designated classroom teachers
Explain each program and discuss the use of materials	Meet with the senior high school counselors	On or before Feb. 8, 1969	Guidance Administrator and designated classroom teachers
Disseminate information Counsel	Inform potential students	Feb. 9 to time of enrollment	High school counselors
Bring in speakers, etc.			
Provide all needed information for computer-programmer	Enroll students	Feb. 9 to time of enrollment	Building principals
Involve Transportation Director to develop plan and policy for vocational education field experiences	Meet with Transportation Director and develop plans and policies	Before June 1 1969	Designated personnel
Develop and publish guidelines for the students involved	Meet and develop student vocational education discipline policy	On or before June 1 1969	Designated personnel

Figure 4

Hypothetical Mutualistic Guidance Administration Approach for Introducing  
An Innovative Vocational Education Counseling Program

<u>TASK</u>	<u>EVENT</u>	<u>DATE</u>	<u>PERSON RESPONSIBLE</u>
To establish 1969-70 philosophy, objectives, and goals for high school vocational education counseling program.	Meet, consult and negotiate vocational education philosophy, objectives & goals. Build teamwork.	Before Jan. 22, 1969.	Task force team rep. students, teachers, counselors, parents, superintendent, building principals, transportation, computer-programmer, community voc. educ. collaborators, and guidance administrators.
Disseminate mutually agreed upon matters and request any additional input.	Incorporate appropriate input, publish status report.	On or before Jan. 27, 1969.	Ad hoc task force sub-committee selected from representation, from original meeting.
To finalize details and mobilize skills and resources of participating teachers, counselors, students, administrators, community, parents, transportation, computer-programmer, and public relations plan.	Collaborative sessions including ad hoc representation of appropriate interests and skills. Simultaneous team and skills building events.	On or before Feb. 28, 1969.	Original task force team representatives.

Figure 4--Continued

<u>TASK</u>	<u>EVENT</u>	<u>DATE</u>	<u>PERSON RESPONSIBLE</u>
To establish the new 1969-70 vocational education counseling program as official district policy.	Superintendent meets with the school board--utilizing the ad hoc sub-committee members to present case for board approval.	On or before Mar. 3, 1969.	Superintendent and ad hoc sub-committee.
To publish and promote new program to the school community, parents, service organizations, business community, and other outreach efforts such as other school districts.	Implement the public relations plan as detailed in the previous collaborative workshop sessions.	Ongoing program commencing Mar. 3, 1969.	Publicity sub-committee as determined in collaborative workshop sessions held previously.
To activate the new vocational education program with the help of the computer-programmer and transportation director.	Counselors, teachers, and students meet, consult, and enroll students in program.	During spring enrollment.	Counselors, teachers, computer-programmer, transportation director, and students.

lines a hypothetical alternative intervention approach. In this case, both examples use the "top-down" intervention method. While this is the normal approach from the traditional point of view, the hypothetical example (Figure 4) has been purposely proposed to illustrate how the "top-down" institutional change approach can also be implemented from a mutualistic perspective. It should be pointed out that the mutualistic change agent has the additional options of using either the simultaneous "top-middle-bottom" change method or the "bottom-up" approach, whereas the traditional "top-down" interventionist still has only the one model. Moreover, even when mutualistic people are basically coming "from the top," they are constantly moving power and responsibility in a downward direction. This is evident in the hypothetical example given in Figure 4.

Chapter IV will present and discuss a psychoecological visual framework within which educational change interventions, and their inter-relationships, can be conceived.

## C H A P T E R I V

## A PSYCHOECOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK FOR GUIDANCE

Introduction

The pupil personnel guidance strategies for educational change discussed in Chapter III are useful in many ways directly related to the issue of how guidance can respond in the future with more effectiveness. Moreover, for the first time, guidance has a "cupboard" that contains not only some older methods that can still be effective but many newer approaches, such as the psychological education concepts described in the May, 1973 issue of Personnel and Guidance Journal; the work of Carkhuff, Ivey, and Kagan; recent organizational development innovations; the work of Mosher and Sprinthall (1971); as well as a variety of other human development movements.

Clearly since there are now more techniques available for guidance people than any one counselor can do, there is no longer any reason for counselors to pattern their professional methods after the authoritarian administrator's "top-down" approach. They must now become occupied with thinking through their goals and then selecting the most appropriate methods to use to achieve those goals.

The question then arises, how can busy guidance workers organize themselves to be most effective?

What is needed is a map of alternative educational change routes to assist guidance people in the task of incorporating specific interventions most effectively within the twin concepts of mutuality and psychoecology.

This chapter seeks to provide that road map for the guidance movement of the future. A psychoecological model, the "cube" is discussed as presenting a visual framework within which individual educational change interventions, and their inter-relationships, may be conceived in better perspective.

#### Toward A Model for Guidance Services

Public school guidance services have ordinarily been conceptualized as "activities" to be provided by various guidance specialists. The "services" concept in pupil personnel guidance, according to Saltzman and Peters (1967) is an attempt to combine the best efforts of trained specialists to focus, with teamwork precision, on each pupil's special needs. Unfortunately, as Calia and Wall (1968) point out, even in those schools where a variety of pupil personnel guidance services are available, the programs are often so uncoordinated and inadequate that the various specialists involved normally form cooperative working relationships only accidentally or incidentally. Moreover, the actual guidance services provided in these school systems are typically arrived at as if by chance. For instance,

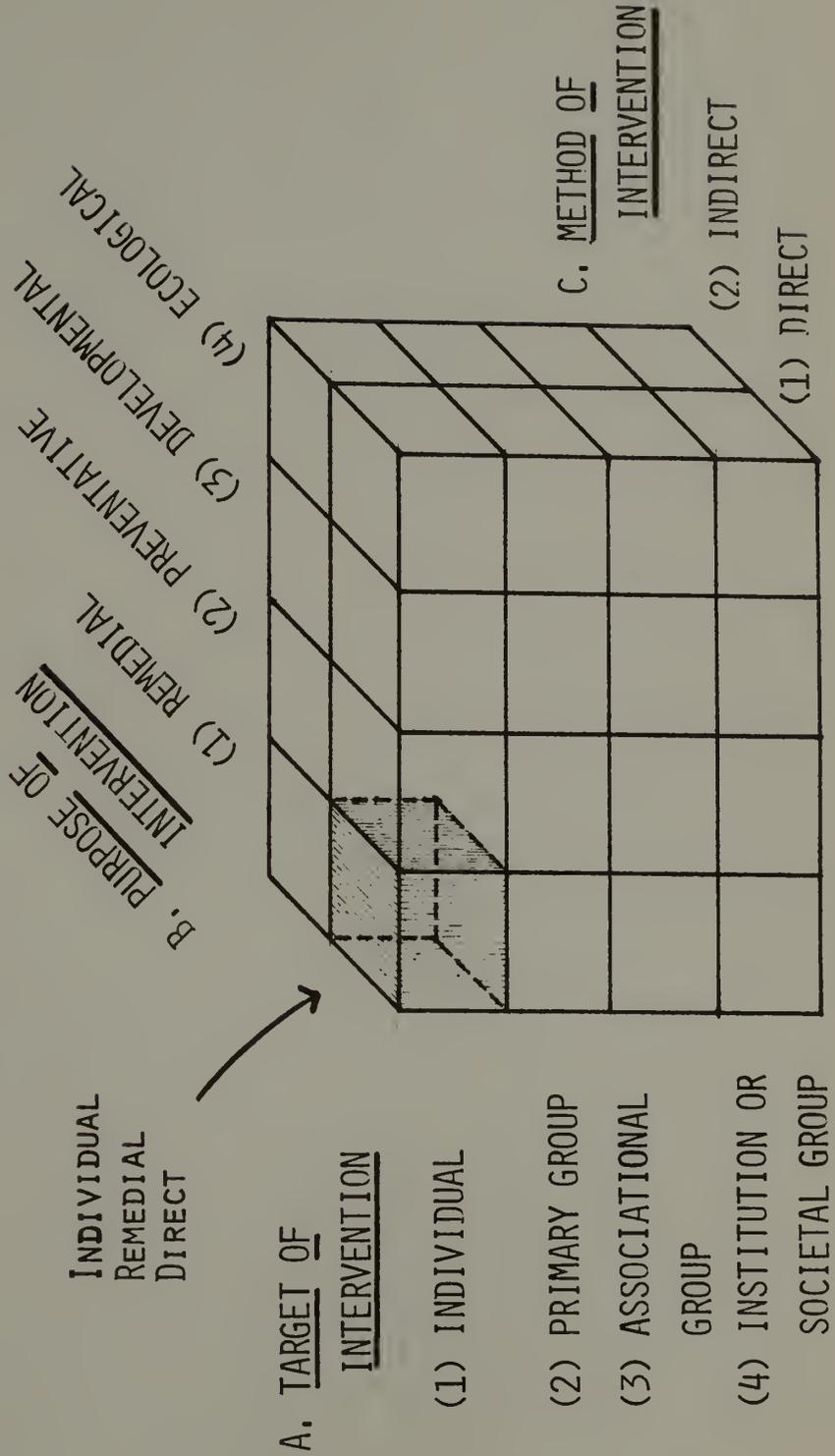
Ferguson (1965) states that pupil personnel guidance activities or services "have so far appeared to operate on a wholly empirical basis, without any consistent or integrated theory or even any universally recognized set of principles."

Until recently, there has been no effort to organize this broad range of activities in a meaningful way so as to systematically describe relationships between the dimensions of guidance interventions. Morrill, Oetting, and Hurst (1972), however, have developed a comprehensive model (Figure 5) that diagrammatically describes multi-dimensional relationships of guidance functions. Referred to as the "cube," it visually shows the three primary guidance dimensions within which the broad array of counseling interventions may be developed. One important addition, the ecological dimension, has been introduced by Ivey (1972b) as a modification of the original cube. It is also of interest to note that one-to-one counseling is treated as just one of many guidance interventions within a greatly expanded perspective.

This model permits guidance workers to select appropriate interventions by facilitating the identification and clarification of a variety of counseling approaches, and can be used as a means of categorizing and describing the potential activities of a more balanced and effective school guidance program.

FIGURE 5

GUIDANCE DIMENSIONS OF PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICES



As described by its originators, the cube dimensions deal with who or what the intervention is aimed at, why the intervention is attempted, and who will do the intervention. Perhaps the most important conceptual contribution of the model is that it stimulates consideration of the interdependence effect of alternative interventions in relation to other dimensions of the cube.

It is recognized then that while this model is useful as a conceptual tool to visualize a wide variety of guidance activities and interventions, in actual practice, intervention activities in individual cells of the cube do not respond as isolated, independent functions but exhibit a psychoecological force on other cells; i.e., a considerable psychoecological interdependence is often in evidence among the various other cube cells as a direct or indirect result of single cell interventions. The effective application of this recognition to school guidance services pre-supposes that pupil personnel services discard their traditional hit-or-miss, unpredictable approach and mount a concerted effort toward a more effective, creative, and balanced program.

#### The Cube: A Tri-dimensional Framework for Guidance

This section will recount Morrill, Oetting, and Hurst's explanation of the cube as described in their 1972 "Dimensions of Counseling Intervention" report to the National

Institute of Mental Health. Ivey's (1972b) expansion of the cube to include the ecological dimension has been added to the descriptive narrative. In addition, traditional and contemporary illustrative guidance examples are incorporated to help provide a clearer understanding of the cube concept.

The three primary dimensions of the cube, along with their respective sub-areas, are as follows:

A. The target of the intervention refers to interventions aimed at (1) the individual, (2) the individual's primary group(s), (3) the individual's associational group(s), or (4) the institutional or societal group(s) that influence the individual's behavior.

B. The purpose of the intervention refers to whether the purpose of the intervention is of (1) a remedial nature, (2) a preventative nature, (3) a developmental nature and not involving a problem orientation, or (4) an ecological nature stressing interdependency functions.

C. The method of intervention, whether direct or indirect, refers to whether the guidance worker is (1) directly involved in initiating and implementing the intervention, or (2) indirectly involved, such as through consultation, training of others, or use of media.

For clarification purposes, each of these three primary dimensions, and their sub-areas, is expanded upon and discussed separately as sub-sections of this section.

#### A. The Target of the Intervention

The question of who the target of guidance interventions is, has not been asked very often by the profession. The answer to the question has generally been assumed to be the "individual." That is, the objective of counseling has been to produce positive changes in the individual client. Moreover, the move to group guidance has not necessarily reflected an effort to change the group as a whole but has generally been to influence "individuals" by the group. This dimension then provides for the possibility that interventions into the groups and institutions that influence individuals may be as effective, and perhaps more effective, than previous intervention methods aimed at influencing the individual.

The purpose of this dimension is to indicate a range of possible alternative approaches for intervention. It begins with the individual being the target of the intervention and then describes other key groups that can be the focus of the intervention. The problem of classifying groups and introducing order among them is not an easy task. Other classifications are possible and could be used with equal validity to describe this dimension. The guidance worker can choose to intervene at any one of the following four levels:

1. Individual. The target of the intervention is the individual on either a one-to-one basis or on a small-group basis. Clients are worked with one at a time or with

a few at a time in a small group setting. The attempt is to influence individuals through altering their knowledge, attitudes, perceptions, responses, and behavior. The guidance strategies usually employed include client-centered counseling, behavioral counseling, reality therapy, advising, psycho-dynamic counseling, gestalt therapy, and transactional analysis. Most of these approaches have also been adapted for use in small-group sessions by counselors. Additionally, these techniques may be readily adapted and used within the mutualistic perspective.

2. Primary or strong identification groups. The target of the intervention is the primary, or strong identification, groups that affect the individual. A "primary group" is a basic unit of social organization. This concept refers to those groups which are most influential for the individual. They are described as intimate, personal associations on a face-to-face, continuing basis. A primary group is defined by the degree of intimacy rather than proximity. Association and identification with these groups strongly influence the individual's self-concept. The behavior of individuals in such a group and their presence or absence from the group influence the other individuals in the group as well as the group itself. Examples of primary groups include families, couples, and close friends.

Interventions at this level include attempts to alter communications, interactions, perceptions, structure, and

relationships in the individual's primary groups. Family counseling is an example of traditional as well as contemporary, primary group intervention. This approach has often been initiated by school nurses and counselors, as well as by school social workers, psychologists, and attendance personnel.

3. Associational groups. The target of the intervention here is the associational groups to which individuals belong. These are groups that are based on choice and somewhat chance associations. Group members have a consciousness of similar interests and/or needs, and they band or join together in some organizational way to pursue those interests and/or needs. The distinction between this and societal or institutional groups is that members of associational groups meet together with other members of the group. Examples of associational groups are class sections, clubs, athletic and debate teams, school musical groups, and student government groups.

Interventions at this level include attempts to alter communications patterns, interactions, organization, goals, and methods of achieving goals. School guidance interventions aimed at the associational groups are only occasionally implemented, perhaps due to the lack of consultant-training emphasis in graduate schools of counseling, school psychology, school nursing, and school social work. Inasmuch as guidance interventions into most associational

groups must deal effectively with a supervising teacher, a certain amount of consulting skill is indicated. The outreach "pay-offs" for the skilled interventionist in this instance suggest the need for an increased emphasis on the acquisition of consultation skills by guidance personnel. The example of introducing psychological education into the physical education curriculum, described in Chapter III, provides a good illustration of how the psychoecologically-oriented guidance worker may effectively intervene into a school associational group such as a class section.

4. Institutional or societal groups. The target of this intervention can be either institutional or societal groups. These groups differ from associational groups in that they do not necessarily involve meeting together of the members of the group. People are aware of their participation as parts of an institution such as a school or a church, and acknowledge membership in a community, or a society. The crucial element of the distribution of power should be recognized when considering interventions into these types of groups.

Interventions at this level would include attempts to alter goals, communications, system linkages, power distribution, information flow, and sanctions. It is often presumed that effective institutional (or societal) intervention resources are not readily available within the typical pupil personnel guidance program.

Consequently, traditional guidance approaches have generally neglected this type of activity. This need not be the case. Given a reasonable level of intervention effectiveness, the guidance worker, for example, could capitalize on a collaborative power base of parent-student-teacher-counselor associations to change monolithic school institutions from a "bottom-up" mutualistic negotiation perspective.

B. The Purpose of the Intervention

The second dimension, "purpose," denotes what the intervention is attempting to accomplish. The purpose of the intervention may be the remediation of an existing problem, the prevention of a potential problem, the promotion of developmental skills, or attention given to ecological or interdependency factors leading to positive environments that facilitate human growth.

The intent of this dimension is to note some important differences in the orientation of guidance programs. This dimension indicates the possibility of both a reactive and proactive role for the counselor. In the past, some guidance programs have seen their role as totally reactive. That is, they were available to see clients after the clients had recognized that they had a problem and came to the counselor seeking help. The counselor then reacted with remedial efforts. This dimension recognizes the role of prevention as well as that of promoting positive development

and ecological balance. The purpose of the intervention can be any of the following:

1. Remediation. Interventions at the remedial level are aimed at providing some skill which has been needed in the past and which was absent. The focus is to bring the individual, group, institution, or community toward adequate present functioning. In this situation there is generally some discomfort involved, and this discomfort has made it obvious to the individual, group, institution, or community that some action of a remedial nature is needed. In this situation, there has been a discrepancy between the "client's" coping competencies and the environmental demands that exist. This is often manifested, for example, by individuals who find themselves in classes that demand extensive reading but who have a low reading ability level and a low comprehension level. Unless the skill is quickly acquired, the individual will fail the course and perhaps eventually be forced to leave school altogether. This type of client problem may well suggest the simple, traditional guidance response of referring the student to a remedial reading program and thereby achieve a successful resolution of the dilemma. (However, conceptualized from the vantage point of the cube, the psychoecologically-oriented counselor might view this client "disturbance" as a good opportunity to also explore with the student's teacher alternative ways that class members--each exhibiting unique skills and assets as

well as skill deficits--might participate and contribute toward the achievement of more mutually acceptable and beneficial instructional objectives.)

2. Prevention. This aspect of the purpose dimension attempts to identify those skills which are needed by individuals in the present, or which may be needed in the future, and to provide a means for their acquisition. The intent is to anticipate future problems and move to prevent them by providing individuals, groups, institutions, or the community with appropriate coping skills or techniques which will prevent the development of problems. An example evolves from the recognition that the transition from high school to college is a traumatic experience for many students. In this instance, preventive programs designed to decrease the casualties of this period might include such things as group programs to create primary group support for individual students, pre-college counseling to prepare the student for the transition, attempts to modify institutional rules and procedures which contribute to the problem such as registration, faculty advising, etc. The objective is to provide the skills needed by the individual to meet his environmental demands adequately, as well as to attempt to modify unnecessary and debilitating environmental demands.

3. Development. This purpose of intervention recognizes the role of the guidance worker in providing programs for all students and individuals and not just those identified

as having, or potentially having, problems. This dimension describes those programs which are designed to enhance the functioning and developmental potential of individuals. Here, programs are proactive in promoting the development of potential. This dimension is related to prevention, but it has a primary focus of promoting positive growth rather than preventing future problems.

An example of a developmental program is a coeducational workshop designed to enhance the growth and enjoyment of coeducational relationships. It is not meant to alleviate serious boy-girl relationship problems or be a substitute for dating problems more appropriately dealt with in other types of counseling interventions. The goal is to provide a means for adequately functioning students to enhance and to gain greater joy and meaning from their general school interpersonal relationships. Other examples would include leadership development programs and career development programs aimed at providing individuals with skills needed to influence their own development.

4. Ecological. This intervention is to help people cope with, and otherwise operate more effectively in, their school-community environments. It is generally concerned with inter-personal, inter-group, inter-institutional, and intra-community human transactions. The notion of transaction is used here to convey the complex bargaining processes that characterize the relationship between individuals and

their environment (Dewey and Bentley, 1960). It connotes the idea that people are interdependent in various ways and that changes in any one element (or cube cell) of an ecological system usually affect other elements. As Kuriloff (1973) suggests, any attempt to understand a person's behavior-- "deviant" or otherwise--without taking into account the reactive processes of that person's environment will be incomplete. It follows that any intervention model based on such a restricted view cannot be fully effective.

Kuriloff envisions the psychoecologically-oriented guidance worker intervening into a given ecology system as an observer-participant to evaluate the nature of the interpersonal transactions, and then participating in creative ways to improve these transactions. These observations and evaluations would resemble the approaches often used by cultural anthropologists in that they would emphasize perceptions viewed from a developmental framework.

In practice, a basic objective of ecological intervention is to help people within a given environment acquire sufficient skills to obtain what they want from each other in legitimate ways. A typical task of the psychoecological counselor is to alter inappropriate transactions in ways that promote individual competence and a sense of personal adequacy and environmental mastery. Inasmuch as an ecological disturbance generally produces a "ripple effect," it often provides an opportunity to promote positive change

throughout a given ecological network.

Instances of ecological interventions may be found in recent school organizational development (OD) literature. For example, Fosmire, Keutzer and Diller (Schmuck and Miles, 1971) describe an OD intervention effort into a high school environment that resulted in positive and measurable ecological results. In this case, the T-group-type OD strategies focused on developing staff interpersonal competence on the assumption that interpersonal skills are the tools which facilitate decision-making and lead to an increase in organizational effectiveness. Subsequent evidence of positive ecological interactive changes in the school environment included improved student behavior in the classroom and in unsupervised areas, improved student decision-making, and an increase in the assumption of responsibility by students; all in the presence of significant staff changes in the direction of exhibiting greater interpersonal openness.

### C. The Method of Intervention

There are various ways that a guidance program can be operated. The professional can attempt either to deal directly with a target population or can choose to work with other individuals to improve their ability to deal with these clients. The professional is involved directly with the client in the first instance and indirectly in the latter. The intent of this dimension is to indicate both direct and indirect roles for the professional. The limited

number of professionals available in most settings has made it essential that some means of increasing their range of influence be developed. This dimension is related to the target dimension in that efforts, say, to work with institutions are also the means of extending the range of influence of the professional. This dimension however, is designed to deal with who does the actual intervention; i.e., whether the professional is directly or indirectly involved in the presentation of programs or services.

1. Direct intervention. Most of the usual guidance programs have emphasized direct intervention. Vocational, group, and personal counseling have traditionally involved the professional in face-to-face contact with the client on both an individual and small group basis.

Direct intervention is necessary in some instances, such as in situations where professional skills can be critical and where the experienced judgment that qualified professionals can bring to bear is required.

The disadvantages of direct programs include the cost, both in terms of money and the scarcity of professional time, the ability to deal with only a small number of clients, and the limitations in reaching some groups of clients or to provide some kinds of programs.

2. Indirect intervention. Indirect intervention is an attempt to reach either a larger number of people with less professional staff time, or clients who could not otherwise

be effectively approached. Indirect programs designed to reach clients through other people may include a training program for student peer-counseling, consultation with individuals in other helping roles, consultation with the school administration, consultation with faculty and faculty groups, and many other types of training and consultation approaches.

The community mental health movement, for example, has strongly emphasized the role of consultation during the past decade. The basic concept is that the professional can achieve greater impact by working with the people who work with the clients. Because of limited resources and almost unlimited mental health problems, this approach has been widely used--and the analogy with schools here is a valid one.

Another indirect method is the selection and training of paraprofessionals to work in various settings. In this instance, the professional is involved in conceptualizing a program and in selecting and training the paraprofessional. The direct service, whether to individuals or groups, is then provided by paraprofessionals. A third indirect approach program involves the use of various communications media. These could include school publications, films, closed circuit TV, radio programs, and other possible media approaches. These examples all represent attempts to reach out and influence individuals through other than direct intervention by a professional.

### Simultaneity and the Cube

As previously indicated, the various dimensions and cells of the cube are, of necessity, somewhat arbitrarily defined. It would be essentially impossible to diagram all of the overlapping functions and potential cell interactions that are inherent in the model. Its primary value is seen in its usefulness as a tool for conceptualizing, categorizing, and describing guidance programs and interventions. An excellent illustration of this is demonstrated in the ensuing discussion of the term "simultaneity;" which is a key construct for guidance intervention.

The term "simultaneity," as it is used in reference to the cube, represents a strong value statement describing a basic philosophical objective of achieving multiple results (multiple cell impact) from each guidance intervention attempted. This objective takes on additional meaning as the current taxpayers' revolt continues to shrink public school resources, and as the guidance and counseling profession continues to rely on humanistic rhetoric, rather than demonstrated results, to justify its existence (Sprinthall, 1972).

Achieving optimal "simultaneity" while using limited professional resources suggests the advisability of placing a heavy emphasis on the development of guidance programs whose "purpose of intervention" is preventative, developmental, and ecological rather than remedial. It also suggests that these programs stress indirect interventions

"targeted" toward societal, institutional, associational, and perhaps primary groups, instead of "direct" one-to-one work with individuals. Therefore, guidance interventions designed to achieve simultaneous multiple results and "ripple-effect" impact should expect to receive a higher program priority than alternative proposals that promise a more modest return on the resources invested.

Outreach interventions represent an important function and application of the concept of simultaneity. An earlier paper by Morrill and Oetting (1970) defined outreach as "those activities which involve a counselor in interactions with relevant populations in locations other than his counseling office." Their current thinking about outreach, however, classifies all interventions and programs which are not individual, remedial, and direct (i.e., 1,1,1 in the cube) as outreach. Thus, any intervention or program that moves away from this cell of the cube or basically reflects any combination of other cube dimensions, is referred to as outreach. The point is that simply moving guidance workers out of their offices and into some other location in the school-community and having them continue doing individual, remedial, and direct interventions, is not outreach and by itself does not represent simultaneity. It is merely decentralization. However, if a counselor implements an ecological intervention which is focused on a societal group and initiated indirectly, this may be described as an outreach

program incorporating prospects for simultaneity, regardless of its location.

Consider, for example, a counselor-initiated community-wide intervention consisting of multiple presentations of the impactful film "High School;" a film generally recognized for its ability to dramatically portray the urgent need for inducing major changes in the operation of schools. Assuming that an adequate cross section of the target group viewed the film and that the film was typically received, it is conceivable that sixteen "cells" of the cube--all of the indirect cells, including the actual intervention cell (i.e., 4,4,2)--could be positively effected. Technically speaking, in the not-unlikely event that the counselor elected to attend and conduct each of the film presentations, the possibility is raised that this type of approach might ultimately have a positive effect on all thirty-two "facets" of the cube by simply coupling indirect with direct intervention.

This hypothetical example illustrates the so-called double, or multiple "whammy" concept of simultaneity, wherein guidance interventions can simultaneously exhibit direct and indirect impact. It also further demonstrates some of the potential inherent in the use of the cube as a conceptual tool.

### Further Implications of the Cube

The discussion of the cube as an appropriate framework of guidance intervention programming has suggested that there are a number of implications involved. The idea of psychoecology certainly deserves further comment, especially in light of its relationship to the ecological dimension incorporated within the model. The term "psychoecology" helps to specify the psychological aspects of the ecological dimension and the notion of the confluence of all individual life spaces within a given setting. Complex psychoecological outcomes of interventions that are attempting to achieve maximum simultaneity may be anticipated better by using the cube. For example, a counselor-instigated institutional intervention, resulting in the establishment of a community-staffed alternative school program--within the school system--has many ramifications. Visualized psychoecologically within the cube, this new "disturbance" may be expected ultimately to affect many, if not all, of the cells. To anticipate, analyze, and evaluate the psychoecological effect, the cube provides an instant classification system by which a cell-by-cell interaction analysis may be undertaken.

Another implication to be considered is the cube's general diagnostic value. For instance, it not only helps the user visualize complex issues of simultaneity and psychoecology, but it can also be a real aid in detecting just what it is in the guidance program that may be missing, and just

where guidance resources are being expended.

The visual mapping potential of the cube is another implication for consideration. It would be helpful, for instance, to be able to pin-point just where traditional innovations seem most effective and where contemporary methods seem indicated. This is especially important if the user, as recommended in this study, is seeking to implement interventions designed to achieve the balanced guidance approach advocated in the previous discussion of the 1952 American Psychological Association recommendations (Chapter II). Evaluative mapping of the effectiveness of a variety of psychological education interventions can also be facilitated by the use of the cube model.

In order to provide a more practical understanding of the psychcecological guidance framework presented in this chapter, Chapters V, VI, VII and VIII will discuss illustrative examples of guidance interventions and how they relate to the various dimensions of the cube.

C H A P T E R V  
GUIDANCE WITH INDIVIDUALS

Introduction to Four Targets of Intervention

The preceding chapters have described the need (Chapter I), the direction (Chapter II), the strategies (Chapter III), and a useful conceptual framework (Chapter IV) for developing a more effective pupil personnel guidance approach. A number of guidance and counseling constructs have been formulated and discussed, and examples have been used to help clarify the major concepts advanced. However, the criteria with which to evaluate the worth of the study must ultimately reflect its usefulness to busy guidance personnel working in educational settings.

With this mind, the four "targets of intervention"--the individual, the primary group, the associational group, and the institution or society--will each be further discussed in relation to other dimensions of the cube. This chapter will focus on the individual "target of intervention," and how it might relate in actual practice to the four "purposes of intervention": remedial, preventative, developmental, and ecological. The following chapter will discuss these elements from the primary group perspective; Chapter VII will follow the same format in dealing with the associational group; and Chapter VIII will do likewise with the institutional or societal group serving as a point

of departure. The "method of intervention" dimension (direct or indirect) will also be discussed in each chapter.

### Considerations for Interventions with Individuals

One need only recall the voluminous amount of literature that is available within the helping professions to realize the broad scope of interest that prevails in regard to changing peoples' behavior. It is beyond the intent of this study to try to comprehensively evaluate and report on all of the work that has been done in this area. The purpose here is to propose a new guidance thrust, based on key landmark studies, that can make pupil personnel guidance services more effective.

This chapter will try to provide understandable illustrative examples that practicing guidance workers might consider when working with individuals. It has been proposed that counselors would have four options available: (1) they may intervene remedially (1,1,1) in order to assist clients towards more adequate functioning; (2) they may intervene preventatively (1,2,1) in anticipation of future client needs; (3) they may intervene developmentally (1,3,1) in order to enhance normal individual growth; and (4) they may intervene ecologically (1,4,1), to promote improved interpersonal-environmental transactions.

The two methods of intervention, direct and indirect, will be discussed in the context of the examples

used.

Another consideration that needs to be re-emphasized is the importance attached to the philosophy of mutualism as offering considerable promise for promoting positive changes. Gibb (1965) specifies, for example, that the conditions under which the helper and helpee grow and develop are characterized by intimate, dyadic relationships that incorporate reciprocal dependence, joint determination of goals, real communication in depth, and reciprocal trust. He notes that the absence of these conditions serves to impede growth. In essence, people seem to develop and grow when they: (1) are honest with and have confidence in each other; (2) share in the learning process; and (3) cooperatively pursue alternative solutions to problems. The implicit assumption here is that both the interventionist and the client must mutually contribute to achieving desired intervention goals. What needs to be made more explicit perhaps is the notion that in actuality much of the energy involved in successful individual remediation must necessarily be devoted to the mobilization of the clients' resources so as to more permanently accommodate whatever desired changes have been identified. It should be pointed out that these aspects of the mutualistic approach are basic to all interventions suggested by the various cells of the cube, whether their purpose is remedial, preventative, developmental, or ecological, and also whether the intervention target is the individual, the

primary group, the associational group, or the institutional and societal group. In essence, the philosophy of mutualism should transcend all interventions.

Guidance personnel who are committed to the idea of incorporating mutualism into their own counseling style can choose from more than one model, e.g., Carkhuff (1969b), Ivey (1971), Kagan and Krathwohl (1967), etc. Carkhuff's (1969a) comprehensive model perhaps best exemplifies the preferred mode of mutualistic guidance proposed in this study. Carkhuff has assembled impressive evidence to support the contention that effective interpersonal learning processes share a similar core of facilitative conditions offered by the helper to the helpee. In addition, this evidence has increasingly demonstrated the efficacy of using trained clients and lay persons as potent helpers in their own right. Much of Carkhuff's work has emerged from his interest in seeking systematic ways of training effective counselors. This effort has focused on adapting operationalized concepts of facilitative core conditions to helper training. Five levels of helper effectiveness have been defined for the explicit purpose of elevating the trainees' demonstrated skills from non-facilitative levels (levels 1 and 2), through the minimal level of facilitative functioning (level 3), and on to higher levels of facilitation and helping (levels 4 and 5).

The most important element in learning these

facilitative skills is (obviously) the quality of the teacher-learner or helper-helpee relationship.<sup>1</sup> As indicated above, the level five dimension describes the effective helpers' most facilitative kinds of responses. The method's potential for prompting inter-personal mutuality is evident in the following description of level five responses, as they relate to core conditions of (1) empathy, (2) respect, (3) genuineness, (4) self-disclosure, (5) concreteness and (6) confrontation:

Core Conditions

Level 5 Helper Responses

(1) Empathy	The helper responds with accuracy to all of the helpee's deeper, as well as surface, feelings
(2) Respect	The helper communicates the deepest respect for the helpee as a person as well as for the helpee's potential as a free person
(3) Genuineness	The helper is freely and deeply himself in a non-exploitative relationship with the helpee
(4) Self-disclosure	The helper operates in a constructive fashion at the most intimate levels of self-disclosure
(5) Concreteness	The helper facilitates a direct expression of all personally relevant feelings and experiences in concrete and specific terms
(6) Confrontation	The helper confronts the helpee with helpee discrepancies in a sensitive and perceptive manner whenever they appear

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<sup>1</sup>For those interested in the training details, Carkhuff (1969a; 1969b) provides a systematic dydactic-experiential approach to training, the specifics of which are beyond the scope of this discussion.

Ivey (1971) has described an alternative method for learning "direct mutual communication skills" for those interested in systematically developing mutual inter-personal openness and directness of expression. This skill is described as being actually a set of skills closely resembling the feedback and sharing typically exhibited in sensitivity training sessions. In learning the skill(s), two individuals attempt to focus on their interaction as they perceive it and try to share with each other the experience of the other. They share personal feelings and respond to these shared experiences by feeding back their reactions. Inasmuch as the philosophy of mutualism is largely a philosophy of sharing behavior between individuals, Ivey's work, like Carkhuff's, has considerable relevancy for this study. The direct mutual communication approach stresses the point that, if communication is to be truly mutual, then both counselor and client should have the benefit of training in this skill. The training process centers around the use of a skills manual, video tape modeling demonstrations of target skills, discussions with a supervisor, and repeated trainee practice sessions using video tape feedback.

Kagan and Krathwohl (1967) have also used videotaping to assist trainers and trainees to identify and reinforce positive facilitative behaviors and to modify non-facilitative behaviors. In this approach, the interviewees are included in post-interview feedback sessions in order to

obtain first hand reaction to the trainee counseling style. This immediate feedback from the interviewee, coupled with audio feedback and supervision, has proven to be most helpful in the development of interviewing skills. The demonstrated effectiveness of Kagan and Krathwohl's work further confirms Ivey's (1971) notion that although single interviewing skill focusing, supervision feedback, and practice can be accomplished without video equipment, the appropriate use of videotape, with its immediate pictorial and audio feedback, is an impressively powerful tool.

As alternatives to the Carkhuff approach, Ivey and Kagan offer just two of several available methods that guidance workers might use in developing their own mutualistic intervention styles.

An important question to be considered when discussing interventions with individuals is the issue of who should be seen as potential clients. Unfortunately, it has been customary for pupil personnel guidance workers to attend to persons at or near the bottom of the school's power system (i.e., students) rather than working with those representing other groups in the school-community, including those holding positions further up in the hierarchy. Thus, all persons in the school community, such as students, parents, teachers, administrators, school board members, community people, etc., legitimately qualify as potential intervention clientele. While this suggests some new possibilities for individual

remediation interventions, it becomes even more meaningful as this chapter later moves on to discuss intervention with individuals from the preventative, developmental, and ecological perspective. From the ecological perspective, for example, the interventionist is particularly interested in working with those individuals who can, in turn, exert a maximum amount of beneficial influence in the overall school system. This suggests the wisdom of considering position power and personal power (Etzioni, 1968; Blocher, 1966, Hersey and Blanchard, 1972) as important criteria in the identification of potential clients.

Finally, consideration needs to be given to the inherent difficulty of establishing clear cut and mutually exclusive individual intervention categories (e.g., remedial, preventative, developmental, and ecological), just as it is also difficult to always clearly differentiate the four targets of intervention (individual, primary group, associational group, and institutional or societal groups). For example, Frederickson (1973) recognizes that the difficulty in finding specific research dealing with the "separate" issues of individualized, preventative, developmental, or ecological interventions, in relation to remedial interventions, might reflect a semantic problem revolving around a traditional definition of terms. He advances the notion that, unfortunately, studies may have been discouraged in this area based on the rationale that any intervention dealing with

identified preventative, developmental, ecological client needs is, by definition, remedial.

In support of the conceptual definitions of the various cube dimensions provided in Chapter IV, two analogies may be helpful: (1) By general consensus, remedial skills training (e.g., reading or mathematics) is understood to consist of extra training in various skill deficiencies that are easily recognized by teachers, parents, and, most of all, by the effected student. Making this issue more complicated than that for most practical purposes simply complicates communication; (2) on the other hand, the idea of offering accelerated, enriched, or advanced reading or mathematics to those prepared to do extra work in these areas is also a commonly understood concept with real conceptual value. Not that there are not important additional implications attached to the concepts of remedial, or enriched study, because there are. The point is that conceptually, there must be an "anchor term" to attach to in order to communicate. In this case, the core terms "remedial" or "enriched," have served very well as anchor words. This then is analagous to the use of the four "purpose of intervention" terms. To say that all learning is remedial, seems to restrict the scope and quality of conceptual thinking and communication.

Given the admitted "overlap" and discrimination difficulties to be found in the definitions of the various terms used in the cube model, the descriptions provided for the

various dimensions of the cube in Chapter IV are still very useful; i.e., the remedial and preventative concepts are workable and the ecological dimension has been treated at some length. The developmental dimension, however, deserves further discussion.

Havighurst (1953), Blocher (1966) and Erikson (1950) have dealt at length with the developmental aspects of human growth. Blocher in particular has attempted to describe key developmental issues in schools. Basically, he views developmental processes as incorporating physiological processes that define people in a physical sense in combination with environmental forces that act upon people as mediated by various psychological processes. These processes involve the ways in which individuals perceive themselves and their environment, the set of meanings they organize around these perceptions, and the behaviors they acquire in coping with their needs in their environments. Blocher's human development theory is seen within the framework of three major constructs: (1) social roles, (2) coping behaviors, and (3) developmental tasks. Social roles are simply the various structured means of participation in social life. Coping behaviors represent the general style of coping that is learned. Developmental tasks are the skills to be mastered at particular developmental stages, the learning of which is important for the continuation of optimal development. Blocher indicates that grade levels in schools, types of

schools, legal ages for driving, drinking and voting, etc., all reflect, and help differentiate, certain developmental stages.<sup>2</sup> In reality, there are an infinite variety of incremental developmental tasks available to individuals as they grow and mature.

These then are some of the elements for consideration as this study moves to discuss the expanded range of guidance intervention suggested by the cube.

### Three Model Problems

In order to provide increased meaning and to sharpen the focus on individual cube dimensions, illustrative descriptions of various possible interventions will be discussed within the context of three problem models.

Each of the three hypothetical problems are situated in Milltown, USA, which is a middle-sized city of 25,000 people, many of whom are economically dependent, directly or indirectly, on several local mills and factories that produce and market a variety of products. The local school board and central office administration have responsibility for administering the schools system's 15 schools, including 8 elementary schools, 3 junior high schools, 2 high schools, a special education school for "exceptional" children, and a vocational-

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<sup>2</sup>Detailed descriptions of discrete developmental stages are presented in Blocher's book, Developmental Counseling.

educational complex available to all local citizens, including limited access for selected high school students.

The director of pupil personnel services coordinates the activities of 8 high school counselors, 9 junior high school counselors, 4 school psychologists, 6 school nurses, and 2 school social workers, all of whom are involved to a greater or lesser extent in doing guidance work.

About 45% of the high school students have recently been entering 2- or 4-year colleges and roughly 40 percent of these have received college diplomas. Another 30 percent have gone on to obtain additional post high school vocational training in a variety of settings such as beauty schools, business schools, or on the job training. Ten percent have dropped out of school and are generally unaccounted for, while the remainder enter the military, become self-employed, etc.

While Milltown residents generally support their "good school system," the presence of a taxpayers' revolt is evidence of the recent defeat of the new elementary building-bond proposal and, perhaps even more indicative, the defeat of what had been seen as a necessary special school operating levy.

Within the Milltown school system, the following three selected "problems" currently exist, as identified by members of the guidance staff:

- (1) Susan, a talented 11th grade girl, with an alcoholic

father, is described as having developed a pattern of excessive day-dreaming in her classes. It is also noted that her grades have recently fallen off and that she expresses a sudden disinterest in school activities in which she had previously been quite active. Her recent listlessness and apathetic behavior have caused three of her teachers to confer with her in an effort to discover what might be bothering her. Two of her teachers have discussed these changes in Susan with the counselor. A phone call to Susan's mother has revealed that she is very concerned and seems to feel hopeless in her efforts to deal with Susan's change in behavior, and that she has asked the counselor to provide any help that might seem appropriate.

(2) Randy, a hyperactive 4th grade boy, has just been sent home for the third time this semester, this time for causing a disturbance (fighting with two other boys) during a school assembly. The two previous referrals had resulted from Randy's misbehavior in the classroom. On the first occasion, he destroyed the written work of two classmates and was also suspected of stealing a cassette tape recorder. On the other occasion, he was sent home following an incident in which he struck a teacher's aide when she started to reprimand him for poking at a girl with a pencil. The school psychologist working in this school was well aware of Randy's misbehavior and, like the principal, had had previous personal, as well as phone, contact with the mother.

Randy's seventh grade brother, Mark, was apparently getting along well in the junior high school, and the mother worked as a secretary in one of the other elementary schools. The father seemed to be a rather successful salesman for one of the small factories located in town. The school psychologist described the case in a staffing conference attended by both parents, the school social worker, and the school nurse. The purpose of the conference was to seek a reasonable solution to Randy's misbehavior problems.

(3) The third sample situation centers around one of Milltown's two high school principals, Mr. Mundt of Cleveland High. Mr. Mundt would fit the description of a principal of strict authoritarian function. He has held his present position for several years, after having worked his way up through the ranks in fairly typical fashion. He had been considered a successful coach and teacher and later served faithfully as a boys advisor and guidance counselor. This was followed by several years' duty as vice-principal of the other high school. When the previous Cleveland High School principal retired six years ago, Mr. Mundt was "brought over" to fill the vacancy. Although Mr. Mundt feels that he has successfully "run a tight ship" he has recently experienced some problems. For example, he has had difficulty in adjusting to recent state directives and court rulings upholding the rights of students. Although he has made some concessions in this area, he has often

found loop holes to avoid compliance with these new laws. Guidance workers in his building have consequently struggled to find ways of dealing with Mr. Mundt so as to protect individual student rights without provoking damaging retaliatory responses. There has been a high teacher turnover at Cleveland in the last few years, although the key department head positions have been manned by the same veteran staff members for several years. The loss of young teachers has largely accounted for the high turnover rate. The social studies department in particular has seen a number of young teachers come and go, and Mr. Mundt has quietly explored the possibility of trading his tenured social studies department head to the other high school in return for a more "responsible" social studies person that he had worked with prior to assuming the head job at Cleveland.

Mr. Mundt has been heard to say that administrative problems always seem to diminish when school spirit can be maintained, and that producing winning athletic teams is the easiest way to create and maintain that spirit.

Mr. Mundt takes the position that staff members as well as students need firm direction and "that is what the central office and taxpayers are paying me for." Although the superintendent is aware of Cleveland High's increasing drop-out rate, high teacher turn over rate, and resistance to innovative ideas, the major day-to-day frustration is felt by the guidance workers who seem most aware of the oppressive

conditions in the school. A recent informal guidance staff get-together at the head counselor's home has precipitated the focal question of "What can be done to improve the atmosphere of the school?"

These 3 model problems will provide a discussion focus for each of the various intervention dimensions in the cube.

Individual, Remedial Interventions (1,1,1, 1,1,2)

Most of college counseling, much of school guidance work, and virtually all of the community mental health centers focus on individual intervention of a direct nature. Typical examples are discipline problems, test anxiety problems, drug problems, difficult parent problems, emotional disturbances, academic problems, etc. The central theme is almost always "a problem." Problems are endemic to man and, inasmuch as it is generally the "noisy wheel that gets the grease," it is small wonder that guidance and counseling has found itself working primarily to mediate individuals' problems.

This consistent emphasis on direct, one-to-one, remedial intervention (1,1,1) has been maintained despite considerable evidence (Bergin and Garfield, 1971; Eysenck, 1965; Truax and Carkhuff, 1967) suggesting that professional psychological treatment, as practiced over the last forty-odd years, has at best produced an average client effect only

slightly positive.

Bergin (Bergin and Garfield, 1971) indicates, however, that behavioral approaches involving the use of "specific interventions for specific problems" have so much apparent promise that this method now accounts "for a very high proportion of all studies now being done in therapeutic change." It would therefore seem inadvisable to completely phase out individual remediation as a guidance function. Rather, as indicated in Chapter II, a better plan would be to develop a more reasonably balanced guidance approach: one that expands the emphasis on accommodating the environment to the individual, yet pays sufficient attention to promoting individual competence in dealing with the environment.

The remainder of this section will discuss some alternative, remedial interventions that are available for counselors to use with individuals, and how these might relate to the three hypothetical situations existing in the Milltown schools.

When working with Susan, in the first problem situation, the counselor might initially engage the client in a Rogerian-type, client-counseling interaction as a means towards developing a working relationship and exploring the phenomenological field of the client. With a talented client like Susan, this approach might soon help identify recent disturbing events that have contributed to the change in her behavior. At any rate, this process might generate sufficient information

to help Susan and her counselor formulate some alternative definitions of the problem. A variety of tentative solutions might also then be considered from which to select some client counseling objectives. Although, by this time, the classic Rogerian method may have long since been discarded, the purposes of the initial counseling intervention may have been served by having now mutually arrived at some tentative remedial objectives from which to proceed with further intervention activities. Further counseling at this point might take the form of a number of strategies depending upon client-counselor agreements concerning remedial next steps.

Instead of using the Rogerian client-centered approach to arrive at this point, other intervention concepts, such as the previously discussed Carkhuff method, Ivey's direct mutual communication, fantasy trip techniques, or Gendlin(1969) focusing, etc., are available for helping counselors initiate remedial action with clients.

In working with a hyperactive and aggressive 4th grader, such as Randy, play therapy, behavioral modification, and self-selected behavior changes are examples of the various direct, remedial interventions that are available. In Randy's situation, the school psychologist could elect to employ Goshko's (1973) self-determined behavior change techniques in an effort to teach Randy how to assume more personal responsibility in determining his own behavior. This approach

uses immediate video feedback as a primary tool and incorporates the critical components of mutuality and shared decision making common to psychological education procedures. In this model, Randy would first be introduced to examples of the behavioral concepts of discrete behavior, recurring behavior, and verbal and non-verbal behavior, and then be given opportunities to role play the various behaviors. Interesting homework assignments would include systematic observance of a variety of discrete behaviors demonstrated on self-selected television shows or through observing his older brother. Randy would then practice observing his own behaviors from videotapes taken of his previous role playing activities, as well as of prepared modeling tapes. Having now become a "behavioral scientist," he might then take part in a class video taping session, thereby affording him the chance to view his class' interactive behaviors. Finally, Randy would be given the opportunity to select any behavior he would like to change, or perhaps to choose a behavior not exhibited that he would like to learn. As Randy discovers that he can change his behaviors in his individualized video feedback training sessions, evidence (Goshko, 1973) suggests that he would soon select and, try to modify, obvious misbehaviors.

Perhaps the most challenging type of direct remedial intervention for pupil personnel guidance people is the situation portrayed at Cleveland High School where Mr. Mundt

not only administers a heavy authoritarian regime, but also enjoys tacit, if not active, support from a cadre of veteran teachers holding key departmental positions. Older secondary teachers, in particular, according to Willower, Eidell and Hoy (1967), place major emphasis on hierarchical control over the behavior of pupils. Willower's data further suggests that the probability of an open system being maintained, or of change occurring, is much less at the secondary level than at the elementary level. Guidance workers, such as those at Cleveland High, will quite likely find that the most useful direct remedial approach is to develop the strongest relationship possible and--wait for opportunities. While this may or may not be helpful, it does serve as a reminder that the evidence, at least until recently, supports the conclusion that direct remedial counseling, on the average, has little positive effect. In fact, remedial therapy usually entails a substantial amount of sitting and waiting.

The above are all direct interventions (1,1,1), but what about indirect remedial interventions (1,1,2)?

Basically, the indirect remedial interventions involve training helpes to be helpers, who in turn then do the actual intervention work, generally under the supervision of the primary guidance worker. For example, with Susan, her counselor could think in terms of working with her mother, significant persons in her peer group, or individual

teachers. An individual teacher, for instance, might be interested in participating in a brief, interpersonal, process recall (Kagan and Krathwohl, 1967) training session to develop interpersonal relationship skills to facilitate further work with Susan. Randy's school psychologist might help his teacher develop an appropriate behavior modification schedule designed to extinguish unacceptable misbehavior and instigate the learning of more positive responses. Mr. Mundt, too, might be susceptible to a well-conceived operant conditioning design (Bergin and Strupp, 1972), administered with his most potent reinforcers in mind; e.g., his assistant principal, his immediate superior, key influential citizens, etc. To ignore this alternative as being too manipulative is to deny the presence of political implications in virtually all interventions (Halleck, 1971).

The basic criticism for doing remedial interventions lies in the implied assumption of having accepted the system as it is, and therefore concluding that the best that can be done is to adjust the individual to the situation as it is. Given the widespread, general dissatisfaction with almost all public school systems, it seems improbable that guidance personnel should find it difficult to justify doing alternative interventions with primary, associational, and institutional groups for preventative, developmental, and ecological purposes. Furthermore, although effective mutuality, as conceived by Carkhuff (1969b), and direct mutual communication, as

proposed by Ivey (1971), exhibit the potential for creating significant changes, the evidence (Halleck, 1971) pertaining to the effects of traditional remedial applications still suggests that those who are thereby "helped" become less inclined to do anything other than simply adjust.

#### Individual, Preventative Interventions (1,2,1, 1,2,2)

Whereas individual remedial counseling is concerned with correcting recognized skill deficiencies, individual preventative guidance interventions attempt to anticipate needed skills and to help individuals acquire those skills. Basically, individual preventative work is still concerned with preventing problems and, consequently, is subject to much of the same criticism raised with respect to remediation.

As discussed previously in the section "Considerations for Individual Interventions", the lack of specific research dealing with preventative interventions may be due to a common acceptance of the notion that once a preventative need has been identified, any steps taken to provide for this need, by definition becomes remedial. One could speculate, for instance, that much useful school and mental health research relative to preventative intervention has unnecessarily been neglected because it has been defined and labeled as remediation and, as a result, subjected to a restrictive "remediation cluster" of evaluative outcome

criteria. Bergin (Bergin and Garfield, 1971), for example, states that a promising new approach to the specification of outcome criteria for research purposes is being fostered by the use of pragmatic, behavioral criteria, such as, being in or out of school, maintaining a marriage or getting a divorce, frequency of arrest, being in or out of the hospital, etc. These types of outcome study criteria would seem quite appropriate for the kinds of preventative interventions contemplated in this study. Be that as it may, the conceptual value of this, or any model, may in fact be enhanced by its ability to transcend constricting conventions and, as a result, provide a new and more creative perspective.

Individual, preventative intervention, as it is used here, does help provide a useful conceptual framework that has a thrust different from that of remediation. It differs also from the developmental in that it conceptually is concerned more with smaller numbers of clients than developmental.

There are a number of preventative intervention alternatives that might prove helpful to the counselor involved in helping Susan. These include teaching her skills to use with her family and helping her to use her daydreams or fantasies constructively in her classwork. The counselor might also consult with her teachers or might consider counseling her into an Alateen group. Susan might also be helped to consider "re-connecting" with some of the constructive interests

she had previously enjoyed, to help transform her preoccupation with self-defeating behaviors. Here the counselor could act as a powerful reinforcer and model.

Preventative activities appropriate for Randy might include extending his remedial, self-determined behavior program to include his learning a variety of preventative skills, such as value clarification skills (Simon, 1973). Simon has described several strategies for use by counselors that might be helpful in this situation; e.g., a forced-choice strategy might be based on the question, "Are you more of a loner or a grouper?" In making responses, students are led into examining their feelings, their self-concepts, and their values; and in Randy's case, this could serve to help clarify some of his interpersonal relationships.

In preventative work with Mr. Mundt, a developing relationship between counselor and client might uncover opportunities to mutually discover and learn skills and competencies that are needed to deal effectively with anticipated staff and organizational problems. In this regard, the school organizational development (OD) work of Schmuck and Miles (1971) and Schmuck and Runkel (1972) might prove helpful.

Doing indirect preventative(1,2,2) intervention would first entail training and then consulting with others who would then perform with the clients; Susan, Randy, and Mr. Mundt. For example, the high school activities coordinator might have more than just an altruistic interest in encouraging

Susan to reinvest her talents and energies in school activities and, therefore, be willing to collaborate with the counselor in achieving this. In Randy's case, the school social worker might take an extra interest in the situation in order to acquire additional media-therapy competencies. Mr. Mundt's assistant principal might become motivated towards working more closely with the principal in order to mutually solve some key instructional problems.

A criticism of individual prevention is that this approach generally has limited scope, given the usual amount of guidance resources available. In fact, hitting preventatively at a few trouble spots is where traditional guidance programs usually stop, and very few get this far. Typically, this results in counseling programs that expend their resources to deal with the few that come to their attention and ignore the vast majority who would profit from a more realistic use of guidance resources.

#### Individual, Developmental Interventions (1,3,1, 1,2,2)

Developmental interventions are for those who do not already have skills deficiencies, or anticipated problems, and is intended to help people actualize their potential and to move beyond where they are.

Individual developmental interventions relate not only to the Blocher-Ericksen-Havighurst concepts presented earlier, but are strongly influenced by Maslow's (1954)

self-actualization constructs. Maslow has described developmental needs in his succinct statement, "what a man can be, he must be." He views human development as the process through which basic human tendencies and potentials are fulfilled.

Very little research, however, can be found to support developmental guidance. Blocher (1966) cites Karl Menninger's use of the phrase "weller than well" as an example of the impoverished state of conceptualization represented in psychological thinking in this area. Without adequate terms or concepts to describe higher level aspects of human behavior, it is difficult to apply "acceptable" experimental designs. However, Bergin (Bergin and Garfield, 1971) reports that eclectically oriented psychiatrists are beginning to focus on much more pragmatic, behavioral outcome criteria for research purposes. It would seem that developmental counseling could profit from such attempts.

Although there may be limited research available to support guidance counselors working in developmental guidance areas, there still is much to be gained from efforts directed toward helping persons without "problems" to maximize their potential. Some evidence is available to support this notion. Carkhuff (1972), for example, has found that, in general, clients of high-level-functioning counselors move toward higher levels of involvement.

Effective individual, developmental interventions might

be expected to be based on an understanding of human development, and guidance personnel have an excellent model to follow in Blocher's (1966) "Principle Developmental Tasks and Coping Behaviors by Life Stages" table.

According to Blocher's table, high school students' normal developmental tasks center around their developing identity in peer roles, heterosexual roles, and productive-worker roles. They are also learning to move from group to individual relationships and to develop emotional autonomy. Coping-behavior tasks involve the development of reciprocal, mutualistic, and cooperating behaviors. With this in mind, the high school developmental counselor might, for example, devote efforts toward supporting and encouraging individual students in their pursuit of workstudy programs, observed instances of improved autonomous behavior, etc.

Elementary counseling must also recognize developmental issues in working with students. Blocher identifies individual initiative and industry as two key developmental tasks to be promoted. At this age level, support would be lent to students involved in learning to value themselves and be valued, learning to delay gratification, learning to control emotional reactions, learning to deal with abstract concepts, learning to formulate values, learning to master their environment, etc.

In relation to working with a 50-to 65-year-old principal such as Mr. Mundt, Blocher's work also provides some

insight. Developmental interventions might involve providing support and encouragement in instances where the principal would be learning to be aware of change, developing attitudes of tentativeness, developing broader intellectual curiosity, and evidencing change-oriented and sensitivity behaviors.

Indirect, individual, developmental (1,3,2) interventions again basically involve doing the same things, only training others to do it. For example, in individual developmental situations much of the needed intervention centers around the awareness of what the clients' indicated developmental tasks are, and how then to help the clients maximize their achievement of those tasks. Consequently, from the indirect perspective, the consulting counselor's task is to transmit skills in providing basic, facilitative conditions for learning, plus awareness of the appropriate developmental tasks of the clients.

Although individual, developmental interventions may be criticized as being slow and inefficient, it is often difficult to evaluate their real contribution since they may be doing double duty in the preventative and ecological areas. In actual practice, these distinctions remain marginal since, while doing remedial counseling, the helper might decide to do some preventative, or even some developmental, work and when working with "normals," the helper might employ a remediation dimension.

Individual, Ecological Interventions (1,4,1, 1,4,2)

Individual, ecological, guidance interventions attempt to help people cope with and otherwise operate with optimal effectiveness in their school-community by intervening into that environment. This dimension is generally concerned with interpersonal, inter-group, inter-institutional and intra-community human transactions, and basically deals with the issue of enhancing the school environment by improving human interpersonal transactions within that system. Thus, the individual, ecological, intervention dimension is essentially a training-of-trainers issue wherein people with problems, as well as those who are functioning well, may be individually trained to intervene directly in their social surroundings.

Outcome studies directly related to the effectiveness of ecological intervention seem to be totally absent, although an increasing interest in this area can be found in the literature. Kuriloff (1973), for instance, discusses psychological ecology, or psychoecology, as being one model holding much promise. He reasons that current counseling approaches based on intra-personal models of therapy are not congruent with institutional realities, and that these approaches often falsely assume that a "disturbed" person must be adjusted to a "normal" environment. He views emotional disturbance as an ecological phenomenon that exists in the transactions among people and argues "the task of the

counselor is to alter disturbed transactions in ways that promote individual competence." Thus the counselor is viewed as a psychoecologist who "enters into a given ecology as a observer-participant to observe the nature of the transactions and to participate in creating ways to alter them in positive (i.e., competence enhancing) directions."

Evidence supporting the feasibility of involving counselors as trainers of trainees in order to obtain maximum psychoecological impact is rapidly mounting. Ivey (in press), for instance, talks about several recent studies (Haase & DiMattia, 1970; Gluckstern, 1971; Rollin, 1970; Zeevi, 1970; Aldrige, 1971) in which microcounseling has proven helpful in transmitting counselor training skills to lay people. Higgins, Ivey, and Uhlemann (1970) adapted the microcounseling framework into what they called "media therapy" and found that it was possible to use a more programmed method of teaching interpersonal communication to a variety of dyads, including married couples. Ivey (1971) and Ivey and Goshko (1971) have also effectively combined the microcounseling and media therapy framework for application with mental patients. Part of this included teaching patients to provide help for their families. An interesting observation here was that the patients apparently learned self-selected skills more rapidly than those identified and selected by the therapist.

Carkhuff (1972) also focuses on what guidance should

really be about: "the only legitimate theme for counseling is the development of good skills training programs," and "helping is indeed a process of transforming helpees into helpers." Gazda (1972) refers to the report of the National Conference of Pupil Personnel Services in support of Carkhuff's contention that the guidance profession is facing a skills-delivery crisis. Carkhuff's response to ineffective guidance programming is to propose a conceptual helping "pyramid" in which "the most effective people must oversee the activities of those less effective." In Carkhuff's proposal, community master-consultants oversee consultants, who oversee master-trainers, who oversee trainers, who oversee helpers, who oversee helpees. The psychoecological potential of Carkhuff's "Pyramid of helping" is evident, although, as discussed earlier, he does not stop there. He also provides (Carkhuff, 1969a, 1969b and 1972) a systematic, documented, helper-helpee training model as a guide for those who are interested in "making a difference in the lives of others."

Following a structure used in previous sections, how would individual, ecological interventions look in relation to Susan, Randy, and Mr. Mundt?

Susan's psychoecologically-oriented counselor has a number of options available for working individually with her; e.g., teaching her various ways to deal with her family, involving her in co-counseling activities, using media-therapy techniques, getting her involved in changing

dehumanizing school situations, or perhaps training her as a first step in developing a cadre of students as a nucleus for an outreach peer-counseling program.

The school psychologist working with Randy could make use of Goshko's (1973) self-determined behavior-change technique to generate a variety of psychoecological class activities, using Randy as a helping trainer. Appropriate activities here might include the development of mini-workshops dealing with the forming of values, values of self and others, listening, emotional control reactions, self-expression, sharing behaviors, environmental mastering behaviors, health and physical education skills, etc.

Individual, ecological interventions with Mr. Mundt would undoubtedly test the skills of any effective guidance worker; however, there are alternatives available, and again, the potential "payoff" is attractive. One sound approach, in all interventions, is to first try to identify and capitalize on the client's personal interests; e.g., Blocher's social roles table suggests that persons in Mr. Mundt's life stage are susceptible to personal role issues involving leadership, helping, managing, creative accomplishments, authority, and prestige. A perceptive counselor could expect to identify at least one of these issues as having considerable personal meaning for Mr. Mundt. That being the case, the counselor might then proceed with intervention strategies designed to help Mr. Mundt satisfy his

needs, while at the same time helping to improve the school environment. If, for example, Mr. Mundt's diagnosed prestige concerns were confirmed by the nature of his repeated comments regarding the high turnover in teachers, the counselor might find this an excellent opportunity to collaborate with him in designing a school team-building program to reduce turnover, while at the same time contributing to the school's general psychoecological improvement. Alternative opportunities might also surface in other appropriate "social role" areas, such as leadership, accomplishment, etc.

Indirect, individual ecological interventions would generally be accomplished by training and working with other effective persons toward objectives similar to those of direct interventions. In Susan's situation, this person might be an interested teacher-aide, school social worker, co-counselor, etc. In Randy's case, this person could be the school nurse, particularly if he were to become interested in health and physical education activities. With Mr. Mundt, a local organizational development expert from industry might prove to be an excellent indirect intervention resource person.

Although in some instances, individual ecological interventions may seem inefficient, well-conceived efforts here should overcome this criticism by virtue of anticipated multiplier effects.

### Mutuality and Psychoecology in Change Strategies

A basic purpose for introducing the cube concept is to promote divergent thinking and creative responses to critical issues in the guidance profession. The concept of psychoecology certainly qualifies as a critical issue in the guidance profession and, as such, is a prime case in point. Each dimension or cell of the cube, with the possible exception of the 1,1,1 cell, lends slightly different meaning to the concept of psychoecology. Even the direct individual intervention (1,1,1) cell contributes to psychoecological thinking, if only by contrast to the remaining cells. Thus, the multi-dimensional cube constantly provokes the user to clarify psychoecological concepts and their ramification each time a guidance intervention is considered.

Having now discussed the four purposes of individual intervention more in detail, in retrospect, what psychoecological implications bare further scrutiny? One aspect that has become clear is that, as the purpose of intervention shifts to the right of the cube--from remedial toward ecological--an increase in potential psychoecological impact accrues to succeeding interventions: an individual, preventative intervention demonstrates less potential for psychoecological impact than the developmental mode, yet it demonstrates more potential impact than the remedial dimension. Assuming that this is the case, what does that suggest? One thing it suggests is that as guidance workers become

more inclined toward psychoecological thinking, they may tend to de-emphasize the more problem-centered remedial and preventative efforts in favor of doing developmental and ecological interventions. Moreover, they may also tend to emphasize indirect methods of intervention when it becomes clear that the trainer-consultant role not only affords a more realistic use of limited guidance resources but, in addition, provides a live "trainer-training-trainees" model within the school.

In discussing the various issues in this chapter, it has been assumed that the philosophy of mutualism must be incorporated into all direct and indirect interventions, whether their purpose is remedial, preventative, developmental, or ecological. The explicit understanding is that both the interventionist and the client must mutually participate and contribute toward the achievement of cooperatively selected intervention goals. Carkhuff's (1969a, 1969b) paradigm of facilitative core conditions, Ivey's (1971) direct, mutual communication, and Gibb's (1965) conditions for human growth, all stress mutuality as a necessary ingredient for facilitating human development. In essence the philosophy of mutualism must transcend all interventions.

#### Summary

This chapter has focused on the individual target of intervention and how it relates in actual practice to the

four "purposes of intervention;" i.e., remedial, preventative, developmental and ecological. Illustrative examples of sample interventions which practicing counselors might employ have been discussed for each of these four intervention purposes. Three sample model problems were described in order to provide common situation examples for the discussion of individual interventions. A brief critique of each intervention dimension was presented.

Research contributions by Blocher, Carkhuff, Ivey, and Kagan were emphasized as providing particularly relevant evidence in support of various intervention issues discussed.

Chapter VI will focus on the primary group "target of intervention" and how it might relate in actual practice to the four "purposes of intervention."

C H A P T E R V I  
GUIDANCE WITH PRIMARY GROUPS

Introduction

The format of this chapter will follow a similar procedure to that used in Chapter V. The primary aim will again be to provide pupil personnel guidance workers with useful and clarifying descriptions of concepts proposed in earlier chapters. The three sample problem situations described in Chapter V will continue to provide the focus for discussion of the four purposes of guidance intervention; i.e., remedial, preventative, developmental, and ecological. This chapter however will consider these four intervention purposes in relation to the second category of intervention targets--the primary, or strong identification, group.

The primary, or strong identification, group includes the basic units of social organization which are most influential for the individual. They are described as intimate, personal associations based on the degree of intimacy rather than proximity. The behavior of individuals in these groups strongly influence the other individuals in the group, as well as the group itself. Examples of primary groups include families, couples, and close friends.

Interventions at this level involve attempts to alter communications, interactions, perceptions, structure, and relationships in the individual's primary groups.

### Considerations for Interventions with Primary Groups

According to Wrenn (1962), small group counseling such as that indicated for work with primary groups, has been far less commonly practiced in the elementary and secondary public schools than has individual, one-to-one counseling. Moreover, Wrenn points out that while elementary counselors work more with parents and teachers than secondary counselors do, they show considerably less interest in doing group guidance. Furthermore, when both elementary and secondary counselors were asked what basic activities they would hope to be doing in 1980, seven times as many responses indicated a preference for "counseling with students" as compared with "work with groups." This evidence, based on a 10% random sample of active ASCA (American School Counselors Association) secondary counselors and a nation-wide "cluster" sample of elementary counselors, is indicative of the apparent resistance to group work that has been common to the profession.

This resistance can hardly be explained away by citing the inconclusiveness of research support for group work (Rowe and Winborn, 1973) since individual counseling has been afflicted by similar arguments. Fortunately, recent promising trends (Bergin and Strupp, 1972) in both individual and group work cannot be ignored, and until the evidence suggests otherwise, the search for, and use of, promising helping skills must continue.

Consideration should be given to the question of how realistic it might be to expect counselors to increase their interest in doing group counseling with primary groups? If recent trends in psychotherapy are any indication, the chances appear good. Bergin and Strupp (1972) have found that one of the most prominent psychotherapy trends has been a strong reaction against individual one-to-one work in favor of group, family, and milieu therapies, along with general community consultation. This has been caused, they suspect, by the extent of contemporary social crises, the shortage of mental health manpower, the disillusionment with the effectiveness of traditional psychotherapy, and the recognition that, in the final analysis, the purpose of group techniques is to produce an impact on individuals. In addition, principles of individual behavior change now emerging from systematic behavioral research (Lazarus, 1961; Becker, Madsen, Arnold and Thomas, 1967) have demonstrated significant application to therapy groups. Frank (Bergin and Strupp, 1972) sees evidence that group forces can speed interpersonal learning beyond what is possible in dyadic interviews; i.e., groups contain more powerful means for achieving this end than those at the disposal of the therapist in one-to-one relationships.

Since it is true that interventions aimed at primary groups are to improve the conditions of individuals involved, whether these conditions are those of personal competency or

more of a psychoecological nature, many of the comments included in the previous chapter are also relevant to the discussion of primary group interventions.

Primary Group, Remedial Interventions (2,1,1, 2,1,2)

Typically, remedial interventions have been initiated after a pupil, teacher, parent, or administrator, has brought a problem to the guidance worker to be solved. The problem could be pupil misbehavior, as in Randy's situation, or declining grades coupled with other symptoms, as in the case of Susan. Primary group, remedial interventions seek to enlist the cooperation and support of intimate friends or family members in attempting to obtain at least a short term solution to the problem.

Thus, in Susan's case the counselor (and Susan) might decide that the presence of a few of her close school friends involved in a small discussion group, or, alternatively, a family conference, might be more helpful than a dyadic, client-counselor approach. For example, in a family-conference situation, a skilled counselor might help provide a setting in which some helpful avenues of communication could be opened, thereby permitting at least some short-term benefits to emerge. This simple, traditional, and generally brief, type of primary group intervention has been successfully used in the past and remains a functional counseling technique. Its objectives are not primarily to bring about

longer range, preventative solutions, and it normally represents less time and resource investment, when compared to preventative methods.

The school psychologist working with Randy has similar primary group, remedial intervention options available. However, the fact that the family has already been involved in a staffing conference at the school indicates that more extensive, perhaps preventative or developmental, interventions are being considered. If not, then a close-friend discussion group involving Randy, followed by a family conference including his brother Mark, might prove helpful, at least for awhile.

Remedial problems related to Mr. Mundt come to the attention of the counselor in quite a different manner; e.g., his problems are seldom directly referred to the guidance staff by pupils and administrators, although parents and teachers will sometimes mention them. These problems often surface as complaints of administrative oppressiveness and unfairness and are generally more related to psychoecological concerns although, personal complaints suggesting remediation do occur. Furthermore, since family conferences with the principal are unlikely, the guidance worker is pretty much left with the option of intervening with the principal's close-friend group(s). Building a strong relationship with Mr. Mundt is one way that a counselor might expect to gain acceptance into one of the principal's close-friend groups

so as to afford opportunities for primary group, remedial interventions.

Indirect primary group, remedial intervention would involve locating and perhaps training someone else to work with the client. In Susan's situation, this person might be a church counselor, and in Randy's case, an interning elementary counselor. With Mr. Mundt, this person might be the school district's director of pupil personnel services.

As is true with most remedial interventions, the basic criticism of primary group remediation is that it is often merely short-term and problem-centered in scope and limited only to those problems that manage to reach the guidance worker's office.

#### Primary Group, Preventative Interventions (2,1,1, 2,1,2)

Unlike much of remedial counseling, preventative guidance work does not normally adopt the passive role of waiting for problems to come to the counselor's office. The preventative mode emphasizes a more active function of anticipating client needs and then moving to do something about them. However, although primary group, preventative interventions are concerned with preventing anticipated problems, it too is largely problem centered.

While, in the past, the majority of group counseling studies have been oriented towards remediation or rehabilitation (Gazda, 1973), a recent encouraging trend in

elementary school group counseling suggests that more preventative and less remedial work is likely to be done.

In Susan's case, the counselor might collaborate with her in structuring a sequential series of primary group sessions, meeting first with her and her boy friend, then with close friends at school, and finally with her family. This format, coupled with the continuing and increasing support of the counseling relationship, might help identify crucial issues that are working to Susan's, and perhaps other's, disadvantage. If, for instance, her father's drinking is an important contributing factor but only symptomatic of other deficient interactions, mutually agreed upon primary group preventative objectives would be expected to emerge. At this point, one course of action could be to involve the group in a counselor-led family counseling intervention (Krumboltz, 1966). This might take the form of Satir's (1967) family counseling, Malamud's (Ivey, 1971) self-understanding group work, or perhaps a communication skills workshop using Kagan's (Kagan and Krathwohl, 1967) media-therapy approach.

According to Dinkmeyer (1968), interpersonal relationship difficulties, such as those exhibited by Randy, can be improved through group work. Jeffries (1973) agrees that group work with elementary students, often using close friends and other peers along with warm, friendly interventionists, can indeed create dynamics for change that are

powerful. However, the issue remains whether or not guidance people should indiscriminately use this type of pressure to make children conform and thereby maintain a questionable status quo. In this case, Randy's school psychologist may be caught in the organizational bind of wanting to be true to Randy as well as to the system. Although there is no evidence here that Randy's teacher and school are unusually oppressive, it behooves the psychologist to proceed very carefully in any ensuing primary group preventative program. It would appear, as in most school counseling situations, that the best that can be hoped for is a preventative intervention that stresses the philosophy of mutualism. There are some mutualistic methods available to Randy's psychologist that may be adapted to a variety of primary group preventative situations; e.g., Varenhorst's (1973) game theory and group counseling, Ivey's (1973) group counseling concepts, and the previously mentioned self-determined, behavior-change method by Goshko (1973).

Using Varenhorst's social simulation game, the school psychologist might structure social simulations with close-friend groups in school or with Randy's family. For example, using a school primary group of close friends, each player in the game might reciprocally act as a portion of the social environment following group-generated rules for social interaction. A variation of this is to have the game rules represent the environment by determining responses for

actions of persons--for instance, a teacher--not present in the game. The game drama evolves than as the participants actually experiment with the consequences of different "moves" or changes in the situation being simulated.

Primary group preventative intervention with Mr. Mundt could probably follow a similar format to that used for primary group remediation. The shift in emphasis here, however, suggests that the newly formed close-friend group--the coach, the vice-principal, Mr. Mundt, and the intervening counselor--might re-direct their efforts toward longer-range school-spirit-building as opposed to a shorter-range remedial concept. This focus-shift might also tend to expand the group's receptiveness to proposed long-range OD considerations, inasmuch as the future often seems less risky to contemplate.

Similar to the primary group remedial (2,1,1) approach, the preventative mode remains somewhat problem-centered and limited to those who come to the immediate attention of guidance workers, thereby ignoring the less obvious majority who remain to shift for themselves.

Indirect, primary group prevention (2,2,2), however, can tend to free the interventionist to deploy guidance resources in other areas, although it does entail training and supervising others, or securing the services of others, who are competent to carry out the indicated strategies.

Primary Group, Developmental Interventions (2,3,1 2,3,2)

Developmentally-oriented, primary group interventions are intended to help primary groups in self-actualizing ways often associated with developmental tasks. Little research has been done in this area that might serve as a guide for practicing counselors, although the goal of using the small-group approach to help maximize human potential is certainly a desirable guidance objective. The proposal here is to use Blocher's (1966) table of "Principle Developmental Tasks and Coping Behaviors by Life Stages" as a basis for interventions.

Following this format, Susan's counselor could capitalize on her developmental needs involving peer roles, heterosexual roles, learning to move from peer groups to individual relationships, achieving emotional autonomy, developing work-situation identity, and learning reciprocal, cooperative, and mutuality behaviors. One innovative and intriguing approach, in the case of a bright, talented student such as Susan (and presumably her close friends) might be to meet with one of her strong-identification groups and thoroughly discuss the various group-work methods available (demystification), and the developmental interests within the group (developmental counseling); then, using the small group for its resources and support, have each participant select his own developmental tasks and his own group process procedures for accomplishing his objectives. This mutualistic approach might not only stimulate intensive,

individual, developmental involvement and group commitment, but also have beneficial, psychoecological, outreach ramifications as well. Having a choice of using traditional, group procedures, recent media-therapy techniques, behavior-modification methods, etc., would seem likely to capture the interest of groups such as Susan's.

According to Blocher's developmental tasks table, issues within Randy's age group include: family and school roles, learning to read and calculate, learning to value self and be valued, learning delayed gratification and how to control emotional reactions, dealing with abstract concepts, formulating values and value-relevant behaviors, and learning environmental-mastery behaviors. Havighurst (1953) would add that Randy's age group is engaged in developing self-concepts, weaning themselves from close dependence on parents and adults, and establishing a place for themselves in their peer groups.

Again, Randy's school psychologist has alternatives from which to choose. For example, in congruence with some of the developmental issues mentioned above, the psychologist might select one of several elementary-level group methods previously discussed and use it to adapt Kohlberg's (1967) theory of moral development to a primary group intervention. Scharf, Hickey and Moriarity (1973) report evidence that individuals, in fact, can progress through group counseling to higher levels of moral maturity; e.g., Stage I, obedience

and punishment orientation; Stage II, naive, egoistic orientation; Stage III, "good-boy" orientation; Stage IV, authority and social-order-maintenance orientation; Stage V, contractual, legalistic orientation; and State VI, conscience or principle orientation. Scharf, et al. report evidence that through exposure to moral discussions, students have shown changes in their moral maturity (Blatt and Kohlberg, 1969), and that changes result from exposure to higher stage arguments through conflict in dialogue with other ideas, through role-playing, and through consideration of alternative perspectives. Scharf also points out the advisability of employing real-life, task oriented moral discussions rather than formal, leader-chosen, "made up" situations. Typically, the dialogue would resemble traditional group counseling; however, the uniqueness lies in the strategy behind the counselor's responses, in that the group is encouraged to consider "stage adjacent" alternatives to whatever stage the group seems locked into.

This concept, though very appropriate to a close-friend primary group intervention involving Randy, also appears to be well-worth expanding to other groups.

Developmental, primary group intervention with Mr. Mundt is pretty much limited to the close-friend variety. Therefore, the opportunities for close-friend-type interventions are the ones to look for, and they may not be easy to initiate. Once Mr. Mundt's developmental interests are

diagnosed and his close-friend group identified, the counselor is in a position to plan an intervening strategy, although the chances are that the counselor will have to be content with minimum, initial accomplishments. Blocher identifies creative pursuits as an appropriate task interest for people Mr. Mundt's age and the initial intervention may well capitalize, for example, on the counselor's and Mr. Mundt's mutual outside interest in, say, folk dancing as an entree into one of his primary groups. A natural progression of events then might see a creative up-grading of the physical education folk dancing program, leading to other desirable curriculum changes. While this type of primary group developmental change may seem unusual, it may in fact be the most effective way to work with this situation.

Indirect, primary group developmental (2,3,2) strategies, as before, hinge on developing ancillary change agent resources, thereby permitting the primary interventionist to move to consulting and supervisory roles and making better use of limited guidance resources.

Although the developmental, primary group intervention may seem inefficient--and that may be a valid criticism--it does often have a desirable "double whammy" effect by simultaneously providing remedial, preventative, and, sometimes, ecological benefits.

Primary Group, Ecological Interventions (2,4,1 2,4,2)

Here, again, a training-of-trainers issue exists, wherein actualized people, as well as people with remedial and preventative-type problems, are trained in groups to contribute positive input into their environment. Admittedly, research here seems totally absent, although successful outreach groups, such as Alcoholics Anonymous, and Synanon demonstrate the potential of this concept. This section will discuss how interventions with primary groups may stimulate those groups to, in turn, exert a positive psychoecological impact.

One apparent guidance objective, in Susan's situation, would be to influence her primary family group to reach out and become involved in helping other families, perhaps through Alcoholics Anonymous, church activities, community mental health projects, etc. This might be accomplished by a skills-training program with Susan's school primary group in which Susan might learn how to effectively influence her family to help themselves and others. Alternatively, a direct, counselor-led, family-counseling approach stressing interpersonal skills learning might achieve similar goals. In either instance, several group counseling approaches, mentioned previously, could be employed, depending upon the counselor's preference.

Randy's situation calls for primary group interventions that are not only helpful to him but also helpful to his environment. Given Goshko's (1973) observation that

elementary children consistently choose "positive," normative, behaviors to work on, when presented with the opportunity to do so, Randy's psychologist might consider adapting Weinstein's (1973) self-science education model as an addition to the Goshko self-determined behavior-change method described previously. For example, once Randy's group had learned the Goshko techniques for individual behavior change, they could move on to learning a simplified version of Weinstein's "trumpet" approach to self-selected behavior-pattern modification. Briefly, this would involve: (1) helping each member of the primary group through the trumpet process; (2) explicitly teaching the trumpet process to each learner; (3) having each learner help another person through the trumpet process; (4) having pairs, under supervision, doing peer co-counseling as further training in the process. As suggested by Weinstein, trumpet processing could help group learners become capable of facilitating, not only their own, but other's self-knowledge, which is the ultimate objective of ecological interventions.

Primary group, ecological interventions with Mr. Mundt would be expected to involve work with close friends of his, either at work or in the community. The counselor, for example, might consider volunteering for human relations training and consultation in Mr. Mundt's church-affiliation group, thereby affording opportunities for relatively low risk discussions and demonstrations of the merits of human

relations training in one of his strong identification groups. The hope here is that in this outside setting, with primary, church-group support, Mr. Mundt might eventually be willing to experiment with some low-threat school OD ideas.

Indirect, primary group, ecological interventions (2,4,2) differ mainly from the direct variety in that other selected resource people are more directly involved with the client than the guidance worker. In indirect interventions, these resource persons are generally trained and supervised by the guidance worker.

A criticism of primary group, ecological intervention stems from the problem of adequately measuring its ultimate effectiveness. In this regard, it is often more difficult to evaluate than are other interventions. However, the trend toward the use of more pragmatic, research-outcome criteria should prove helpful in this instance.

It also bears mentioning that, while not always specifically spelled out, the issues of psychoecology and the philosophy of mutualism are assumed to have been an appropriate part of all interventions proposed in this chapter.

#### Summary

This chapter has focused on the primary group target of intervention and how it relates, in actual practice, to the four "purposes of intervention;" i.e., remedial, preventative, developmental, and ecological. Illustrative examples of

sample interventions, which practicing counselors might employ, have been discussed for each of these four intervention purposes. The three sample model problems have provided common situation examples for the discussion of primary group interventions. A brief critique of each intervention dimension was presented.

Chapter VII will focus on the associational group "target of intervention " and how it might relate in actual practice to the four "purposes of intervention."

C H A P T E R V I I  
GUIDANCE WITH ASSOCIATIONAL GROUPS

Introduction

This chapter will again follow the basic format established in Chapter V and continued in Chapter VI. The primary purpose will be to provide pupil personnel guidance workers with useful and clarifying discussion of intervention concepts presented in the earlier chapters. The three sample problem situations set forth in Chapter V will continue to serve as the discussion focus for the proposed "purposes of intervention;" i.e. remedial, preventative, developmental, and ecological. However, this chapter will consider these four intervention purposes within the context of the third category of intervention targets, the associational group.

Associational groups are based on both personal choice, as well as on somewhat chance-associations. Members of these groups have a consciousness of similar interests or needs and join together in some organizational way to pursue those interests. The distinction between this and institutional and societal groups is that members of associational groups meet together with other members of the group. Examples of associational groups are class sections, student government groups, school clubs, athletic and debate teams, school musical groups, church sub-groups, sub-units of

factory and mill workers, small factory or mill sales teams, dance and bridge clubs, etc.

Interventions at this level include attempts to alter communication patterns, interactions, organization, goals, and methods of achieving those goals.

### Considerations for Intervention with Associational Groups

It has been suggested that school guidance interventions aimed at associational groups are not often practiced, perhaps due to the lack of consultant-training emphasis in graduate schools of counseling, school psychology, school nursing, and school social work. Since guidance interventions into most school associational groups must deal effectively with a supervising teacher or administrator, a certain amount of consulting skill is indicated. However, the potential "payoff" for the skilled interventionist, in this instance, suggests an immediate, increased emphasis on the acquisition (and use) of consultant skills by guidance workers.

Where associational group interventions outside the school building are appropriate (Krumboltz, 1966), well-developed consulting skills are also important, whether the intervention target is a church group, a social club, or associational group located in private industry.

Research pertaining to school guidance interventions into the community is limited. However Gluckstern (1973), for example, cites Carkhuff (1971), Ivey (1971), and Magoon,

Golann and Freeman (1969) as evidence that, not only can counseling, human relations, and community-development skills be taught to people in the community-at-large, but they also can be effectively taught within 60 instructional hours. Her own 60-hour-training model for lay parents lends added credibility to this concept. Her approach was organized into three phases: (1) structured encounter-group process, with the emphasis on team-building; (2) counseling-skill development; and (3) communication development and change techniques. Following training phases (1) and (2), the parents were capably supervising one another's counseling sessions. Seven months after training the trainees, they had maintained their interviewing-skill levels and were having significant impact on their clients. Phase three involved a five-step, problem-solving process that consisted of (1) defining community problems; (2) collecting information and making plans for action; (3) training and re-orientation as the need arose (e.g., developing public speaking skills, family intervention strategies); (4) acting on various, defined problems; e.g., contacting funding agencies, police, selectment, etc.; and (5) assessing and re-planning, where necessary. The result of this project was that those trained were able to help various families seek alternatives for gaining more control over aspects of their lives. And although these volunteer parents were originally trained as community drug counselors, they subsequently broadened their services to

include marital concerns, parent-child conflict resolution, and the establishment of a "Parent-to-Parent Call Line." To become more effective in these new endeavors, they have sought additional training in consultation and skill development.

Gluckstern (1973) maintains that today's counselors must do more than simply convey information and collect data. "The traditional counselor role must give way to training helpers, consulting with teachers, and humanizing the schools." Her summary comments speak directly to a central theme of this study:

Psychological education efforts will only be effective when integrated fully into the community or organization. Efforts to produce individual change are often stymied by family resistance to the change. Changes in families or individuals may be made difficult by the nature of the institutions in which they work and the communities in which they live. Not only must psychological education efforts of the counselor be directed toward sharing skills of counseling and interpersonal interaction, but these efforts must also focus on new concepts of organizational development and changes (p. 680).

It seems apparent that guidance interventions into the community can be effective as well as desirable. However, much of associational group guidance is still concerned with classrooms and other groups within the school. With respect to these types of interventions, many studies are available to support and guide intervening guidance workers. Glasser (1969), for example, proposes regular and extensive use of classroom group discussions as an excellent way of

developing the involvement, relevance, and thinking necessary to reduce or eliminate school failure. Three types of group meetings are proposed: (1) the social-problem-solving meeting, concerned with the student's social behavior in school; (2) the open-ended meeting, concerned with intellectually important subjects; and (3) the educational-diagnostic meeting, concerned with how well the students understand the concepts of the curriculum. Glasser views these group sessions as becoming an important means for fostering the kind of personal involvement and relevant interaction necessary to develop an effective school climate. Other studies will be discussed or referred to in subsequent sections of this chapter.

A final consideration here deals with the inherent possibilities of working mutually with teachers, administrators, parents, and students, in an effort to shape the learning environment to the student rather than the other way around. Ivey and Alschuler (1973) have concluded that perhaps the easiest way for guidance workers to modify the school learning environment is to introduce psychological techniques into the regular academic courses in such a way that both psychological and academic goals enhance each other. How does the counselor get started in this direction? Munson (1965a, 1965b, 1965c, 1965d, 1965e), for example, has detailed psychologically-sound guidance approaches to five academic areas -- English, foreign languages, mathematics,

science, and social studies. In addition, Alschuler and Ivey (1973) have described a wide variety of resource materials, strategies, and suggestions that are directly aimed at helping guidance people initiate and develop associational group interventions into the school environment.

Associational Group, Remedial Interventions (3,1,1 3,1,2)

Remedial problems that are brought to the attention of pupil personnel guidance workers are often directly related to the quality of the human interactions exhibited in the "problem" individual's associational group (Kuriloff, 1973). In the school setting, the precipitating associational group is typically the classroom, although other school groups, such as activity groups, club groups, debate and athletic team groups, student government groups, etc., are also involved.

At the elementary level, school remedial, associational group interventions also generally focus on the class groups. In a case such as Randy's, this usually means that the school psychologist works directly in the classroom with the pupils, or indirectly, through work with Randy's teacher. The second approach can be more helpful to the teacher in concrete ways, oftentimes, than the direct approach. Although the various behavior-modification techniques are thought of here as being more preventative in nature, the psychologist might try having the teacher deploy the

teacher-aide's time in securing simple baseline data on Randy's behavior. The rationale here is that, frequently, just being quite specific about undesirable behavior that is occurring can help mobilize teacher classroom remedial skills already present. An alternative, indirect, remedial intervention might be for the psychiatrist to provide the teacher with some of Gordon's (1970) common sense suggestions on how to manage children's aberrant behavior. Gordon's suggestions would include: (1) enriching Randy's classroom environment with stimulating materials, games, clay, puzzles, etc.; (2) simplifying Randy's classroom environment by excluding tasks that are too complex and frustrating; (3) limiting Randy's classroom life space; e.g., use of time out area as logical consequence of misbehaviors previously identified and agreed upon; (4) "child-proofing" Randy's environment by removing dangerously sharp objects and other tempting materials; and (5) developing at-hand alternative activities for Randy, to remediate crises in the classroom. While some of these techniques also offer preventative and even developmental potential, they are essentially indicated as remedial strategies.

Associational group remedial interventions with Susan, in the classroom and otherwise, might involve an extra careful mutual diagnosis of her concerns. Her case suggests the possibility that remedial interventions outside of the school setting might be effective. Her counselor, in this

case, could seek mutual agreement with Susan to request her Young Life affiliate group to devote agenda time to discussing issues relevant to her situation.

Some remedial problems presented to the counselor concerning Mr. Mundt, could conceivably be approached by instigating projects in collaboration with Cleveland High School's P.T.A. or Parents Club. As a human relations consultant to this group, the counselor could be in a position to foster remedial school improvement projects that would be ultimately helpful, not only to Mr. Mundt's interests, but to other schools within the school district as well; e.g., attracting and holding good teachers, reducing the drop out rate, etc.

In associational group, remedial interventions, it is apparent that indirect interventions often seem more reasonable than the direct approach. Therefore, both direct and indirect suggestions for interventions have been discussed.

A criticism of associational group remediation is, as usual, that it is reactive, not proactive; i.e., it responds after the fact and in many cases by so doing, it expends valuable energies and resources doing things that could be better done in the preventative, developmental, or ecological mode.

Associational Group, Preventative Interventions (3,2,1 3,2,2)

Here again, specific research dealing with associational

group, preventative interventions, is hard to come by; so, guidance personnel must extrapolate support and direction from studies that are related to this dimension. This should not prove difficult since many of the studies cited in this thesis are relevant.

Preventative interventions attempt to anticipate client needs and then do something about them. How might this approach be related to the sample "problems" represented by Susan, Randy, and Mr. Mundt?

The counselor who is working with Susan, according to Frank (Bergin and Strupp, 1972), is essentially confronted with the task of facilitating her environment in such a manner as to raise her morale and inspire her to try new ways of coping with her stresses. With this in mind, the next step might be, by process of elimination, to identify that associational group (or groups) that seems: (1) most amenable to suggestions or ideas for intervention; and (2) most influential in Susan's life. It might be determined that two groups, perhaps her ski club and her student activity group, are feasible intervention targets. A next step could be to enlist the cooperation of the students and supervising teachers in mini-projects of team-building and problem-solving, projects expressly designed to foster the kinds of mutual sharing, caring, and problem-solving that might be helpful to Susan. Larger group projects such as this could be designed, using any of a number of laboratory designs

(Schein and Bennis, 1965), including creative adaptations based on the work of Carkhuff (1969a, 1969b), Ivey (1971), or Kagan (1967).

Opportunities for implementing preventative actions with Randy's associational groups seem to be limited to activities aimed at his Sunday school class, Cub Scout, or classroom groups. In working with Randy's Cub Scoutmaster, the school psychologist might elect to introduce activities like Dinkmeyer's elementary-level multimedia program for developing understanding of self and others. This is a well developed program that makes use of puppets, records or cassettes, discussion cards, and storybooks. As an alternative, behavior-modification techniques based on Krumboltz and Thoresen's (1969) work might be used to encourage social behavior skills improvement within the Cub Scout troop.

Potential, associational group, preventative situations with Mr. Mundt may be found with his local professional principal's association group, his committee-for-education group at church, or perhaps in summer school classes at a nearby teacher's college. This latter group might provide an excellent low-risk opportunity for the counselor, as a summer school classmate of Mr. Mundt's, to stimulate discussion dealing with needed school improvements. This situation would also provide ideal opportunities to mutually work on class projects that would relate directly to their back-home classroom problem situations. Summer school project

designs generated in this way should stand a good chance of being tried out back home because of the mutual involvement of Mr. Mundt. In this case, ample classroom intervention research (Combs and Taylor, 1952; Getzels and Thelan, 1960; Bany and Johnson, 1964; Schmuck and Schmuck, 1971) is available to help the counselor with his task.

Effective, indirect, associational group, preventative action tends to require higher levels of training and consultation skill; i.e., as the target group becomes larger, the demands on the interventionist tend to get greater. The offsetting factor, however, is the opportunity to have a positive impact on a larger clientele. Here also, indirect preventative actions are especially desirable since, like remediation work, preventative efforts are still problem-centered and, therefore, theoretically not as efficient as developmental and ecological designs.

Associational Group, Developmental  
Interventions (3,3,1 3,3,2)

The key concept here is the idea of maximizing people's personal growth by intervening effectively into various associational groups. Research specifically in regard to this seems scarce, although related studies are available, particularly with reference to classroom interventions (Glidewell, Kantor, Smith, and Stringer, 1966; Lippitt, Fox, and Schmuck, 1964; Schmuck, 1963). Blocher's developmental

tasks table will again serve as a reference point for selected interventions.

Susan's symptoms of apathy and listlessness may be found to a greater or lesser degree in many high school classrooms. One way to counteract this is to work indirectly with the students by working directly with the teacher on developmental-type interventions. Shaw and Rector (1968) have described a program in which pupil personnel staff members (including counselors, psychologists, school social workers, and nurses) offered group counseling to teachers in an effort to improve the classroom developmental-learning environment. In this model, the groups met once a week for five weeks (fall and spring) with discussions focused on professional matters over which the teachers had some control. The groups were well attended and gave the program 100% endorsement following the final spring sessions. Perhaps more important were the results of the subjective program evaluation, in which the teachers assessed their students' behavior changes as being overwhelmingly for the better. A possible follow-up to these sessions might include brief training in Glasser's (1969) group strategies, discussed earlier. Another idea might be to train teachers in the classroom strategies of Simon's (1973) values clarification program. Still another outgrowth of these training sessions might be classroom adaptations of achievement motivation methods (Alschuler, Tabor and McIntyre, 1971;

McMullen, 1973). Two more developmental approaches that might prove helpful to Susan and her classmates are: (1) strategies for raising consciousness about sexism (Delworth, 1973, and (2) psychological education for racial awareness (Anderson and Love, 1973). In-class racism and sexism workshops could make use of a variety of techniques, such as role playing, small-group discussions, writing and reading or acting out poems, essays, stories, and plays, brainstorming how to develop racism and sexism consciousness-raising in the school and community, etc.

Most if not all of the developmental class activities discussed above could readily be adapted by Randy's school psychologist for use in his classroom. Another developmental strategy for Randy's elementary classroom has been described by Mazza and Garris (1972). This is an innovative and mutualistic child-oriented, self-development project that provides pupils with major responsibility for self-assessing their developmental needs. This model employs the indirect approach; i.e., Randy's school psychologist would act as a consultant to the teacher. Similar to Goshko's (1973) technique, Mazza and Garris use a candid classroom videotape of a student's classroom behavior as a first step. Students are then allowed to assess their behavior and establish behavioral goals they might like to achieve. The teacher consults with the students to help them clarify and define their goals, and develop methods to achieve them.

Later, a follow-up tape is used to permit students to evaluate their progress.

Mr. Mundt is obviously a key person at Cleveland High School, especially when it comes to promoting school-wide associational group, developmental interventions. One of the ways the counselor might influence Mr. Mundt to encourage the use of classroom, psychological-education innovations, is to arrange for a series of curriculum presentations at the monthly, district-wide, secondary school administrator's meetings. Sources such as Schmuck and Schmuck's (1971) text, "Group Process in the Classroom" could provide the needed resource material for the first session. This session could set the tone for subsequent discussions by laying a sound, documented, and mutually agreed-upon philosophical foundation. Later sessions could then be used to mutually explore innovative classroom applications stressing the psychological-education approach. These discussions could capitalize on the experience and resources of the administrators as well as that of teachers who might be called upon to make additional presentations. Outside resources could be provided as the need arose. This approach has several advantages:

- (1) it would provide the opportunity for the secondary principals, vice-principals, and some outstanding teachers, to mobilize and share their experience and expertise in a professional setting with colleagues who are also "on the firing line." This might be particularly helpful to busy

administrators who justifiably complain that they seldom have the time they would like to devote to improving classroom instruction; (2) the mutual problem-sharing and-solving involved should tend to engender a commitment by those involved to subsequent action in their respective buildings; (3) individuals involved should gain a better knowledge of the various innovative programs going on in other buildings, and have a better understanding of resources available close at hand; (4) Mr. Mundt, his vice-principal, his counselor, and any participating Cleveland High School teachers, might now be expected to have developed the nucleus of a "primary group" interested in developing new instructional programs at Cleveland High School.

Each of the alternative, developmental interventions discussed above, for Susan, Randy, or Mr. Mundt, offer the prospect for direct or indirect intervention by the guidance worker. Where indirect action is indicated, training of the secondary interventionist by the guidance worker may be necessary. However, once trained, the trainee becomes a valuable extension of the guidance program.

Evaluations of the ultimate impact of developmental interventions may be criticized as being more difficult to obtain than when dealing with remedial or preventative problems, partly because the goals and issues may not be so well defined. However this need not be the case. Coffing, Hutchinson, Thomann, and Allan (1971), for example, have

developed a self-instructional module for operationalizing "fuzzy concepts," goals, or intents, that can be helpful in specifying goals and criteria for evaluating worthwhile projects.

Associational Group, Ecological Interventions (3,4,1 3,4,2)

The purpose of this intervention is to train, or otherwise facilitate, people in associational groups to reach out and assist others so as to generally enhance the living and learning environment of the school and community. With little or no research available to relate directly to this type of intervention, guidance workers are encouraged to join in creating programs based on concepts from previous discussions that are appropriate. One important concept that bears repeating is the idea of simultaneity--if the system is to be changed, as many meaningful components as possible must be affected simultaneously by each intervention. This is not only a more efficient way to operate but is also more effective, inasmuch as changing individual behavior is insufficient unless others (family, communities, employers) can also be changed (Ivey, 1972).

Student government associational groups such as Susan's, offer potential for counselor-initiated ecological interventions. For instance, her counselor might arrange a meeting with this group for the purpose of developing the group's interest in how government at the school board level

operates and how its operation affects them. An anticipated next step would be for the group to attend a school board meeting and participate in the open discussion. Once the students are involved in the "action," it could be expected that issues of student concern would be brought to the attention of the board, issues that might not otherwise surface. The ecological ramifications throughout the school district could prove to be considerable. An alternative to this is the indirect approach of working with Susan's social studies teacher to achieve the same ends. This idea might also be extended to include student interaction at city council meetings, mental health board meetings, park department board meetings, etc.

A school psychologist-led classroom unit on basic attending-behavior skills could stimulate sufficient interest that P.T.A. parents such as Randy's might volunteer for an adult program in human relations behavior skills. For example, Bizer (1972) has used Ivey's (1971) basic attending skills as part of a parent training program in human relations skills. This approach could also be extended to a program consisting of trained parents helping other families.

Ecological interventions aimed at Mr. Mundt's associational groups should consider the regional impact-potential of his professional affiliations; e.g., his regional principal's association group. Recognizing Mr. Mundt's personal interest in vocational education might suggest to the

counselor the idea of co-promoting a Principal's Association-Counselor's Association consortium focusing on the development of a regional, school-industry, cooperative, career counseling and placement venture. Rationale for the proposal might include: (1) desirable consolidation and coordination of individual school contacts with industry and business; (2) mutual funding of full-time work-study coordinators to give depth and continuity to the program, (e.g., more consistent scheduling and supervision of students at industrial and business training sites); (3) possibility of reducing or consolidating expensive in-school vocational training programs; and (4) a first step toward planning a regional vocational-technical training center. Thus, by combining an apparent regional need with Mr. Mundt's associational group affiliation and interest, a potential ecological impact might be achieved.

Both direct and indirect interventions have been described for associational group ecological interventions. While no rule-of-thumb exists, it is apparent that each situation dictates to some extent which approach seems most suitable. In the event both approaches seem suitable and equally possible, then perhaps the indirect method is to be recommended, inasmuch as this tends to free the guidance worker for other tasks.

Criticism might be directed towards associational group, ecological interventions (3,4,1, 3,4,2), based on the notion

that it sometimes resembles a "scatter-gun" approach and, consequently, unintended negative results might offset desired achievements. This may be occasionally true; however, the very complexity of people suggests that the same argument could also be directed at any human intervention, including direct, individual, remedial (1,1,1) interventions.

### Summary

This chapter has discussed the associational group "target of intervention," and how it might be related in actual practice to the four "purposes of intervention;" i.e., remedial, preventative, developmental, and ecological. Illustrative examples of sample interventions which practicing guidance workers might use have been described for each of these four intervention purposes. The three sample model problems, (Susan, Randy and Mr. Mundt) have provided a discussion focus for the various intervention dimensions. A brief critique of each of the interventions was presented.

Chapter VIII will discuss the institutional or societal group "target of intervention" and how it might relate in actual practice to the four "purposes of intervention."

## C H A P T E R   V I I I

## GUIDANCE WITH INSTITUTIONAL OR SOCIETAL GROUPS

Introduction

This chapter concludes the sequence of four chapters based on the format established in Chapter V. As in the previous three chapters, the primary purpose will again be to provide pupil personnel guidance workers with useful and clarifying descriptions of intervention concepts proposed in earlier chapters. The three sample problem situations outlined in Chapter V will continue to serve as a discussion focus for the four "purposes of intervention;" i.e., remedial, preventative, developmental, and ecological. This chapter, however, will consider these four intervention purposes within the context of the fourth category of intervention targets, the institutional or societal group.

Institutional or societal groups differ from associational groups in that they do not necessarily involve meeting together of the members of the group. People are aware of their participation as parts of an institution, such as a school or a church, and acknowledge membership in a community, or a society. The presence of various, strong, power distributions should be recognized when considering interventions into these types of groups.

Interventions at this level would include attempts to alter goals, communications system linkages, power

distribution, information flow, sanctions, etc.

Considerations for Intervention with  
Institutional or Societal Groups

Successful interventions at the institutional or societal group level presupposes school guidance consulting skills that are not always available within pupil personnel guidance programs. This need not be the case. Given a sufficient level of commitment to change, the guidance worker can develop alternative ways to mobilize available resources.

Personal growth or enrichment through summer school graduate courses in the field of organizational development (OD) might be an appropriate first step for guidance workers interested in improving their consulting skills in change interventions. In this way, they could be further exposed to the ideas and contributions of people such as Likert (1967), McGregor (1960), Schein and Bennis (1965), Hersey and Blanchard (1972), Schmuck, et al. (1972), and Schmuck and Miles (1971).

Pupil personnel staff would want to become aware of intervention concepts, such as Baldrige's (1972) political systems perspective, which offers an alternative to the usual human relations approach to OD. His model places importance on understanding organizational systems, environmental forces, and sub-system feedback; and how these

factors relate to organizational change. This approach emphasizes the dynamic features and macro-events of an organization, rather than the micro-events that occur among individuals within that organization.

Guidance workers could also learn how to mobilize a number of school-community power bases (parents, teachers, administrators, and students) in order to mutually develop programs for the benefit of all.

Another important consideration for potential change agents is the knowledge that institutional and societal change is seldom achieved easily or without risk. As Hersey and Blanchard (1972) have observed, change in people's knowledge base is easiest to make, followed next by changes in attitude or value. Behavior changes are even significantly more difficult than either of these. However, organizational change is probably the most difficult of all. Moreover, as discussed in Chapter II, organizational conflict and apparent malfunctioning is not always caused by blocks in communication or failures in interpersonal relations, but often stem from legitimate divergent values, scarce resources, or multiple goals. It might be expected that these issues would also merit consideration in any proposed intervention design.

Finally, the issue of exactly what to change by OD interventions is not always as obvious as it usually is in the case of individual remediation or prevention. Within a

broad definition, any change produced is an OD change and this may, in part, explain why there are so many different kinds of OD. It might be helpful, therefore, to conceptualize institutional OD interventions as ultimately being concerned with new ways of mutually distributing power within the target system. Consideration then should be given to how interventions might distribute power differently, as well as to new ways of shared decision making; e.g., restructuring school disciplinary power by the creative use of committees.

Institutional or Societal Group, Remedial  
Interventions (4,1,1 4,1,2)

As indicated by the references given in the introductory comments above, there is a body of literature dealing generally with school organizational development. Little research is available, however, to specifically guide pupil personnel workers in developing remedial institutional or societal changes. The related OD studies should be very helpful, however, to interventionists attempting to conceptualize innovative ways to bring about change in school systems. Reference to the field of sociology might also be helpful. For example, Hinton and Reitz (1971) have edited a comprehensive text of integrated readings in the analysis of social and macro-organizational behavior.

The question next becomes, "How might Susan's high

school counselor develop a remedial institutional or societal intervention in relation to her situation?" From the institutional perspective, the counselor might consider change efforts directed at the school to counteract general school symptoms of apathy and listlessness. Alternatively, the counselor might develop a long-range intervention plan directed toward improving the working conditions at the pulp mill where Susan's father works, on the assumption that these conditions are contributing to the problem of excessive drinking. In the latter case, several approaches are possible: (1) working with the mill management in using group meeting presentations of persuasive evidence as stimulators for small-group discussion and action, in an attempt to make progress toward a more humanizing work milieu for employees of the mill; (2) using a similar method with the appropriate organized-labor forces in hopes of setting identified poor working conditions as top priorities in future negotiating sessions with mill management; (3) generating media interest and pressure for mill improvements; and (4) mobilizing community mental health resources for action directed toward the mills.

Randy's hyperactive behavior might inspire his school psychologist to press for major changes in his school's program for the seriously disturbed pupils. This might be collaboratively accomplished by restructuring school resources in ways that would permit the psychologist to train

special paraprofessionals or volunteers to act as assistants for teachers who must cope with emotionally disturbed students. This approach program might also make use of volunteer high school students, such as Susan, who are considering teaching as a profession (e.g., Future Teachers of America members).

In the not unlikely event of widespread racial confrontations in Cleveland High School, Mr. Mundt might be amenable to his counselor's suggestions for creative institutional remediation. It is at this point, however, that the counselor must be alert to the potential this situation has created for long-term school improvement. For the counselor to attempt to help defuse this crisis without using the situation to effectively promote needed institutional change is to do a disservice to the entire school community (Morgan and Wicas, 1972). It might even be expected that the counselor has anticipated this crisis and has already developed a long-range improvement plan commencing with a remedial strategy for the moment, and including projected preventative, developmental, and ecological plans. The wisdom of being prepared for crises such as these seems evident. In these situations, the community is suddenly alerted to serious problems at the school; much of the district's central office staff is focused on the problem; and the principal, Mr. Mundt, is instantly under considerable pressure to solve the problem. Therefore, constructive short

and longer-range programs, designed to remediate, prevent, and then improve the situation, should prove attractive. In this case, the immediate, remedial, institutional intervention could consist of closing the school for the remainder of the day and using that time to meet with the student confrontation leaders to negotiate the resumption of school, student concerns, etc. With school reopened (if possible) the following day, various student confrontation leaders could continue negotiating their concerns with the administration while regular classes were in session. As soon as possible, the results of initial negotiations could be announced along with agreed-upon agenda items for further discussion; e.g., changes in school rules, faculty-student government committee ideas, minority studies programs, etc. At this time also, several student and student-faculty "rap-rooms" (Dais and Main, 1972) might be established in the school.

Thus, institutional and societal remedial interventions may employ either the direct or indirect approach, or a mixture of both, depending upon the circumstances.

A major criticism of this dimension of the cube still is found in the inherent disadvantage of using scarce resources to "put out fires" and defuse legitimate protest, when a better use of these resources might be to prevent crises from occurring.

Institutional or Societal Preventative  
Interventions (4,2,1 4,2,2)

Institutional or societal preventative change involves diagnosing anticipated needs and providing methods for ameliorating those needs. Innovative efforts on the part of pupil personnel people are necessary here in order to create intervention concepts and programs, without benefit of specific studies available for use as guiding models.

A high school counselor, attempting to work preventatively with institutions in situations similar to Susan's, might consider her family's church a promising intervention target, particularly now that churches are moving to more outreach-type functions. In consultation with the church, an outreach family-intervention model might be developed whereby community inter-church sponsorship of family human relations and encounter workshops could be achieved. The goal here would be to foster inter-family community and support groups that might, for example, help mediate pervasive alienation feelings of families such as Susan's. These family-to-family groups could also deal with community action programs to develop parent-child conflict-resolution seminars, Family-to-Family Call Lines, marital problem discussion groups, and to generally improve the community living environment.

Randy's guidance worker could work preventively by expanding the volunteer teacher's aide program to include

more aides working with all students during the day. The school psychologist might also enrich the aide training to include more advanced levels of training in facilitative skills (Carkhuff, 1969a, 1969b; Ivey, 1971). The scope of this preventative work could also be expanded to the other 7 elementary schools in the district by sharing (with other district elementary guidance personnel) the intervention strategies used in Randy's school to obtain teacher and principal program support. This might be accomplished through the use of multimedia presentations in the other schools, augmented by live student, teacher, and parent testimonials.

Preventative institutional change at racially divided Cleveland high school might include weekly, school-wide, racial-conflict seminars. These discussions might be structured after the work of Schelling (1957) and Sherif (1958), or the focused contract approach (Egan, 1970) described previously. Egan's model, in particular, would provide uneasy teachers with a relatively low-risk discussion technique that could readily be adopted to sequential classroom racial interaction discussion. Where needed, the guidance staff could participate directly or indirectly in class discussions as group discussion trainers and consultants.

Here again it is apparent that institutional or societal preventative interventions may be implemented either directly or indirectly, depending upon situational factors.

It is evident also that one of the usual criticisms of preventative interventions--that they are limited in scope--is not always completely justified. There are instances where the scope of preventative work can be quite wide, as demonstrated in the previous examples. This, in fact, tends to be more the rule than the exception, as the interventionist moves toward the institutional or societal dimension of the cube.

Institutional or Societal, Developmental  
Interventions (4,3,1 4,3,2)

The emphasis in this dimension is away from institutional or societal problem-solving and towards helping larger groups of people actualize or maximize their potential by moving beyond where they are. Lacking specific research in support of this cause suggests the necessity for developing innovative programs based on what has generally been found effective for promoting human development. And what has generally been found in recent research (e.g., Truax and Carkhuff, 1967), is evidence supporting the notion that people change, grow, and learn most readily when they are engaged in relationships characterized by high conditions of warmth, empathy, and positive regard.

Reference to Blocher's developmental tasks table again reveals that the learning of coping behaviors in reciprocity, cooperation, and mutuality is a basic developmental task for

students of Susan's age. The counselor might facilitate this task development and, at the same time, do the entire school community a service (simultaneity again) by enlisting Susan's help in a collaborative (mutuality) venture to eliminate institutionalized sexism. Susan and her friends could be developing reciprocal, cooperative, and mutualistic coping skills while at the same time spearheading a school drive dealing with issues of feminine equality. As Hansen (1972) suggests, the counselor and Susan might cooperatively encourage teachers to: (1) create bulletin boards illustrating changing roles of women and men; (2) show career awareness films depicting not the typical "what fathers do" and "what mothers do" but "the work that human beings do" (and need to do); (3) bring the students into direct contact with the world of work by arranging for visits to that world, and its hiring, salary, and promotion discrepancies; (4) provide specific information about educational paths to various occupations and the means to achieving life goals; (5) developing "life planning labs" in which groups of students have extensive opportunity to examine their values potentials and goals; (6) use audio-visual aids such as the filmstrip-cassette, "Jobs and Gender" (Guidance Associates, Inc., 1971) for stimulating class or group discussion, along with other consciousness-raising exercises similar to those proposed by Delworth (1973). An effective developmental intervention directed along these lines might promote a

sizable amount of growth enhancing, positive self regard among students at Cleveland High School.

The moral development project (Scharf, Hickey and Moriarity, 1973) described for use in Randy's class in Chapter VI provides a good example of an elementary level developmental intervention that could be extended not only to his entire class, but also to the rest of the school. The same applies to Simon's (1973) values clarification method, which was also mentioned earlier. Another promising developmental idea appropriate for institutional group intervention is that of teaching creativity as proposed by Shallcross (1973). Here Randy's psychologist could influence the staff to incorporate the teaching of creativity into the general curriculum. Shallcross contends that creativity can and should be taught as an important aspect of psychological education, since "one finds in the creative act the essence of the self-directed individual." In her approach, techniques for developing alternative solutions, such as brainstorming, attribute listing, and forced relationship, help to eliminate student's barriers to creativity and seek to: (1) open their minds to new perceptions of situations and objects; (2) encourage them to use the self as the source of creativity rather than relying on external guidance; (3) open up their minds to unusual ways of integrating external reality into personal experience; and (4) find creative solutions through a sustained reciprocal

process of moving from the internal experience to the external experience. Conceived in this manner, teaching creativity seems well suited to helping Randy, and others his age, develop environmental mastery skills.

With respect to the racial strife existing at Cleveland High School, what might the counselor working with Mr. Mundt do, as an example of institutional group, developmental intervention? Once the remedial and preventative ideas previously discussed have been put into action, a next step might be to promote longer-range developmental programs by further influencing building decision making. One such program might involve the entire staff and students in scheduled race relations workshops such as that described by Anderson and Love (1973). Workshop activities could include units on racist attitudes, sources and forms of racism, and overcoming racism. Supplementary activities could become an integral part of every curriculum; e.g., social studies classes could develop a human rights proposal for the school, mathematics classes could deal with race discrimination facts and statistics, art classes could display examples of paintings, sculpture, inventions, etc., contributed by various cultural groups. Community resources could be tapped for in-school presentations and students could check out the various community neighborhoods and report their findings by various school media.

While indirect interventions may be more efficient, and

sometimes even more effective, their obvious disadvantage lies in the fact that the "secondary interventionist" may not possess the training necessary to cope with unforeseen occurrences. While it is proposed that there would always be adequate supervision and consultation available, in actual practice, this may not always be the case. Consequently, this remains one of the valid criticisms of the indirect method as compared to the direct method.

Institutional or Societal Group, Ecological  
Intervention (4,4,1 4,4,2)

The primary aim of ecological intervention is to improve the psychoecological environment of the school community. This dimension is concerned with interpersonal, inter-group, inter-institutional and intra-community human transactions, and basically deals with the issue of enhancing the school-community by improving human interpersonal transactions within that system. The ecological purpose of intervention, in relation to institutional or societal change, is perhaps the most challenging of the various dimensions discussed in this study, and consequently must be pursued with some resourcefulness. Moreover, interventions in this area must be developed without the benefit of special direction from previous research.

The counselor, in Susan's situation, might consider mounting a societal ecological intervention as an extension

of their womanhood and sexism project in the developmental dimension. This approach is congruent with the preferred mode of intervention proposed here; i.e., wherever possible, effective intervention projects should be extended to additional dimensions, or cells, of the cube. Susan and her counselor have a variety of alternatives available in developing their sexism and womanhood ecological intervention. They might, for example, adapt the previously discussed (Hansen, 1972; Delworth, 1973) sexism and womanhood ideas to workshops designed for interventions with church groups, other schools, labor organizations, private industry situations, social and recreational organizations, etc. Similar activities might also be projected through youth groups, political organizations and through the public media. Thus, any legitimate and feasible way of communicating desired ecological changes represents another opportunity for Susan and her counselor to promote their human rights awareness message.

Institutional and societal group, ecological interventions need not, necessarily, be done on a massive scale. Randy's school psychologist, for example, could expect worthwhile "ecological return" on an investment based on influencing the elementary school to incorporate Palomares' (Palomares and Rubini, 1973) magic circle method into the daily classroom activities. This well-developed program can readily be taught to teachers by the psychologist, and, if used reasonably

well for twenty minutes each day, will generally help improve student's communications skills and sense of self-mastery. Parents and teachers in other schools could be expected to hear about the program and request that it be made available in other schools and in other situations, such as in Sunday schools. With the students, the development of improved communications skills could also make a positive difference in their family life and elsewhere.

Another instance of simultaneity in action might be demonstrated in the event Mr. Mundt's counselor elected to expand the vocational education intervention described in Chapter VII, in order to encompass more of the institutional-societal ecological dimension. It may be recalled that the counselor had promoted a consortium of principal's association-counselor's association resources for the purpose of creating a regional school-industry, cooperative, career planning and placement venture. An expanded ecological intervention could press for more comprehensive school-industry collaborative work-study programs, whereby all high school students could move out to the business community for work exploration and experience while at the same time continuing their school program. The counselor's inclination to continue further development of this model would apparently have the support of leading contributors to the American education scene. Coleman (1973), for instance, feels that students shielded from work responsibilities often

become irresponsible and restless, and that the usual passive student role is simply not suitable for all kinds of learning. He suggests that somehow business and other enterprises should be paid to take adolescents on, teach them skills, and give them a broader contact with adults than what they now have. This type of experience could also provide a new approach to racial and class integration since the student would be exposed to a variety of educational settings, including racially-integrated situations. This vocational education concept also responds to Bane and Jenck's (1972) conclusion that since the primary basis for evaluating a school should be whether the students and teachers find it a satisfying place to be, there ought to be a much wider diversity of choice for those involved.

The examples provided here for institutional or societal ecological intervention have emphasized the indirect or, in Susan's case, a merging of the direct-indirect method. This does not mean that the direct method is necessarily inferior; however, it may reflect a consideration that, as the target of intervention expands (e.g., from the individual to the societal), the need for developing secondary intervention assistance increases.

A criticism of institutional or societal, ecological interventions (4,4,1, 4,4,2), indeed of all guidance interventions that intentionally go "outside the school," may be based on the jurisdictional issue of usurpation of family

and community agency responsibilities. This point is well taken. However, in response, this study has explicitly assumed a position similar to Shoben's (1966) statement justifying compensatory education; that is, because the individual's development as a member of the community is highly valued, when the family and/or community fails to provide evidence that it is facilitating this kind of personal growth, society through its schools has an obligation to act.

#### Summary

This chapter has discussed the institutional or societal "target of intervention " and how it might be related in actual practice to the four "purposes of intervention;" i.e., remedial, preventative, developmental and ecological. Illustrative examples of sample interventions, which practicing guidance workers might find helpful, have been described for each of these four intervention purposes. A brief critique of each of the interventions was presented.

Chapter IX will discuss implications of incorporating the proposed new guidance mission into pupil personnel services' programs.

## C H A P T E R I X

IMPLEMENTING A NEW GUIDANCE MISSION: SUMMARY OF PHILOSOPHY  
AND PRESENTATION OF SPECIFIC METHOD FOR IMPLEMENTATIONIntroduction

Chapter I described the urgent need for a reconceptualization of the basic pupil personnel guidance mission. A new guidance mission based on the philosophy of mutualism was proposed as an alternative approach for effecting needed educational change. Subsequent chapters (II, III, and IV) discussed various strategies for the new mission and presented a comprehensive model, the cube, to help conceptualize the new approach. Chapters V through VIII provided step-by-step descriptions of how various guidance dimensions of the cube might be facilitated within the school and community.

This chapter will summarize important philosophic considerations for a changing guidance role and will provide illustrative examples of how changes might be made in schools, using these philosophies.

Three key considerations--the philosophy of mutualism, the theory of psychoecology, and the conceptual framework of the cube--will be restated within the context of the typical school system. Suggestions will be made regarding how traditional conceptions and organization of pupil personnel guidance administration may be modified to

incorporate aspects of the new guidance mission.

### A Summary of Philosophy

This section will discuss three concepts that focus on the issue of how to effect change in the school environment. They are: (1) the philosophy of mutualism, which provides both a powerful value statement and an operational ingredient for intervention; (2) the multi-dimensional cube, which provides a graphic framework for conceptualizing innovative interventions; and (3) the theory of psychoecology, which expresses the value of recognizing the interdependence of individuals and their social environment.

From Parson's (1894) abiding belief in mutuality as a crucial dimension of a humanized environment to Kuriloff's (1973) emphasis on mutuality in psychoecological interaction, the guidance movement has strayed but always returned to human collaboration as the basic mode for effective personal growth and change. As suggested in this study, interventions based on the philosophy of mutualism (Carkhuff, 1969a, 1969b; Ivey, 1971; Kagan and Krathwohl, 1967) are those determined to be most effective, whether used in dyads, groups, institutions, or communities.

Much of the growing dissatisfaction of the guidance model used in the fifties and the sixties stems from its "doing unto" emphasis rather than a "doing with" approach. This, coupled with the disenchantment with the inefficiency

and ineffectiveness (Bergin and Garfield, 1971; Eysenck, 1965) of individual one-to-one counseling, has caused the helping profession to seek alternative ways of helping and more broadly affecting both people and their environment.

The cube represents one response to this search. It dramatically portrays an intentional move away from one-to-one remedial counseling to outreach efforts directed towards the development of human environments that are facilitative of healthy psychological growth for its members. Just how each of the various intervention dimensions of the cube might relate to the school-community environment has been discussed in the preceding four chapters. Psychoecology is viewed as recognizing the inevitable interdependence of humans within a given setting and values the quality of interactions that promote a more conducive living and learning environment. The following section will provide examples of how system-wide pupil personnel guidance programs might be established, based on these principles.

#### Examples for Implementation

Undoubtedly, there are many models that could be developed that might successfully incorporate the principles set forth above into a more functional role for pupil personnel guidance services. This chapter will present four possibilities for consideration. Drawing from an earlier chapter (Chapter III), these four illustrative examples will

be based on the three general approaches available for mobilizing school resources for desired change: (1) from the top of the system (the "top-down" change model); (2) from the bottom of the system (the "bottom-up" change model); and (3) from the top, middle, and bottom simultaneously (the "top-middle-bottom" change model). The attempt will be made to show that all three of these approaches can be effective, providing the intervention is appropriately designed and implemented.

As indicated in Chapter III, common sense dictates that those selected from school leadership positions must necessarily assume a sizable responsibility for providing innovative and constructive leadership. However, interventions emanating from the top of the school organization (i.e., the "top-down" method) must be careful to initiate educational changes with the cooperation of those affected by the proposed changes.

For purposes of discussion, the first example will assume that a school superintendent, who at one time had been a practicing counselor, has expressed concern regarding how the district guidance role and function could be improved. The decision has finally been made to pursue this issue. How might the superintendent proceed?

A reasonable initial step might involve consulting with guidance staff members regarding the matter. The results of this might be agreement to follow the task force approach

(Bennis, 1969) to doing a thorough guidance needs assessment. A representative, volunteer, task-force steering committee could be assembled, and students, parents, teachers, and administrators might be solicited for the purpose of identifying what was presently being done by the guidance function, as well as what needed to be done. Discussion groups made up of the interested volunteers could generate and then report the necessary data to the task force committee. In the event that this needs assessment subsequently revealed discrepancies between what was being done and what needed to be done, this analysis could be communicated by the task force back to the sub-groups--with the accompanying request for recommendations for implementing appropriate new guidance functions. It would be expected that this type of process would require a considerable amount of the participants' time, and that needed resources (e.g., released time, outside consultant budgets, etc.) would be provided by the school system. Other resources, such as the use of local graduate school students involved in OD training, might also be considered.

Once the task force committee had obtained the sub-groups' various recommendations regarding possible new guidance roles, the mutual or shared decision-making process with the superintendent's office could continue. (It is assumed that the superintendent would maintain an ongoing consulting relationship with the pupil personnel services

staff as the decision process progressed.)

It is at this point that the cube might be most helpful in conceptualizing, prioritizing, and otherwise considering alternative guidance programs and program emphases. The cube, in fact, would be expected to prove helpful throughout the intervention process and beyond. In any event, once tentative new guidance roles and functions have been negotiated, the implementation phase begins.

Here again a participative approach to the implementation process seems crucial. It is suggested that the same representative sub-groups that originally recommended the scope and implementation of the new guidance function could now be "re-commissioned" to react to the tentative, guidance program changes with wide latitude for adapting them to suit local needs. It would also seem important that periodic program evaluation and "in-flight corrections" would have on-going communication access to other sub-groups, as well as to the superintendent's office. This type of self-renewal process might help insure that the new program's better features would be maintained and strengthened and the weaker concepts discarded.

This then is a brief description of how one "top-down" mutualistic intervention, making use of the cube, might be implemented in a school system. It should be noted that this example provides ample opportunity for various human relations training sessions. For instance, each of the

sub-groups, the task force, and the superintendent's cabinet, might all have occasion to be involved in organizational communications training, (e.g., in decision-making skills, self-expression skills, paraphrasing skills, perception checking, etc.) as a direct result of this project.

What about interventions initiated from the bottom of the system (i.e., the "bottom-up" change model)? An example of this approach might evolve from a guidance focus on teacher groups attempting to gain assistance and support for the implementation of curriculum changes stressing aspects of psychological education. In this example, anticipated resistance to this type of intervention might be expected from several directions--parents who are unfamiliar with the purposes, processes, and goals of psychological education; administrators who may be concerned with parental reactions; and teacher colleagues who may feel that the curriculum is already too academically "thin" and should not be further diluted with psychological-education "games." While in this type of intervention the needs assessment approach is also helpful toward developing goals and objectives, added emphasis is simultaneously given to disseminating information and influencing various constituents to support objectives already in mind. Therefore, this example suggests that the teachers consider intervention procedures that employ widely dispersed participative change strategies; recognizing that, although this approach

seems slow, an advantage is gained in that, once commitment to change is achieved, it tends to be longer lasting (Hersey and Blanchard, 1972).

The teachers in this situation might first of all gather available research evidence and develop adequate rationales to support their position regarding the proposed curriculum changes. In further mobilizing their resources they might consider the use of a comprehensive questionnaire-survey (McElvaney and Miles, 1969) of students, parents, teachers, and administrators, to help ascertain the degree of acceptance their position already has. Assuming they determine that they are assured of the active support of the pupil personnel services staff, they might consider using these staff members to help facilitate subsequent student-teacher-parent-administrator curriculum-discussion groups. These sessions could be structured along lines suggested by Cohn's (1970) theme-centered interaction model, in which each group's stated theme might, for example, be "Psychological Education - Involving the Learner in Learning." An approach such as this might also incorporate group activities in psychological-education exercises in order to provide personalized experiences of what was being discussed. This would provide good opportunities also for the participants to develop and contribute innovative psychological-education strategies to the "cause." In addition, the widespread use of small groups in this manner would be expected

to engender support for desired changes as a result of the participants' development of new group norms and skills (McElvaney and Miles, 1969).

Given this extensive student-teacher-parent-administrator small-group curriculum involvement, the next step might be to solicit psychological education curriculum recommendations from each group, while making use of the theory of psychoecology, the philosophy of mutualism, and ideas derived from the cube in the process. The initiating teacher group could then further collaborate with the district curriculum staff in the organization and implementation of the various recommendations, the development of teacher psychological education resources, and the design of evaluation feedback systems.

Teacher-initiated change from the "bottom-up" can be most effective in gaining collaborative change, particularly if the available resources are adequately mobilized. For one thing, teachers are perceived by superintendents as being a very influential pressure group (Gross, 1958). Consequently, if, as in the example above, teachers can gain the support of other teachers, students, parents, and administrators, their chances of attaining desired curriculum changes are excellent.

The third general method for implementing school changes (i.e., from the "top-middle-bottom" simultaneously) is conceptually the most mutualistic of the three general

approaches. Consequently, pupil personnel guidance programs may tend to favor this approach. The two illustrative examples presented next will be somewhat more explicit in describing pupil personnel services administrative structure for implementing new guidance interventions.

The first example will consist of a brief summary\* of Ivey's (1968) Student Development Center (SDC) model. Although the SDC may be thought of as a school administrative working unit, it intentionally avoids having any single administrative organization or plan. Rather it is suggested that each SDC should be organized and staffed to meet the needs and priorities established by each individual school. For example, in one possible definition of the SDC, the principal becomes a director of human relations in the school and delegates administrative chores to an assistant. This same school might also deploy guidance workers as consultants and facilitators representing educational psychology competencies to students, parents, and staff. Another school might wish to commit a larger professional SDC staff whose task is to remake the total human relations program of the school. Another school might wish to simply set up a committee of a principal and two teachers and implement a small

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\* From here to the next \* the text paraphrases and extracts from Ivey's manuscript.

human relations program. For a high school, the SDC "team" might consist of a guidance counselor director, two teachers known for interest in students, part of the time of an assistant principal, and four students.

Once an SDC staffing plan is established, the following steps might be proposed as one alternative for introducing SDC programs:

#### Stage A

1. The SDC staff decides to take a multi-pronged approach so that they can better sense the school's interest and ability to engage in human relations programming.

2. The SDC staff, administrators, and several teachers engage in a two-week summer workshop in human relations with a consultant-trainer. Emphasis in these sessions is on organizational change in the schools. This group is to serve as consultants to the SDC staff.

3. Human relations training is introduced as part of courses in family relations, home economics, or physical education.

4. Teachers are given workshop instruction on human relations activities they can offer in the classroom. Emphasis is on non-threatening, immediately valuable techniques such as Simon's (1973) values clarification method.

5. The SDC staff meets with the "summer" human relations workshop group and renews this group training. They also consider implications of the school organization

and begin to suggest organizational changes to effect better human relations.

6. The community is given information concerning objectives of the new program.

#### Stage B

1. The SDC staff and their human relations support group recommend flexible scheduling and team teaching as important organizational changes to affect better human relations.

2. Human relations micro-training is provided for students. New flexible scheduling permits large numbers of students to participate.

3. Human relations training is also expanded to all volunteer teachers. Student participation continues to increase.

4. Community interest results in the development of evening programs for teaching parents some of the skills of effective human relations.

#### Stage C

1. The program becomes fully operative. Many organizational changes have been made and plans for further changes are being considered.

2. Students are now developing their own micro-teaching programs and are using the programs to teach the skills of human relations to each other and also to train

themselves as teacher aides for a local junior high.

3. Human relations training is now an accepted part of the school program. Students appear to have added zest for academic work as classroom affective methods (e.g., psychological education) lend increased meaning to school work, as well as to daily life.

4. Teachers are relying more and more on human relations and psychological education methods and are stressing the idea that effective learning often accompanies a more collaborative search for knowledge. Thus teachers are seen increasingly as models for both personal and intellectual development.

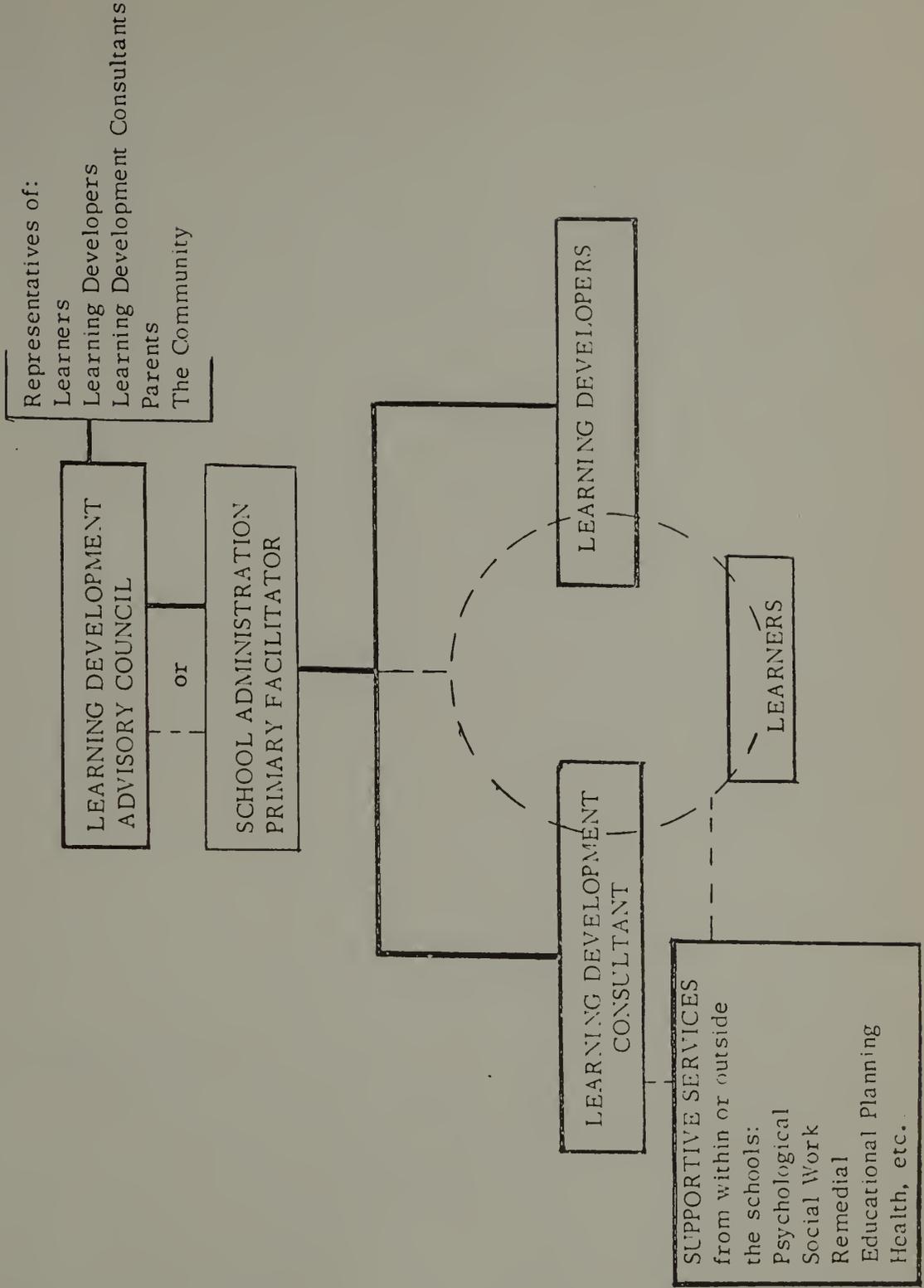
5. Community involvement is increasing. Students are working in poverty and race relations projects, and business men and women, professionals, and others in the community are being involved in school activities. Programs to involve parents and other community groups in various human relations activities are in full "swing."\*

This SDC program example is admittedly extensive, although in actual practice, this need not be the case. Each school situation could implement limited programs which seem to fit with the objectives of that school. It seems evident that these types of guidance interventions must incorporate mutualistic and psychoecological concepts to be successful, and the use of the cube would seem to be an

appropriate tool in the planning and implementation process.

The third general method for implementing needed school changes--from the "top-middle-bottom" simultaneously-- can be implemented in a relatively unstructured way, such as in Ivey's SDC model, or can accommodate a more structured approach. The next example suggests a more structured role and function for pupil personnel guidance workers to consider. This example has been adopted from a report (1971) of the National Conference of Pupil Personnel Services, sponsored by the U. S. Office of Education.

The structure of this proposed Model for Learning Development is indicated in Figure 6. In actual practice the implementation of this structure might be expected to vary with the interest, resources and other conditions in a particular school system. However, the goals and basic principles of mutualism and psychoecology suggest that certain characteristics of the model remain significant; i.e., representative participation by students (Learners), the general community, parents, administrators (Primary Facilitators), teachers (Learning Developers), and pupil personnel services workers (Learning Development Consultants). Perhaps the most promising application of this model would be in units of approximately 200 learners. However, certain elements of the model, as for example the Learning Development Advisory Council, the team approach to learning development and problem solving, and the concept of leadership based on



skills rather than on position, may be applicable in units of any size. The following describes the general model:

A. Learning Development Advisory Council (LDAC)

As shown in figure 6, this council is made up of representatives associated with the learning environment. In some situations, it may be the policy-making body, while in other settings, it may collaborate with the policy-making group or an administrator to help the system in the task of understanding and responding to the needs of learners.

B. Primary Facilitator (PF)

As in Ivey's SDC model, alternative structures here can provide a primary facilitator role for administrators to assume institutional learning process and human relations leadership roles in the school system. In this event, she/he could work with the Learning Development Advisory Council and respond to its recommendations. Depending on the size of the unit, he/she may represent a new role for a team leader, a principal, or a superintendent.

C. Learning Development Consultant (LDC)

This may be regarded as a new role for pupil personnel guidance specialists. The Learning Development Consultant (LDC) concentrates on the needs of the Learner (pupil) and the Learning Developer (teacher) and, in effect, helps serve as their advocate in the learning process. The LDC

functions as a facilitator of communication and as a coordinator among those involved in contributing to learning and development, and as such is totally involved in the learning process and the school environment. The LDC recognizes problems and needs which may be anything from a school-community situation to an individual student need or problem, as well as anything from an immediate crises to long-range psychoecological concerns. The LDC, for example, may refer to the cube to develop and project proposed intervention dimensions concerning Learners, parents, Learning Developers, community, schools and administrators. Under this arrangement, the LDC works closely with a defined group of Learners, Learning Developers, and a Facilitator. Following the identification of any need, the LDC mobilizes members and resources of the learning community to mutually participate as a problem-or-task-orientated team. This might often involve the LDC in group leadership, team building, and skills training tasks (see appendix A). These representative teams mutually assess needs and develop intervention plans which draw upon resources inside or outside the school.

D. Learning Developer (LD)

The primary responsibility of the LD (teacher) is the facilitation of student learning. The LD also functions as a crucial team member in the process of identifying and responding to learning needs. Learning Developers are well

represented on the Learning Development Advisory Council.

#### E. Learners

The learner receives primary attention in the operation of the team. He/she is expected to be active in making decisions about him/herself as a participant in developing, evaluating and improving the learning process. The learner is also conspicuously represented on the Learning Development Advisory Council.

Needless to say the ultimate structure of any pupil personnel services organizational model should be the result of relatively long term and extensive school-community participative planning. This is particularly essential since models such as these suggest the need for a reorganization of the entire educational enterprise. Therefore, in order to effectively implement these types of models, it would be necessary that all those in the affected school system be aware of the implications of any proposed model and be ready to reconceptualize their roles and functions.

#### Summary

As always there is more than one right answer in any given situation. Perhaps the most important contribution of this chapter, and indeed this study, may be the concept that there are alternative routes to the implementation of innovative guidance programs.

Each of the four examples given in this chapter are securely founded on the assumptions that: (1) a mutualistic approach to change is essential; (2) psychoecological ramifications within the school-community must be considered in any change intervention; and (3) use of the cube as a conceptual framework for intervention is uniquely helpful.

APPENDIX

## APPENDIX A

## A FOUR-PHASE CHANGE MODEL

A sizeable amount of discussion in this study has focused on issues dealing with behavioral change in dyads, groups and institutions. It is suggested that various types of mutualistic interventions, designed to induce positive educational change, may often be viewed within the perspective of a simple four-phase intervention model. This proposed change model prescribes an intervention process consisting of: Phase I--goal-planning, Phase II--team-building, Phase III--skills development, and Phase IV--counselling applications. In the discussion that follows, each of these phases will be described more in detail. Examples will also be provided to further clarify each concept.

Intervention Phase I is concerned with assessing client needs and assisting with the subsequent development of specific change objectives and goals emanating from this needs assessment process. This phase essentially deals with the establishment of specific goals and objectives. In a dyadic counseling situation Phase I may be seen as the interaction phase where the needs and specific goals of a counseling intervention are clarified and agreed upon by both parties. In a community drug-abuse intervention effort, this phase would deal with the specifically identified and

mutually agreed-upon goals and objectives to be achieved.

Intervention Phase I is not primarily concerned with changing specific skills and behaviors identified for modification in the target population and is not primarily designed to foster improved communication networks. This Phase also does not attempt to directly improve the level of interpersonal functioning of those involved in assessing needs and developing goals. When this occurs, as it often does, so much the better; however, it is incidental to the basic task of setting objectives for improving the individual, group, or institution. In short, Phase I is a task-oriented, collaborative approach to identifying problem areas and then generating agreed-upon remedial, preventive, developmental, or ecological objectives. It is expected that these initial objectives will be subject to renegotiation during subsequent Phases II, III, and IV.

Intervention Phase II focuses on the team-building or relationship intervention phase whereby interpersonal trust, openness, interdependence, improved communication networks, and working relationships are sought. A certain amount of group cohesiveness and team spirit is often incidentally developed and carried over from Phase I goal-setting activities.

There are as many ways to approach team-building as there are successful teachers, coaches, administrators, and

human relations consultants. Successful team-building methods therefore run the gamut, for example, from those employed by martinet-like football coaches to those used by non-directive alternative-school coordinators. A basic assumption here is that the primary building block of any group is the team. According to Schein and Bennis (1965), any given group or team is made up of those who work together to discharge that part of the total group's work for which they share responsibility. Such groups or teams have the basic elements of all groups, including a power system, group standards, and, most importantly, relations within an environment containing other groups; i.e., above, beside, and below them. Thus, the major purpose of Phase II is to help maximize the team's effectiveness in attaining their group's objectives. For example, in a dyadic counseling situation, Phase II might be represented by the conscious and systematic verbal and non-verbal counselor behavior introduced to create warmth, trust, openness, empathy, and mutuality with the counselee. In a physical education curriculum intervention, Phase II activities might include teacher-pupil designed high-risk gymnastics exercises requiring demanding peer-group interdependence for pupil safety, coupled appropriate integrative group discussion. Referring to the community drug-abuse intervention example, the Phase II activities might employ standard N.T.L.-type laboratory training exercises designed to "unfreeze" volunteers and

thereby facilitate openness, interpersonal trust, and information sharing among the participants (Schein and Bennis, 1965).

Intervention Phase III programs are frequently dependent on the outcome of Phase I work since Phase III deals with the specific strategies, methods, skills attainment, indicated therapy, etc., necessary for achieving the Phase I goals. Specific attention to individual, group, and organizational development and acquisition of related skills normally constitutes the Phase III agenda.

For example, if a Phase I objective is to introduce psychological-education components into the physical education curriculum, a Phase III function might be to help develop teacher skill in combining student "education-of-self" learnings with basketball skills development. Or, in a dyadic counseling situation, a microcounseling approach to improving self-expression skills might be an appropriate Phase III response to a Phase I client-goal of improving verbal sharing behavior. And, in a community drug-abuse intervention, a Phase III prescription might suggest that community lay-counselors participate in specified micro-counseling-skills training activities prior to commencing their outreach efforts.

Here again, as in Phase II, the objectives and goals previously established may be renegotiated and modified by

mutual consent of the appropriate parties.

Intervention Phase IV represents a logical extension of the initial three phases. This phase is concerned with creating an outreach impact on the larger environment; i.e., to help insure that individual, group, and organizational behavior changes and skills are effectively relayed and implemented into the broader community. For example, newly trained "trainees" may in turn become trainers, thereby helping to "refreeze" their newly acquired skills while at the same time serving to transmit these competencies to others (Carkhuff, 1972).

Again using the example of introducing psychological education into the physical education curriculum, an appropriate Phase IV function might involve arranging for the newly-skilled physical education teacher(s) to collaborate with the professional association so as to share and transmit the newly acquired skills to a number of other colleagues. In the dyadic counseling example, the counselee's newly acquired self-expression skills might become the focus for a special class project, whereby the counselee trains classmates in those skills. The Phase IV community drug abuse intervention example might incorporate the concept of having the newly-trained lay-counselors provide inter-personal skills training as a part of their outreach services to the community-at-large (Gluckstern, 1972).

The importance of including Phase IV activities in the overall intervention design cannot be over-emphasized, given the convicting evidence that many traditional behavior change interventions have had questionable positive value (Eysenck, 1965; Bergin, and Garfield, 1972; Carkhuff, 1972). However, the more systematic guidance training methods proposed by Carkhuff (1972), Ivey (1971), and Kagan and Krathwohl (1967), that incorporate the concept of the trainee becoming the trainer, holds considerable promise for improved guidance outcome results. As Carkhuff (Ivey, 1971) has stated, "just as we can train counselor-candidates in a systematic way to demonstrate helpful behaviors, so also can we train clients in useful behaviors."

Many traditional learning interventions may have been ineffective simply because the client skills learned related to the therapeutic situation and did not prove helpful in the back-home situation. For example, Campbell and Dunnette (1968) investigated the effectiveness of the transfer of skills from typical T-group training to back-home situations and found little subsequent effect or impact within the target organization.

The Phase IV approach stresses on-site training interventions where possible, with positive outreach outcomes as a major criteria of whether or not the intervention is successful.

Successful interventions may be initiated at any one

of the four phases that seems susceptible, providing the other phases are appropriately incorporated. In discussing their rules for promoting human behavior change, Phillips and Weiner (1966) for instance, indicate that a target system may be entered wherever possible and that it is often advantageous: (1) to enter as close as possible to the point of desired change, and (2) to deal with those factors most closely related with the output to be altered.

Finally, it is theoretically possible, and perhaps in some situations desirable, to design a simultaneous intervention situation that: (1) will elicit mutually arrived-at goals and objectives (Phase I); (2) accomplish a considerable amount of team-building (Phase II); (3) evidence substantial amounts of human skills acquisition (Phase III); and (4) demonstrate a positive transmittal impact on the larger community (Phase IV). In this instance, Phase IV might occur simultaneously where the primary session is "fishbowed" in a large group setting while being televised to a larger community.

The specific type of intervention most appropriate for a given target population is dependent upon the analysis of each situation.

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