The effect of sociodrama on average daily attendance and concept of self

Barnette McGhee White
Atlanta University

Follow this and additional works at: http://digitalcommons.auctr.edu/dissertations

Part of the Counseling Commons

Recommended Citation
THE EFFECT OF SOCIODRAMA ON AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE
AND CONCEPT OF SELF

ABSTRACT

Barnette McGhee White
Atlanta University

The large predominantly Black high school in DeKalb County, Georgia, selected as the locale of the study had an enrollment of 1,391 students during the 1974-75 school year. Of these 1,391 students, 267 were enrolled in the tenth grade. Of these 267 tenth graders, 56 were identified from student attendance reports as being frequently absent from school. It was upon these 56 frequently absent students that the attention of this research was focused.

The purpose of the study was to evaluate the effectiveness of using Sociodrama in group counseling as a technique for increasing the average daily school attendance and the self-image of these high school students, in comparison with one counseling group where an Eclectic technique was used and one group which did not receive any type of structured counseling. It was hypothesized that students in the Sociodrama group would attend school more regularly, feel better about themselves as students and that their teachers would think more highly of them.

The 56 students were randomly placed in three groups; 14 students in the Eclectic Counseling group, 14 students in the Sociodrama counseling
group and 28 students in the Control group. The counseling groups met in 50 minutes, twice-weekly, counseling sessions for 8 weeks led by the same two co-facilitators. Pre and post testing and data collection were done on (a) the students average daily attendance before and during the experimental period, (b) the students mean scores on the How I See Myself scale (I. Gordon) before and after the experimental period, and (c) the mean rating scores the teachers gave the students on the Florida Key (W. W. Purkey, B. N. Cage, and W. Graves), before and after the experimental period.

Minor hypotheses were tested by the use of an analysis of variance, and when so indicated, the "t" test was used for specific comparisons. There were no statistically significant differences in average daily attendance, student concept of self as a student, nor teacher perceptions of students for the three groups involved. The groups were the same at the beginning of the period of time in question and they were the same at the end. It is noted, however, that there were significant changes pre versus post mean score ratings on the How I See Myself scale and the Florida Key. There was no way of attributing these changes to the effectiveness of any type of group counseling or to no counseling at all. The significant differences between the data collected before and after the experimental period on these instruments were noted for all three groups and in the same positive direction.
What does seem to be operating is the Hawthorne effect. The students had attention focused on them and therefore felt better about themselves as students. The teachers were aware that the students were receiving some kind of treatment reported to be beneficial to them and therefore saw the students in such a more positive light as to rate them significantly higher. If this were true, then it is also possible that the students sensed a more positive change in the teachers' perception of them and therefore behaved differently and felt differently about themselves as students. Friendly attention may be the key after all.
THE EFFECT OF SOCIODRAMA ON AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE
AND CONCEPT OF SELF

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF ATLANTA UNIVERSITY, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
in
GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING

by

BARNETTA McGHEE WHITE

ATLANTA UNIVERSITY, ATLANTA GEORGIA
AUGUST, 1975
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES ............................................................. iii

DEDICATION ........................................................................ vi

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ....................................................... vii

CHAPTER

I. INTRODUCTION .............................................................. 1

   Evolution and Statement of the Problem ......................... 1
   Rationale .......................................................................... 5
   Limitations and Assumptions .......................................... 9

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE ................................ 11

   Literature Related to Average Daily Attendance ............... 11
   Literature Related to Concept of Self ............................. 31
   Literature Related to Sociodrama .................................... 48
   Chapter Summary ........................................................ 70

III. RESEARCH DESIGN ....................................................... 73

   Operational Definition of Terms ................................. 73
   Hypothesis and Analysis .............................................. 75
   Experimental Instruments .......................................... 78
   Selection and Description of the Subjects ....................... 84
   Procedures ..................................................................... 95

IV. PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA ......................... 103

V. DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS ............................ 128

APPENDIX A: Instruments ................................................. 142

APPENDIX B: Correspondence ........................................... 146

BIBLIOGRAPHY ............................................................... 149
LIST OF TABLES

1. Description of the Subjects by Sex of Group Members ........................................ 90

2. Description of the Subjects by Sex of the Head of Household ...................................... 91

3. Description of the Subjects by the Occupation of the Head of the Household .................. 93

4. Group Means of Average Daily Attendance for the Second Quarter of Instruction, Before the Experiment Began ................................................................. 103

5. Analysis of Variance Between Experimental and Control Groups on Average Daily Attendance at the End of the Second Quarter, N = 56 ......................................................... 104

6. Average Daily Attendance for Groups from the Beginning of Their Eighth Grade .................. 105

7. Average Daily Attendance by Quarters for Group I = Eclectic, Group II = Sociodrama and Group III = Control; During Grades Eight, Nine, and Ten ................................................... 106

8. Average Daily Attendance for the Third Quarter; Experimental Quarter .................................. 107

9. Significance of Mean Differences between ADA Second Quarter and ADA Third Quarter for the Three Groups, Pre and Posttest ................................................................. 108

10. Analysis of Variance between Experimental and Control Groups on Average Daily Attendance During the Third Quarter. N = 56 & 3 .............................................................................. 109

11. Multiple Classification of Analysis of Variance between the Three Groups on the HISM Factor of Teacher-School, Pre-Post, Groups Pooled N = 51 ......................................................... 112
12. Multiple Classification of Analysis of Variance between the Three Groups on the HISM Factor of Interpersonal Adequacy, Groups Pooled N = 51

13. Multiple Classification of Analysis of Variance between the Three Groups on the HISM Factor of Academic Adequacy, Pre-Post, Groups Pooled N = 51

14. Contrasts of Pre-Post Mean Differences Relating to the Factor of Teacher-School for the Three Groups N = 51

15. Contrasts of Pre-Post Mean Differences Relating to the Factor of Interpersonal Adequacy for the Three Group N = 51

16. Contrasts of Pre-Post Mean Differences Relating to the Factor of Academic Adequacy N = 51

17. Pre-Test Means of Teacher Ratings on the Florida Key

18. Analysis of Variance between the Three Groups on the Pre-Test for the Florida Key as They Were Rated at the Beginning of the Third Quarter

19. Analysis of Variance between the Three Groups in the Areas of Relating and Coping, Pre-Test, Florida Key

20. Summary of the Statistically Significant Differences in Mean Scores on the Pre-Test of the Florida Key in the Areas of Relating, Investing, and Coping

21. The Post-Test Group Means of the Total Scores on the Florida Key

22. Analysis of Variance between the Three Groups on the Post-Test for the Florida Key as They Were Rated at the end of the Third Quarter

23. Total Pre-Post Means for the Ratings Teachers Gave the Students on the Florida Key

24. Multiple Classification of Analysis of Variance between the Three Groups Pre-Post, the Florida Key, The Groups Pooled
25. Significance of Mean Differences between Pre-Test and Post-Test Ratings Teachers Gave Students on the Florida Key, Across Variables. Group I = Eclectic, Group II = Sociodrama, Group III = Control Group . . . . . . . . . . . 126
DEDICATION

To my children, Richard and Patricia who always manage to enhance my concept of self.

To all the members of the huge McGhee family who were responsible for much of the development of that same concept of self.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

"No man is an Island, entire of itself; Every man is a piece of the Continent, a part of the main..."

John Donne

Thanks is never enough;

To Dr. James H. Hinson, Jr., superintendent of the DeKalb County Schools and Dr. Donald G. Schultz, assistant superintendent, who gave me the permission to make this study under conditions I could live with...

To Ed Bowie, assistant superintendent in this same school system, who became a friend for life because he would not let me give up...

To Leo Smith, principal, who visibly blanched at some requests, yet still believed in my commitment to all our children...

To Dr. Eleanor Rowe, major advisor, who was with me from the beginning; who supported me with patience and challenged me to give just a little bit more...

To Dean Huey Charlton, Dr. Louis Shilling, and Dr. Robert Smothers, who read this report with critical eyes and offered invaluable suggestions and unfailing support...

To each and every member of the faculty of Atlanta University
who touched my life and by so doing, made me stretch and reach for
heights I had only vaguely dreamed of...

To Dr. Robert Byers, statistician, who made the language of
computers sound orderly and reasonable...

To Gerald Birdwell for the same help in statistical analysis...

Last, but not least, to the Rocky Mountain Soroptimists, who
started it all by believing in me when no one else did...

Thanks is never enough.
CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Evolution and Statement of the Problem

If, indeed, the schools are a reflection of society at large, then it is not surprising that the current scene in education is one of expansion and rapid cultural, social, and economic change (Bachman, Green & Wirtanen, 1971). It has been said that the curriculum is no longer relevant in meeting the needs of the students (Morse, 1972; Sparks, 1974). Modern jargon addresses itself to doing your own thing and being your own person. Students who feel that the schools do not meet their needs drop out of school and sometimes out of life (Kannel & Sayles, 1974). If they stay in school, social promotion moves them passively from one grade to the next.

Individualizing instruction and enriching and revising curriculum still do not prevent students from dropping out, or at best, attending sporadically. Far too many have not acquired the basic skills needed to make useful and productive citizens (Kannel & Sayles, 1974; Lacy, 1968). This results in an inestimable loss to the individual and to society.

Students report feelings of alienation from the world, and confusion concerning their roles in it. A conversation overheard recently in a
gathering of teachers reflected their despair of teaching students who are seldom present, and when attending, appear disinterested in the usual surroundings and disruptive of the typical school setting.

School systems consider the intermittent attendance of their students one of their most annoying problems. Attempts to solve it are often met with frustrating difficulty. This intermittent attendance is reflected in the average daily attendance (ADA), the strongly formed economic base for public education as we know it.

The establishment of the Minimum Foundation for Education Program by the General Assembly of Georgia, is found in Code Section 32-602 of the Georgia School Laws (1972). These laws establish and maintain minimum standards for public schools, with the State Board of Education enforcing these minimum standards. The Board also establishes a schedule of minimum salaries for services rendered. Code Section 32-611 of the Georgia School Laws also requires the Board of Education to "annually allot teachers to local units of administration on the basis of one teacher per 25 pupils in average daily attendance in grades one through three and in grades eight through twelve, and one teacher per 28 pupils in average daily attendance in grades four through seven..." Section 32-612 also allots "...other certificated professional personnel...on basis of average daily attendance..." (underlining added).

It is a function of the State to provide educational opportunities for all its citizens. How this function is carried out is a local responsibility.
How well this responsibility can be carried out rests, in part, with the pupil-teacher ratio, the physical plant and the equipment in the plants. These numbers of teachers, kinds of plants and types of equipment, are determined in a large measure by the ADA. When students do not come to school, it lowers the ADA and results in thousands of dollars lost to individual school systems. But the ultimate loss is to the students themselves.

As our society is presently structured, the public schools are the location where the majority of its citizens go at some point in time for various reasons. One function of the schools is to teach the skills needed by the citizen to become a functioning member of society. Another reason for the school's existence is to perpetuate the culture and to serve as the agent in the socialization process for its citizens. School attendance is important enough for all states to have some kind of mandatory attendance laws.

It is also important for individuals to think well of themselves and have others think well of them. This self image is generally believed to be learned (Erikson, 1963; McCandless, 1967). It is believed that those who think well of themselves and of whom others think well are better able to reach the goals which society has set for the schools, than those whose self image are negative (Davidson & Lang, 1971; Jones & Grieneeks, 1970; Jones & Strowig, 1968; Olsen, 1970).

How do we get the students into the schools? How do we keep them there long enough to teach them the skills needed to become useful,
productive citizens? How do we open lines of communication so that they can make their needs known to us, so that we, in turn, can make the curriculum more relevant and helpful to them and therefore more beneficial to society? What kind of common decoding device can we use so that they can express their thoughts, and feelings to us and to each other, so that mutual relationships in the environment may be improved?

To motivate students to want to come to school is a real problem. To motivate them to want to learn once they are there is even more of a problem. Somehow ways must be found by which these students can be reached. Somehow these students must be taught the necessary skills which society demands of them. As long as the public schools are the focal points of the acculturation and the socialization of the citizenry of this country, it is very important that students come to school. The following procedure is offered as an alternate way of motivation.

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the effectiveness of using sociodrama as a technique for increasing the average daily school attendance and the self image of high school students, in comparison with one group where an eclectic technique is used, and one group which will not receive any type of structured counseling. It is hypothesized that students in the sociodrama group will attend school more regularly, feel better about themselves, and that their teachers will think highly of them.
Rationale

The basic philosophy of the educational system in the United States places emphasis on teaching as opposed to learning. Teaching implies one way communication; learning leaves room for a flow of communication from teacher to student and vice-versa. Schools operate on the premise of performance by the students. Performance is based on a set of standards determined for students. To achieve this high performance it is necessary to exhibit behavior which conforms and is consistent with these standards. Those students who display the desired behavior which is consistent with these standards are rewarded by accolades, higher performance ratings and a higher status in the school community. Those students who display behavior inconsistent with the norm are for the most part subject to penalties of various kinds and few serious efforts are made to structure an environment where these students can feel a part of the total school community.

The Importance of Communication

The spoken language is a vital form of communication. Yet words which are heard are sometimes misunderstood. The use of body language in conjunction with words has been advocated as a means of facilitating accurate communication (Dubner, 1972; Ruesch & Kees, 1970). Facial expression, gestures, body movements, all make up this language. Body language is seldom, if ever, misunderstood and it is the basic form of

Words which are written or spoken must be read or heard to be understood, and they depend upon a patterned, progressional sequence for clear understanding. Nonverbal communication, on the other hand, such as that received from objects or gestures, is based upon simultaneous multiple sensory impressions (Ruesch & Kees, 1970).

This can be graphically illustrated by traveling in a foreign land or by finding oneself in a gathering of persons where the language being spoken is other than one's own. Facial expressions, tone of voice, and gestures all communicate or convey a feeling of friendliness or hostility as the case may be. Body movement toward or away from the viewer convey acceptance or rejection. The universality of nonverbal communication permits persons who speak different languages to communicate with each other.

Experience in or observation of most any public school classroom would lead one to believe that surely in this place different languages are being spoken; one by the teacher, the other by the students. If communication is established, recurring breakdowns in it are apt to occur (Dubner, 1972; Hardy & Cull, 1973). A common decoding device must be found for true communication to take place. The school community must become a place truly accessible to all members of the populace. Only by such openness can the objectives of society be reached and its future leadership directed and prepared for the awesome responsibility of governing themselves.
Need for the Study

This writer urges the use of the technique of sociodrama in counseling. It has built into it this common decoding device which is needed to facilitate communication between members of the school community.

The theory of sociodrama as a counseling technique was tested by this writer during the summer of 1973 with a group of twenty Upward Bound students in the Atlanta Trio program. The suggestions to the participants were that they try out roles with which they were familiar concerning problems of mutual concern. From the group came the ideas for the situations to be explored. Roles freely switched back and forth as the situations which were important to these particular participants were thought about, talked about, and acted out. Always, at the end of the acting, a discussion filled in the gaps and finished the situations. The sessions saw the quiet ones speak out with assurance that their ideas would be respected and listened to while those who appeared to be accustomed to center stage learned to listen to the ideas of others.

At the end of the summer it seemed that the participants were acting in a much more assured manner than they had been at the beginning. They appeared to have a better understanding of the many facets of the problems which concerned them and they seemed to be more aware of alternate ways
of behaving or reacting to a given situation. The acting in a more self-assured manner and apparently improved interpersonal relations led one to believe that their concepts of self had also changed in a positive direction.

From this experience, it was decided to try to determine if this apparent positive result of sociodrama could be repeated under more controlled conditions. Being fully aware that concept of self resides within the individual it was decided to use sociodrama as a tool for changing social behaviors and then to determine if this changed behavior would have an influence on concept of self. Being most concerned with adolescence and public school education, this writer decided that a public school would be the correct setting to test this theory empirically.

The educational system in the United States has been hard pressed to meet the needs of the changing technology of civilization. This difficulty has put extreme pressure on youth to perform to the set standards of society. These standards have been enforced seemingly oblivious to the needs of youth as identified by them. Once standards have been set, those who do not conform to these standards are ostracized and become alienated from the very system of which they are a part. This ostracism and alienation manifests itself in forms of overt behavior such as truancy and excessive absenteeism.

This writer is convinced that a technique must be found which offers students greater flexibility in their ways of responding. Students don't
conform because they see no need to conform. What sociodrama does is that it allows students to feel that they are a part of the system. The way that it does this is by opening channels of communication for interaction between student and teacher and between student and student. It relates to concept of self in that by facilitating interaction, the student can see that the system can be beneficial to him in obtaining his goals, and that he is important in the scheme of things. This technique can give him the opportunity to try out alternate patterns of behavior which are necessary in establishing and building trust between the participants involved, thereby making the students more receptive to their learning environment. It is hoped that the student will want to come often to a place where he perceives the environment as being one which values him.

Limitations and Assumptions

The primary concern of this study was to observe the difference and correlations on the variables of average daily attendance, student concept of self, and teacher perceptions of students, for the three groups of students enrolled in a large, predominantly Black high school. The major limitation of this research is that it was not designed to isolate, identify, and interpret the causative factors which might adhere in and be pertinent to differences and correlations among the topics of study.

The most restrictive limitation inherent in attempting any study in a school system is the inability to control suspensions and expulsions of the
students from school. The regular work of the school must go on with as little interruption as possible. To attempt a study to improve attendance and not to have control over voluntary attendance is a real limitation.

Another limitation inherent in this study is that it involved only tenth grade students. These tenth grade students attended a large, predominantly Black high school in Georgia. It is possible that studies involving students of other grades in different surroundings might produce different results.

This study does not deal with the question of whether there is a self-concept or not; nor if it can be measured or not. The existing theories of self are often vague, contradictory, inconclusive, suffer from a lack of generalizability and are extremely difficult to test empirically (Gaier & White, 1965). The difficulty in measuring self-concept is the same kind of difficulty which is encountered in measuring all aspects of human personality.

This writer operated from the assumption that there is a concept of self, that inferences about it can be made from self-report statements, and that it is made up of how one sees oneself and how one thinks others see him (Olsen, 1970). Also operating is the assumption that this assessment of self is best done by the individual himself.

This study does not deal with the weakness inherent in self-report techniques but assumed that the respondent reports this concept of self as accurately as he can, at the time asked and in the way which he honestly feels (Jones & Grieneeks, 1970). These reports are considered accurate and reliable (Jones & Strowig, 1968).
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Literature Related to Average Daily Attendance

Nature and Scope of the Problem

Public school education is something most Americans take for granted. It was something that our ancestors cherished greatly. Some mention of the need to educate the citizenry is mentioned in our earliest laws. A well-informed citizenry was considered from the very beginning of our fledgling colonial government to be the best way to insure the freedom of this new country. This value of education is seen in the early land grant colleges which the various states established to educate its inhabitants beyond the basic skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic. Its importance has not diminished today, yet the headlines in daily newspapers would lead one to believe that something certainly has gone amiss in the educational process.

Besides reading, writing, and arithmetic, there is a decided move toward educating the whole child. Unceasing pressure is placed on the schools to measure up to some standard national "norm", which may or may not have validity to the particular system in question. Students are encouraged to participate in sports and other extracurricular activities which
help to develop the "well-rounded" individual. Yet, there are those who say that this trend has gone too far when we have high school graduates who can barely read. P. Scott (1975), writing in the Atlanta Journal and Constitution states that Georgia schools have scored below the national average on the tests selected for use state-wide. The opponents of this large scale testing voice their opinions that statistics are juggled and that inaccurate reporting occurs. Plans are now under foot, nevertheless, to beef up the high school curriculum and demand that students must have even more credits to graduate. The dichotomy continues: hard-core academics on the one hand, educate the whole child on the other.

The Senate Subcommittee on Juvenile Delinquency surveyed more than 500 U.S. school districts and came to the conclusion that there is a crisis in our schools with violence and vandalism running rampant (Cutts, The Atlanta Constitution, 1975). It would appear that some students are neither studying academics nor participating in extracurricular activities of the formal kind, but are disrupting classes, intimidating teachers and fellow students alike, and in general being a nuisance to themselves as well as to others. Yet, across the nation, there is a growing concern about those who don't come to school at all, at least not often enough to learn the basic skills needed in this technological society.

This problem is national in its scope (Thomson & Stanard, 1975). The National Association of Secondary School Principals conducted a poll among its members who rated poor attendance their most serious problem,
even over discipline, by a margin of two to one. This was true in 1973 and again in 1974, and the problem worsens every day. Many man hours needed to teach the students and administer to the school are spent on trying to manage this perplexing problem. With health officials considering seven to nine days a year as a normal absentee rate per student, administrators are finding in some locations an absentee rate up to and above 30 percent, with rates of 10 to 15 percent being common.

Why don't the students come to school?

This is a multifarious problem, as research in this area will bear out. Inadequate curriculum, family attitudes, peer pressures, economic circumstances, home-school-community relationships, parents who have lost control, parents who don't care, teachers who put students down, lack of enforcement of legal attendance laws; all have had the finger of blame pointed in their direction. The picture becomes even more clouded when a statistical analyst computes school retention rates by the Office of Education to indicate that young people today stay in school much longer than did their mothers and fathers (Grant, 1973).

Most research concerning poor school attendance is done implicitly or explicitly with the disadvantaged in mind. These are the various minorities who are minorities because they must deal in an environment governed by a majority. These youths who leave school without finishing their high school educations are certainly additionally handicapped by this lack of academic
and/or occupational training. The alternatives which this society offers these idle youth are few, if any. Alternative ways must be found to reach them before they make that final step out into this highly structured and organized society.

The scope of the problem of nonattendance includes so many students that their actual numbers are unknown because they are not enrolled (Regal, Elliott, Grossman, & Morse, 1971). Because they are not enrolled, they are not an educational problem but rather a societal one. There is a great need for parents and professionals to act aggressively to enroll children in order to protect their rights. They are excluded at the point of entry for many reasons. Perhaps the school says that they are not old enough or that the special services needed are not available. Parents often are not aware enough to take the necessary steps to see that the child is enrolled. Conversely, nonenrollment may show parental rejection or indifference. Most states have compulsory attendance laws, but they are rarely enforced. In a highly mobile society, frequent moves by the family make enrolling the child in school after each move too time-consuming and bothersome for many.

The unidentified includes the nonenrolled plus those enrolled but not attending, or only attending sporadically. It is implied that these students had many options open to them and chose the option of not attending. This is not always the case. The educational system has many ways of excluding those who do not or will not conform. Many of these ways are illegal or extralegal in form. Some districts use the form of continuous
suspension. The student is suspended for the maximum length of time permitted by the district and when that time nears its end, he is suspended again. The unidentified is forced out by coercion, rejection, or by repeated feelings of failure. He drifts away and few seem to be aware of his drifting.

The untreated is a recognized problem because he usually exhibits some kind of deviant behavior. Services to treat his problem are not provided for various reasons. The usual reason given is that the services are not available or that there is a long waiting list or backlog of those like him waiting for treatment.

The chronic nonattender usually becomes that way after a long period of physical and psychological harassment. Over the years the physical harassment has become less of a problem, but the psychological harassment continues. In this case, the children of the middle class are not excluded. Those who dress in an extreme fashion or wear their hair longer or different from others open themselves up for harassment. Anything which is new or different is viewed as a threat to the status quo. What disturbs teachers most is any behavior which is different from their own. Emphasis is placed on authority and the keeping of a quiet classroom rather than teaching the child as he is. The student's behavior is interpreted in terms of role perspectives that are other than his own (Regal, et al., 1971).

The problem of attendance is nationwide and is on the upswing (Thomson & Stanard, 1975). One of the most definitive studies done in this area is one done by Lavanto (1973) in a large public high school in
Connecticut. Absenteeism was defined in this case as missing the entire day from school. Isolated class cutting was not considered. The findings were as follows:

1. Wednesday, Thursday, and days of important test or examinations had the lowest absenteeism.

2. Boys had lower absentee rates than girls, except in their senior year of high school when their rates were higher.

3. Absenteeism increased with each succeeding class and age group.

4. Those from homes where both parents were present were absent less often than those who lived with only one parent or guardian.

5. Those who participated in more than one extracurricular activity were absent less frequently than those who were involved in only one or none of these activities.

6. Blacks had generally higher absentee rates than Whites.

7. Those of the Jewish faith had the lowest rate of absenteeism, followed by Catholic, other religions, Protestants and those who reported no religion.

8. Those students whom teachers rated poor on a personality scale generally had higher absentee rates.

Lavanto's study pointed up the need for a systematic method for the collection of data so as to identify and analyze the many factors related to absenteeism. This study, along with the others reviewed, describes the potential dropout. Yet only the tip of the iceberg appears.
There is general agreement that schooling is important. Even the most disenchanted will agree that the school is the entry point for jobs. As such, it should serve as a developer of skills that may be a prerequisite for employment. A 1969 Bureau of Census report shows 450,000 noninstitutionalized children aged 6 to 15, not enrolled in school (Regal, et al., 1971). This report is considered an underestimate because it was a projection based upon a 50,000 sample. It is not unreasonable to assume that pockets of the poor and/or disadvantaged have been overlooked.

School census reports could be used to gather this data, but not all states conduct a school census. There appears to be a need for more precise data. A request made of the 50 states for information on non-attendance was not profitable to a group of social scientists and educators meeting in Washington, D.C. during the summer of 1970. It was their conclusion that state educational agencies and school districts appear threatened by such requests (Regal, et al., 1971).

Factors Identified With Dropping Out

It is virtually impossible to speak of the attendance problem without using the term "dropout" (Lacy, 1968; Morse, 1972; Walters & Kranzler, 1970). It is most unlikely and would be highly unusual for a student to wake up one morning and think to himself that he is going to drop out
of school that day (Hilton, 1972). The problem is an evolving one which begins in the early grades and is closely related to poor attendance. Lacy (1968) identified these factors which seem to distinguish the potential dropout from the one most likely to remain in school.

1. Sex--More boys than girls drop out

2. Attendance--An active dislike of school does not have to be verbally expressed, but the student is frequently absent from school. This pattern of absences increases from the elementary grades to the high school

3. Scholastic Aptitude--Those categorized as slow learners, or who in some way showed that school was difficult for them, tended to drop out of school

4. Reading Ability--In some studies three times as many poor readers and/or those who were one or more years below the national norms in reading scores, tended to be the potential dropouts. So much attention has been paid to this one factor that many researchers consider it the most significant single factor in predicting dropouts.

5. Overage for Grade--The slow learners (scholastic aptitude), and those who don't read very well (reading ability) are also apt to repeat one or more grades in school and thus end up being older than their peers

6. Course of Study--Very seldom do those who are in the college preparatory course drop out before finishing high school, rather it is
those who are in the general or vocational courses who are more apt to
discontinue their education.

Walters & Kranzler (1970) used ninth graders as their subjects
and identified them by two opposite names: dropouts or persisters. Data
collected for this study fell into the categories of (1) Grade point average,
(2) Reading, (3) Arithmetic, (4) I.Q., (5) Socioeconomic level, (6) Par-
ticipation in extracurricular activities, (7) Retention, i.e., repeating a
grade, (8) Days absent, and (9) Age. Cross-validation statistical analysis
was used on the data. The results were eleven combinations of variables
which were considered predictors. Each of the eleven combinations included
socioeconomic level. Reading and I.Q. were included in seven (7) of the
eleven predictor combinations of variables. Arithmetic achievement
appeared in 8 of the 11 combinations while age appeared in 9 of the
combinations.

Eight of the above listed variables were obtained and presented as
they appeared at the beginning of the ninth grade. The single exception
is the variable, "days absent". It will be noted that the other categories
extend into the past for their acquisition. In my opinion, had a pattern of
days absent been established, this factor would possibly have had more
weight as a predictor of dropouts. This would seem to be a major weakness
in this study. Within the framework of this limitation, age, I.Q., arithmetic
achievement, and father's occupation appeared to be the four most accurate predictors in identifying potential dropouts than any of the other combinations.

Inadequate and irrelevant curriculum and failure of teachers and administrators to enter into the phenomenological field of their students is cited by Morse (1972) as a major factor contributing to school dropouts and stayouts. He believes that no one really listens to or believes these students' perceptions of their lives as they live it. Working class parents in the school district where he worked have a difficult time listening to and attending to the needs of their offspring after a long, hard day of work. For this same child to come to a school where his ideas and beliefs are not respected does nothing for his self-esteem. He sees school as a hostile, alien environment where order is to be maintained at all costs, and manners and respect are cherished acquisitions which bring rewards. The street is far more exciting and interesting. He believes that the school guarantees that the student who cannot adjust to being on time, or being there at all, will certainly be a dropout because his life there is one big hassle.

Enumerating reasons why students leave school and suggesting remedies to the problem have been the topic of many discussions and printed articles. Freedland (1973) lists twenty-one of them. The reasons fall into the major categories of (1) financial, (2) scholastic, and (3) school-student rapport. The reasons include, but are not limited to: the instructor does not motivate the student, the instructors fail to notice
students who become bored and slip behind, irrelevancy of the school program, feeling of the student that he is in an alien environment, misunderstanding and lack of communication, and the lack of sustained and effective counseling.

Under the auspices of the United States Office of Education, a longitudinal study of young men was conducted by the Survey Research Center of the University of Michigan (Bachman, Green and Wirtanen, 1971). The major concern was to try to isolate dropping out as a problem in itself or to determine if it is only a symptom of other problems in our society.

It was found that if a student had a history of delinquent behavior in school, he would stand a much better than average chance of becoming a dropout. If he had been held back in elementary school, he was four times as likely to drop out. Self-concept of school ability, as isolated from total self-concept, also was highly correlated with being a dropout. It was also found that self-concept of school ability is highest when family socioeconomic level is high, number of siblings is few, and family relations appear to be good. For those students who did not have a very high self-concept of school ability, feelings of inadequacy and personal defeat were noted.

Positive school attitudes were shown by those who saw the value of homework. This was seen as a motivational factor for staying in school and as an indication of a commitment to education. Schooling was seen as
important, not only just practical, but that learning itself was a worthwhile objective.

Those who expressed negative attitudes on the other hand, rated their courses in school as "slightly dull" to "very dull", and that the experiences gained out of school were vastly more relevant to them. Nothing breeds success like success, and those who expressed negative attitudes toward school had experienced very little success there. Past educational success or failure proved to be the most important predictor of future educational attainment.

Although family background plays a part in the student's attitudes toward school, it has much of its effect through intellectual ability as an intervening variable. Unlike some other studies, this research concludes:

The results indicate that there is a good deal of impact from academic skills, performance and attitudes that cannot be traced back to family background characteristics; indeed, almost half of our ability to predict educational attainment is independent of family background (Bachman, et al., 1971 [p. 74]).

This problem was studied and analyzed through data submitted by the principals, teachers and pupil personnel workers who worked in Title I schools in the District of Columbia during the school year of 1967-68 (Neyman, 1969). While developing a form for identifying potential dropouts in the District of Columbia schools, certain factors emerged. (1) Health problems had little relationship to potential dropouts. (2) Behavior problems
are highly correlated with potential dropouts. (3) Students with behavior problems do not have health problems. (4) Principals and pupil personnel teams related unfavorable homes and undesirable personal characteristics with absenteeism and economic need, (5) Economic need is believed to be associated with absenteeism. It is exceedingly difficult to determine the actual cause of dropping out without extensive follow-up outside the school.

Some follow-up has been done. The studies which tell us what the people have to say themselves about why they dropped out of school give added insight into this complicated problem. Kannel & Sayles (1974) listened to their students in a county's adult education program and in the women's prison. These were the misfits who had for one reason or the other stopped attending school. These were the ones whom our educational system had failed.

Some believed that schooling was all responsibilities and that they had no rights at all to voice their opinions. They found school boring with nonsensical rules which had nothing to do with the learning process. Teachers and administrators were seen by some as being biased and close-minded with superior attitudes. More than one told of humiliating experiences and practices which they considered unfair. They did not believe that anyone there really cared about them.
Intervention Strategies

Some school districts have moved in the direction of establishing alternative programs for their students who have dropped out of the regular school. Many of these have met with some measure of success. These less structured and less traditional school settings appeal to students who have failed to succeed in the regular environment. Sparks (1974) describes such a program where credits could be earned by community volunteer work, work experiences, independent study, some classes in the regular high school, and an especially structured workshop where emphasis was placed on communication and interpersonal skills. The goal was to obtain an atmosphere which was informal, warm, and trusting with a sense of freedom and trust. The teachers worked at becoming more aware of their students' goals and ambitions. Students became more aware of themselves and of others through structured, interactive group experiences. This program did not artificially divide the students' school experience into cognitive and affective realms.

Thornburg (1975) identified 154 potential dropouts from a class of 421 entering freshmen in a rural Arizona high school. Thirty-six were randomly selected to be placed in a special academic program while the remaining 118 were placed in vocational educational classes. A control group of 94 students was selected from the regular classroom. He wanted to determine if the special program would hold these potential dropouts in school.
and at the same time change their negative attitudes about school to more positive ones. All of the subjects were from the lower socioeconomic class as determined by family income. The composition of the special program was 41.7 percent Mexican-American, 27.8 percent Black, and 22.2 percent Anglo. The composition of the vocational educational classes was comparable.

The measures used in identifying the potential dropout were:

(1) low academic potential, (2) below average in intelligence, (3) teacher appraisal of each student, (4) attendance records, (5) academic grades, and (6) if they were overaged.

Although the special academic class covered the teaching of English and mathematics, the major focus was on helping the student develop feelings of self-worth and positive attitudes toward school through the use of positive reinforcement techniques. The vocational classes consisted of home economics for the girls and agriculture-shop for the boys. The control group followed their regularly assigned classes. Pretest data were collected the last week in September and posttest data were collected the last week in April.

The special academic program did appear to hold the students in school in that the dropout rate for this group was only 9.2 percent compared to 18.6 percent for the vocational group and 12 percent for those in the regular classroom. While the control group entered the study with a much higher positive attitude toward school than did any of the other two groups, their posttest scores on the opinion questionnaire had so significantly dropped
that there was no statistically significant difference in their scores and the scores of those in the special academic group. The special academic group maintained their group mean on attitudes towards school, while the vocational group did show a slight drop, although not so great as the control group. Conclusions to be drawn would include the effectiveness of special academic programs used as one means of holding potential dropouts in school.

A most difficult task for reasoning ability occurs when one tries to determine the rationale behind the practice of suspending a child from school for nonattendance and/or tardiness. How can preventing a child from coming to school cure him of the deviant behavior of not coming to school?

Suspending a child who is frequently truant is a common approach for dealing with nonattendance. An analysis of elementary school attendance data presents many problems. Distinguished between excused and unexcused, legitimate and illegitimate nonattendance requires intensive study. The evidence is overwhelming that children who fail to complete high school have long records of non-attendance throughout their total school career. Most of the children who will not complete high school are readily identifiable during their elementary school years (Regal, et al., 1971 [p. 17]).

The problem of excused or unexcused absences was solved partially in one Michigan high school by permitting a certain number of absences each semester (Nation's Schools & Colleges, 1975). After this number was exceeded, the student failed that course for the semester. Warnings were sent home to the parents before the final number was reached. In all cases a conference with the parents was held before failure.
Various strategies have been used over the years, even before the problem became so acute, with the goal being to prevent the student from dropping out. These can be divided roughly into counseling and non-counseling strategies (Goodyear, 1974).

Interventions have been tried which used counseling alone, counseling combined with other treatments, and counseling with groups and individually. The chronic nonattendant has been put in special, enriched classes (Kannel & Sayles, 1974), positive reinforcement with its accompanying rewards has been used, discussion groups have been formed, and rap sessions have been held (Goodyear, 1974). The number of subjects has varied from one person (Morse, 1972) to designs with hundreds of subjects (Bachman, Green & Wirtanen, 1971). The length of time involved in treatment ranged in time from a highly structured five-day camping experience (McClelland, 1968) to two years of personal counseling along with a carefully designed curriculum (Thornburg, 1975).

One common theme which seems to run throughout the reported successes was the impact of friendly attention as the real treatment being administered. This factor appeared to be the most consistently determining one in that some measure of success was experienced in some of the strategies which did not include professional counseling, but did include perceived friendship (Goodyear, 1974).
Attendance in Georgia

The latest statistical reports available from the Georgia State Department of Education reveal the following figures concerning students who are actually enrolled in school. These statistics are for the school year of 1972-73 (Statistical Report, 1972-73).

The state had a grand total of 422,132 enrolled in its high schools. There was also an average daily attendance of 347,830.

The number of dropouts was greatest among 9th, 10th, and 11th graders.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Dropouts</th>
<th>Total Enrollment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>grade-9</td>
<td>5,610</td>
<td>98,134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grade-10</td>
<td>7,498</td>
<td>89,742</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grade-11</td>
<td>5,969</td>
<td>72,533</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The number of dropouts by age was greatest among 15, 16, and 17 year olds with the total number of dropouts being 26,916 for that school year.

15 year olds - 5,077
16 year olds - 9,239
17 year olds - 5,970

For the school year of 1972-73, the school system of DeKalb County, Georgia, had enrolled in its high school of grades 8 through 12, a total of
36,423 students. This total broken down by grades:

- grade 8 - 8,158
- grade 9 - 8,224
- grade 10 - 7,659
- grade 11 - 6,801
- grade 12 - 5,581

Of this total of 36,423 students enrolled in high school in the system, there was an average daily attendance of 29,888.

At one of the high schools in the system of DeKalb County, Georgia, the enrollment for grades 8-12 for the school year of 1972-73 was a total of 1,633. The average daily attendance for those grades that year was 1,119 (Georgia Education Statistics, 1972-73).

A headlining article in The Atlanta Journal and Constitution, dated September 16, 1973, stated that DeKalb County lost $2.8 million in revenue (Thomas, 1973). Each day a child is absent from school costs the system at least $3.00 in funds per child. A $2.8 million loss could provide over 300 classroom teachers or reading specialists or librarians. Needed equipment and supply money is allocated by the state to a particular system based on the number of teachers in the system.

The question was put precisely and squarely to Dr. Harriette Matthews, Supervisor of Guidance and Testing in the Department of Pupil Personnel Services of the DeKalb County Schools. Because of her many years of public school service, her views were valued. When this writer was asked her
opinion as to why students were so often absent from school, she replied:

I would say because they do not perceive the work that they are doing, the learning in which they are supposedly involved, as being relevant to their immediate needs . . . They can not see the relevancy in their immediate objectives nor in their long range objectives. Even if an attempt has been made to establish relevancy, it has not been internalized for them . . .

A child can be a psychological dropout at grade one. Depending on the insistence of the parent, his body may continue to be present but psychologically he is absent or attends sporadically. Nothing he does makes sense and the school environment is not satisfying . . . and when the learning climate is hostile to his modus operandi, he takes himself out of it.

Sometimes there is a language barrier . . . There is a home language, a street language, and a school language. There is no good or bad here, not right or wrong. It is a matter of what is the coin of the realm in which the student finds himself. There is a verbal language code, a non-verbal language code, and a visual perception experience which becomes coded verbally or non-verbally. The problem for the student is to learn to decode the messages directed toward him and also to encode them (Matthews, 1975).

**Summary**

The problem of school attendance is multifarious, national in scope, and increasing in severity each year. The operational definition of what a potential dropout is varies widely, from scores on personality inventories to teacher ratings (Neyman, 1969) to actual attrition (Freedland, 1973). A review of the literature of intervention techniques for potential dropouts is a mixed bag of results. These techniques used to help him are so different and the data gathered has been subject to such a variety of research designs that meaningful interpretation of the data is stymied.
Because of this lack of methodological uniformity among the studies, generalizability is difficult. The problem remains as to what to do about this problem of absenteeism, so costly in money and in human lives.

Literature Related to Concept of Self

Parameters of Self

Self-concept is usually defined as the individual's evaluation of himself or the appraisal of the self by the individual himself. It is an idea or general notion one has of oneself; the mental image or opinion one has of oneself. There is much argument as to whether this definition is accurate or not since it is impossible to get inside another person to know exactly how that person sees himself (Combs, Soper & Courson, 1973; Lowe, 1961; Strong & Feder, 1961). By its very nature, self-concept defies definition. Many of the cited authorities agree that there is something functioning in humans that cannot be seen, yet is powerful enough to guide behavior, and that this behavior is a result of the individual's own frame of reference.

Those who believe in the self-concept believe that not only is behavior governed by how one thinks of oneself, but also how the significant others in one's life thinks of one. These significant others influence behavior in many ways (Bain & Anderson, 1974; Berkowitz & Lundy, 1957; Davidson & Lang, 1971; Malpass, 1953; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968; and Thompson, 1974). Rosenberg (1965) found that a close relationship with
fathers was a crucial factor in the development of high self-esteem. Since this study was concerned with adolescents, in a school environment, the significant others in that particular environment are considered to be peers and teachers.

Thompson (1974) found that secondary school pupils generally evaluated themselves favorably, and that when assessing self, the well-adjusted, maladjusted and the delinquent did not differ significantly in their evaluations of self. Her sample started with 1,310 boys and 1,073 girls, in their first year of secondary school, and ended four years later with 1,170 boys and 949 girls. Although all three groups rated themselves well on the semantic differential scale used, there was a great deal of difference in how the maladjusted and the delinquent saw themselves as being rated by others. They rated themselves as being perceived far less favorably than did the well-adjusted students. It is interesting to note that the teachers nominated or pointed out the "bad" or "deviant" students for this study.

The period of adolescence is prolonged in the United States far longer than in many other places in the world. This makes the effect of peers more significant. They influence each other because of the long period of high school attendance. Bain & Anderson (1974) found that the educational plans of students were affected by peer influence. It also appeared that the school's social class affected the college plans of students
independently of parental aspirations. The related opinions and values of peers determined to a great degree the educational plans of adolescents for post high school.

Yet the question remains, why do some students adopt the attitudes and values of their peers and others do not? Berkowitz & Lundy (1957) suggest that there is a personality difference which determines whether one would be influenced by one's peer group or not. They looked for a change score on an attitude questionnaire after one month had elapsed. They found that those who were most apt to change their opinions had low interpersonal confidence and those who did not displayed high interpersonal confidence. Those who had low self-esteem and a strong need for affiliation were susceptible to the influence of others and were most likely to be influenced by their peers. On the other hand, those who had a high degree of sociability which reflected a high degree of confidence also had strong authoritarian personalities and were influenced primarily by authority figures. In fact, those with high interpersonal scores tended to be somewhat hostile toward their peers.

The nature of the relationship established between the student and his teachers is related to a number of educational factors. Malpass (1953) measured the degree of favorableness of students' perceptions of teachers, classmates, discipline, achievement, and school in general at the elementary level. Favorable perceptions toward teachers and achievement correlated highly with grades even when ability was controlled.
Davidson & Lang (1971) studied the relationship between children's perceptions of their teachers' attitudes toward them and their own self-image, academic achievement, and classroom behavior. Children's self-perceptions were found to be similar to their perceptions of teachers' feelings toward them. Also the more favorable the child's perception of his teachers' feelings, the higher the achievement rating.

A study that dramatically demonstrated the effect of teacher attitudes on pupil performance was conducted by Rosenthal & Jacobson (1968). Teachers were told that certain children who had been picked at random, had exceptional ability. These children subsequently outperformed other students of even higher ability, demonstrating what the author termed the "Pygmalion" theory--students, thought to have promise, benefit from the preconceived notions of their teachers since more is expected of them.

A different type of study was conducted by Gordon & Wood (1963). It involved fifth and sixth graders and sought to discover the nature of the relationship between teachers' and students' evaluation of scholastic achievement. It found that teachers were not able to predict with much success the way children would evaluate themselves on self-reports about school and estimations of their own test performance. They also found that students tended to underestimate their ability as well as to overestimate it. The question still could not be answered, however, as to whether the teachers' evaluation of the child shaped his performance on a specific test, nor whether the students perceived this evaluation as a particular threat.
In reviewing the literature on self-concept, one becomes immediately aware of the recent dialogues arguing the existence of a Black concept of self. This concept of self is as defined at the beginning of this section, i.e., concept of self is how we appraise ourselves as well as how we see ourselves as appraised by others. Yet it appears that his concept of self is additionally modified and changed by the life experiences which are uniquely and totally black. In the preface of their book, *The Black Self*, Wyne, White and Coop (1974) re-tell the story an elderly black woman told:

> Yes, we is all the same under God, so we has the same problems, but colored folk has special ones, too. It's the same being colored as white, but it's different being colored, too . . . It's the same, but it's different. [p. xi]

The question as to whether there is such a thing as a particular "self-concept" or psychology which Blacks have which makes them think differently about themselves is one which is debated strongly by many different experts in psychology (Banks, 1972; Barnes, 1972; Jones & Jones, 1972; Nobles, 1972 & 73; Weems, 1973 & 74; and Whittington, 1972).

The complexity of the problem is outlined in depth by Whittington (1972) as he outlines, step by step, the strengths and weaknesses of the different historical and functional approaches to understanding the Black family structure as a means of understanding the Black self. Since all empirical investigations must start with a basic philosophy, any approach which is not cognizant of the African philosophical background of the Black self is irrelevant (Weems, 1973, 1974).
In an interview conducted during the summer of 1973, Weems stated unequivocally that "... Black psychology is a system of concepts and constructs growing out of an African perspective on the nature of man and his relationship to his environment." It differs from psychology as we know it in the Western World because it does not derive its meaning from a European background. For Black people to deny the relevance of the African perspective is to deny "self" and the very core of "being."

This philosophy and rationale for the identity of the Black self based on African philosophy is continued in the same vein by Nobles (1972 & 1973). This philosophy he defines as the understanding, attitude of mind, logic, and perceptions behind the manner in which African people think, act, or speak in different situations of life. This philosophy was the essence of the people's existence in West Africa regardless of the tribe to which one belonged. Nobles asserts that the rigidly enforced isolation of Blacks in the New World actually helped Africans retain this orientation. The policy of racial segregation aided, rather than impeded, the chance of surviving and keeping alive this African influence and indirectly encouraged the retention rather than the destruction of the African philosophical orientation.

These differences can be seen most readily in the whole dimension of language. The linguistic differences have been well documented in the literature. Besides the use of idioms and patois that is uniquely Black, this language is augmented by considerable body language (Weems, 1974). This
body language is a modality for maintaining rhythm in expression as well as acting out that which the language fails to communicate.

**Technique of Measurement**

Although there is little indication that we fully understand just what it is that we are measuring, attempts are still being made to measure self-concept (Lowe, 1961). There are many different measures, so surely one reason, they must measure differently. Coopersmith (1967) names four types of self; what a person says he is, what he really is, what he shows, and what others believe he is. Given these different selves, different ways of measurement are needed. This points to a need to use different ways of determining change in concept of self in this study.

Strong & Feder (1961), in their very definitive critique of the literature with over fifty citations, gives a review of the different ways of measuring the self-concept and the value and limitation inherent in each of the methods reviewed. There are the Q-Sorts, where the subject piles cards up into categories of those "least like me" or "most like me". The Likert-Type methods usually describe traits in sentences and the subject rates himself on a scale of one to five how he thinks he is, most of the time, seldom, often, etc. Other types, such as free-response and various check lists, abound. The authors of the tests attempt to validate them by showing a high correlation with different personality tests, projective techniques and word association games.
There are those who are quick to discredit the self-concept as actually existing at all, because you can't see it, smell it, taste it, or feel it. They are usually called behaviorists and they do have a wide following.

While conceding that there is such a thing as a concept of self, there are those much like Combs, et al. (1963) who question the validity of all self ratings being used as a measure of self-concept. Surely, they reason, no one is going to report negative feelings about himself for other eyes to see. They call these measures self-reports and state that they therefore will rarely, if ever, be identical with the self-concept. They suggest using well trained observers to make notations about behavior, then making inferences from this observed behavior. Of course this depends completely upon the skill and sensitivity of the observer. They do concede that the self-report is one class of behavior by which we might infer self-concept, but that the inferred self, as measured by trained observers, is more valid. For this reason, teacher observations were included in this study.

Combs, et al. came to their conclusions by administering a descriptive, self-perception scale especially constructed by the authors, to fifty nine pupils in the sixth grade class of a university laboratory school. They then asked experienced observers to observe the behavior of the students on the playground, in the classroom, and during an interview, for a total of 1½ hours. The results showed no statistically significant relationship between the scores the children made on the self-report, and the inferred self scores the trained observers gave the same children using the
same scale. Thus, they concluded, that since there was no relationship, the inferred scores given by the trained observers are more valid indications of self-concept than the self-report.

This writer in no way intends to deprecate the proven value of observation behavior as a means of evaluating and understanding human personality; there is just great hesitation on my part to throw the baby out with the bath water. There is much of merit in what Jones and Grieneeks (1970) say: "... the major assumption underlying this entire line of investigation (is) that an individual will report feelings about himself accurately. Self-theory is based on the tenet that man has the capacity to be aware of and experience himself" [p. 201].

Many of the measures now in use were developed only after careful observations of displayed behavior by trained observers. Coopersmith (1967) asserted that types of behavior assessed as maladjusted are associated with low self-esteem. Rosenberg (1965), in his study involving 5,000 New York adolescents, said symptoms of maladjustment and low self-esteem, which were displayed correlated very highly with the use of a ten-item scale. Brookover, Erickson, & Joiner (1971) and Jones & Strowig (1968) saw high correlations between high self-concept and academic achievement. Gaier & White (1965), in reviewing the trends in the measurement of personality placed the theory of self-concept in a different grouping from other measures of the personality, and called for practical applications of the existing theories.
The difficulty with measuring the self-concept is making sure that the tests measure specifically what they are supposed to measure. Specific scales are better predictors of academic performance than are the general scales, (Brookover, Erickson, & Joiner, 1971; Caplin, 1969; Davidson & Lang, 1971; Jones & Grieneeks, 1970). General self-concept has not been shown to relate to academic achievement. The measures of self-concept which seem to hold out the most promise are the ones which attempt to measure a particular area of the self, such as the student's self. Because students who underachieve scholastically have poorer concepts of themselves as students does not necessarily mean that they have poorer concepts of themselves as persons. Global self-esteem would not be damaged, necessarily, by a single academic failure experience. What effect this failure would have if repeated over a number of years can only be speculated upon. What does seem extremely relevant here is the person's concept of this total or global self. If this has been weakened by life experiences and the reactions of significant others around him (parents, teacher, peers), does it follow that his negativism affects his self-concept as a student and thus his academic achievement?

Research in the area of the Black personality has been hampered by many factors (Pettigrew, 1964). Not the least of which has been the perspective of believing that this personality was somehow in some way, deviant, deficient, or lacking in some aspect because it was different. He calls for
a social psychological theory of personality to consider the historical and socio-cultural forces propelling Blacks and to isolate the marks of oppression which societal forces have left behind.

Assuming the accuracy of this thesis, it becomes readily apparent that some new instruments need to be devised and new ways of assessing the Black self must be found, and the measures currently employed will have to be carefully analyzed and interpreted (Weems, 1973; Williams, 1972). But there are more areas of commonality in this discussion than differences. The three major influences on the development of all self-concept would appear to be:

1. Communication directly from other people about the self.
2. Comparison of the self with others in the immediate environment.
3. The role assigned to the self by the community. (Wyne, White & Coop, 1974)

Which position is correct? Should there be a frontal assault on the cognitive-learning deficit of the poor, Black child in school; or should schools do battle with feelings, attitudes, and the emotions of the Black child?

There has been much research done on the self-concept using many theoretical approaches. Many variables, such as sex, religious affiliation and socioeconomic class or status have been shown to have a
bearing on self-concept. The point of most of the research has pointed to the experiences which Blacks have had in this country as being the cause of unending conflict that has had a detrimental effect on their self-concepts. It is extremely difficult to separate fact from fantasy in that in many cases, the researchers drew conclusions which were only supported peripherally by the collected data.

In trying to determine if there were any personality differences between Black and White students in high school, Mortez (1971) found that Blacks and Whites in an integrated school did not differ significantly from each other except in these areas. Blacks in all Black schools scored significantly different from Blacks in predominantly White schools. Blacks did score significantly higher than Whites on a Cautiousness Scale and those in all Black schools scored significantly higher than any other groups on a Personal Relations Scale.

Douglas (1971) used a self-esteem inventory and a 58 item questionnaire to measure four self-concept measures; the self-concept, the social self-concept, the home self-concept and the school self-concept. This sample of 260 students in a racially integrated school evidenced no significant differences between the self-concept measures of the two racial groups under investigation. He concluded that self-perception is not related to racial or ethnic group membership and that the nature and distribution of self-perception among Blacks are similar to their Caucasian peers.
To determine some of the variables which relate to academic achievement and self-concept changes for previously segregated children when placed in integrated classrooms, Denmark (1970) did a vigorously controlled study of school children in Long Island, New York. She found that integration did have an effect on Black school children in grades one through five, both in their academic achievement and in their self-concept. She measured their level of positive self-concept while they were in segregated schools and found that after integration this level of self-concept was inversely related to the degree of interracial interaction for the Black children.

One of the instruments that she used was a Teacher Rating Scale. Teacher ratings in verbal skills for the Black children dropped lower after integration than before. Teachers set higher comparison levels for the Black children after integration than before. The academic achievement of the children also dropped after integration. The Black children who had achieved higher verbal skills were found to associate more with the White children; yet, these children were found to have lower self-concepts than the Black children who had not acquired high verbal skills and did not associate particularly with the White children. The major ramifications to be drawn from this study are ones which have been drawn before. Teacher attitude and expectation, whether verbalized or not, have an insidious effect on the self-concept of students.
Studying the relationship between self-concept and academic achievement led Nails (1971) also to use an opinionnaire for teacher perceptions as well as grade point average and special school sponsored programs deliberately designed to improve self-concept with all Black students. He found positive change in all areas and concluded that the development of positive self-concept is essential to academic achievement.

Still in the arena of public school education, James (1971), stated:

The findings on both the initial examination and final examination revealed no significant difference at or beyond the .05 level of significance in self-concept among groups of Negro high school students who attended predominantly white [sic] schools by choice, predominantly Negro high schools by choice, or were forced by court decree attend a predominantly white [sic] school for a period of one year. [p. 4464]

Human behavior is a function of the expectations and evaluation of others who are significant to the person as perceived by him and as internalized in a self-conception of what is appropriate and proper for him to do and what he is able to do. The self-concept of academic ability functions to limit the level of academic achievement attempted.

A six year study involving culturally different children was done by Brookover, et al (1971). He found that the correlation between self-concept of ability and grade point average ranged from .48 to .63 over the six year period of the study. His study did not show that measured intelligence or socioeconomic status accounted for the relationship among perceived evaluation by teachers, self-concept of ability and grade point average.
Self-report techniques were also used by Caplin (1969) in determining the relationships between self-concept and academic achievement. Sixty percent of the items concerned the pupil's feelings about himself as a person and/or a social being while 40 percent of the items related to his feelings about school. He found a significant positive relationship between high self-concept and academic achievement as measured by the standard composite scores on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills.

Change Strategies

If we accept the idea of the self-concept, if we accept the notion that it is made up of how we see ourselves in addition to how we are seen by others who are important to us, if we accept the idea that it is so pervasive as to affect the academic achievement of school children; then, can certain strategies that we choose to employ change this self-concept?

Feather (1968) describes a study in which half the subjects could experience initial success and half could experience initial failure in the task they were to perform. Subsequent performance of the task was lower following initial failure than following initial success. An Internal-External Control scale was used. This type of test is designed to measure if a person tends to see events as determined by his own efforts (internal control) or by outside factors such as chance, fate, or the influence of powerful others (external control). Prior to beginning work on the anagrams, the students
ranked their chances from "no chance at all" to "completely certain" of completing the task. By the use of the post-performance questionnaire, it was determined that the confidence of the subjects was considerably lowered after experiencing failure. Self-concept does change.

Meichenbaum & Smart (1971) explored the efficacy of direct expectancy statements in modifying the academic performance and attitudes of a group of academically borderline students. The students were told that they were late bloomers and/or that they possessed qualities which could not be measured accurately by the usual means. They were re-tested and told that the results of the test predicted a high likelihood of academic success by the end of that year and that they had high potential ability. Two self-reports (questionnaires) were used as attitudinal measures concerning courses, instructors, curriculum, and their own capabilities.

In two of the four courses the students were taking, the students who had been given expectancy statements demonstrated a significant improvement. The statements which had been made to them significantly altered their attitudes towards their own self-confidence and feelings of likelihood of success. They also reported greater interest in, and perceived more relevance of their course work. There was also a reduction of test anxiety resulting from increased self-confidence.
In another study there was no change in attitude toward school nor in academic achievement because of an experimental program initiated to improve these variables with elementary grade students (Smith, 1971). However the experimental group did view themselves in a more positive light and view their physical appearance more positively at the end of the school year.

Low self-concept can be modified at any grade level. Flowers & Marston (1972) also worked with elementary school children. They used a behavior modification technique to increase self-confidence responses which could then be reinforced regularly. Games were played among children having low self-confidence which involved playing these students only against other low confident players during the treatment period. Significant gains were found at the end of the period.

Summary

This review has attempted to outline the wide range of literature on concept of self and to show that it is made up of how we see ourselves and how significant others see us. It can be measured empirically, but these measurements tend to be more accurate when only a certain aspect is measured rather than an attempt being made to measure the global self. There is much recent literature showing the existence of a unique Black self, yet it would seem that the findings point out more commonalities than differences.
This study will proceed from the point of view that there is a self-concept and that specific parts of it can be measured to a great degree. The literature about the existing theories of self are often vague, contradictory, inconclusive, suffer from a lack of generalizability, and are extremely difficult to test empirically with absolute accuracy (Gaier & White, 1965). The difficulty in measuring self-concept is the same kind of difficulty which is encountered in measuring all aspects of human personality.

Operating is the assumption that there is a concept of self, that inferences about it can be made from self-report statements, and that it is made up of how one sees oneself and how one thinks other see him (Olsen, 1970). Also operating is the assumption that this assessment of self is best done by the individual himself.

This study will not deal with the weaknesses inherent in self-report techniques but will assume that the respondent reports his concept of self as accurately as he can, at the time asked and in the way which he honestly feels (Jones & Strowig, 1968).

Literature Related to Sociodrama

Psychodrama Described

The year was 1921. Europe was in a great deal of unrest. Post-war Vienna particularly was seething with revolt. That night the curtain
drew back on a stage bare except for one chair, center stage, on which was placed a crown. Out stepped Jacob Moreno, who upon looking out at the audience, decided to let the audience be the cast for the play which he had in mind.

The country was leaderless and there were many social conflicts which needed to be resolved. So he decided to let each person play his own particular role, be he a politician, minister, soldier or lawyer. They were invited by him to come upon the stage, sit on the chair that was placed there, and act like a king or the leader of the country and make decisions that would affect them all. The plot of the play was the events of the day and each of them could play a real part. That day, Fool's Day, April 1, 1921, psychodrama was born (Moreno, 1946).

He had established a children's theatre in Vienna in 1911 (Glanz & Hayes, 1967). Prior to that time, Moreno had been fascinated by watching the children playing in the parks of Vienna. He had watched them create spontaneous plays. He had seen how they unselfconsciously played out many of their problems.

It was from these observations of children playing spontaneously that he got the idea of treating emotionally disturbed children through play. From 1911 through 1930 Moreno used the idea of impromptu play as the principal tool in his treatment of them.
A therapist could either watch the children at their games and interpret their behavior in terms of some ideology or he could teach them to rehearse and act out . . . a play . . . a story . . . or assist the children in putting together a plot which they were to act out spontaneously with the expectation that this impromptu play would in itself, produce in its participants a mental catharsis (Moreno, 1944 [p. 242]).

It was from this earlier work with children that the idea was born to try out this particular technique of spontaneous acting-out with adults.

Europe had a rather conservative culture and outlook and his idea of the benefits of psychodrama was not readily accepted. Psychotherapy had been thought of as the treatment of the individual in private, with a therapist, and this idea of the individual foregoing his precious isolation, to bare his soul before an onlooking audience did not readily take hold. Moreno eventually immigrated to America.

The term "group therapy" was introduced by him in 1931, and the term "group psychotherapy" was also introduced by Moreno in 1932 (Gazda, 1969). Although the particular terms or phrases were not coined until this time, there is considerable evidence that other types of group psychotherapy are really American inventions and had been practiced for some time in various forms by psychiatrists and ministers long before Moreno put that particular label on the practice.

Psychodrama is the acting out of past and present problems, both realistically and symbolically, both alone and with others. Psychoanalysis is primarily the therapy of the individual through the verbalization of his
emotions. On the other hand, psychodrama is the therapy of a group, through the acting out of their emotions. This can be done with words, with movement, with gestures, even dancing and singing. The task of the director is to maintain the type of emotional freedom which will permit catharsis and insight while restraining extremes of behavior.

There are certain terms which have to be explained if psychodrama is to be understood. Samuel Kahn (1964) defines them all, including the roles the different people take in the psychodrama. A drama of course, presents the emotional problems of human life. It is a creative work of art and it is created twice. First the author creates something and then the actors interpret what the author has created. They are creative in their interpretation. Yet drama is still an imitation of life.

In psychodrama there is often a stage, but it is not necessary. Lighting is often used to set the mood. The spectators, which can be few or many, are quite often pulled into the action as they see themselves being portrayed or as they see another angle to the problem being presented.

The director starts the procedure by a warm-up period when everyone introduces and tells something about himself. He gets the action started by sometimes playing one of the roles. He gradually withdraws himself from the scene and guides the actors all the while looking for cues, particularly the nonverbal ones.
The main person in the psychodrama is the **protagonist** or the subject. He acts out scenes from his own life and reveals his thoughts and feelings by doing so. There is something about physical motion, physically moving around that seems to free his repressed feelings and emotions.

There is also the **auxiliary ego** or the **double** who is an extension of the subject. He is the inner, hidden personality. He has often been trained by the director to submerge himself and become the inner voice of the subject. He often stands behind the subject and speaks aloud the thoughts that might be in the subject's mind and which he is afraid to speak for himself.

The protagonist can and does play other roles. Each person has different roles to play in life. Many times there are conflicts between the different roles that he cannot resolve without help. He will act out his own role as he sees it and will reverse roles and act out the roles of others in his life who play significant parts. If he sees that one of the characters is out of character, he steps in and plays that part. This role reversal is the key to insight.

There is also the audience, who is not always necessary but who can join in the action when they can identify with one of the characters being played. By this identification they can shed new light on the problem.
The psychodrama becomes a very concrete form of reality testing. When there is a confrontation between the unconscious attitudes and wishes of the protagonist with the objective reality of the situation, the protagonist sees this reality by the reaction of the other persons on the stage. With the auxiliary ego, the double and other persons playing out the action with the protagonist, he finds himself able to verbalize feelings and thoughts not ordinarily expressed in public. The double, acting as an extension of the protagonist, plays his unconscious, to support or prod or antagonize. His main duty is to free the protagonist to express his emotions freely.

Encounter has many shadings of meanings. In psychotherapy it is the meeting of at least two with the opportunity present to reverse roles. It can free, liberate and redeem. In the psychodramatic theatre, man has the opportunity to redeem himself, and in so doing to redeem that part of all mankind which he is. His private universe is his social atom which are his current relationships. The holes and spaces of those absent can be filled in by the other persons present at the encounter and his feelings of alienation can be helped to be overcome.

Psychodrama corresponds very closely in goals to psychoanalytical therapy, in so far as it attempts to release repressed ideas and emotions. The main difference is that psychodrama attempts to deal with the here and now and does not make an attempt to go back into the subject's past.
The word *catharsis* crops up often. It is an old word borrowed from the Greek tragedies and used by the Greek scientist, Aristotle, in describing the type of relief experienced by the audience. Their emotions were purged through pity and terror by the tragedies they were witnessing on stage. Somehow this purge, this release, produced a healing effect. This term is now more germane perhaps to the psychoanalytical method but it is used in psychodrama because a healing effect takes place with the actors with the releasing of tensions and anxieties.

The source of the problem that the subject has could be in the body or the mind. It could be caused by his thoughts or by the actions of the others around him, or simply by a too complicated way of living. When he speaks about his problems, when he acts out his problems, mental catharsis brings about relief from the pain and grief and fear without any change necessarily being made in the situation at the time.

The implications of psychodrama for group psychotherapy are very evident in that the spectators watching the drama unfold see problems similar to their own being acted out. By the use of the auxiliary ego technique, a large number of people can be treated at the same time.

The key to the entire process of psychodrama is spontaneity. Moreno speaks of cultural conserves, a conserve being something kept in a sound and safe state. He classifies our books and our symphonies in this category. But spontaneity is in the creating itself. After it is created it becomes a conserve. It is the inner, initial process which is spontaneous. This is
short in duration, extremely eventful and sometimes crowded with inspiration. In *Mental Catharsis and the Psychodrama*, Moreno (1944) describes spontaneity as an adequate response to a new situation or a novel response to an old situation. It is man's greatest avenue to growth, both personal and social.

Moreno believed so firmly in the importance of spontaneity that he put forth the idea that a type of spontaneity test would be better for gauging intelligence than our regular paper and pencil tests (Moreno, 1932). He saw two types of personality reactions. One he called the conserving reaction type and the other he called the spontaneous reaction type. In the former, the techniques of learning and the techniques of performance are accumulative and collective. Successes and failures cover a very narrow range. In the spontaneous reaction type, the techniques of learning and performing are instantaneous and productive. Successes and failures are scattered over a very wide range. This type achieves higher efficiency in actual performance. To measure the intelligence of spontaneous reaction type of personality, a situational test is necessary.

The deficiencies in our present day methods of intelligence testing have been argued for many years. Entire race groups and entire national groups are judged by our so-called intelligence tests to be much lower in intelligence than some of the nationality groups of northern Europe and the United States. Moreno suggests a standardization of a type of spontaneity
test by which a person's intelligence would be measured by how he reacts in a given situation.

Sociodrama Described

The concept of sociodrama was born out of psychodrama. There is one major difference between the two. In psychodrama, the attention is centered upon the individual and his private problems. Even when a group is used and even when there is catharsis among all those in the audience, the problem is still individual centered. The group approach in psychodrama, the subject or protagonist, is the group. It is not limited to a specific number of individuals who happen to share the same problem, but it is a problem concerning as many human beings as there are who share the same culture.

Sociodrama is more concerned with anthropology and inter-cultural relation. It is particularly suited for a situation where two cultures co-exist in relatively close physical proximity and their members are in the continuous process of interaction and interchanging of values. Some examples would include the Black-White, the American Indian-White, and the situations of all cultural and racial minoritites in the United States (Greenberg, 1968).
Kahn (1954) states:

... In sociodrama the main issues are of a collective nature, and the actors, assume general roles experienced in a collective manner, which must be portrayed collectively. It may include not only individual ideas, but also racial, religious, political and similar collective philosophies. Very often it is very difficult to separate these two types of action. [p. 61]

... The role-playing in psychodrama stresses the individual interrelations whereas in sociodrama, the stress is upon group and complex ideas, which go along with the interpersonal relations. [p. 62]

A technique used by Moreno and others who followed his lead was that of presenting a living newspaper by which the audience would see the current events of the day presented on the stage. In essence, the world becomes the stage. It helps the participants to become aware of the many ramifications of a selected news topic. It is good practice in differentiating fact from opinion and detecting faulty generalizations.

Quite often in an audience or among any group of people can be found individuals who have major problems of adjusting to society even if they wish to, but these problems can be of a collective rather than a private nature. Such would be the case of a person who is Christian or Jewish, or Black, or Polish. The popular current television series, "All in the Family", is a good example of the type of problem which lends itself to sociodramatic exploration. The conflicts of religious beliefs and inter-marriages and who you would like to be your neighbor are all good subjects which readily lend themselves to the sociodramatic technique of group counseling.
Sociodrama treats social problems and tries to obtain social catharsis, that is, it provides the outlet for the adequate resolution of repressed experiences.

Sociodrama, as well as psychodrama, is never something which should be gone into haphazardly by untrained persons. It needs very careful planning as well as training by the director.

The task is to gather all the factual information necessary for the project. This information serves as a framework so that the egos in the situational conflict will not be hindered in their improvisations by a lack of technical knowledge of the subject. The auxiliary egos need training. In private life the auxiliary ego might be the most liberal of person, but he may be called upon to play the role of the greatest bigot there is. He must be able to detach himself from his own personal biases in order to portray the particular role in a culture as needed.

Greenberg (1968) believes that sociodrama can cure as well as it can solve, and that it can change attitudes as well as study them. It does this also by means of catharsis which could be compared to holding a mirror in front of the spectator so he can see what he looks like.

Because sociodrama is a technique used to treat a group, the one person playing the Black represents all Blacks, the person playing the Jew represents all Jews, etc. The conflicts brought out into the open are not necessarily his own private ones, although they may well be, but are rather the conflicts which belong to the group to which that individual belongs.
In the catharsis of the sociodrama, frustrations and aggressions are vented in a safe way. Anger and hostility are expressed and a release of emotional frustration takes place. Once the anger and frustration are expressed in action, insight into the problem generally occurs. Although insight is not enough, it is a beginning in the resolution of shared problems.

There is no doubt that sociodrama uses many of the techniques of psychodrama. The focus is different. Both are group methods of counseling. Psychodrama can take place with only the director and the subject present, but sociodrama is strictly a group method. While psychodrama is in progress, the action may evolve into a problem which is common to several of the members there and thus could move the session into sociodrama. The reverse is also true. In the course of a sociodramatic session, the group could become aware of a personal problem one of the individuals is having and the session could then become a psychodramatic therapy session. Interwoven throughout it all is role-playing which is a temporary stepping out of one's own present role to assume the role of another individual or to assume the role of one's self at another time (Greenberg, 1968).

Role-Playing Described

Role-playing focuses on roles, and not personalities. It is used extensively as a training device in private industry, as an educational technique in the classroom, (Haas, 1949; Simmons, 1973), as a method for
preparing actors, (Kahn, 1964) and as a means of preparing hospitalized patients to rejoin their families (Fantel, 1970). In each of these instances it gives the person who is playing the role the opportunity to experiment with various ways that he could possibly perform a certain action or react to a particular situation and he does this in the safety of a group. Psychodrama, sociodrama and role-playing are all on a continuum in the action oriented theory of counseling, role-playing requiring the least amount of preparation, training and expertise. They all have in common the acting out of inner feelings.

It has been found that role-playing increases spontaneity and reduces resistances (Ohlsen, 1970). It enables a person to convey feelings that he has, and permits him to give information that he would normally find difficult to do. It is especially helpful for those who are primarily nonverbal in their communication. These persons can act out feelings that they cannot put into words. By having these feelings brought out he can face them frankly and in doing so can discover new and hopefully better ways of behaving and coping with his life situation. He also develops self-confidence because he learns by role-playing how to cope with everyday life. It helps him to communicate better when he is fumbling for words and when he is trying to clarify his relationship with some other person in his life who is important to him. A person in the audience, seeing a role being played with which he can identify, may not be ready to accept it openly as his own, and yet it still touches a responsive cord within him.
One of the most significant things which Ohlsen (1970) recommended was the video-taping of the sessions and playing them back to the participants. Because this type of therapy is dependent almost completely on spontaneity, the client loses much of the scene the minute he plays it and it is over with. True, this gives him catharsis but perhaps not as much insight as would come if somehow this bit of action could be captured on film, played back and he could hear and see himself more clearly than at any other time.

Role-playing is quite often used in the schools and it lends itself to the classroom quite easily. If one has watched even very young children at play this concept can be really understood. They take on roles very naturally. Adults watching children at play can see themselves being portrayed. They can see how children perceive adults and the significant others in their lives. Before they can communicate with sophisticated sentences, their actions very naturally speak for them and convey their thoughts and feelings.

Much has been written about groups in the last few years. A great deal of it is positive, some of it negative. The studies about those that succeed show that the success of the group is dependent on many variables, (Abraham, 1972; Luchins, 1964; Sacks, 1973; Williams, 1967). But if we accept the hypothesis that the group can be an agent of change, particularly
when there are so many people in all levels of our society who need help with so many divergent problems and there are so few competent people who can engage in individualized therapy, it is easy to understand how groups have become so popular in the last few years.

Some Problems to be Explored in Sociodrama

The problems which lend themselves to sociodramatic clarification are those which can neither be clarified nor treated in secret isolation by two people talking one to one. They need all the eyes and all the ears and all the thoughts and ideas of the community because they are problems which touch all.

Sociodrama treats social problems and the group occupies the position of the individual. Its use in helping to resolve community problems is almost limitless. Black-White relations, police-community relations, teacher-community relations, labor-management relations, student-faculty-administration relations all have endless possibilities. Patient-staff in hospitals, adult-youth, power relations among different groups in resisting social change could all be helped (Knepler, 1970).

It has been used to motivate young people who have been denied access to the American dream and whose brains and talents would be lost to society without some type of motivation. Elaine and Sally Goldman (1968) used sociodrama with much success in motivating Upward Bound
students. During the summer of 1967, this technique was used with these urban and inner-city young people to help them thrash out some of the problems and frustrations in their lives such as lack of confidence, conflict within the group, fear of meeting new people, and the general inability to cope with the world as they see it. The problems fell into three areas: student-teacher, parent-child, and peer relationships.

The history of Black aggression is that it is usually turned inward upon self. In the last decade this emphasis has shifted outward against what he sees as a hostile environment controlled by the White man. Research has found aggressive impulses higher among Blacks, including children, than the population as a whole (Hammer, 1953; Logan, 1971). When two cultures exist in close physical proximity and their members are constantly and continuously interacting with each other, problems of hostility and aggression are apt to be brought out and directed against each other. These aggressive impulses and the resultant acting out has been found mostly among Negroes who were reared in the South and the acting out was against other Blacks as well as Whites. During the mid-sixties, the Negro was found to be more militant, less religious, felt more victimized, and quicker to express hostility and violence (Carr & Roberts, 1965; Nutall, 1964).

With most of the schools throughout the country being integrated today, many students have felt periods of loneliness and alienation when
they found themselves part of a minority in a new situation. Simmons (1971) used sociodrama in helping Black girls in a New England Preparatory School deal with some of the problems they found there. Sociodrama brought out the lack of understanding in the verbal communication being used by both Black and White.

There is some literature which indicates that sociodrama is particularly suited to low income persons whose life style is more action oriented than talk or abstract oriented. Logan (1971) used psychodrama and sociodrama in helping ten undergraduate students come to terms with their aggressive feelings.

The assumptions and hypothesis in the study made by Logan were that the extrapunitive (E) aggression shown by the subjects and those measured by Rosenzweig's Picture-Frustration test would be significantly reduced by the group experience using psychodrama and sociodrama techniques. "E" factor is defined as blame and hostility resulting from frustration and turned against a person or thing in the environment. The treatment was four months of weekly 1½ hour sessions of socio- and psychodrama. Although there are many gradations of "E" aggression among Negroes as well as among Whites, the effects of psychodrama and sociodrama were most pronounced in influencing individuals with the higher "E" scores. The results of the experiment showed a significant reduction of the "E" factor of aggression at the .01 level.
There is a growing awareness that mental and emotional disturbances are no respectors of persons of prestige, family, wealth, or age. One of the most tragic groups which suffer from different types of emotional disturbances are children, who don't possess the verbal skills to tell you what hurts and how it hurts. Many of the art forms are being used to help them; painting, singing, dancing. Puppets have been used with great success as projective material to help diagnose and treat emotionally disturbed children. Drama therapy with them is much broader than mere role-playing. It can and often does include puppetry, spontaneous improvisations, and, of course, the acting out of their fantasies. Certainly a varied approach is needed in all areas in the treatment of mental illness.

The Pittsburg Child Guidance Center has had quite a bit of success with its out-patient treatment of emotionally disturbed children, by using drama. The aim here is not catharsis as we know it in psychodrama, but it is used to help the children share their feelings. It was found that acting out increased their ability to communicate verbally, as they played and acted out their wishes, conflicts and fantasies. Irwin, Levy, and Shapiro, (1972) selected fifteen boys, seven and eight years old and used the Rorschach Index of Repressive Style to measure change. Actual word counts were made pre- and post-test, of verbal fluency.

They used three groups in their study. Group I, the experimental group, was a drama therapy group where creative drama principles
were utilized. Group II, a control, was an activity psychotherapy group in which regular group social work principles were applied. Group III was a recreation group in which the workers assumed the role of recreation leaders. The activity psychotherapy group was different from the drama group in one main area in that the focus of the latter was on the exclusive use of some form of drama. The activity group used various crafts and games. If the activity group members had a disagreement, the leader would help to clarify the problem and encourage the principals to communicate grievances and mis-communications openly. In the drama group the leader would have them symbolically play out the problem, starting first with the feelings. Discussion and interpretation would follow the acting out, as is usual in all psychodrama and sociodrama therapy groups.

The evaluation of the study was performed independently by a clinical psychologist who was unaware of the different groups' composition and impetus. It was found that the drama group compared very favorably with the more traditional group approach. It was found, for example, that one component of communication, verbal fluency, was significantly enhanced as a function of the drama experience. It is difficult, almost impossible for children to express the quality of their feelings and emotions through a formal language. This is especially true if the child is emotionally disturbed and out of touch.
Changes that the children made in verbal fluency have implications not only for disturbed children but for other hard to reach children who have difficulty communicating verbally. Its value in education is great. The director must take an active role in the process to initiate the discussions before and after the sociodramatic sessions.

Sociodrama as an Educational Tool

Certain specific steps must be taken to insure the success of the sociodrama (Weiner & Sacks, 1969; Zeleny, 1964). Whether it is being performed with adults or with children or is being used as an educational tool. First, the problem must be identified. It can come from the experiences of the group or the director can have a planned problem that he knows applies to the group. Next, the situation has to be described in as much detail as possible. What are the personalities like? What are the roles to be played? It is a good idea to have several characters. In the schools the process should be educational and not necessarily therapeutic. Teachers are not psychiatrists.

Always the participants are selected from those who want to participate. No one is forced to be in a sociodrama. If the proper warm-up is conducted, this should be no problem (Weiner & Sacks, 1969). What is aimed for is lots of action and the acting out should be brought to a point where a decision must be made. By this time several alternatives should be apparent. The director stops the action and the alternative
endings are discussed. These alternative endings can also then be acted out. If time permits, several sessions should ideally be held and as many as four or five persons can replay the same problems with intervening group critiques. As in all cases of sociodrama, the group creates the ending.

Ferinden (1972) suggests having a vicarious sociodramatic session to modify children's classroom behavior. Suppose a classroom teacher wants to modify the aggressive classroom behavior in a certain boy in the class. Instead of choosing that particular boy to play the protagonist, another child could play that role. The scene is set up and described about this one nameless, unidentified boy, constantly picking on other children and shoving in the hallways. Some students come to the front of the classroom and act out this anti-social behavior. In this way the particular youngster is not singled out or embarrassed in front of his peers. The teacher then sets the stage to dramatize the positive alternatives that the child could use which would be acceptable to his peers. In this instance, the boy with the aggressive behavior could be in the sociodrama as the protagonist showing the appropriate social behavior. This technique is not threatening to the child nor the teacher and has appeared to be quite effective when it is used in the presence of the peer group. A discussion period immediately afterward is essential.

With the older school age children there is an even wider range of problems which can be helped (Simmons, 1973). These problems
include dating and boy-girl relationships, shyness, relationships with parents and siblings, manners, limitations of age and physical size, the use of telephones and television, money, etc. For the very perceptive teen-ager, sociodrama furnishes an opportunity of being the other fellow for a little while without disastrous consequences, and helps in understanding what he is like and why he says and does many of the things that he does.

The teacher must retain as much openmindedness as is humanly possible. Children often do and say things very disconcerting to adults. Self-control must be maintained to prevent the breakdown or interruption of the psychological and sociological processes which are necessary to a full sociodramatic learning experience for group members. The classroom group should choose the situation to be acted out and each member should be encouraged to speak and act with complete freedom.

It is a serious thing to bare one's emotions before others, and the teacher or director must be extremely careful to prevent the creation of greater emotional problems because of a specific sociodramatic sequence. An individual may have a need not to express as well as a need to express what is significant to him in reference to a given situation at a given time, and the best indicator of an individual's readiness to carry a particular role in a given situation is that individual himself.
Summary

The review of related literature illustrates the various different situations where the method of counseling using the techniques of sociodrama has been used in successful problem solving situations. It has also pointed out the proper place on the continuum of "acting out" counseling which this technique occupies. For example; psychodrama deals with a problem which is individual in nature; sociodrama deals with a group or class problem, and; role-playing focuses on roles and not on personalities.

The procedural steps necessary to implement a sociodramatic counseling situation are also outlined. These steps are recapitulated as; identifying the problem, describing and exploring the characters, acting out the roles with role-reversal taking place, and finally, discussing alternate solutions to the problem and the evaluation of each.

Finally, attention has been directed to the wide range of implications which this method has for its use in educational settings and examples of its use in these settings have been indicated.

Chapter Summary

There are many critics today of public school education as we know it in the United States. Be that as it may, it is the only thing we have available to all our citizens. It is a personal tragedy, as well as an economic one, when our young people stay away from school in large numbers. Their actions short-change themselves and short-change society
by preventing them from acquiring the barest minimum of the skills they will need to successfully administer this complex, technological society.

The schools in some way are not meeting their needs, and ways must be found, somehow, to induce them to come to school regularly enough so that the general literacy of the citizenry would not be open to question.

With the general thought in mind that behavior reveals the feelings a person has about himself, it would appear that to affect more acceptable behavior one must have more positive feelings about oneself.

It would appear that these students who stay out of school frequently don't have very good feelings about themselves as students. This specific part of the self-concept, as contrasted with the total self-concept, has been measured, and various intervention techniques have been used in an effort to help the students think better of themselves as students.

It is exceedingly difficult for most adolescents to open themselves up to others so that these feelings can be explored and light can be shed on the possible sources of any conflicts they might have about themselves and school. But the technique of acting out the role or playing the part, of someone else has proven to be a successful technique in freeing one of self-consciousness and permitting one to reveal feelings so that they can be dealt with openly and so that changes in behavior can come about.
In the safety of the confidentiality of group counseling alternate ways of problem solving can be tried out. In the arena of socio-dramatic play, the "good" guys and the "bad" guys can switch roles back and forth in safety and not only the participants but also the audience can see the problem more clearly and determine for themselves what actions are needed to solve them.
CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN

This study was conducted during the 1974-75 regular school year, School of Education, Atlanta University, Atlanta, Georgia. The locale of the research itself was DeKalb County, Georgia.

The subjects were among 1,391 students enrolled in a predominantly Black high school in the DeKalb County School System, during the school year of 1974-75. Of these 1,391 students, 267 were enrolled in the tenth grade. Of these 267 students, 56 were identified from student attendance reports as being frequently absent from school. It was upon these frequently absent students that the attention of this research was focused. Since it was not possible to exert full experimental control over all of the variables in this study of frequently absent students, the type of this design would most aptly be called quasi-experimental (Campbell & Stanley, 1963).

Operational Definition of Terms

1. **Average Daily Attendance (ADA)**—The ratio of the actual number of days present, to the total number of schools days enrolled.

2. **Concept of Self**—The idea or general notion one has of oneself; the idea of what one should be; the mental image or opinion one has
of oneself. For this study, this concept of self will be a score obtained from Ira J. Gordon's *How I See Myself* scale (Gordon, 1968).

3. **Eclectic**—This term as it applies to counseling, is the selection and organization of diverse, yet compatible, counseling techniques into one theoretical system which fits the personality of the counselor and the situation of the counseling. For this study, eclectic counseling will exclude any sociodrama and/or role-playing.

4. **Frequently absent**—Refers to students who are absent eight or more days per sixty day quarter of school instruction. That is, the ratio of attendance is $52/60$ or less. This translates into an ADA of $86\%$ or less.

5. **Sociodrama**—A group counseling technique in which individual members of the group act out; (in words, gestures, movement) problems which the group share. Conflicts which the group have in common are explored.

6. **Teacher Perceptions**—Perception is an intuitive awareness of, or immediate belief about something or someone. It concerns feelings and impressions. For this study, teachers will rate the students (thus giving their perception and impressions of them) on the *Florida Key*, by William Purkey, Bob Cage, and William Graves (Purkey, Cage & Graves, 1973).
Hypothesis and Analysis

For the purposes of this study, the groups were:

Eclectic = Experimental Group I
Sociodrama = Experimental Group II
Control Group III

The data were analyzed and interpreted to test the following hypothesis.

For the selected tenth grade students used in this study, initial exposure to counseling with sociodrama, integrated into traditional sequences and methods, does not significantly change average daily attendance, student concept of self, and teacher perception of the student, when compared with one comparable group which was counseled using an eclectic method and one comparable group which received no type of structured group counseling.

For statistical convenience, the minor hypotheses listed below were tested in the null form.

1. There is no statistically significant difference in the mean average daily attendance before and during the experimental period for the groups listed below.

   (a) Eclectic compared with Sociodrama

   (b) Eclectic compared with the Control Group

   (c) Sociodrama compared with the Control Group
The above hypothesis was tested by the use of an analysis of variance which provided an F test of significance for between-group means, within-group means, and total means. When so indicated the "t" test was used for specific comparisons.

2. There is no statistically significant difference in how the students feel about themselves before and after the experimental period as measured by the mean scores on the How I See Myself scale for the groups listed below.

(a) Eclectic compared with Sociodrama
(b) Eclectic compared with the Control Group
(c) Sociodrama compared with the Control Group

The above hypothesis was tested by the use of an analysis of variance which provided an F test of significance for between-group means, within-group means, and total means. When so indicated the "t" test was used for specific comparisons.

3. There is no statistically significant difference in how teachers perceive the students before and after the experimental period as measured by the mean rating scores the teachers give the students on the Florida Key for the groups listed below.

(a) Eclectic compared with the Sociodrama
(b) Eclectic compared with the Control Group
(c) Sociodrama compared with the Control Group

The above hypothesis was tested by the use of an analysis of variance which provided an F test of significance for between-group means,
within-group means, and total means. When so indicated, the "t" test was used for specific comparisons.

Statistical Assumptions

The "t" test is commonly used to test the differences between two sample means. It is likely that in studies involving two or more groups there will always be some differences among the average scores for the groups. The problem is to determine whether such differences are likely to be due to chance or not.

The analysis of variance is a more general method than the "t" test, is algebraically equivalent, since $F = t^2$, but it is more flexible in that it can be used to test the difference between two or more means.

In analysis of variance, normal distribution is assumed as well as homogeneity of variance. However, Young & Veldman (1963) have shown that even considerable departures from normality or from homogeneity of variance have relatively little influence upon statistical tests for significance. The assumption underlying the analysis of variance procedure is that the between-group and within-group mean squares should not differ by more than what one would expect by chance alone.

The analysis of variance is a rather robust statistical procedure. It permits the analysis of data from two or more groups and shows the differences, if any, in the means between groups, within groups and of repeated measures of the same groups.
The raw data of experiments frequently do not exhibit the characteristics which the mathematical models require. One advantage of the analysis of variance is that reasonable departure from the assumptions of normality and homogeneity may occur without seriously affecting the validity of the inferences drawn from the data. (Ferguson, G. A. [p. 295])

The confidence level for this study has been set at .05.

Experimental Instruments

It has been said that there are as many psychological tests as there are psychologists. This is probably an exaggeration. However, each psychologist appears to believe that he can develop a better instrument than the ones previously presented in the literature. There is available to the meticulous examiner a method or criterion for every conceivable trait in human personality. Validity, reliability and generalizability are often sacrificed on the altar of convenience and the dictates of the local situation. These limitations in assessing aspects of personality are outlined elsewhere in this study.

The difficulty presented to this researcher was in trying to separate those instruments which would be adequate in measuring a concept of self for the particular population of the study from those which seemed to have good face validity but were somehow not quite suitable for the situation. A long and thorough search of the literature, including Buros' Seventh Mental Measurements Yearbook (1972), yielded a myriad of instruments. Many were ordered, examined and, one by one, discarded.
This writer is well aware that the longer a good instrument, the more valid and reliable it is apt to be (Anastasi, 1968). Yet many instruments at first considered were discarded for the very reason of length. During many years of administering tests to high school students, this writer has discovered that no matter how good the instrument is, the factor of fatigue or boredom enters into the picture and some students will mark any available answer on their paper near the end of a long test.

Vocabulary was another real consideration in instrument selection. If the subjects selected for treatment were those considered to be frequently absent from school, it was hypothesized that these students would more likely be behind their grade levels in their academic subjects. Validity and reliability are just words and have no true meaning if the subjects are unable to read the items on the test.

The search for the right instrument finally ended with the How I See Myself scale, developed by Ira J. Gordon of the University of Florida. The forty-two items appear to get at the students' concepts of self as students, and the instrument is long enough to be valid, yet short enough to prevent fatigue.

How I See Myself (Gordon, 1968)

The How I See Myself scale was designed to be used primarily in schools. It was never intended to cover the totality of self-concept. The
assumption is that this is the self that the child reports on himself. It was used and refined on a population of 8,979 children, grades three through twelve by Pearline P. Yeatts in Florida.

Development of the scale began in January, 1959, on a group of students in P. K. Yonge Laboratory School at the University of Florida, in the third, fifth, sixth, seventh, tenth, and twelfth grades. Its present form has been used since 1959. On the face of it, it measures how the child views his body, peers, teachers, school, and own emotional control. As a child grows he changes in his outlook; becoming more unified and global in one phase and more differentiated at other stages of development. It is necessary to measure a certain aspect of the child rather than the total child.

Six major factors of the How I See Myself scale have been identified. The first is Teacher-School. This is a six item factor which the student answers such statements as 'the teacher likes me' and 'I do well in school.' The Physical Appearance factor is made up of eight items which relate to hair, face and the use of the body in athletics, and to body build, which concerns height and weight. The third factor, Interpersonal Adequacy, contains seventeen items and is the most general of all the terms. The Autonomy factor contains nine items which the author suggests that one use with cautious interpretation, in that, although it would appear to show an individual less group oriented and more task or performance oriented, the
extent of its correlation with other measures of autonomy has not been established. The six items of the Academic Adequacy factor, five of which even on the surface are academic in nature, will be noted in this study. The last major factor is Physical Adequacy. It consists of four items, and it relates to all or most of the secondary school population.

Reliability was established on a test-retest basis in 1965. The test-retest reliability coefficients were very high with a time interval of approximately two weeks when used on a sample of eighty high school pupils in a summer make-up in a large Florida high school. Yeatts' study showed that the grade level of the child does not affect the level of test-retest reliability when a portion of her sample took the scale nine days after the first administration of it.

A test-retest situation involving a group of thirty-four disadvantaged mothers with the retest coming after an interval of two weeks showed a high correlation between the two administrations, indicating that the scale is consistent across population, grades and factors.

The content validity of the How I See Myself scale is based on the fact that the items on the scale are based on children's responses to open-ended questions about themselves. The areas covered relate to teachers, school, same and opposite sex peers, emotions and physical attributes. Ira Gordon states (1963) that there are three facets of the global self-concept: self as inferred from observed behavior, self as inferred from projective techniques,
and, self as revealed by self-reports. The truthfulness and adequacy of the self-report has received some criticism because of the alleged tendency of people to overevaluate themselves. On the How I See Myself scale, students generally rate themselves slightly above the mid-point on most of the factors, except for Autonomy, where they rate themselves below the mid-point. This would argue for the point that inflated scores on the scale would not be a particular problem.

Construct validity concerns itself with scores on the How I See Myself and scores on other personality measures. As stated elsewhere in this paper, Arthur W. Combs (1963) advocates a measurement of self which uses trained observers. In 1967, in a study done with Ira Gordon, Combs used his mixture of interview, projective techniques, and observations in the interview settings to form his inferences. The self-report items of the How I See Myself scale did show a more favorable side of self when compared with the inferred self-concepts made by the trained observers. The correlations, although positive, are low. There was also a low but significant correlation between the How I See Myself scale and observed classroom behavior in the same study.

This scale also correlates well with developmental theories concerning the self-concept. The factors of Physical Appearance, Interpersonal Adequacy reaffirm the socialization processes of adolescents as it is contended by the developmentalists. Certain aspects, or factors of the scale, correlate significantly although not very highly with other personality variables. The
manual lists reliability coefficients and correlations for 10 different factors on a test-retest basis, from grades three through twelve and for disadvantaged mothers; by sex, race, reading levels and socioeconomic classifications.

The Florida Key

Unlike the How I See Myself scale, the Florida Key does not rely on the self-report. This is a scale which does not need the cooperation of the subject, and is easily used by classroom teachers without training to infer learner self-concept. Being fully aware that teachers have the primary responsibility of teaching this writer was reluctant in adding more than the bare minimum of tasks to their already over-crowded schedule. The Florida Key by William Purkey, Bob Cage and William Graves of the University of Florida was selected for the hypothesis concerning the importance of how others see the self as a factor in how one sees oneself. It was only after a careful analysis of each item that this instrument was selected. The eighteen items tease out the teachers' perceptions of the students' skills at relating, asserting, investing, and accomplishing. The items appear to be directed toward attitudes and behavior that a teacher can readily observe.

The Key was developed after reviewing available research data on self-concept, and after the general classroom behaviors of students considered as having positive and realistic self-images as learners were
identified. These behavioral acts were isolated, described in written form and arranged into the factors of Relating, Asserting, Investing, and Coping.

The first validity study was done using Oklahoma teachers who were asked to rate their students on these dimensions, with no mention of the Key itself being made, nor use of any terminology used in the Key. A second validity study using a Florida laboratory school was done with teachers being asked to identify those students who had the most positive attitudes toward school, and those having the most negative attitudes toward school. This categorization was done six weeks following their use of the Florida Key. In all, approximately 1,000 students in the two states were used (Purkey, Cage & Graves, 1973). No coefficients of validity or reliability were reported in this article.

Selection and Description of the Subjects

Selection

The population was enrolled in a large, predominantly Black, urban high school in DeKalb County, Georgia. The key subjects, for whom the study was primarily designed, were enrolled in tenth grade, and were those identified from the school attendance records as being frequently absent from school. Frequently absent was defined as being absent from school eight or more days during a quarter of instruction which is sixty days in length.
Preliminary permission to conduct the study was obtained from the Superintendent of the DeKalb County Schools through the Assistant Superintendent for Curriculum and Supervision. After consulting with him permission was granted with the following stipulations:

1. Approval of the school principal along with his willingness to schedule the students for group counseling

2. The co-facilitators leading the groups would be both qualifiable and certifiable

3. Signed parental approval on a letter describing the study which would first be approved by the concerned administrators

4. All preimposed tests would be administered by the researcher

5. The loss of classtime would be minimized

The choice was made by us as to which school to use as the locale of the study.

A letter, addressed to the parents or guardians of the identified tenth grade students, was composed. It explained the purposes of the study and assured the parents that the names and any other identifying data collected would not be disclosed to anyone other than this researcher and would be completely obliterated at the end of the study. The final
draft was made and the necessary approval obtained. The principal of
the school not only gave his approval for the facilities and students of his
school to be used, but also added a very supportive postscript statement
to the letter. A copy of the letter is shown in the appendix to this report.

Armed with the duplicated letter and a list of 67 names and ad-
dresses, this researcher went from home to home to get a check in the ap-
propriate place on the letter; "Permission is__is not__ granted." and
the signature of the responsible adult in the household. This tactic
was decided upon after a prior attempt using an equivalent population in
three other high schools in the county, in which the letters were at first
sent home by the students for signatures, and later mailed to the home
address with a stamped, return addressed envelope, had yielded little
response and had generally proven unsatisfactory. This prerequisite
for using the students in this school proved to be rewarding. It re-
sulted in only one parent saying "no." The overwhelming response to
the purpose of the study was: "Anything at all that you can do for my
child, please do it." Since the signatures were gathered mostly on
week-ends, an opportunity was afforded to meet many of the students
concerned and to elicit their cooperation and support.

One week had been planned for the pretesting. Because each
student in tenth grade was enrolled in an English course, the ten
English teachers who taught the students were asked to complete the
Florida Key. Since the population by its very definition, was frequently absent from school, a period of time every day that first week was set aside for pretesting with the How I See Myself scale. It was thought that all of the students would be in school at least one day of that week. This was not the case. At the end of the week, four (4) of the identified students had not attended school and were then dropped from consideration. Between the time that parental permission was obtained and pretesting began, they had dropped out of school. This reduced the size of the population to 62.

Upon arriving at school the first day, a school counselor approached us with the information that he was involved in counseling sessions with five of the students. These were also released from further consideration as members of this study. During the first pretesting situation, one student got up during the reading of the instructions, stated that it was all a mistake and that the purpose of the study had nothing to do with him. He was assured that he would not be a captive against his will and that he could leave with expressed gratitude for his cooperation thus far. He also was not considered further. The population for the study was now 56 students.

The maximum/minimum number of persons who should comprise a counseling group for its maximum effectiveness is a debatable
rule which should be governed by the purpose or goal of the particular group concerned. Since the literature related to sociodrama shows its effective use with as few as three people as well as with an auditorium filled with hundreds of people, the actual number of people was not considered as important as the purpose of the group, i.e., to improve the school attending behavior of the students involved. Being highly cognizant of the fact that the identified students were frequently absent from school, it was decided that 15 students would be placed in each of the counseling groups.

Using a table of random numbers, 30 students were randomly selected to be placed in the experimental groups, with the remaining 26 students being considered the control group. A process of systematic, even-odd selection placed the 30 students in two groups of 15 each. The flip of a coin decided Group I to be involved in group counseling using an eclectic approach and Group II to be involved in group counseling using the technique of sociodrama.

The three groups were found equal on the basis of age as of the end of the second 60 days of instruction, and on average daily attendance based on the latest information from the school attendance records for the year, which was also the end of the second 60 days of instruction.

The group means for average daily attendance were: Group I, 76.142; Group II, 75.285; Group III, 73.964.
The group means for age were: Group I, 189.214 months or 15.767 years: Group II, 190.285 months or 15.857 years: Group III, 198.642 months or 15.803 years.

A simple, one-way analysis of variance showed that there was no statistically significant difference in the group means of the independent variables of average daily attendance nor age. This analysis supported the assumption that the initial randomization process had selected and equally distributed students who were similar on these particular variables.

After the groups were formed, two different teachers entered the room during the first sessions of counseling to remove a student from the group. The reason given was that the subject being taught at that time was more important and unless the student attended his scheduled class, he would fail that particular course. These two students, one from each group were released from active group participation but were maintained in the control group. A reanalysis of the group means for ADA and age by the use of one-way analysis of variance showed that there still was no statistically significant difference in the group means of these variables because of the shifting of these two members.

This researcher is well aware of other means which could have been used to form the three groups of this study. However,"....Biased sampling of groups is involved (in) all studies with matched groups or selected sampling" (Guilford, 1942; [ p. 145 ] ).
Description

The population of the study can be described using the following indices: sex of the population, sex of the head of the household, occupation of the head of the household and reading grade level of the population as evidenced by their reading scores in a nationally normed standardized test taken when they were in eighth grade.

There were 30 males and 26 females in the total population of the groups. Their distribution throughout the groups is shown in Table 1.

### TABLE 1

**DESCRIPTION OF THE SUBJECTS BY SEX OF GROUP MEMBERS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Group II</th>
<th>Group III</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The households of the students were headed by 30 males and 26 females. A description of the population by the sex of the head of the household is shown in Table 2.

**TABLE 2**

**DESCRIPTION OF THE SUBJECTS BY THE SEX OF THE HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Group II</th>
<th>Group III</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Head of Household</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There have been numerous classification schemes devised to reflect or ascertain the socioeconomic status of a person (Davis, Gardner, & Gardner, 1941; Duncan, Featherman, & Duncan, 1972; Drake, 1974; Elder, 1968; Frary & Goolsby, 1971; James & Pafford, 1973; Kaplan, 1943; Lunnesborg & Lunnesborg, 1968; McKenney & others, 1972).
The schemes are usually scales on which a person is rated according to income level, such as the amount of the income tax payment, the number and kinds of cars in the garage, the number of telephones in the home or even if there is a telephone in the house, whether the home is owned or rented - and if it is a single family or multifamily dwelling. Socioeconomic status has also been inferred by the educational level of the parents, i.e., if they are college graduates, high school graduates or even attended school at all. One of the most pervasive symbols of socioeconomic status has been the occupation of the male head of the household, which may or may not be related to income or educational level. Many of the scales are used in studies to infer a relationship with other variables such as academic achievement or motivation.

At the time that the parental permission slips were signed, additional information was gathered. It was determined whether the household was headed by a male or a female and what that person did for a living. Using Appendix B and Table #65 of the 1970 Bureau of Census report describing the general social and economic characteristics of the population of Georgia, the population of this study can be described using these major occupational groups (U.S. Doc, 1970). This description is shown in Table 3.

1. Professional, technical & kindred workers
2. Managers and administrators
3. Sales Workers
4. Clerical and kindred workers
5. craftsmen, foreman kinred workers
TABLE 3
DESCRIPTION OF THE SUBJECTS BY THE OCCUPATION OF THE HEAD OF THE HOUSEHOLD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupations</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>Total P.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group I</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group II</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group III</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>56</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of Population</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. Operatives, except transport
7. Transport equipment operatives
8. Laborers, except farm
9. Service worker, including private household
10. Unemployed

In no way is this sequence intended to imply that any occupational group has a higher social level or skill level than the other.

The State of Georgia requires state-wide testing of all its students at certain specific intervals during their school years. One such interval of testing occurs in the eighth grade. One of the tests used is a standardized, nationally normed reading test, the results of which are reported in grade equivalences or correlation. Only 37 scores were available. A thorough search for the missing reading scores revealed that these students were not in the DeKalb County school system in eighth grade, but had later moved into the system from another system or from out of the state.

Of the 37 available scores, one student was reading 2.0 above grade level, another .9 above level, one .8 above grade level, and one .4 above grade level. The remaining 33 students were reading below eighth grade level, in one instance 3.6 below grade level. The average reading level for the students whose scores were available was 1.6 below grade level. These figures, shown in years and months below grade level are similar to the results found in other studies concerning frequently absent students (Lacy, 1968; Walters & Kranzler, 1970).
Procedures

The How I See Myself scale was administered to the total population of 56 tenth grade students who had been identified from school records as being frequently absent from school. Frequently absent was defined as being absent eight or more days during a quarter of instruction which is 60 days in length. The ten English teachers who taught these students were asked to evaluate them using the Florida Key. English teachers were chosen because departmentalization in the high school made it impossible for the same teacher to evaluate each student, but each tenth grader did take a course in English.

After pretesting, the students were randomly placed in three groups. Two groups which originally contained 15 students each were scheduled for group counseling sessions. The third group, which originally contained 26 students was not scheduled for any type of structured counseling. After the reassignment of two students for reasons beyond the control of the researcher, each of the counseling groups contained 14 students each and the control group contained 28 students.

The groups met in counseling sessions lasting for 50 minutes and held twice weekly for eight weeks. The time frame of the sessions was selected to fit into the usual school quarter in order to minimize disruption of the school procedures. The decision of the 50 minutes per counseling session was made so that the sessions would take place during a regularly scheduled class period during the day.
A preliminary analysis of the data collected on the attendance of these students for the school year thus far revealed the following facts. More of the frequently absent students attended school on Wednesdays than on any other day of the week. The next most frequently attended days were Thursdays, then Tuesdays. Few of them attended school on Mondays and even fewer on Fridays. It was decided to hold the group counseling session on Tuesdays and Thursdays.

Group I met as a group in which an eclectic approach to counseling was used. Group II met as a group in which they participated in sessions using sociodrama. Group III received no structured group counseling and no further formal contact was made with them until the time of the posttesting.

As far as possible, both of the counseling groups were kept the same throughout the eight weeks of counseling except for the technique or mode of counseling. The same two facilitators led both groups. The eclectic approach of Group I was primarily nondirective in nature with the option for the counselors to become directive as needed. Group II acted out what Group I talked about. The procedure for both groups was to identify problems, explore the problems, and to reach tentative possible solutions after compromises and alternatives had been explored.

The first meetings of both groups were spent entirely in building a base of trust for the future development of the groups. Exercises
designed to assist the students in being more open about themselves and others were initiated. An example of this type of exercise is one in which the group member chooses a partner who will lead him by the hands around the room while his eyes are closed. Afterwards, he is encouraged to describe the way he felt with his eyes closed and tell why he opened his eyes when he did.

A tentative needs assessment was done in both groups. Their concerns and problems were enumerated, by verbalization or in writing. After each member was given the opportunity for input, several broad areas of mutual concern were evident. These concerned peer, parent-child, teacher-student, same sex-opposite sex relationships. There were concerns about school and interpersonal relationships with the people they met there. This period of needs assessment was not rushed because the areas of concern contained the situations which would be discussed in Group I and acted out in Group II during the succeeding meetings.

This was a continuous process which permitted the groups to identify the problems themselves and determine alternatives in the solution of them. What was not liked about the school? What would this idealized school or teacher be? What were their overt behaviors dealing with the situation as it was perceived to be? What were some different behaviors which could be initiated to bring about the desired change in the situation? The problems were explored from all angles with opportunity for each member to confirm or deny the magnitude or relevancy of the problem.
Interaction was encouraged between group members rather than only in one direction - toward the facilitators.

At first there was very little verbal interaction among members of the group. The students appeared to view the co-facilitators as "teachers" and "authority" figures who had to be obeyed. They appeared to have difficulty at first in believing that someone valued their opinions about something. When the students did talk, the statements were addressed to one of the facilitators. It was the end of the second week before tentative interaction among members of the group was apparent.

The week of spring vacation came at this time and much of the work toward building cohesiveness had to be repeated after the holidays. Much coaxing was needed to get responses from the students flowing again. By the end of the third week, the students had shed most of their resistances to disclosing things about themselves. They were reassured again and again that matters talked about in the group would be held in confidence.

Attendance in the group counseling sessions ranged from a high of twelve members to one day when the entire Group II counseling session was cancelled because of mandatory attendance at an assembly program.

At the end of the sixth week of counseling, failure slips were sent home to the parents of all the high school students informing them of any courses of work in which there was the possibility of the student failing if there was no improvement in work before the end of the quarter.
It was thought that this would disband the groups altogether, but this was not the case. The last session of the eighth week of counseling ended with stated feelings of comradery and a coke and cookies party.

The tenth week of the intervention by the experimenter involved sessions of posttesting with the How I See Myself scale. The same ten English teachers were also asked to give the students a posttreatment rating using the Florida Key for their evaluations.

In essence, the procedure was:

1. Collection of pretreatment ADA and demographic data
2. One week of pretesting with the How I See Myself scale and the Florida Key
3. Eight weeks of counseling sessions with Group I and Group II covering the same areas of concern but with the modus operandi being eclectic in Group I and sociodrama in Group II
4. One week of posttesting with the How I See Myself scale and the Florida Key
5. Collection of posttreatment ADA data

A faculty meeting was held in which the purpose of the study was explained in great detail and the rationale for the Tuesday and Thursday schedule presented. It was emphasized that no student was to be penalized in any way for attending a group. A system was set up by which each member of the faculty had the names of the students and the class periods that they would be attending the groups. That way, the student was to be
either in his regularly scheduled class or meeting with the group. This was seen as a necessary precaution to prevent the temptation of cutting class and the group. It was also explained at this time that as the counseling sessions progressed, if any teacher felt that a student could not miss any more classtime without failure being the result, that student would be immediately excused from the group. Tutorial help was offered, if attending the group was the deciding factor in a student's receiving a failing grade. The purpose of the study was to increase school attending behavior, not to contribute to school failure.

The major concern expressed by the administrators when stipulating that the persons who led the groups would be qualified to do so, was to be sure that safeguards would be initiated so that no irreparable psychological harm would likely result from the experience. At this time it was thought that to add this task of group counseling to the already strenuous duties of the school counselors employed in the school would be an unwelcome imposition. On the other hand, to use the services of those who had received recognition for themselves in the area of group counseling would have placed additional limitation on the generalizability of the study. The significant point to be made in choosing the facilitators was to show that with little additional training, a school counselor could effectively use the technique of sociodrama.

Two co-facilitators for the groups were chosen because it was felt that a director and an auxiliary ego, or double, would both be needed
for the forward movement of the groups. The same two persons led both
groups to control for counselor effect. Both were graduate students en-
rolled in planned programs leading to masters degrees in Guidance and
Counseling. One had eight years of public school teaching experience on
the high school level, but had little experience in leading groups. The
other had five years of very broadly based individual and group counsel-
ing experience with adolescents and young adults, both in the public sec-
tor and through affiliation with a major university, but had little teaching
experience.

Several briefing sessions were held with the co-facilitators prior
to the first day of counseling sessions, so that motives, purposes, goals
and cogitations would be more closely aligned. The procedure necessary
for the implementation of sociodrama was illustrated and examined in great
detail. The problem had to be first identified. Then the various characters
had to be identified along with the functions or parts those characters
played in the problem. After a little practice to warm-up the group, vol-
unteers would then enact the problem followed by a discussion of possible
solutions and/or the enactment of possible solutions.

The co-facilitators decided upon an approach of eclectic counseling
with which they both felt comfortable. After reviewing various methods
of counseling they used a method which was primarily nondirective yet
still retaining the flexibility to change the modality to fit the conditions of
the particular situation at the time. No type of role-playing was used as
a technique with the Eclectic group. It was emphasized that at all times the leadership of the groups would be a joint venture, with each serving in a complimentary function to the other's particularly unique skills.

There was no way of determining at this point, what the concerns of these particular students would be, but basic ground rules were established which were to be rigidly followed. First; the students, not the facilitators, would decide what their problems were that they wanted to explore. Second; there was to be no forced participation directed toward any person in the groups of students. Third; an essential slot of time near the end of the period was set aside for bringing the discussion to a close. Fourth; as far as humanly possible, the two groups would explore the same problems but in different ways. And finally, the facilitators and the researcher would meet once a week after the sessions had been held for a period of debriefing and planning for follow-up sessions in the next week of expressed student concerns which had not been fully explored because of the limitation of time.
CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Average Daily Attendance

At the beginning of the study, the groups were found to be equal on the bases of age and average daily attendance using the attendance records for the second quarter of the school year as the source of this information. All data concerning average daily attendance is shown in percentages. This ratio is the same as that used by the school system. Average daily attendance is the ratio of the actual number of days present, to the total number of school days enrolled. The means of the groups at the end of the second quarter are shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4

GROUP MEANS OF AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE FOR THE SECOND QUARTER OF INSTRUCTION, BEFORE THE EXPERIMENT BEGAN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Group II</th>
<th>Group III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eclectic</td>
<td>Sociodrama</td>
<td>Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 14</td>
<td>N = 14</td>
<td>N = 28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76.14</td>
<td>72.28</td>
<td>73.96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A simple, one-way analysis of variance showed that there were no statistically significant differences in the three group means of the independent variables of average daily attendance before the experiment began. This is shown in Table 5.

**TABLE 5**

**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ON AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE AT THE END OF THE SECOND QUARTER, N = 56**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Mean Sq</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>167.847</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groups</td>
<td>24.031</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error (G)</td>
<td>173.274</td>
<td>53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Chapter II of this study, it was stated that most authorities believe that students who are frequently absent from school establish this pattern of absenteeism long before the tenth grade in high school. Efforts were made to determine if this were true for the students involved in this study. Attendance records were made available from the beginning of their eighth grade at this school. This search resulted in the following data.
TABLE 6
AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE FOR GROUPS FROM THE BEGINNING OF THEIR EIGHTH GRADE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Eclectic Group I</th>
<th>Sociodrama Group II</th>
<th>Control Group III</th>
<th>Total Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grade 8</td>
<td>Grade 9</td>
<td>Grade 10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st quarter</td>
<td>94.2</td>
<td>83.5</td>
<td>76.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd quarter</td>
<td>87.8</td>
<td>81.4</td>
<td>76.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd quarter</td>
<td>83.5</td>
<td>80.8</td>
<td>76.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st quarter</td>
<td>91.7</td>
<td>84.7</td>
<td>76.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd quarter</td>
<td>82.5</td>
<td>82.1</td>
<td>75.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd quarter</td>
<td>83.3</td>
<td>69.4</td>
<td>74.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st quarter</td>
<td>90.6</td>
<td>78.3</td>
<td>71.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd quarter</td>
<td>87.8</td>
<td>81.0</td>
<td>73.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd quarter</td>
<td>78.9</td>
<td>76.7</td>
<td>74.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st quarter</td>
<td>91.9</td>
<td>81.2</td>
<td>74.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd quarter</td>
<td>86.5</td>
<td>81.4</td>
<td>74.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd quarter</td>
<td>81.2</td>
<td>76.1</td>
<td>74.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The diagram below illustrates this pattern of absenteeism and shows the downward trend which these particular students had established prior to the experimental quarter. Again, the data are shown in the figures of percentages, or the ratio of the number of days present to the total number of school days enrolled.

**TABLE 7**

AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE BY QUARTERS FOR GROUP I = ECLECTIC, GROUP II = SOCIODRAMA AND GROUP III = CONTROL; DURING GRADES EIGHT, NINE AND TEN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade 8</th>
<th>Grade 9</th>
<th>Grade 10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This preliminary analysis of the attendance records of the students used in this study showed that they were similar to students who have been described in other studies (Hilton, 1972; Lavanto, 1973; Thomson & Stanard, 1975). That is, absenteeism increases with each succeeding class and age group, and students are more frequently absent the last quarter or semester than the first.

Attendance records were obtained at the end of the third quarter after the experiment was finished. For this 60 day period of time the ADA for the groups are shown in Table 8.

**TABLE 8**

**AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE FOR THE THIRD QUARTER; EXPERIMENTAL QUARTER**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Group II</th>
<th>Group III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eclectic</td>
<td>Sociodrama</td>
<td>Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74.50</td>
<td>69.42</td>
<td>66.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=14</td>
<td>N=14</td>
<td>N=28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During the experimental quarter, four students dropped out of school from the Control Group III and one student dropped out of school from Sociodrama Group II. In order to determine if this low ratio of attendance would significantly affect the ADA means of their groups, a
"t" statistic was used to determine the direction and significance of pre-post ADA change. This is shown in Table 9. The average daily attendance for the groups did not significantly change, notwithstanding the dropouts which had occurred.

TABLE 9

SIGNIFICANCE OF MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ADA SECOND QUARTER AND ADA THIRD QUARTER FOR THE THREE GROUPS, PRE AND POSTTEST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pre M</th>
<th>Post M</th>
<th>M Diff</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group I</td>
<td>76.14</td>
<td>74.50</td>
<td>-1.64</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S D</td>
<td>10.58</td>
<td>16.01</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group II</td>
<td>75.28</td>
<td>69.42</td>
<td>-5.86</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S D</td>
<td>16.60</td>
<td>21.43</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group III</td>
<td>73.96</td>
<td>66.82</td>
<td>-7.14</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S D</td>
<td>14.03</td>
<td>23.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 14  Group I--(Eclectic)
N = 14  Group II--(Sociodrama)
N = 28  Group III--(Control)
A final analysis of variance on the average daily attendance of the groups was done. This analysis is shown in Table 10.

**TABLE 10**

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS ON AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE DURING THE THIRD QUARTER. N = 56 & 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Mean Sq</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>456.934</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groups</td>
<td>275.156</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error (G)</td>
<td>463.793</td>
<td>53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the information presented in the previous pages and in the Tables 4 through 9, hypothesis number one was accepted. There was no statistically significant difference in the mean average daily attendance before and during the experimental periods for the Eclectic, Sociodrama and Control groups.

The pre and post means with their respective standard deviations are illustrated in Table 9. The standard deviations, particularly for the Control group, show the effect of greater variability which the dropouts had for that group. It would appear that although there was attention focused upon these students by the study, it neither helped them nor harmed them in their school attending behavior.
The basic assumption underlying the How I See Myself scale is that the self-concept is not a unitary trait, but is composed of how the student sees himself in the various roles that he plays in his life (Gordon, 1968). For that reason, all of the factors contained in the scale were not analyzed for this study. It was determined that the factors of Teacher-School, Interpersonal Adequacy and Academic Adequacy were more relevant to this particular study than some of the other factors. Only those three factors named came under scrutiny for this study related to school attendance.

Teacher-School--There are six items which relate to this factor. They are items 8, 16, 17, 21, 32 and 37. The possible scores range from 6 to 30 with 18 being considered a mid-point.

Interpersonal Adequacy--This consists of 17 items; 2, 4, 6, 10, 12, 17, 18, 19, 20, 23, 24, 30, 32, 36, 38, 39, and 40. The scores could range from 17 to 85, with 51 being considered a mid-point.

Academic Adequacy--Six items make up this factor and they are items 21, 31, 33, 34, 39, and 40. The possible scores range from 6 to 30 and the mid-point is considered to be 18.

Some examples of the statements relating to these factors are:

8. Teachers like me 1 2 3 4 5 Teachers dislike me
A multiple classification analysis of variance showed that there was no significant difference between the groups nor within the groups at the .05 level of confidence before the experiment began. This was also true as far as the posttest data was concerned. However, there was significant pre-post change in how the students rated themselves. This significant pre-post change was evident in all three variables analyzed. The results of these analyses of these three variables are shown in Tables 11, 12, and 13.

There was no statistically significant difference between the groups nor was there a significant difference in the average variability of the scores within each group (interaction). The significant changes shown in these tables were caused by the differences in the pre versus post (trials) scores on the cited factors of the HISM.

For a clearer understanding of the multiple classification analysis of variance used in analyzing HISM data, it is well to remember that in analysis of variance, the two variances, "within" and "between," are unbiased estimates of the population variance. Individual scores do vary and this variance of individual scores is called "total" variance. The variation of group means from the total or grand mean of all groups is referred to as "between groups" variance. The average variability of the scores within each group is called "within groups" variance (Downie & Heath, 1970).
# TABLE 11

MULTIPLE CLASSIFICATION OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
BETWEEN THE THREE GROUPS ON THE HISM FACTOR
OF TEACHER-SCHOOL, PRE-POST, GROUPS POOLED.
N = 51

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>M Sq</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11.423</td>
<td>101</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>14.894</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>.291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error (G)</td>
<td>11.894</td>
<td>48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Trials</td>
<td>280.016</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>48.8090</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(pre-post)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G X T (interaction)</td>
<td>1.554</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.2709</td>
<td>.767</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error (T)</td>
<td>5.736</td>
<td>48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE:
Total = pre and post:  N = 102
Error = the denominator in the F ratio
Trials = pre and post
G X T = groups by trials (interaction)
### TABLE 12

MULTIPLE CLASSIFICATION OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE BETWEEN THE THREE GROUPS ON THE HISM FACTOR OF INTERPERSONAL ADEQUACY, GROUP POOLED. $N = 51$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>M Sq</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>84.180</td>
<td>101</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>9.562</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.149</td>
<td>.861</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error (G)</td>
<td>63.845</td>
<td>48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Trials</td>
<td>3447.540</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>84.008</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(pre-post)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G X T (interaction)</td>
<td>.573</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.0139</td>
<td>.986</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error (T)</td>
<td>41.037</td>
<td>48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NOTE:**
- Total = pre and post: $N = 102$
- Error = the denominator in the F ratio
- Trials = pre and post
- G X T = groups by trials (interaction)
TABLE 13

MULTIPLE CLASSIFICATION OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
BETWEEN THE THREE GROUPS ON THE HISM FACTOR
OF ACADEMIC ADEQUACY, PRE-POST,
GROUP POOLED, N = 51

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>M Sq</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21.696</td>
<td>101</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groups</td>
<td>.839</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.045</td>
<td>.955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error (G)</td>
<td>18.535</td>
<td>48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trials</td>
<td>642.512</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>47.662</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G X T (interaction)</td>
<td>5.345</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.396</td>
<td>.680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error (T)</td>
<td>13.474</td>
<td>48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE:
Total = pre and post: N=102
Error = the denominator in the F ratio
Trials = pre and post
G X T = groups by trials (interaction)
Sound statistical procedure requires that one answer the composite question first--are all three groups the same? The two-way analysis, where applicable, is one of the most powerful statistical tools available. Only after it is used and differences found is it appropriate to go on to other statistical measures.

Since the interaction term in no case approached statistical significance, it was dropped from all further consideration. Between group differences for pre and post failed to approach reliable difference, therefore they were also eliminated from all further consideration. However, the finding of overall significant difference in the pre versus post data dictated the need to perform pairwise contrasts by group.

Since there were overall significant differences in the mean scores pre-post on each factor analyzed for this study, it was decided to use the "t" statistic to test the size of this significant difference in scores made by the students before and after the experimental period. These pair-wise results are in Tables 14, 15, and 16.

The data shown in these tables demonstrate the significant increase in scores the students made when they were tested at the end of the experimental period. This positive change is shown for the Eclectic, Sociodrama, and Control groups in the factors of Teacher-School, Interpersonal Adequacy and Academic Adequacy.
TABLE 14

CONTRASTS OF PRE-POST MEAN DIFFERENCES RELATING TO THE FACTOR OF TEACHER-SCHOOL FOR THE THREE GROUPS. N=51

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Pre M</th>
<th>Post M</th>
<th>M Diff</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>18.21</td>
<td>21.07</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>17.00</td>
<td>20.15</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5.47</td>
<td>.0002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>16.54</td>
<td>20.20</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 14 Group I--(Eclectic)
N = 14 Group II--(Sociodrama)
N = 28 Group III--(Control)
### TABLE 15

**CONTRASTS OF PRE-POST MEAN DIFFERENCES RELATING TO THE FACTOR OF INTERPERSONAL ADEQUACY FOR THE THREE GROUPS. N=51**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pre M</th>
<th>Post M</th>
<th>M Diff</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group I</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S D</td>
<td>50.64</td>
<td>61.92</td>
<td>11.28</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5.39</td>
<td>.0002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.30</td>
<td>8.28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group II</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S D</td>
<td>50.30</td>
<td>62.07</td>
<td>11.76</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>8.71</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group III</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S D</td>
<td>49.50</td>
<td>61.25</td>
<td>11.75</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>6.52</td>
<td>.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.99</td>
<td>9.53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 14 Group I—(Eclectic)

N = 13 Group II—(Sociodrama)

N = 24 Group III—(Control)
Although there was a statistically significant difference between the data collected before and after the experimental period, there is no basis for concluding that sociodrama is responsible for the difference in that the difference was observed in all three groups and in the same positive direction. Therefore, hypothesis number two is accepted. There was no statistically significant difference in the groups of students in how they felt about themselves before and after the experimental period as measured by the mean scores on the How I See Myself scale for the Eclectic, Sociodrama, and Control groups.
Teacher Perception of Student
(The Florida Key)

The secondary form of the Florida Key is divided into four areas in which the student being rated is compared with other students of the same age. A student can be rated from 0 - never, to 5 - very often.

Relating has five statements and the maximum score is twenty-five (25). Asserting has seven statements with a maximum score of thirty-five (35). Investing has three statements with a maximum score of fifteen (15), while Coping has five statements for a maximum rating of twenty-five (25). Theoretically, the mid-points for these areas are approximately 12, 17, 7, and 12, respectively.

The group means of the first ratings given the students are shown in Table 17.

TABLE 17
PRE-TEST MEANS OF TEACHER RATINGS ON THE FLORIDA KEY
N = 56

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Group II</th>
<th>Group III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eclectic</td>
<td>Sociodrama</td>
<td>Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=14</td>
<td>N=14</td>
<td>N=28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5235</td>
<td>46.50</td>
<td>35.67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The first analysis of the ratings the teachers gave the students showed a significant difference in how they rated the members of the various groups (Table 18).

TABLE 18

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE BETWEEN THE THREE GROUPS ON THE PRE-TEST FOR THE FLORIDA KEY AS THEY WERE RATED AT THE BEGINNING OF THE THIRD QUARTER
N = 56

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Mean Sq</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>453.233</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groups</td>
<td>1443.508</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error (G)</td>
<td>415.864</td>
<td>53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This next analysis showed no significant difference between the groups in the areas of Asserting and Investing, but in the areas of Relating and Coping there was a significant difference at the .05 level. This is shown in Table 19.

In each case the Eclectic counseling group was rated higher than the Sociodrama group. The Sociodrama group in turn was rated higher than the Control group.
TABLE 19
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE BETWEEN THE THREE GROUPS
IN THE AREAS OF RELATING AND COPING,
PRE-TEST, FLORIDA KEY.
N=14: GROUP I; N=14: GROUP II; N=28: GROUP III
TOTAL: N=56

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I (Relating)</td>
<td>16.71</td>
<td>55 &amp; 2</td>
<td>4.904</td>
<td>.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>15.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>12.53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I (Coping)</td>
<td>14.71</td>
<td>55 &amp; 2</td>
<td>3.717</td>
<td>.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>12.28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>9.67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This further break-down showed that Group III, the Control Group, was rated far lower than the members of the other two groups with most of the differences being accounted for in the differences between Group I and Group III.

A further analysis evaluated Group I with Group II, then Group I with Group III, and finally, Group II with Group III. No differences of any significance were found between Group I and Group II in any of the areas of Relating, Asserting, Investing, and Coping. There was a significant
difference in the area of Relating when Group II was compared with Group III. It would appear, however, that the major differences in how the teachers rated the students occurred when Group I was compared with Group III. The total score was significant at the .05 level of confidence. This mean difference is shown in Table 20.

### TABLE 20

**SUMMARY OF THE STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES IN MEANS SCORES ON THE PRE-TEST OF THE FLORIDA KEY IN THE AREAS OF RELATING, INVESTING, AND COPING**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>M Diff</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relating</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>III</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>41 &amp; 1</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
<td>III</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.77</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investing</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>III</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coping</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>III</td>
<td>5.03</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.84</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 14--Group I (Eclectic)
N = 14--Group II (Sociodrama)
N = 28 -- (Control)

After the eight weeks of counseling sessions were held, the teachers were again asked to rate the students using the **Florida Key**. The mean score ratings are shown in Table 21.
An analysis of variance between the groups was done to determine if there were any statistically significant differences in these posttest means. Table 22 shows that there were no reliable differences in the posttest total scores.

**TABLE 22**

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE BETWEEN THE THREE GROUPS ON THE POST-TEST FOR THE FLORIDA KEY AS THEY WERE RATED AT THE END OF THE THIRD QUARTER

\[N = 56\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Mean Sq</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>686.970</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groups</td>
<td>1292.297</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error (G)</td>
<td>664.127</td>
<td>53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The grand total pre-post means for the ratings that the teachers gave the students are shown on the following table.

**TABLE 23**

TOTAL PRE-POST MEANS FOR THE RATINGS TEACHERS GAVE THE STUDENTS ON THE FLORIDA KEY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Group II</th>
<th>Group III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eclectic</td>
<td>Sociodrama</td>
<td>Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55.39</td>
<td>47.422</td>
<td>38.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A multiple analysis of variance was done to determine the pre-post significance of differences, if any. This analysis is shown in Table 24.

Since there had been a significant difference in the mean ratings of the pretest and no significant differences in the mean ratings of the posttest, it was decided to use the "t" statistic to test any differences in the same groups before and after the experimental period. There are no missing data for this instrument. Although four members of Group III had dropped out of school along with one member of Group II, the teachers still rated them but with a very low or "0" total score for the individual student. The results of this pre-post mean differences are shown in Table 25.
### TABLE 24
MULTIPLE CLASSIFICATION OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE BETWEEN THE THREE GROUPS PRE-POST, THE FLORIDA KEY, THE GROUPS POOLED

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>MSq</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>571.40</td>
<td>101</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>2688.12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error (G)</td>
<td>956.35</td>
<td>53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Trials</td>
<td>715.09</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.78</td>
<td>.01*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(pre-post)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G X T (interaction)</td>
<td>47.66</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error (T)</td>
<td>123.642</td>
<td>53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at the .05 level

**NOTE:**

Total = pre and post: N=102  
Error = the denominator in the F ratio  
Trials = pre and post  
G X T = groups by trials (interaction)

This table graphically shows that the teachers rated the students differently to a significant degree on the post ratings than on the pre ratings.
TABLE 25

SIGNIFICANCE OF MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST RATINGS TEACHERS GAVE STUDENTS ON THE FLORIDA KEY, ACROSS VARIABLES.

GROUP I = ECLECTIC, GROUP II = SOCIODRAMA, GROUP III = CONTROL GROUP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Pre M</th>
<th>Post M</th>
<th>M Diff</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relating</td>
<td>16.71</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asserting</td>
<td>15.78</td>
<td>17.78</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investing</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>6.57</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>.02*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coping</td>
<td>14.71</td>
<td>16.07</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>52.35</td>
<td>58.42</td>
<td>6.07</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Eclectic N = 14

| Relating    | 15.78 | 16.14 | .36   | .42  | .67   |
| Asserting   | 14.57 | 14.42 | -.15  | .08  | .93   |
| Investing   | 3.85  | 5.42  | 1.57  | 1.75 | .09   |
| Coping      | 12.28 | 12.35 | .07   | .05  | .95   |
| Total       | 46.50 | 48.35 | 1.85  | .49  | .63   |

Sociodrama N = 14

| Relating    | 12.53 | 13.03 | .50   | .54  | .59   |
| Asserting   | 10.82 | 13.28 | 2.46  | 2.01 | .05*  |
| Investing   | 2.46  | 4.17  | 1.71  | 3.12 | .00*  |
| Coping      | 9.67  | 11.32 | 1.65  | 1.38 | .17   |
| Total       | 35.67 | 41.82 | 6.15  | 1.80 | .07   |

Control N = 28

*Significant at .05 level.
The direction of pre-post change in teachers ratings of students was generally in the positive direction for all groups. The exception was Group II where the change was negative in the area of Asserting, although not significantly.

Group III had generally lower total ratings than the other two groups. However, their ratings showed positive significant change in the areas of Asserting and Investing. Group I also showed significant change in the area of Investing. It would appear that perhaps the Hawthorne effect was operating here for positive change. The teachers knew who the members of the three groups were but were never sure which members belonged to which group. It is conceivable that this knowledge of the experiment being carried out with the selected students was enough to lead them to rate all of the students more favorably on the post test, and in the case of Group III, the ratings were significantly more favorable.

The minor hypothesis is accepted. There is no statistically significant difference in how teachers perceive the students before and after the experimental period as measured by the mean rating scores the teachers give the students on the Florida Key for all three groups involved.

Even the significant changes which occurred in the Control Group in the areas of Asserting and Investing were not significant enough for the total pre-post means of this group to be statistically significant. There is nothing in the data to lead one to believe that counseling the students with the technique of sociodrama would in any way change the opinions of the students which the teachers held.
CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Discussion

Average Daily Attendance

It would appear from this study that absenteeism does start for many students long before the tenth grade. It becomes a pattern of behavior and like most patterns of behavior is exceedingly difficult to change. Certainly the pattern of absenteeism did not appear to be changed for the period of time for this study.

None of the groups behaved differently than the pattern of their past behavior would indicate that they would behave. The Eclectic group attended school somewhat more frequently than the other groups. The Sociodrama group attended less frequently still (Table 9, p. 108). The Control group did not attend school as often as the other two groups. The four who dropped out of school from the Control group certainly had some effect on the lowest average daily attendance for these groups as shown by the standard deviation for the experimental quarter means. However, none of the differences is significant.

There was no way within the limitation of this study to get a true picture of absenteeism for the students concerned. A student was counted
absent for the day strictly by the school attendance records. This required that he be in his homeroom each morning just after the first period in order to be counted present for the day. He could attend various classes throughout the day or no classes, and still be counted absent if he did not attend the homeroom period. This was a highly mobile, independent, street wise population which came and went for the most part as it pleased. Sometimes this meant that a parent would put the student off at the front door of the school, and the student would enter only to exit moments later by the back door.

One girl in particular, who was a member of the Sociodrama group, came faithfully to the counseling sessions and was a contributing member of the group as the recordings of the sessions would testify. Yet, she was consistently counted absent for the day because she would not go to the homeroom period. It is not known whether she attended her other regularly scheduled classes or not, since class attendance or absence was not the basis for this study.

Another problem with getting a true picture of voluntary absenteeism was the impossibility of controlling suspension. There was no way the rules of the school could have been changed just to accommodate this study, and no attempt was made to try. Although the study was focused on those students who had a history of being absent from school, it was not possible to determine if their absences during the experimental period was due to
their own proclivity or whether the school administration deemed it benefi-
cial for all concerned to give them an unrequested recess for a few days.
Had none of the students dropped out of school or had none been suspended
for various periods of time, it is quite possible that the ADA of the Control
group would have been equal to that of the Sociodrama group and the
Eclectic group and that all would have had a higher average daily attend-
ance. However, this is mere conjecture.

The overall results of this study bear out the opinion of others
(Lacy, 1953; Lavanto, 1973; Regal, et al., 1971; Walters & Kranzler, 1970).
The pattern of being absent from school is started early in the school years
and becomes progressively worse as the years go by, and students are
more likely to be frequently absent the last part of the school year rather
than at the beginning. This study concentrated on those almost sixteen
year old tenth graders who were in many cases just marking time until
the arrival of their sixteenth birthday so that they could legally remove
themselves physically from an environment which had not met their par-
ticularlar needs. Nothing done for them or to them was eventful enough to
alter this trend significantly.

Student Concept of Self

The assumptions of this study proceeded along the lines that an
adequate measure of concept of self can be gained by the use of the self-
report. Also adopted for this study is the belief that the self can be best
measured by focusing on a particular facet or aspect of self, such as the student self. This line of reasoning does seem to hold the most promise for empirical testing and also seems to be more receptive to change than those theories which try to test or change the entire or global self (Brooker, et al., 1971; Caplin, 1969; Denmark, 1970; Douglas, 1971).

A very interesting phenomenon occurred with the use of the How I See Myself scale. None of the groups were significantly different from each other when the subjects took the pre-test before the group counseling sessions began. Nine weeks later, when the students were post-tested, there still was no significant difference among the groups. But great change had occurred for all the groups during the period of time of the study.

It was a generally held belief that any concept of self is very difficult to change and requires a long length of time for any change which might occur to show up in such an instrument as the one used. Yet all groups showed significant change in the pre-post situation. The Control group showed the most change of all in the areas of Teacher-School, Interpersonal Adequacy, and Academic Adequacy.

It could very well be that the four students who dropped out of school from the Control group were the ones who did not think well of themselves in the areas focused upon, i.e., Teacher-School, Interpersonal Adequacy, and Academic Adequacy. This can never be determined and will forever remain a guess at best. There is no pre-post data available for them. It can be determined that according to the means of the groups there
was no statistically significant difference among those who had remained in school.

Each group made a pre-post change of over eleven points in a positive direction. This positive change cannot be attributed to counseling with Sociodrama or with an Eclectic method since change was also experienced by the Control group which was exposed to no type of structured group counseling. The only thing which the three groups had in common was that attention was focused on them for the weeks of the study. Some members of the Control groups expressed disappointment to the co-facilitators at not being a part of the counseling groups.

Were these students so starved for attention that the mere fact of being singled out to participate in a study of any kind in any way, even peripherally was enough for them to think of themselves in a more positive manner? This line of reasoning seems to follow along and reinforce that of others; concept of self can and does change (Feather, 1968; Flowers and Marston, 1972; Meichenbaum and Smart, 1971). Interwoven throughout all of the literature of the strategies used to reach these hard to reach students is the common denominator of the impact of friendly attention (Goodyear, 1974). What a mandate to all who touch the lives of our students in any way during their school years!
Teachers' Perceptions of Students

Although there was no apparent difference in how the students felt about themselves across groups in the factors of Teacher-School, Interpersonal Adequacy, and Academic Adequacy, on the How I See Myself scale, the Florida Key presented an entirely different picture of the groups.

The first ratings the teachers gave the students showed a significant difference at the .05 level as to how they saw the groups of students in the areas of Relating, Asserting, Investing, and Coping. The Control group was rated lower by chance than the other groups in all areas concerned, and significantly lower than the other groups in the areas of Relating and Coping.

Something happened during the experimental period which could not be attributed to group counseling with Sociodrama nor to group counseling using an Eclectic approach. All three groups had higher total scores for the post experiment ratings than they had before the experiment began. The Control group in particular made great strides as seen by their teachers, in asserting themselves. By this time, four members of the Control group had dropped out of school. If this happened to be a process of active decision making on their part, this could be interpreted as a means of self-assertion. However, these dropouts still got very low or "0" ratings on the post ratings. So it had to be those who had remained in school who were the objects of the tremendous increase in favorable perceptions by the teachers.
It is more likely that another process took place which would cause the teachers to rate the students higher on the posttest Florida Key. This is known as the Hawthorne effect and it is considered to be operating when a person behaves differently just because he believes that there is something in the environment which is making him behave differently. This effect can be seen when a doctor prescribes a placebo of any kind to a patient and the patient somehow is convinced that his symptoms have disappeared. Perhaps the teachers saw the students differently because they believed that the identified students were receiving some kind of treatment that would make them better students. If this was true, then it is also possible that the students sensed a more positive change in the teachers' perception of them and therefore behaved differently.

All of the teachers who rated the students knew that they were involved in some kind of special program which, it was explained to them, would be beneficial to the students. It is believed that the teachers paid attention to these students in a way in which they had not paid attention before. One girl in the Control group was rated 56 on the pretest and 99 on the posttest. It could be that she was noticed and was seen in a more positive manner than she had been seen before. Perhaps she finally came into focus out of the background of the many students a teacher sees each day.
A graphic illustration of students coming into focus as individuals can be demonstrated by an occurrence which happened in the teachers' lounge. It was near the end of the week set aside for post-testing after the groups had met for the last time and after the post ratings on the Key had been collected. One of the teachers remarked to me that she had seen such a great improvement in the behavior of X and Y students and that she believed that the counseling sessions had helped them a great deal. She said, "I don't know what you're doing, but X and Y really seem to be more interested in their work now."

As I thanked her for her encouraging words, I surreptitiously looked through the notes I was carrying only to discover that the students she had mentioned were in the Control group and therefore had not been exposed to any type of structured group counseling.

Could these more positive ratings by the teachers on the Florida Key have been reflected in changed behavior by the teacher towards the students so as to affect the students importantly enough for them to see themselves in a more positive manner on the How I See Myself scale? I believe that the two effects are interwoven. Here, as in other studies, how we see ourselves is dependent in a large measure on how others see us (Berkowitz and Lundy, 1957; Davidson and Lang, 1971; Goodyear, 1974; Meichenbaum and Smart, 1971; Olsen, 1970; Thompson, 1974; and Thornburg, 1975).
Another phenomenon apparent here is the Pygmalian effect noted in the Rosenthal studies (Rosenthal, 1968). Teachers were told that the students were part of a beneficial study, so the teachers saw significant positive changes in their behaviors. Because teachers saw the students in a more improved light, the students saw themselves in a more positive manner.

**Recommendations**

We do know that there are many reasons why students drop out of school. After all the reasons are condensed to one operational dimension, the results can be summed up by one all inclusive, overly simplified statement. The students feel, rightly or wrongly, that the schools are not meeting their particular perceived needs. What is going on in the classroom is not perceived by them as being either important or relevant. They perhaps discover that they are not perceived as relevant. It is time to try something else or rather a multifaceted approach is needed to solve a multifaceted problem.

If attempts are ever made to replicate this study, I would recommend that the researcher somehow get a commitment from the school administrators to suspend their actions of suspensions and expulsions for the duration of the study, except for the most serious offenses which would result in serious
physical harm to self or others. This is the only way a truer picture of voluntary absenteeism can be obtained. More than one member of all the groups was suspended for one reason or the other during the course of the study.

Instead of suspensions, perhaps a more logical solution would be to initiate a system of rewards instead of punishments. One Georgia school system did just that by instigating competition between the schools to see which one would have the highest attendance rate. The reward for the winning school was a day's outing at a local amusement park. Attendance did improve.

But rewards do not have to be on this large a scale. A school could initiate competition between grades with the resultant rewards being geared to that school's budget and the desires of the students in that particular school.

When the problem of absenteeism reaches such an excessive dimension as it has in many schools, it calls for each person in the school to become an active participant in trying to solve it. Teachers can no longer say, "It's not my problem... I'm just here to teach." In fact, the problem of excessive absenteeism is pointing out the need for teachers to look at their own methods and modalities for presenting their particular discipline and to become cognizant of the possibility that their techniques have not kept up with the changing times.
Another question which was raised by this study is the fact that these 51 subjects, who were all Black, had mean scores on the HISM factors which were lower than the mean scores on the same factors made by Black students in the Yeatts study in northern Florida, which included 2,347 Black students in her total population of 8,979 (Gordon, 1968). Even with the significant gains which the students made pre-post in this study, they still were below the means found by Yeatts.

With so limited a population as this study contained, it would not be wise to even try to make absolute comparisons. But some questions were raised. Do Black tenth graders in Georgia think less well of themselves than do Black tenth graders in Florida? Do students who are more frequently absent from school think less well of themselves than do students who attend regularly? Future research is needed to answer these questions.

The students in both counseling groups were asked for their permission to tape the counseling sessions. With the understanding that their identities would not be revealed to anyone, they disclosed candidly why they did not come to school and offered their own solutions to the non-attendance problem. It is believed that some of their solutions to the problem could not be put into effect in any public school with public education as it is now fashioned. Other suggestions which they made were amazingly like those for which many educators have long battled. They saw some of their needs with startling clarity. Many of the following recommendations are based on the students' perceptions of their own needs.
A different and better curriculum geared to the reality of the world in which we live is needed to help develop in our children the skills which they need to make better lives for themselves. This does not mean to develop skills needed to cope or to survive, but skills that will make their lives better and this takes schooling. It does not mean schooling as it is presently constructed, either. That kind of schooling has been tried with these frequently absent students, and it has been met with glaring failure after failure.

An alternate program with a more relevant curriculum is needed for these students. I suggest an open campus concept based on acquiring competencies rather than the graded social promotions that are prevalent now. The regular high school as we know it now needs to be kept and improved upon for the vast majority of students whose needs it meets. However, the open campus concept permits a student to come to school at various different times of the day and the importance of tardiness and absenteeism would be greatly minimized. This program would be based upon the acquisition of certain competencies in an area and level of learning which must be mastered before the student is permitted to go on to the next level of this same area.

I also recommend that every teacher in America, every day, say some kind word or show some kind action to every child who is in every class being taught. This will take little time but will require a lot of concentration on the teachers' part until it becomes a habit.
The increase in the scores that the students made on the How I See Myself scale and the increased ratings by the teachers on the Florida Key would lead to the interpretation that positive feedback from teachers has a strong relationship with the students having more positive feelings about themselves. Would it not follow, that students would attend more often a place where they perceived themselves as being persons valued by others?

As was stated the counseling sessions were tape-recorded, and in the Sociodrama group in particular, the roles of the teacher were not portrayed flatteringy. There were examples of the master put-down statements by the teachers directed toward students which cut them to the core. Again and again in the sessions, the students asked for respect. This, more than anything else they wanted from the personnel of the school; just a little respect.

When does absenteeism start? Does it sometimes begin in first grade as many believe? Are the schools to be blamed for not addressing themselves to the needs of the students? Are the students to be blamed for not taking advantage of this opportunity to be educated? Are the parents to be blamed for not making their children go to school? Are the courts to be blamed for not enforcing attendance laws?

An answer to these questions was not attempted within the parameters of this study. Anyway, most efforts directed toward fixing blame
would for the most part be wasted effort. It is well known that a problem exists. Now is the time for concentrated effort to be expended toward solving it.

This research has been an endeavor in the direction of trying out a different strategy to solve the problem. It cannot be called a failure because it did not show a statistically significant change in attendance in the mathematical sense. Although the students did not attend school more often than they had done in the past, the positive change in their concept of self and in how the teachers who taught them viewed them was well worth the effort spent.
### How I See Myself

Developed by Ira J. Gordon, Director, Institute for Development of Human Resources, College of Education, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida 32601.

1. I rarely get really mad 1 2 3 4 5 I get mad easily
2. I have trouble staying with one job until I finish 1 2 3 4 5 I stick with a job until I finish
3. I am a good artist 1 2 3 4 5 I am a poor artist
4. I don't like to work on committees 1 2 3 4 5 I enjoy working on committees
5. I wish I were taller or shorter 1 2 3 4 5 I am just the right height
6. I worry a lot 1 2 3 4 5 I seldom worry
7. I wish I could do something with my hair 1 2 3 4 5 My hair is nice-looking
8. Teachers like me 1 2 3 4 5 Teachers dislike me
9. I have a lot of energy 1 2 3 4 5 I have little energy
10. I am a poor athlete 1 2 3 4 5 I am good at athletics
11. I am just the right weight 1 2 3 4 5 I wish I were lighter or heavier
12. The girls don't admire me 1 2 3 4 5 The girls admire me
13. I am good at speaking before a group 1 2 3 4 5 I am poor at speaking before a group
14. My face is very pretty (good looking) 1 2 3 4 5 I wish my face was prettier (better looking)
15. I am good at musical things 1 2 3 4 5 I am poor at musical things
16. I get along very well with teachers 1 2 3 4 5 I don't get along well with teachers
17. I dislike teachers 1 2 3 4 5 I like teachers
18. I am seldom at ease and relaxed 1 2 3 4 5 I am usually at ease and relaxed
FLORIDA KEY - SECONDARY SCHOOL FORM

NEVER: 0  VERY: 5  OCCASIONAL: 3  FAIRLY: 4  OFTEN: 3

Name of student to be evaluated

Compared with other students of the same age, does this student:

1. get along with other students?
2. get along with the teacher?
3. keep calm when things go wrong?
4. say good things about his school?
5. tell the truth about his school work?

RELATING:

6. speak up for his own ideas?
7. offer to speak in front of the class?
8. offer to answer questions in class?
9. ask meaningful questions in class?
10. look people in the eye?
11. join in school activities?
12. talk to others about his school work?

ASSERTING:

13. seek out new things to do in school on his own?
14. offer to do extra work in school?
15. write independently

INVESTING:

16. finish his school work?
17. pay attention to class activities?
18. do his school work with care?
19. exhibit goal-setting behavior?
20. recognize realistic limitations?

COPING:

TOTAL:

Teacher: ____________________________
Student's: Sex _____ Age _____ Grade: _____

Dr. William M. Purkey
Dr. Bob N. Cage
Dr. William Graves
APPENDIX B: CORRESPONDENCE
Memo to: Mrs. Barnetta M. White
From: Donald G. Schultz
Reference: Research Study

Dr. Hinson has referred your request of November 23, 1974, to me for handling. We do attempt to cooperate on doctoral studies whenever we can.

After your proposal has been formalized and approved by the faculty at Atlanta University, please contact me and present the specific proposal. At that time we will discuss specific high schools, size of sample, instrument to be used, etcetera.

While I am granting tentative approval, final approval on your proposal cannot be granted until all specifics have been received.

If you have further questions, please feel free to contact me.
To the parents of

I am presently employed by the DeKalb County Board of Education as a certified school counselor. The research study that I am doing focuses on ways of improving school attendance, and it has the approval of the school system. The students selected will be involved in group counseling sessions led by qualified counselors. They will be given tests before and after the counseling sessions. It is hoped that the beneficiaries of this research are not only the school system, but the students themselves.

I can assure you that the names of the students and any other identifying information gathered are for this researcher's eyes alone, and will be completely obliterated at the end of the study. If you would like, I will discuss the results with you.

May I have your permission to include your child in this study?

Sincerely yours,

Mrs. Barnetta M. White

Permission is ___ is not ___ granted.

(signature of parent or guardian)

I have discussed Mrs. White's study with her and find no reasons that this study would not be profitable to this community.

Principal
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Cutts, B. South leads in growing school crimes. The Atlanta Constitution, 1975, April 10, 1 & 23-A.


Frary, R. B. & Goolsby, T. M. *Classification of Students According to Father's Occupation (Occupation of Mother or Guardian if Father is Absent)*. U. S. Department of HEW, Office of Education, 1971.


Georgia School Laws, Georgia Department of Education. Atlanta: The Harrison Company, 1972. (This compilation of Georgia education laws was taken from the Code of Georgia, Unannotated Edition).


Kaplan, A. A. Socio-Economic Circumstances and Adult Participation in Certain Cultural and Educational Activities. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943.


Malpass, L. F. Some relations between students' perceptions of school and their achievement. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1953, 44, 475-482.


Morse, J. L. The dropout, the school, and the community. English Journal, 1972, 61 (8), 1232-1238.


RESUME

Barnetta McGhee White

Career Objectives
Personnel field; Public Relations; Social and Educational Consultant; Counselor Educator

Present Status
Doctoral Candidate at Atlanta University, due to receive a Ph.D. degree in August, 1975; Counselor with DeKalb County C.E.T.A. Program

Education
High School: Mary Potter Academy; Oxford, North Carolina
College: West Virginia State College; B.A. Degree with Drama major, English and History minors
North Carolina Central University; practice teaching, Hillside High School.

Graduate Schools: Columbia University, NYC, Speech and Drama--University of Texas at El Paso; University of Colorado, Colorado Springs; Atlanta University; Master's Degree in Guidance and Counseling

Employment (public school teaching)
1965-1969 Taught Social Studies and Reading in the El Paso, Texas, City School System. The students were mostly Chicanos
1961-1962 Taught English in Camden, New Jersey, City Schools. Students were from a variety of racial and socio-economic backgrounds
1952-1954 Taught Drama and English in Fayetteville, North Carolina, schools. State-wide recognition for work done with the Drama group

Other Employment and Miscellaneous
1972-1974 Child Success Consultant with teachers and students at Moreland Elementary School as an EPDA Fellow in Pupil Personnel Services
RESUME of Barnetta McGhee White

Other Employment and Miscellaneous (continued)

1973-1974 Workshop leader for teachers' inservice training; Curriculum writer for the Atlanta Public Schools to develop techniques and strategies for individualizing instruction

1974 January: Program Presenter at the Georgia School Counselors Association annual meeting in Macon, Georgia

1973 Summer Drama teacher with the Metro-Atlanta Trio Upward-Bound Program

1973 May: Assisted Dr. Richard Korn, Psychologist, in a psychodrama presentation at the opening session of the APGA convention in Atlanta

1973 Combined score on the National Teachers' Examination of 1419

1972-1973 Volunteer Counselor at a school for youthful offenders

1972 Awarded the Rocky Mountain Region, graduate fellowship from the Soroptimist Federation of the Americas, Inc.—the first Black ever to receive this award

1971-1972 Substitute teacher and department store salesperson in Colorado

1962-1964 Substitute teacher in Munich, Germany, with Army dependents

1961 Taught college-level Speech at Fort Bliss, Texas

1952 Taught English to Korean war veterans to help them get their high school equivalent diplomas

Organizations
APGA, ANWC, NEA, GAE, Urban League, NAACP, Delta Sigma Theta, NCNW.