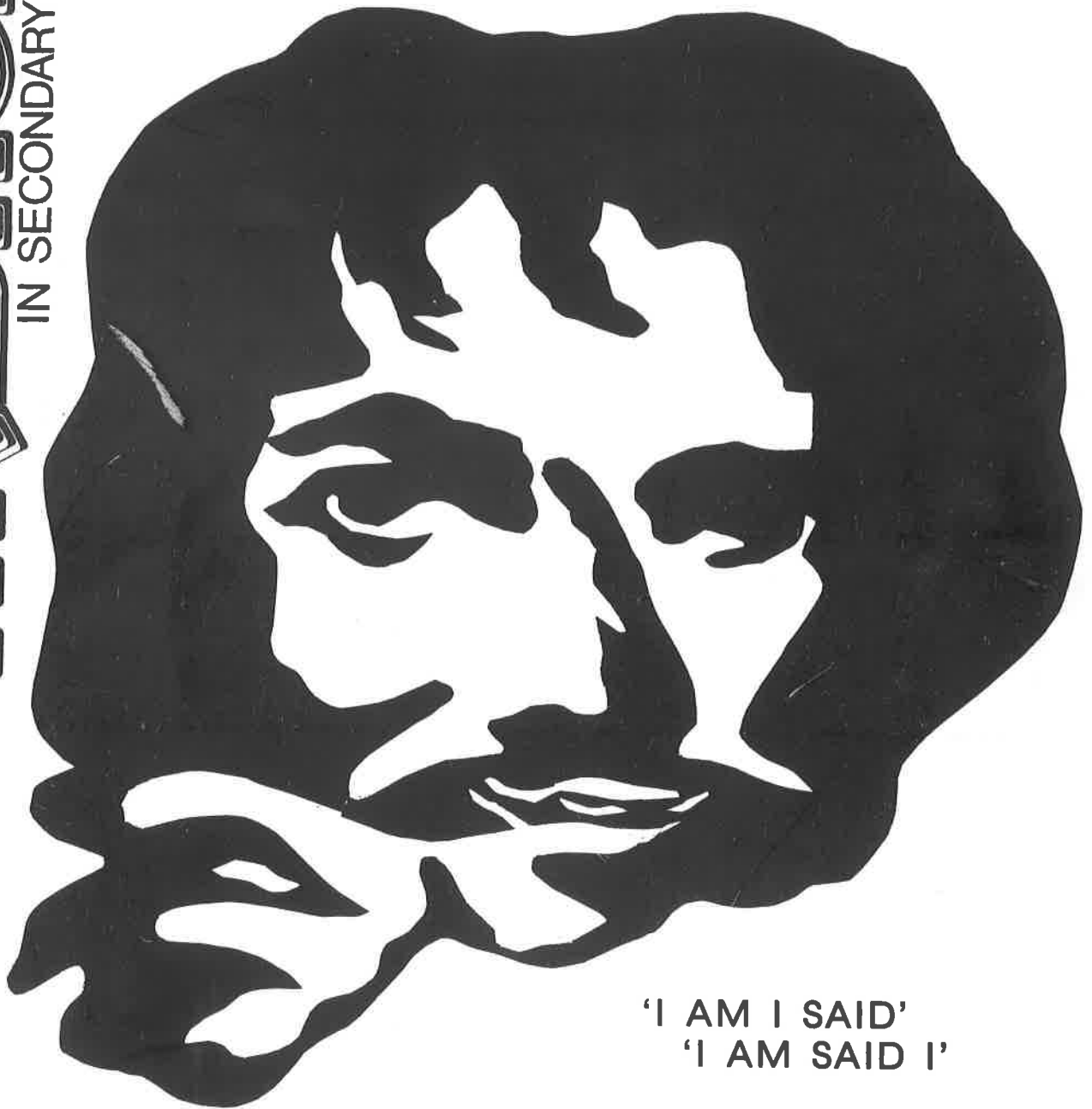


SUMMER, 1977
VOLUME III, NUMBER 2

HERSHOIDS
IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

HUMONICS



'I AM I SAID'
'I AM SAID I'

HUMANISTIC EDUCATION PSYCHOLOGY

A Learning Theory for Humanistic Educators

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THRESHOLDS

IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

VOL. III, NO. 2
SUMMER 1977

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Editorial

by John and Roberta Starkey

Human rights and the humanist viewpoint are significant and important issues today. President Jimmy Carter has focused on individual human rights, and his words have echoed throughout the world. The mores and tenets of mankind are thus silhouetted in the right to be human. This issue of **Thresholds in Secondary Education** is dedicated to "Humonics"—the humanist viewpoint of educational psychology. These voices in America are attempting to strengthen the humanist point of view in beliefs, learning, success, motivation, participation, values, and effects of failure.

The factor-analytic research of the co-editors in beliefs, personality, and self-concept shows how these aspects fit together in humanist education. Most of the teachers in secondary schools and undergraduate teacher-candidates would prefer to be treated humanistically rather than behavioristically. If the Golden Rule is applied to educational psychology, then "Humonics" could become a word which means humanistic harmony in education. This could point the way for our treating others as we would like to be treated.

Teachers are seeking a method of teaching which will help students develop self-discipline, a value the teachers cherish. Dr. Arno Luker, long-time head of the Department of Psychology, Counseling, and Guidance Center at the University of Northern Colorado, developed a learning theory and method which will enable the teacher, who understands how the whole student is involved in learning, to provide a climate conducive for this learning to occur. For many years, in the counseling field, this learning theory has been the basis for helping students develop self-direction and responsibility. Now for the first time it is published for teachers. As most teachers read this theory, they will realize that this is the method whereby the students learn best and enjoy it most.

In humanistic educational psychology, motivation and goal setting come to the forefront. In Johnson's article, portraying the ideas of Maslow, motivation is shown to be more internal than external. This Third Force psychology zeroes in on goal-setting as it is influenced by the needs as they are satisfied or can be satisfied by fulfillment of the lower level needs. The human being has motivation, but the internal goal-setting procedure has to be enhanced sufficiently to allow it to develop in a way which will be the most beneficial to the individual.

Several researchers have used the Ames Philosophical Belief Inventory to compare the beliefs of teachers and counselors. Ames has shown some insights into this very important part of humanistic education. Many people recognize the difference in beliefs, yet our traditional behavioristic educators have tried to squeeze many individuals into the same educational mold. Margaret Many shows the relationship between self-esteem and achievement. Brottmeier advocates the theory of

success for the individual and proposes a model for accomplishing this from the viewpoint of a secondary English teacher who takes a very positive approach to success in writing. Hamachek emphasizes the effects of failure and brings us new humanistic research. It is true, as Keppers says, that more college professors of education should get out of the ivory towers and see what humanistic education is all about. Starkey brings up the issue of "Who Controls You," which squarely faces the issue of whether we are reactive or whether we can be active, thereby using the humanistic approach to be in control of ourselves. Swan lists the audio-visual aids which portray the humanists' viewpoints. This technology should be invaluable to the humanist.

The humanist viewpoint is contained in insightful, goal-directed, self-motivated learning. It is a belief in trust, values, self-esteem, and success in individual differences. "HUMONICS" is characterized by self-actualization and by harmony among beliefs. The humanistic philosophical beliefs, psychological tenets, learning theory, technology, hypotheses, and needs are all potentially available, but we don't all utilize these fully to engender a cornucopia of humanistic application to pullulate an efficacious "HUMONICS."

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Philosophy and Education

by Kenneth Ames

Ever present, though often at the periphery, in the shaping and implementation of American education are considerations from philosophy. The history of American Education chronicles the varying philosophical context within which American schools have been developed and managed; generally, the education enterprise has been directed towards the achievement of various, broad goals, goals more frequently than not having emerged from the apparent, generic philosophical ground of American society. Illustrations of the reflectiveness of educational goals with reference to the aims and needs of society were clearly identifiable in such sweeping programs as those sponsored through the National Defense Education Act in 1958. More currently, the philosophic pendulum of American education may be seen to include in its arc both foundation for liberal education as well as for career preparation. And, a growing philosophical controversy in American education as a study in philosophical pluralism. And, if true, this

pluralistic character may be construed further as a strength of education in this country, facilitative of educational flexibility, and a source of productive diversity in the design and delivery of educational programs and services.

A long-time concern of the present writer originated in the numerous observations of many that philosophical assumptions of educators remain implicit, and, therefore, are not readily accessible for the many important applications otherwise available to the professional educator. One result of this circumstance, or so it appears, has been and continues to be the tendency of educators at all levels to place disproportionate emphasis on the technology of education. Too seldom have such questions been deeply examined within the realm of educational philosophy as: "What ought be taught/learned?" "What should I teach (counsel, administrate, etc.)?" "Why education?" There exists, in the writer's view, a preoccupation with the means of education, and, conversely, a relegation to lesser stature of concern for the ends of education. Never more crucially than today, perhaps, American educators must seriously consider the Socratic

dictum that people cannot afford the unexamined life. Even though the educational criteria by which living is to be chosen, examined, and judged for its effectiveness are highly complex, the effort must be made. Following are selected illustrations of the need for increased attention to philosophical matters by American educators.

Interface of Youth, Schools, and Philosophy

As societal opportunities, alternatives, and problems mount in number as well as in degree of complexity, today's youth, in the writer's view, are experiencing a high-level personal-psychological need to acquire both the bases as well as the skills and information with which to direct, understand, and appreciate their lives. And, it seems, the task of promoting the development of personal philosophy among learners is a valid enterprise of the school. If this supposition is accepted, then the means for achieving this educational end deserve attention.

In the days when alternative life-styles were apparently fewer, education was generally aimed at providing learners with information, on the implicit assumption that somehow the learner would effectively interpolate between

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information learned in school and ways of behaving which would enable her/him to cope well with the demands and excitement of living. Yet, as concluded in **Siddhartha** (Hesse, 1951), "Knowledge can be communicated, but not wisdom." Perhaps, the wisdom required for human competence is the appropriation of knowledge by the learner, then integration into the world of her/his personal experiences, a world comprised of a variety of human relationships, of a multitude of personal perceptions, as well as a myriad of alternatives from which to choose daily.

Youths have long been encouraged to complete their education; too often the economic rewards of having an education have been highlighted as the major reason for doing so. Recent surveys of various groups of educators have found them, generally, to rank highest in importance those educational goals pertaining to work or to skill development, and to rank lowest those goals addressing the development of aesthetic sensitivity. Consider, in this regard, Maslow's view (1968) stated in support of his concept of intrinsic education: "This intrinsic education may well have art education, music education, and dancing education at its core. It could very well serve as the model, the means by which we might rescue the rest of the school curriculum from the value-free, value-neutral, goal-less meaninglessness into which it has fallen."

Kazantzakes (1965) in describing his pursuit of life goals, asked direction of his grandfather, who, in a dream, told the boy, "Reach what you can." Unsatisfied with what appeared to the young Cretan to be too modest a challenge, he asked again. This time the response boomed out, "Reach what you cannot!" A corollary seems to exist between the experience of Kazantzakes and

what appears to be emerging from important educational research, a relationship of considerable implication for current education: that learning goals are personal, that the self-perceptions of persons who are learners bear extraordinary influence upon **what** and **how** people learn. From the philosophy termed **phenomenology** comes support for the emphasis given the personal and immediate experience of learners. This philosophical stance may well be the most cogent base available to educators who would build school environments in which the effective interfacing of youth and philosophy can occur.

In short, education must directly engage selected philosophical questions and content if learners are to develop personal foundations for effective, satisfying living. Theobald and McInnis (1968) in writing of the college curriculum underscored this premise: "A freshman...needs to know how to think, he needs to be able to art (i.e., create), and he needs to discover the nature of the world in which he lives...thinking comes before writing...We might also introduce a course in social reality." These notions are worthy of consideration, and appear adaptable to any dimension of American education.

Some Philosophical Considerations for Education in the Future

In an attempt to summarize, several philosophical considerations are presented next. The writer believes these views to have current importance; however, thoughtful attention to the points raised here may be imperative to the success of future educational endeavors in America.

1. Education must address more effectively than it has the relationship of whole people to their total environment. Effective living is relational! Too often educational effort has been characterized by

fragmentation; numerous circumstances today seem to bear grim testimony indicating that too many people live their lives in too extensive a degree of isolation from some significant element(s) of their environment. Our physical world suffers from a lack of responsible partnership and understanding from the people who live in it. Although educators are not singly responsible for accomplishing the development of such a partnership, it seems clear that their role towards that end is a vital one.

2. Philosophy provides some explanation of human nature; among the explications, some considerable emphasis is given the social nature of people, and education must more adequately accept and address that human characteristic in its programs and services. Although each person is unique in many ways, a significant commonality among people, in the writer's view, is the tendency to learn from one another. The needs exists, then, to maximize the social dimension of learning process and content. Learning occurs in the context of human relationships; from this perspective, the causes of social justice as well as individual fulfillment derive.

3. Finally, the writer believes there exists a phenomenological imperative to future education. Educators must fully accept the phenomenological view that people live, albeit in a real, external world, in a very personal way. Metaphysics depends upon personal definition. Values, those commitments which guide actions, finally depend for their meaning upon what each person has been able to accept personally, internally. Numerous applications over an approximate ten-year period of time of the **Ames Philosophical Belief Inventory** among educators suggest a general preference by educators for the philosophy of

Continued on 25

A Learning Theory for Humanists

by Arno Luker

This theory was developed to assist the student and teacher to understand how behavior and/or learning takes place. To understand how behavior and/or learning occurs the teacher must observe that there are a great many interacting variables which result in behavior and or learning. The individual interacts as a whole being but the variables may not all operate at the same time with the same amount of influence. In order to give the reader a total picture, the sequential steps are given, and then these will be described and explained. The steps follow: (1) the organism develops a state of tension or disequilibrium; (2) a perceptual event occurs; (3) the new perceptions interact with, modify, and are organized and modified by the perceptions and the cognitive structure which already exists; (4) a behavior evolves from this process; and (5) the tension or disequilibrium states change.

A STATE OF TENSION OR DISEQUILIBRIUM

First the organism develops a

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state of tension or disequilibrium. This tension or disequilibrium is a result of bodily processes leading to tissue needs. These needs may be primary ones such as hunger, thirst, sex, and elimination, etc. This tension or disequilibrium may also result from internal or external stimuli, or secondary needs. The individual develops disequilibrium or tension by lacking, wanting, or requiring something. Thus, the providing of motivation is not the task of the teacher for motivation is present in the individual. The teacher's function is to help the student understand how his/her needs can be met by learning the materials which are offered. In this internal state of disequilibrium, which creates tension in the individual lies the motivation of the learner.

Besides the bodily forces, then, there are the present perceptions of potential threat or enhancement of the phenomenal self. This phenomenal self may be defined as the way the individual looks internally into themselves, or as they perceive the self. This thesis maintains that tension is produced by the way one sees the situation as relating to oneself. If the learner can perceive a benefit in learning second year algebra in high school

because his/her older brother learned algebra and is now a successful engineer, this then will cause a disequilibrium as he/she would like to become an engineer, however he/she doesn't know algebra. Learning algebra would be an enhancement of the phenomenal self, as then he/she would be preparing for the job of engineer by acquiring a skill not presently possessed. Furthermore, it could be a threat to him/her is all his/her friends tell him/her it is too difficult a subject to take in high school. This then causes additional tension which challenges him/her unless it reaches too high a level, and then it becomes a deterrent. Actually he/she may worry about the difficulty of the course rather than the tenets contained therein.

Thirdly, if both the bodily processes and perceptions of the present situation are working together then the student is doubly certain to have an excellent motivation in wanting to learn. Although in the Western World it has been found in studies that the Chinese language is very difficult for the Westerner to learn, it must not really be all that difficult because almost every little Chinese boy and girl, even at the dull normal level, learns to speak

MODEL FOR LUKER'S THEORY

BODY

BODY

BODILY CONDITIONS:
 STRUCTURAL
 GLANDULAR
 MUSCULAR
 PHYSICAL
 SENSORY ACUITY
 ETC.

BODILY CONDITIONS:
 HEALTH
 EMOTIONAL
 ENERGY LEVELS
 FATIGUE
 COORDINATION
 ETC.

MOTIVES
 EXTERNAL - INTERNAL
 GROWTH - DEFICIENCY
 CONSCIOUS - UNCONSCIOUS

EXCITATION, DISEQUALIBRIUMS
 NEEDS, DRIVES, GOALS
 ENERGIZERS - DIRECTION
 SETTERS

TENSION STATES
 VECTORS - VALENCES
 ENERGY SYSTEMS
 FORCES



PHENOMENAL FIELD

PHENOMENAL SELF

SELF CONCEPT

Perceptions, Cognitions, Conceptualization

(CONCEPTS CONCERNING)

1. THE SELF
2. BEHAVIOR CONSISTANT OR INCONSISTANT WITH CONCEPT OF SELF
3. OTHER PEOPLE AND THE UNIVERSE
4. TECHNIQUES, METHODS, STRATEGY
5. VALUES AND GOALS
6. LIFE, DEATH, EXISTANCE
7. CLASSIFICATION SYSTEMS

PERCEPTUAL EVENT
 ENVIRONMENT
 OBJECTIVE - PSYCHOLOGICAL
 STIMULUS OBJECTS - STIMULI
 CHANGING DYNAMIC PROCESS
 FIXED - STATIC

BEHAVIOR
 OVERT - COVERT
 ELICITED - EMITTED
 EVOKED - SELF GENERATED
 OPERANT - RESPONDENT
 CHOICE

Chinese at two or three years of age. These Chinese children perceived themselves as able to communicate with others.

The states of tension or disequilibrium leads to and provides energy for activity designed to reduce the state of tension. This in turn restores the state of the equilibrium. However, this tension does not determine or set the direction of the activity or behavior which is an attempt to satisfy the disequilibrium. This may be a key point in determining why a student is misbehaving in the classroom. The student may have energy and be acting up but not really know the reason, except that action and excitement seem to be the most desirable pathways to follow. If a student wants to learn, then, half of the battle is won. The motivation is there but the paradoxical dilemma is motivation toward the student's goal rather than the teacher's. This creates great strife in the classrooms and although teachers give lip service to a progressive and liberal point of view, they find themselves not being able to discern the goal of the student and make it relevant with the aims of the administration. The tension and disequilibrium are there ready to help the student learn.

A PERCEPTUAL EVENT OCCURS

Although tension states do not set direction, they possess psychologically identifiable characteristics which enable perceptions to act selectively. First, they may choose to respond only to certain portions of the objective field. Thus in a classroom, a student may have in the objective field; the teacher, teaching a concept of American History; a friend, with whom a party is being planned for the weekend; and thirty other students of different sizes and shapes sitting in various postures. The students objective field contains the history lesson being taught but the lesson itself is not selected for attention.

Therefore, the student learns very little about the concept in American History although it was an excellent lesson and well presented.

The perceptions may act selectively also in organizing the sensory impulses. The student may turn attention to what would be the most fun, because it has been so long since any party has really been entertaining and the senses desire entertainment. If the desire is to fuzzy up the concept of the self along with the unpleasant problems confronting the student's self, then getting drunk or thinking about drinking may be the perceptions selected. However, if it happens to be near noon and the student had no breakfast, then food may be the subject of selection. The student might think of the party and the fact that there will be hot dogs, potato chips, yes, especially potato chips, for the sensation of hunger is present.

Thirdly, the organisms tension state has characteristics which enable perceptions to act selectively in determining and setting direction for the activity designed to reduce those tensions. The student then whispers to the friend, "How about a blast over at my house tonight? Everyone is coming and I'm having hot dogs and potato chips." With the direction determined, and the direction set for the activity, then the student may proceed on to other activities and might even listen to some of the presentation about American History.

In presenting the learning process, it is necessary to discuss the occurrence of the perceptual event which takes place in the learning process. A perceptual-event is composed of sensory impulses received and organized at a particular moment. The properties of the event are determined by several factors and four of these will be discussed in order. Goldenson in *Encyclopedia of*

Human Behavior defines perception as, "The process of becoming aware of objects, qualities, or relations via the sense organs; includes such activities as observing, recognizing, discriminating, and grasping meanings." The Gestalt viewpoint, as taken from the **Dictionary of Behavioral Science**, by Benjamin B. Wolman, "Perception results from an innate organizing process. The basic unit is a configuration which is a whole that is greater than the sum of its parts and which determines the parts. An isomorphism between the organizing processes in perceived configurations and the chemical-electrical events taking place in the brain is postulated."

The individual's perception of the event is altered by the need states which exist at the moment. In the learning situation this cannot be overstressed. The perception of the person is crucial to the learning process. It is well known that often in a murder trial, where there were numerous witnesses many different stories are related to juries. Thus students, hearing the same American History presented may perceive it differently. In the learning process, the feelings or sensory needs of students must have an effect on their perception.

Secondly, the properties of the perceptual event are affected primarily by the selective processes of perception which focus receptor activity upon particular aspects of the objective field. The perceptual properties are also affected by need states which help to choose and organize the impulses which follow. In looking over a room full of students, if the teacher sees one student who is misbehaving, then the selection process immediately focuses on this student maybe to the exclusion of most of the others. If the teacher has been having discipline difficulties, then the reaction which follows the perception of the student's misbehaving would be

vastly different than if the teacher were a sure, experienced, and calm teacher with an excellent self-concept. Many of the discipline problems could be avoided if they could be kept in their proper perspective. Many times this is impossible because of the choice and organization of the replies which the teacher makes when a breach of conduct occurs.

ORGANIZATION & MODIFICATION OF PERCEPTIONS

Thirdly, the properties, arrangement, and organization of the objective field limit the stimuli available for initiating receptor activity and to some extent, determine the relative ease with which various available stimuli actually initiate receptor activity. This emphasizes the importance of the objective field when the student sees something or perceives a situation, or an object. The perceptual event itself then is influenced by the interaction of the perception of the person and the perception of the environment. This interaction then is a simultaneous one rather than an alternating one.

There are differences in bodily conditions which influence the effectiveness with which the sensory and perceptual effect on activity can be carried out at the moment. A hungry student reacts quite differently from a student who has had a large lunch. If the temperature is warm, but not excessively hot and the student has had a large lunch, then the chances are an inactive student will become drowsy.

The structure and/or the condition of the sensory organs at the particular moment help determine the precision with which it can function and, therefore, to some extent, the properties of the perceptual event. This is the capacity and the ability of the learner. The learning system of the highly intelligent is much better organized than the system of one of

low intelligence. There are wide differences in the ability of different learners, and differences within those systems as to the capacity to learn different materials.

The structure and/or condition of the sensory organs, at a given time, would influence the perceptual and effector activity. The completeness of the learning system, the ability to physically see, hear, smell, and touch; as well as the motor ability influences perceptual and effector activity. A starting tackle for the Chicago Bears, who was six feet six inches tall and weighed two hundred and fifty pounds, would not react to a six foot tall man who had a baseball bat and was attacking him; in the same manner as a five foot tall, eighty pound eleven year old girl, who was not allowed to play outside for fear she would get hurt, would react. The girls would be terrified if the man intended to harm her, but the football player would be angry. More than likely, the small girl would be injured, yet more than likely in the case of the football player, the man with the baseball bat would be injured.

The state of fatigue of the body would also influence the perceptual image. The illustration of allowing the horses to run around and around the threshing machine until they were tired, and then could be pulled up to the thresher and allowed to rest, illustrates very vividly that animals do not react in the same way then they are rested as when they are fatigued. The state of fatigue affects the learning ability as well as the physical energy in the body because the tired person does not perceive in the same way as does the identical person who is rested and fresh. When a serious and reasonable effort to solve a problem has failed it is better to leave it for a short time until the person is somewhat rested and then to try again. This is a better psychological axiom than

working on and on and becoming more and more fatigued when attempting to solve a problem. The need states which exist moment by moment change somewhat, and the resultant perceptions also change.

COGNITIONS AND PERCEPTIONS

The word cognition comes from the Latin word *cognoscere*, which means to know. *Cognito* is knowledge. It indicates the structure of the knowledge as known by the learner. Perception is derived from *percipere*, which means to seize. Webster gives it as the act of perceiving or receiving impressions by the senses; that act or process of the mind which makes known an external object. It is generally agreed by the Gestalt psychologists that the perception is a conscious act and is known to the mind.

The most important cognitions and perceptions are (1) the concept of the self and the phenomenal self; (2) the concepts of behavior and roles which are consistent with those concepts; (3) those concepts concerning the availability and the relative effectiveness of the techniques used in adjustments of the individual; and (4) the concepts concerning the availability and the relative importance of various goals and values.

BEHAVIOR EVOLVES

There are various ways in which the perceptions or cognitions are developed. Initially, when the organism is under a state of tension, the first sensory impulses are organized into broad, vague, concepts. These lead to broad general movements or responses, which in turn are accompanied or followed by sensory activity. The sensitivity of the organism changes according to the tension state.

By a gradual process of differentiation and individuation more specific concepts are developed and more precise reactions

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Effects of School failure

by Don Hamachek

It is a curious and sad paradox to note that, in a land where education is so highly valued and so much the key to one's personal advancement and society's total growth, approximately one-third of those students who start first grade this year will drop out before reaching the eleventh grade. If history repeats itself, as it has a knack for doing, these students will drop out not because of a sudden whim or capricious impulse, but because of more or less continuous exposure to failure experiences which reinforce feelings of worthlessness and inadequacy. On the average, over one million young people leave school each year. One of the first explanations for this staggering number is that those who drop out are ones who cannot benefit from educational experiences anyway. Were it that simple. The fact is, well over half of those who drop out have average to above average mental ability. For example, in a U.S. Department of Labor study of seven widely dispersed, middlesized cities, six percent of the dropouts were found

to have IQs over 110 and 55 percent had IQs over 90. (Schreiber, 1964)

The question is, why do so many young people drop out of school? Some, we know, leave because they're bored. Others leave because they're angry or emotionally disturbed or both and it is doubtful whether any school program—no matter how good could hold them. The great majority, however, drop out because they simply cannot tolerate more failure and the commensurate feelings of low self-worth and self-esteem. This being the case, it should come as no surprise to note that one of the major findings of Bachman's (1971) four-year study of dropouts was that dropout's self-esteem **got higher** once they were out of school. In fact, measures of self-esteem of those who graduated were not much higher than those who had dropped out. What a sorry commentary it is to think that a student must leave school in order to feel better about himself!

The dropout and the dropout problem has been stressed to this point because it is one very explicit and dramatic consequence of failure experiences, which have occurred too early and too frequently among those who leave

school. What we haven't mentioned are those hundreds of thousands of children who are victimized by early school failure experiences, but who do not choose so dramatic an exit as dropping out. Rather, they persist on through school, suffering quietly and inwardly, and eventually graduate into a competitive society which demands not only a reasonable level of competence in some kind of work, but also a certain degree of confidence in one's ability to do the work. Unfortunately, thousands of young people graduate after thirteen years of school feeling somewhat helpless, hopeless, and defeated. Feelings like these, whether among those who drop out because they can't tolerate more failure among those who stay in and suffer through it, start during the early school years.

For example, although researchers indicated that approximately 70 percent of all dropouts complete at least a ninth grade education, there is increasing evidence to show that the negative attitudes about school and thoughts about leaving it begin early in a student's school experiences. Lichter, (1962) for example, found that the reason was not the result of any specific learning failure, but rather a broad

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educational disability which, for boys in particular, started in elementary school.

WHY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SUCCESS IS SO CRUCIAL

Success experiences for elementary school youngsters are important because they can be numbered among those positive early happenings upon which an increasingly more complex psychological superstructure can be built. In order to build a firm house, we give it a firm foundation which rests squarely on solid ground. The same is true for the human psyche. In order for it to be strong, it must begin with a firm foundation. Some adults, as we all know, have very shakey foundations and these must be repaired before further growth is possible. These are the years when the footings of a child's personality are either firmly established in experiences of success, accomplishment, and pride in himself or flimsily planted in shifting sands of self-doubt, failure, and feelings of worthlessness.

An elementary age child is in the early phases of forming his concept of self. This is not to say that he is a selfless soul who has no sense of identity whatsoever, but it is to suggest that **his sense of who he is and what he can do is incompletely formed**. Characteristically, an elementary age youngster is quite malleable and impressionable. He is not only ready to please adults, but to **believe** them as well. Indeed, what adults say about him or how they evaluate either his person or performance is incorporated more readily, more easily, and more uncritically than at any other stage during his developmental years. This means that the feedback a child receives from peers and adults—particularly significant adults like parents and teachers—is more likely to have a greater impact because it is more readily absorbed into a developing, self-system, which, precisely

because it is still developing and incomplete, is more open to input and more available to change.

Early school success is crucial for three basic reasons: 1) subsequent success is not only easier to build on to early success, but it also seems more possible to the student; 2) early success gives him not only a sense of competence and accomplishment, but also establishes a precedent with which he can strive to be consistent; 3) early school success makes any later school failures more bearable because they are more likely to occur within a consolidated self-system buttressed by achievement and fortified by personal accomplishment.

As noble or as worthy as early school success may be, it unfortunately is not available to all students. Two widely used practices, letter grades and nonpromotion, doom thousands to failure at a very time in their lives when they are apt to be most lastingly influenced by it. Both of these practices are notorious for their negative effects on a developing child's personality, motivation, and subsequent achievement.

EFFECTS OF LETTER GRADES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Let me begin by saying that I do not mean this to be an indictment against letter grades per se. At the high school level, I believe they can serve a useful, functional purpose. But using them at the elementary school level when children, growing at vastly different developmental rates, are just getting their bearings can be psychologically damaging. For bright children with high achievement needs, letter grades are no problem. They usually receive high marks and enjoy the challenge of competing for them. For many other children, however, letter grades are continual reminders to them that they are not doing as well as the others and that they are slow learners. As one sixth grader expressed it after

receiving four D's and one F on his report card, "I must **really** be dumb." In ways like this, a child's **performance** gets translated into **feeling** and over a long enough period of time the **perception** of "dumbness" is converted into a **conception** of "dumbness," which is far more difficult to change.

Alexander: (1964) has quite correctly noted that low marks function more as a threat of failure than as motivation for improvement. More often than not they are actually punishment for previous failure, poor past environment or emotional problems. As a young elementary school child continues to experience failure, he begins to perceive himself as a poor achiever. And once a negative self-perception sets in, there is the great likelihood that he will continue to perform at a low level no matter what his ability. (Hamachek, 1975)

The low-ability student confronted with letter grades is defeated before he begins. The marking system with its normative criteria leads continually to more difficult goals for the lower-achieving student and also for the student who simply is not developmentally ready to take on certain subjects.

In spite of our lip-service to the documented evidence which supports the concept of wide individual differences in growth among elementary age youngsters, some schools nonetheless persist in behaving as if all children were ready for the same curriculum at the same time. Nothing could be further from the truth. As one small example of the wide disparities in academic readiness among elementary children, a typical fifth grade class may reflect a range of reading skills all the way from those who are still at the second grade level to those who are reading at the high school level. By definition, on a standardized test, 50% are at or above grade level and 50% at or below grade

average. This does not necessarily mean that students in this 50 percent or more are less smart than their fellows, it may only mean that developmentally they still have some growing to do and have not yet completed the business of putting it all together in order to cognitively handle the symbol manipulation necessary for reading at grade level.

All in all, the letter-grade system in elementary schools is an almost certain method of guaranteeing that up to forty percent of all elementary age children will be exposed to failure, and thus encouraged to incorporate a failure attitude as a part of their self-image during their most impressionable years of development.

EFFECTS OF FAILURE THROUGH NONPROMOTION

A popular educational assumption underlying the practice of non-promotion is that the retained student is better able to overcome his deficits in subject matter savvy than he would be were he passed on and exposed to new material. Researchers have consistently shown that such an assumption is built more on myth than fact. Some of the evidence:

1. Nonpromotion does not reduce the range of abilities within a particular grade level; that is, grades with a high proportion of repeaters are as apt to have as wide a range of ability differences as grades with a low proportion of repeaters. (Cook, 1941)
2. Failed students during two years following failure do not progress significantly greater than promoted matches during the single year spent in the next grade. (Coffield and Blummers, 1956)
3. A policy of "achieve or fail" seems to have a more negative effect on students who are being retained than those who are not. Although there is a

trend toward increased achievement in the school with an "achieve or fail" policy, the increase is limited largely to those who are in no real danger of being retained anyway. (Kowitz and Armstrong, 1961)

4. Achievement does not decrease when students ceased to be threatened by the possibility of nonpromotion; e.g.,:
 - a. No difference in reading ability was found over a ten-year period when a school changed to a 100 percent promotion policy. (Hall and Demnrest, 1958)
 - b. Children who were told at the beginning of a school year that all would be promoted did as well on comprehensive achievement tests as those who were reminded throughout the year that they would not be promoted if they didn't do good work. (Otto and Melby,)
5. Retention of students because of their inability to achieve academically can have undesirable effects on their personal-social adjustment. (Morrison and Perry, 1956)
6. Lack of motivation and subsequent poor school achievement is positively related to a student's experience with non-promotion; e.g.,
 - a. Of those students dropping out between grades 8 and 9, all had experienced non-promotion at least once and over four-fifths had experienced nonpromotion twice. (Livingston, 1959)
 - b. Out of 2,000 children who began first grade at the same time in the same school system, 643 dropped out before completing high school. All but five of these dropouts, 638, or 99 percent, had been retained in the first grade. As a combined total, these 643 students failed a total of more than 1,800

grades during their first six years of school. This averages out for each dropout failing every other year for six years! (Godfrey, 1971)

The list of indictments against nonpromotion practices are long and convincing. Whether nonpromotion is looked at on the basis of subsequent academic achievement or emotional-social consequences, the general view leads to a rather dismal picture of grade retention as a means for facilitating a child's psychological or intellectual growth. Repeating a grade is an event of enormous importance to a child. It can be a particularly bad experience for those children who must return to the same school, the same curriculum, and the same teacher. For example, research indicates that if a nonpromoted student repeats a more or less identical program his second year, he generally makes no more progress than he would had he been promoted. (Coffield and Blummers, 1956) On the other hand, there is evidence to indicate that the nonpromoted pupil has a better chance of improving when exposed to a different kind of program the second year. (Goodlad, 1963) There is also evidence to suggest that deleterious social and emotional effects of repeating a grade can be lessened for the child when the reason for school failure is based primarily on his immaturity for the grade in which he has been placed. (Chase, 1968) That is, if a child understands that he is repeating because "he has got some growing to do," then the overall negative impact of grade repetition can be reduced. reduced.

CONSEQUENCES OF EARLY SCHOOL FAILURE EXPERIENCES

With mind-boggling consistency, research concerned with mental health and adjustment shows that adults who fail were usually youth

who failed. For example, Robins (1966) studied 500 guidance patients thirty years after they had been brought to attention as children for deviant behavior and reported that the more severe the maladjustment in childhood, the more disturbed was the adult adjustment.

These conclusions are similar to Powell's (1966) findings which indicated that failure in school is also likely to contribute to a rejection of norms of the larger society, and normlessness appears to be related to crime. There is also evidence to relate school failure experiences to juvenile delinquency. For example, Speigelman (1968) found a high negative correlation between educational attainment and the probability of being arrested for committing a major juvenile crime. Even when the differences in the probability of being arrested due to other factors (e.g., race, family income, family size, presence of both parents at home, IQ scores), it was found that high school dropouts were three to five times more likely to be arrested for committing a juvenile crime.

Kolberg's, et al (1972) monumental review of literature related to the predictability of adult mental health from childhood behavior noted that research rather consistently binds a moderate association between early low school achievement and almost every obvious expression of adult maladjustment except suicide and neurosis. However, it is not the low school achievement itself which is related to later adult maladjustment, but rather those behavioral factors which most likely **cause** low school achievement, as, for instance, low IQ, lack of attention, difficulty with authority figures, and general rule-defying behavior. Kolberg makes the excellent point that "because underachievement is associated with defects in these ego-strength variables (trouble

with authority figures, lack of attention, etc.), underachievement is a statistical predictor of all major forms of adult maladjustment (and) it seems likely that early school failure is itself an environmental cause of later low status....." (p. 1242)

What this all points to is the establishment during the early school and high school years of an attitudinal set which can have either a positive or negative valence and which can influence, for good or evil, subsequent life achievement. Apparently, a student's feelings about his ability to do school work are rooted in his early school experiences and these determine, to a great extent, both the intensity and direction of his emerging self-image as a student.

EFFECTS OF SUCCESS AND FAILURE OR SELF-IMAGE DEVELOPMENT

There is evidence to suggest that a low or negative self-image can have adverse effects on a child's school performance even at a very young age. For example, Wattenberg and Clifford (1964) found that an unfavorable view of self is already established in some children before they enter first grade. Evidence for this was in their findings which indicated that measures of self-concept and ego-strength made at the beginning of kindergarten were more between an overall estimate of mental health and academic were measures of intelligence.

The direction a child's self-image starts in is usually the direction in which it continues. Glidewell and Stringer (1967), for instance, found that a significant relationship was demonstrated between an overall estimate of mental health and academic progress over a three year period. They concluded that a child who experienced school success over a number of years was not only apt to have a higher self-concept than a child who experienced school

failure, but was also more likely to be immunized against subsequent emotional problems.

An inevitable question in any discussion related to self-concept and school success or failure is the one which asks what come first, a positive self-concept or success experiences in school? It is not possible to give a definitive answer to this question because the fact is, we just don't know for sure. However, even though it is not possible to say with precision which comes first, good school work or high self-regard, **it does not seem unreasonable to suggest that each is mutually reinforcing to the extent that a positive change in one facilitates a positive change in the other.** That is, if a child begins school with a low level of self-confidence and self-regard and experiences sufficient success, we could reasonably expect that his concept of self as far as school ability is concerned will be elevated. On the other hand, an equally plausible possibility is that if a youngster begins school with high confidence in his ability to do school work and experiences excessive failure his concept of self may be lowered. Under these conditions he will either have to shift his focus to other areas, usually nonacademic, to maintain his self-esteem, or continue to lose self-confidence and self-esteem.

IN CONCLUSION

There is substantial evidence to link both a student's school behavior and achievement to his feelings about himself. As a general statement, high self-concept students do better in school than low self-concept students, although this is not always so. The possession of a high positive self-concept does not cause good or high academic achievement, but it does seem to be related to it. The attitudes a student has about

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Self Esteem

by Margaret Many

Self-esteem, a construct rooted in ideas expressed by the ancient Greeks (Diggory, 1966), has received increased attention especially in the last several decades. With the growth of the behavioristic psychology movement, the study of self declined only to be revived during the recent humanistic psychology movement. From this revival has grown self-concept theory, an integral part of which is self-esteem.

One of the earliest modern day discussions of self-esteem is that offered by William James (1890). He reviewed the concept of self as including one's aspirations and one's values, as well as communal standards of success and failure as being essential to the favorable or the unfavorable regard of one's self. He defined self-esteem as a ratio of one's actualities to one's potentials. Webster (1947) defines self-esteem as "respect for oneself." Coopersmith (1967) defines self-esteem as "an individual's personal judgment of worthiness expressed by the attitudes he holds

about himself." According to Coopersmith, self-esteem expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval of oneself and indicates the extent to which one believes himself capable, significant, successful and worthy.

Mead (1934), Sullivan (1953), Adler (1927), Rogers (1951), Syngg and Combs (1949) likewise related the self to the adjustments one makes in life through interpersonal relationships and interaction with the social environment. Although theories of self-concept development vary, there appears to be general agreement that it is not present at birth but develops as the individual interacts with environment. Thus, we see the importance of the environment and significant others to the development of the multidimensional concept of self, of which self-esteem is a part.

Sullivan (1953) suggests the individual is constantly guarding against loss of self-esteem which in turn produces anxiety. This ability to diminish or avoid the loss of self-esteem develops to a great degree during early familial experiences and other interpersonal relationships.

Horney (1942) similarly proposes that adverse factors produce feelings of helplessness and

isolation (feelings she terms as basic anxiety). One method she suggests for coping with feelings of anxiety is the formation of an idealized image one's capacities and goals, which can also lead to dissatisfaction when unrealistic levels of achievement are not met.

In summarizing the theories of self-esteem, Coopersmith (1967) extracts the following possible influences on the self: (1) the amount of respectful, accepting and concerned treatment that one receives from significant others and the valuing by other of oneself and extensions thereof, (2) the history of one's successes and the status and position one holds in the world, (a person usually aspires to achieve in areas he regards as significant so as to enhance his self-esteem), (3) the interpretation and modifying of experiences in relation to one's values and aspirations and (4) the person's manner of responding to devaluation or the ability to defend one's self-esteem and therefore, lessen the painful experience of anxiety in overall maintenance of personal equilibrium.

The importance of educators being aware and studying self-esteem is brought out by research linking self-esteem with academic

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productivity and emotional health in school children. The theories pertaining to self-concept and self-esteem along with related research suggests the interaction with significant others - adults and peers - is a prime factor in developing a child's self-esteem. Teachers, are for many students, significant adults. Also, important to teachers and others working with young people is the notion that a warm, supportive environment in which one experiences successes seems conducive to the development of positive feelings towards oneself. Furthermore, self-esteem is an important determinant of behavior which contributes to success in the school situation.

SELF-ESTEEM AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Witkins, et al. (1962) have associated self-esteem with critical thinking. Self-esteem was found by Wattenburg and Clifford (1964) to be the best predictor of reading achievement. In addition they found measures of self-concept and ego strength at the beginning of kindergarten to be better predictors of reading achievement than measures of intellect. Coopersmith and Silverman (1969) proposed that "...self-esteem is a better predictor of a child's future success in school than intelligence."

Jones (1968) found self-esteem to be positively correlated with the grade point overall of 300 high school seniors and with the GPA and S.A.T. scores of 877 college sophomores (Jones and Grieneids, 1970). Kern (1970) concluded there was a positive relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement using the students' cumulative grade point average as the dependent measure.

The academic achievement of high school and college students was found to be related to self confidence, self-acceptance and a positive feeling about the self by Gowan (1960). Shaw and Alves

(1963) found that high school underachievers had negative concepts about themselves and Brookover, Patterson and Thomas (1964) obtained similar results from seventh grade students. Merritt (1971) concluded that self-esteem is related to success in vocational type classes as well from his study of the relationship between self-esteem and grades in home economics.

The relationship of self-esteem and reading achievement with students in ninth grade as subjects was studied by Herbert (1968). Of 24 students with high reading comprehension, 17 had high self concepts and seven had low self concepts while of the 26 subjects with low reading comprehension 18 had low self concepts. He concluded from this that students with low self concepts tended to be low in reading comprehension. Roth (1959) found significant differences in the self-perceptions of college students enrolled in reading classes for those who improved, those who did not improve and those who dropped out of the program.

However, Hammes (1972) found a negative correlation between self-esteem and achievement motivation for high school seniors. Yet, for the most part studies have tended to support a positive relationship between measures of self concept and self-esteem and academic success.

In summarizing research on self-esteem in relation to academic achievement of students. Purkey (1970) stated:

"There is a persistent and significant relationship between the self-concept and academic achievement at each grade level, and change in one seems to be associated with change in the other. ...Although the data do not provide clear cut evidence about which comes first—a positive self-concept or scholastic success, a negative self-concept or scholastic failure—it does stress a strong reciprocal relationship and gives us reason to assume that enhancing the self-concept is a vital influence in improving academic perfor-

mance." (p. 27).

SELF-ESTEEM IN RELATION TO SEX, GRADE LEVEL, SOCIAL CLASS, RACE AND ETHNIC MEMBERSHIP

Conflicting results have been reported from studies pertaining to sex and grade level differences as related to self-esteem. In a longitudinal study of the self image of 49 students in sixth and later in twelfth grade, Carlson (1965) found no difference in either level or stability of the self-esteem for males or females. Similarly using a Q-sort in an investigation of the self concept of 104 eighth graders and 64 tenth graders over a two year span, Engle (1959) concluded self concept was relatively stable.

However, Katz and Zigler (1965) found older children have lower self-images than younger children. Shultz (1965) found self-esteem decreased significantly from a high point in second grade in his study of 72 randomly selected boys in grades 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12. In a cross-sectional approach Long, Ziller and Henderson (1968) examined the self-esteem of 420 students in grades 6 through 12 and found definite increase in self-esteem. Berger (1955) administered the MMPI, Expressed Acceptance of Self and Expressed Acceptance of Others to 109 male and 76 female college students and found females scored higher in the Acceptance of Others Scale. Yet, Douglas (1971) found 8th and 9th grade boys to score higher in self-esteem than their female classmates. While Reese (1961), Kimball (1973) and Campbell (1967) found girls generally reported higher self-esteem scores than boys in their populations of grades 4 through 8, Coopersmith (1967) reported no significant differences in self-esteem between boys and girls using a population of 1748 children in intermediate grades.

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Successful Writing Liberates Human Potential

by Lois Brotmiller

Schools without failure will not solve our problems in the schools. We must have schools WITH success. Too many students are simply passing without ever tasting actual success. They are existing in that gray never-never land maintaining a low, low profile—an acceptable attendance record, no overly inappropriate behavior in the classroom, minimum completion of marginal work—allowing the teacher to “pass” them on to the next grade or out of the course with personal success in explicit school goals.

Two of the commonly accepted and practiced educational concepts currently are “starting with the student where it is” and allowing the student to “progress at his own rate.” As reasonable and humanistic as these practices appear, they do not necessarily ensure actual personal student success in the classroom. In fact, they often contribute to that “simply passing” limbo. Just accepting the student where he is does not guarantee that he will go any further, and for all-too-many students, no progress at all is

“their own rate.”

Success breeds success. Success is the most powerful motivation for learning. Without personal success, no other motivation will produce lasting results. With personal success, it will be difficult, if not impossible, to stop the student’s pursuit of knowledge, proficiency, and competency.

I propose a program of forced-fed success. Not spoon-fed (as we often hear teachers bitterly complain of having to incorporate into their lesson plans) but force-fed. This process need not be painful for the students or the teachers, but the teachers do need to be resourceful, persistent, and determined to provide the circumstances for the student’s first personal success. After the first personal success, like the first olive out of the bottle, the rest come more easily.

Writing is a skill area with a grievous lack of success among our students of all ages. Fortunately, this forced-fed approach gives the teacher a fairly simple effective remedy to counteract this notable lack of success. Unfortunately, English teachers, in general, have three strikes against them when the students walk through the classroom door. The students can

speak English, write English, and read English. “What do we need more English for?” is their usual first question. They have little understanding of an effective communication concept. They make no connection between personal-relationship problems and their lack of language skills. (My automatic answer to their perennial question is “I can help you with your love life.” That at least gets their attention—from intermediate students up through college students.)

The teacher’s first task in remedying this lack of writing skills is to force-feed success in perceiving, before he attempts to instruct in the actual writing process. Almost all writing students are not only beginning writers, but beginning perceivers as well. If the students are not perceptually aware of their environment, they cannot possibly have anything to use for writing material which will produce clear, concise, coherent, cogent exposition.

The first step is to use immediate, personal experience for writing subjects. Since the hardest part of writing is to get ideas, we can simplify that part by making our immediate environment our

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subject. By immediate, I mean any personal experience which has happened within the last five minutes. Television is temporarily ruled out as a personal experience. It is vicarious experience, at best. At worst, a second or-third-hand limited view through a camera-man's lens, directed and selected by an editor. Immediate personal experience is the best of both worlds—teacher-control of the subject matter and student-freedom to write the truth as he sees it (not psyching-out what the teacher expects).

Of course, this means that the teacher must perceive the immediate environment as writing material, too. Sometimes, to heighten reality as one increases the students' awareness of immediate environment, the teacher even needs to artificially enrich the environment. For the teacher, using the environment for writing experiences is akin to getting that first olive out of the bottle, too. After the first writing experience, the rest come easily.

This approach of using immediate personal experience for our writing material to increase perceptual awareness, as a direct route to producing lucid, effective exposition, will work with any age group. The following activities suggested for the first writing subjects will produce lively, accurate, exciting, successful writing from students of any age, from intermediate through college. The differences will be in the sophistication level of the product. Also, the time spent on these early perceptual activities will vary with the age of the students. The young ones will be able to spend more time on perceptual skills because they will not be ready to assume the responsibilities of advanced expository skills. However, older, more advanced students will be able to assimilate these essential perceptual skills in an abbreviated time-span. The time spent on these

basic perceiving skills will provide the foundation for precise, effective exposition. For without the skill of writing accurately on perceived information, the exposition the students write on general and abstract subjects will be uninformed, vague, cloudy opinions—the bane of high school and college teachers' existence.

Activities that produce body movements are excellent for stimulating detail-riden sentences. Any activity which allows the students to "break" another student into moving parts will produce vivid sentences, abounding in verisimilitude. Getting an uninhibited boy, for instance, to sharpen a pencil will provide more body movements than can be incorporated into one sentence. Even the students' lack of vocabulary will not handicap them from writing accurate narrative-descriptive sentences. They whisper among themselves, "What are you going to call it?" And they find appropriate words that can be used in mixed company—duff, hind-quarters, derriere (often misspelled, but recognizable). One word of caution: do all of your own pencil sharpening BEFORE you do this activity. Unless, of course, you don't mind having every eye in the room on your ah—moving parts.

Caramel chewing is another detail-provoking activity, a surefire success-producer. Stuff about eight caramels into the mouth of a "hungry-looking" student—one who doesn't mind putting on a show. Get his mouth so full he can hardly move his jaws. This will force him to make indiscreet movements that can be easily observed—an example of the heightened exaggeration or artificial enrichment of the environment. Do a running commentary about his movements as he chews, drawing the students' attention to his nose, jaw, ear, eye, and lip movement. About the time the student will be ready to swallow,

turn him to a position giving the class a side-view, and urge the class to pay close attention to the caramel-chewers Adam's apple when he swallows. Of course, that will have the effect of keeping the chewer from swallowing. The juice has to go someplace, though, so a few more details are added when some of it sneaks out of the corners of the chewer's mouth. Eventually, of course, the chewer will have to swallow, and every eye in the class will be on the plunging Adam's apple when the swallow finally happens. This activity has some side-effects, too. The students start watching people eat. Their friends in the cafeteria, their brothers and sisters, and even their fathers—not always a happy situation. ("My father ate an apple, sounding like a cow walking through soft mud.")

Blowing bubbles, demonstrating a yo-yo, playing jacks, using a paddle ball, arm wrestling, even walking around the room are other good activities that produce interesting, successful sentences. ("Judy bounced up and down the aisle of the classroom, boom, boom, boom.")

Unhappily, many students are terrified of a blank sheet of paper, so it is useful to remove that obstacle. Using these contemporaneous, environmental experiences for writing subjects gives every student a means for writing successful sentences, but if they just can't bring themselves to put a mark on a piece of paper, then the activity has not produced success for him. Getting students (of any age) to the chalkboard is one means of removing that "blank sheet of paper" stumbling block. A group at a chalkboard is comforting to the hesitate writer, especially if the teacher has had the foresight to run a dusty eraser over the clean chalkboard, to reduce the appearance of a "clean" surface.

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A Theory of Motivation

by Lydia Johnson

Today, perhaps as never before in the history of man, there is a restlessness, a searching for happiness and satisfaction which is being manifested in feverish efforts towards more efficient technology, more comfort and convenience, instant gratification, more power, more money, and more "things."

Larger, faster planes are being built, labor-saving devices are replacing human labor in almost every business and even in the professions. Mothers today need not wash diapers because there are paper, disposable ones. Never mind that they are partially plastic and when burned pollute the air. Meals can be served "instantly." Abortions can be obtained "on demand." Teenage girls can receive birth control pills or devices without parental consent. The list could go on and on.

Many of the nation's poor people are being cared for by government-sponsored programs. The care of "deprived" minorities, the aged, and pre-school children provide many jobs for those in the helping professions—teachers, social workers, doctors, and

nurses. Yet, despite all this care there seem to be more people than ever wasting their lives in neurotic and even psychotic behavior. Mental hospitals are filled with patients and prisons are filled to overflowing.

The people who are making the lives of Americans more comfortable and efficient may be quite motivated and happy—if their jobs have meaning for them. But, how about the many people, especially the young unmarrieds, the delinquents, the drug addicts, alcoholics, the criminal and other poor who are not happy—not being motivated towards a more self-filling and happy life?

This paper will be an attempt to discuss the problem of how to better motivate people to enjoy life and realize their potential to its fullest.

For decades our society has been influenced by the philosophy of Behaviorists who taught that in order to be scientific one must be objective; subjective feelings, desires, values, etc., of humans must be ignored except for that which can be predicted, measured, and controlled. Behaviorism is still wielding influences today of which we are hardly aware, especially in education and business. Freudian

psychoanalysis had some influence in that instincts and drives in humans were seen as basically bad. Yet the question of whether behavior was morally right or wrong was not considered. We, who work in the medical professions, for example, are trained not to impose our values on our patients or clients. We "bend over backwards" not being judgmental or moralistic. Thus, young people and old, may think it is perfectly okay to live and behave any way they wish. A local public health official said, "Let's not be concerned about what they are doing, let's just get them in for treatment of their sexually transmitted diseases."

Maslow believed that, if behavioral scientists are to solve human problems, the question of right and wrong is essential—the very essence of behavioral science.

BASIC NEEDS

Our basic task is to search for the truth. Speaking of Behaviorism and Humanism, etc., Abraham Maslow said, "Our job is to integrate these various truths into the **whole** truth, which should be our only loyalty." It was his belief that one cannot understand mental illness until one understands mental health.

Maslow said, "It becomes more

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and more clear that the study of the crippled, stunted, immature and unhealthy specimens can yield only a cripple psychology and a cripple philosophy. The study of self-actualizing people must be the basis for a more universal science of psychology."

After more than twenty years of study, research, and experience, Maslow found that, "The human being is motivated by a number of basic needs which are specieswide, apparently unchanging, and genetic or instinctual in origin."

These are: Physiological needs

Food, liquid, shelter, sex, sleep and oxygen

Safety needs

Predictability
Consistency
Freedom within limits
Certain amount of routine

Belonging and Love Needs

Love and affection
Belongingness

The Esteem Needs

Self-esteem
Confidence
Competence
Mastery
Adequacy
Achievement
Independence
Freedom
Respect for others
Prestige
Recognition
Reputation
Acceptance
Attention
Status
Appreciation

The Self-actualization Needs

Creativity
Curiosity
A search for meaning

The Aesthetic Needs

Beauty

Preconditions for Basic Need Satisfaction

Freedom to speak
Freedom to do
Freedom of inquiry
Freedom to defend
Justice
Honesty
Fairness
Order
Need for rest and recovery
Need for challenge or stimulation

The Growth Needs

Wholeness
Perfection
Completion
Justice
Aliveness
Richness
Simplicity
Beauty
Goodness
Uniqueness
Effortlessness
Playfulness
Truth, honesty, reality
Self-sufficiency

The reasons why so many people in America fail to grow, according to Maslow, are: bad habits, poor cultural environment, inadequate education, fear of "animal instincts," fear and anxiety, fear of own potential, fear of the pain it takes to grow.

Important roads toward self actualization are self-knowledge, self-understanding, the development of courage, integrity, and self-respect.

In studying self-actualizing people Maslow found that creativity was the universal characteristic. Creativity was almost synonymous with health, self-actualization, and full humanness.

Mental Illness

Mental illness, according to

Maslow, is a deficiency disease, an inability of the individual to recognize and satisfy his species-wide needs. The psychologically sick person is one who has never learned to achieve good human relations. This is particularly true of the alcoholic.

Dr. Maslow suggested, "It is better to consider neuroses as rather related to spiritual disorders, to loss of meaning, to doubts about the goals of life, to grief and anger over a lost love, to seeing life in a different way, to loss of courage or of hope, to despair over the future, to dislike for oneself, to recognition that one's life is being wasted, or that there is no possibility of job or love, etc. These are all fallings away from full-humanness, from the full blooming of human nature."

The disturbed person is not only emotionally sick he is cognitively wrong as well. The neurotic is unable to choose wisely—that is, according to his psychological needs. Some of these can believe in falsehoods year after year even though truth has been there with them all the time.

Fear, anxiety, worry, and insecurity were found by psychosomatic research to develop undesirable physical and psychological results as a result of safety-need frustration.

The truly mature individual sees reality as it is rather than as he wishes it to be.

Maslow said there are two kinds of guilt: real guilt which is necessary and justified because of the person's failure to be true to his own psychological needs, and neurotic guilt which was the only kind Freud recognized. This concerned the tendency of the individual to fear the opinions and disapproval of other people.

Real guilt directs the person toward personal growth; it functions as his conscience. The pain

tells him he is doing something that is bad for him. Arthur Janov, Ph.D., author of **Primal Scream** (1970) maintains that the pain must be felt and not alleviated with drugs or alcohol.

Neurotic needs are uncontrollable, inflexible, compulsive, and irrational. They are not a part of the person's inner core but rather an invasion or a defense against it.

Therapy

The effectiveness of treatment is more dependent on the characteristics and abilities of the individual therapist than on his theoretical orientations. Sometimes the theory receives the credit for cure when the credit should go to the therapist or that concentrated effort was made to help the ill person.

Successful psychotherapy gives patients insights regarding themselves, strengthens and encourages basic instinctoid needs, and reveals, weakens, and sometimes removes altogether any neurotic needs.

Values

Behavioral scientists have rejected not only the methods of religion but the values as well because of their assumption that all higher forms of behavior are learned and have no genetic basis.

But, Maslow says, "The casting out of values by psychology not only weakens it and prevents it from reaching its full growth but also abandons mankind either to supernaturalism or the eithical relativism." Error in the search for spiritual values is seen today in satanic cults, black magic, dependence on astrologic movements, etc.

Maslow said that there is a scientific basis for responsible behavior. Irresponsibility is just as damaging to the individual as to his society. Either people do things which are fine and good, and therefore respect themselves, or they do contemptible things and

feel despicable, worthless, and unlovable.

Being without a system of values is psychopathogenic. Human beings need a philosophy of life, religion, or a value system, just as they need sunlight, calcium, and love.

Solutions

We need people of courage to lead, the courage to spark life and respect it, and the courage to disagree. We need to encourage creativity of all kinds.

Ignorance, irresponsibility, and a faulty perception of reality are the basic causes of our nation's problems of crime, delinquency, mental illness, etc.

Education needs to emphasize once again the finer qualities of patriotism, courage, honesty, integrity, and other virtues. Teachers of adults and children must be self-actualizing people with self-knowledge, compassion, and love.

We need to work towards self-growth and truth. We need to teach the young to care about and for each other. When possible, the elderly should be left in the security of their homes; close to their children. Babies need to be cared for by their own educated mothers and fathers—not in day care centers or foster homes. There needs to be ways in which men can be gentle men without fear of seeming unmanly. We must work towards a world where all people can develop to their fullest potential. For that to begin, we must start with ourselves.

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Hey, Professor, Get out of Your Ivory Tower

by George Keppers

How many Professors of Education have heard the expression, "Get out of your ivory tower," but haven't done anything about it! Well, after being in the so-called "Ivory Tower" for fifteen years and receiving pressure from my wife (she kept telling me I really didn't know what it was like in the schools), I took a sabbatical and returned to the public schools as a counselor. Following is a description of some of my activities as a counselor in an elementary school, junior high school, and senior high school, and some recommendations resulting from those experiences. The first concerns were "Are you a Certified Counselor and do you hold a valid teaching certificate?" Fortunately both requirements were met and assignment was made to a school at each level for one month. Then it began; you are one of the staff, keep regular hours, put in a full day, attend faculty meetings, and more specifically, function as a counselor. Needless to say, this was a change from the freedom of being a professor. How many

professors are available from 7:30 - 3:00, five days per week?

There was never a dull moment during the three months spent with the public schools. I was on duty just one hour at the elementary school when I was meeting with a father and mother regarding their son's difficulties in school and at home. I counseled boys and girls at all levels and worked with parents of elementary children, but never saw parents of junior and senior high students. Most teachers were accepting of counseling services and cooperated, but there were those who still felt that the first responsibility of the schools is teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic. I was involved in the many activities of a guidance program, counseling, parent-teacher conferences, testing, advisement, career education planning, preregistration, teachers' meetings and others.

The one activity I was most pleased with was meeting with students in a regular class. This I did at all levels, 1-12. When it was announced to the teachers that I was interested in leading discussions with an entire class, I usually had half a dozen or more say, "Come to my class." At the high

school level, I couldn't honor all of the requests. This was a most refreshing experience, to talk to young people and listen to what they had to say. I wasn't as concerned about what happened but just that it did happen. I got to know many students, and a good relationship was established with the teachers. The sessions ranged from fifteen minutes in the primary grades to one hour at the senior high level. We met once per week over a four week span. The sessions were open discussion with topics such as: making friends, peer pressure, cheating, compulsory education, the family, drugs, free time, work, value of a particular subject, and on and on. Oh yes, some sessions were a near disaster, but we managed to salvage something by discussing what happened to the group. This is an activity I recommend highly for any professor if he/she takes a leave and returns to the classroom in the public schools. Counselors should do this, and teachers need to integrate teaching of the 3 R's with open discussions.

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Who Controls You

by Roberta Starkey

To be human is to be active instead of reactive. Faculty members, as educated people, like to believe in humanistic psychology. We like to believe that people have choices, that students should be taught how to make value judgements, and that people are responsible for their own actions.

As faculty, we are a group of people who have usually had the needs for love and belonging, self esteem and esteem from others met many times in our lives. Faculty, in general, are a group of people who entered teaching because they had the confidence that they had many things to share with others. Most teach in a field in which they had success and had gained a good self-esteem about their knowledge of the subject.

How can these people, with so much to offer, continue to be active and to grow toward self-actualization when there are so many things such as inflation, unions, merit pay, school rulings, and yes students pounding on their self-esteem and seemingly even deny-

ing their lower needs for food and lodging?

Maslow maintains that humans have the potential and need for growth, yet the growing tip is delicate and easily broken. Humans are unlike plants, they can recognize that the tip is delicate and can by this knowledge protect it from the outside forces which prevail against it. The third force in Third Force psychology is the inner person, the strength, the controls, the determination of personal destiny which comes from within and which the individual controls when she/he forces the issues.

The self-actualized person is problem centered instead of self-centered

Many issues are pressing in on the teacher and can make him/her feel inadequate and even unwanted and unappreciated. When a teacher pays the bill at the grocery store, it is easy to feel depressed and to declare that the present inflation is depriving us of our physical needs. Many things which we have grown to believe are essential to our well being and enjoyment of life just cannot be bought on a teacher's salary — or even on two teacher's salaries. Then it becomes easy to let the

worry about the cost of food affect the perception and energy level of the individual. When an active person has done the things which enable him/her to live within the budget and still provide nutritious meals for the family, then to worry about the situation or to feel that society does not care for you nor appreciate your contributions to society, can force the teacher to function at the lowest level or physical need level. Each person will function at the physical need level unless there is a conscious effort to leave this level, and work on the growing point of greater things. For most individuals a great amount of effort is required to function at any level except the physical need level when so much money is being spent for food, clothing and shelter. Yet only the individual person can raise him/her self above this level and return to the self-actualization struggle.

Each school faculty member is familiar with the hue and cry of the unions for equal wages for all on a salary schedule and at the same time others are crying for recognition, merit pay, for outstanding services. Both factors work on the self concept/to argue for their cause, both cause teachers to doubt that they are appreciated or well

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paid. When there is a salary scale, with tenured teachers who just put in their hours, many of the dedicated teachers can be heard saying, "It just doesn't pay to work longer hours and produce more materials for the students." Yet in the same faculty, if there were merit pay, there would be others who would feel that their self-esteem was all destroyed because of the evaluation and the assignment of numeral ratings.

Then a teacher who wishes to grow and develop toward self-actualization must ask him/herself is it the union or the merit system which presses one to dwell at the self-esteem level on the hierarchy of needs, or is it the individual person, who sees only the evaluation of self? The active person, regardless of his/her feelings about the way wages are determined can force him/herself to be problem centered instead of self-centered. First the teacher needs to recognize that people are most vulnerable to pressure when they are feeling sorry for themselves. This position is recognized and used by any pressure group who hopes to control another group of people.

Only in a reasonable manner, with self-confidence of self worth, can the problem of acquiring a just compensation for duties performed be approached. Solutions call for a problem centered not a self-centered approach. **The self actualized person accepts him/herself, other people and the natural world for what they are.**

When student's demands, actions, and lack of achievement or responsibility inclines the teacher to decide that her/his contributions and talents are used in vain, then the teacher who wishes to grow toward self-actualization will study to understand the adolescents and the changes which the students are facing. When the growing and troubled times of the student are

understood, then the teacher can accept the students and also his/her own place in the scheme of development. All successful endeavors to better face reality in understanding self and others will

lead to growth.

Nurture and protect your own fragile growing tip so you may reach your own potential. All of your destiny may not be in your own hands, but part of it is.



MEDIA CORNER

by Howard Swan

Some readers may regard instructional technology as cold, impersonal, and mechanistic - the antithesis of the theme of this issue! Such a view is based on misconceptions about the role of technology in education! A popular misconception is the view of audiovisual materials as a "bag of tricks" to use when the lesson drags or when there is a need for "filler" or for entertainment. The proper use of audiovisual materials, however, begins with their selection on the basis of their potential to help students reach instructional objectives!

A great deal could be said about the important role of instructional technology in the learning process. Edgar Dale, a pioneer in the field, wrote at length on the contributions of audiovisual materials. He early addressed the issue with the important human element:

"Two cheers for audio-visual materials" - meaning that we believe in the materials but insist that they be used with temperateness, insight, and judgment. No matter how

valuable the tool, it is the humanity of the teacher, his comradely attitude in the classroom, that will transcend materials and methods. Let us reserve our third and most important cheer for the teacher himself."

- **Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching** (1954)

16 mm Films

Cipher in the Snow

Brigham Young University, 24 minutes, \$265.00

Portrays the life and death of a student who cannot understand or accept the divorce of his parents. The teacher who pieces together the student's background, anxieties, and finally death, resolves to be more sensitive to those who may need love and attention.

The Humanity of Teaching

Media Five, 29 minutes, \$375, Rental \$45

A study of positive relationships in the classroom and how they can strengthen the climate for effective, natural discipline, rewarding both teacher and students with satisfying and productive existence.

Why Human Relations?

Media Five, 29 minutes, \$375, Rental \$45

Identifies the basic need for good human relationships in schools. Shows several schools where human relationships have been consciously improved.

In a Class by Himself

Media Five, 27 minutes, \$375, Rental \$45

A film documentary that examines the logic, philosophy and day-to-day details of successfully creating an informal, individualized approach to classroom instruction.

Learning How To Learn - The Open Classroom in America

I/D/E/A, 19 minutes, \$150, Rental \$17

A film which shows how adaptation of the open classroom concept can change standard classrooms. The different classrooms visited reflect the development of an environment designed to meet the needs of the children.

The Improbable Form of Master Sturm - The Nongraded High School

I/D/E/A, 14 minutes, \$125, Rental \$15

A film which acquaints the audience with the highlights and

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ramifications of nongradedness. The basic premise is that with proper guidance the individual, whether slow, average, or superior, can transform his school experience into one of inquiry, curiosity, and problem solving.

"Hi, School!" - Making the Curriculum Relevant

I/D/E/A, 28 minutes, \$225, Rental \$17

Examines the concept of the relevant curriculum where the traditional high school becomes a "learning headquarters" from which its students go forth into the community to acquire education.

Formal Thought

Davidson Films, Inc., 32½ minutes, \$400

This Piaget film illustrates tasks that challenge the thinking of secondary school students. The tasks involve proportional reasoning, separation of variables, combinatorial logic and the integration of these in an analysis of a balanced beam with weights. Other films in the series are **Classification, Conservation, The Growth of Intelligence in the Preschool Years**, and **Jean Piaget - Memory and Intelligence**.

Summerhill

Education Development Center (Distributor), 28 minutes, \$375, Rental \$25

This National Film Board of Canada production presents a visit to Neill's school without fixed rules. Dr. Neill explains his objectives, and from the activities of the children at work and play one can see how his methods work.

Productivity and the Self-Fulfilling Prophecy: The Pygmalion Effect

CRM, 31 minutes, \$450, Rental \$45
This film describes a psychological aspect of teaching that can have far-reaching effects: the notion that the prediction or expectation of an event can actually cause it to happen.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Salenger Education Media, 15 minutes

The objective of this film is to acquaint students, managers, and supervisors with Dr. Maslow's theory of human motivation: the Hierarchy of needs. It should be useful to educators in making them more aware of people's needs and the motivating factors involved in satisfying those needs.

Sound Filmstrips/Sound Slides

Piaget for Educators

Charles E. Merrill, \$180

A multimedia program (text, filmstrips, and audio cassettes) designed to introduce and translate Piaget's theory to future teachers and psychologists. General and specific implications of Piaget's work are considered as they apply to teaching.

Structuring the Classroom for Success

Charles E. Merrill, \$100.00

Six modules which describe the open classroom concept including behavior management, and ideas how to individualize instruction.

The Open Classroom - Organization and Arrangement

I/D/E/A, \$12.00

The basic concepts and physical arrangements of the open classroom are presented. Recommended for schools and incoming faculty desiring to learn more about the technique.

Audio Tapes

Humanistic Teaching

Sigma Information, Inc., \$42.00

A series of six tapes by Dr. I David Welch. Presents an analysis and the methodology of humanistic teaching. Also by Dr. Welch: **Accountability from a Humanistic Perspective**.

Secondary Teaching: A Personal Approach

Sigma Information, Inc. \$21.00

A series of three tapes by Professor Kenneth T. Henson. Presents a subtle but crucial aspect of classroom attitude on the part of the teacher.

Humanizing and Individualizing Instruction: The Why and Some of the Hows

N.A.S.S.P., \$5.00

Mr. Zacharie Clements points out that the emphasis in education should be on the student and, to be successful, humanizing and individualizing instruction must go hand in hand.

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Ames

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phenomenology. Those same studies have tended to result in the discovery of little difference in philosophical inclination among educators related to such matters as age, sex, and degree of formal preparation in philosophy. Thus, although philosophical preferences are not seen as mutually exclusive of one another, phenomenological perspectives have been regularly preferred, and, therefore, seem to deserve continued, careful examination by educators for their meaning as guidelines for the humanizing of education in the future.

A reconsideration of the relationship of philosophy is in order. Perhaps, it is from philosophy that education may take both strength as well as solace in its efforts to realize the long-range goal so aptly phrased by Dubos (1974): "We are human to the extent that we are able and willing to make the choices that enable us to transcend genetic and environmental determinism; and thus to participate in the continuous process of self-creation which seems to be the task and the reward of humankind."

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Luker

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follow. These changes are made possible because of the differential affects which accompany or follow various types of sensory, perceptual, and behavioral activity and tension states. If a child of four sees a very large dog, the child

may be frightened and run. A professional basketball center may see the same dog as harmless. Both may change on seeing the dog, but the tension states will be quite different. When the individual sees, hears, or even perceives then change is possible, because of the feedback which occurs.

There are many variables which influence changes of the perceptions and the cognitive structure. If there is a tension state along with the occurrence of a perceptual event, this will lead to the sensory, perceptual and behavioral activity needed to change the cognitive structure. When a student enters a class, afraid he/she cannot pass the course, the teacher can give him/her confidence by asking easy questions. As the student answers questions, he/she gains confidence. The student then begins to feel that maybe it really is not such a difficult subject after all and may begin to be less afraid.

A certain minimum tension is needed to initiate and form energy for the activity. The very fact the student does not know some of the material to be presented, but would like to know, would furnish the tension necessary for the motivation to learn.

However, if the magnitude of the tension becomes too great, the change becomes more difficult since the organization has the tendency to maintain and protect the perceptual organization which exists. The student who experiences too much stress then may withdraw, show signs of aggression, or even develop tunnel vision. This tends to make the individual try to memorize, see numerous details, or worry to such an extent that studying in an efficient manner is very difficult.

Time alone does not cause changes to take place but is necessary to permit the changes to occur. Learning is a process which occurs within time but not as a result of its passage. It is a known fact that different individuals learn at different rates so far as time is concerned. Our entire system of education seems to be organized to reward those who learn quickly and to penalize those who learn slowly. It seems a strange paradox that we

send our medical students to as much as 28 years of schooling many of them progress at the rate of almost two years of achievement to every year of residence in the school. On the other hand our slowest learners usually drop out at the age of 16 with only about 10 years of schooling. In this ten years they have progressed slowly at perhaps the rate of one half year of achievement for each year of residence and because they have achieved at the slow rate so far as time is concerned they are considered dropouts. They would not benefit from more schooling but this is because we do not allow them to progress in time at the rate of which they are capable.

There are different effects which result in each individual according to the various types of sensory, perceptual, and behavioral activity and tension states if changes in the cognitive structure are to take place. Arnold Palmer, the great golfer, stated that he never broke 100 until he was 17 years old. While on the professional tour he would have been very discouraged if he were even to approach such a poor score. However, there are many golfers in the United States who are quite happy when they break 100. Each individual gets a different feedback when an event occurs. The same individual may get a different feedback from the same type of occurrence on two separate occasions.

Perceptions may be conceptualized as the phenomenal field. The phenomenal field is the subjective field or the psychological field. The objective field as differing from the subjective field, may be said to be a person's physical environment as it actually is; the psychological or phenomenal field is this field, but as the person perceives and interprets it. The two are not alike since the objective field is distorted, added to, and subtracted from by the perceptual processes to form the phenomenal field.

The phenomenal field includes the concept of self which also helps determine what the field will be like. This learning theory emphasizes the self concept. It maintains that the attitude of the student and self-concept are more important

that the geometrical axioms which may be memorized. For example, it is more important for the student to believe in his/her ability to understand the axioms of geometry and to use them intellectually than to be able to quote them verbatim and without error on a geometry test.

The phenomenal field is organized into figure ground relations, i.e., the portions on which attention is focused and those which are not the center of interest. To a certain extent an individual's ground figure relationships may change from moment to moment. This is the explanation of the shifting of attention.

The parts of the phenomenal field which do the most to enhance or threaten our phenomenal self are the ones which tend to become figure. This gives credence to the statement that "Nothing succeeds like success." If sincere appreciation becomes a part of the student's phenomenal field when the instructor praises, then it is an important change in the phenomenal field. The student may begin to think, "I am more worthwhile, and I can really learn this, since the instructor explained it so clearly."

TENSION OF DISEQUILIBRIUM STATES CHANGE

The changes in the figure or field organization can take place most readily when threat or tension is not too great. When the tension is too great, then the tension producer tends to become the central figure or most important phenomena and this occupies the thinking time in lieu of what the learner and the teacher intended. The learner mostly has control over what is considered most important, but in case of too much stress then worries dominates the thinking process.

There are several different actions which are available to the learner when frustration sets in. The learner may attack, strike-out, or show other signs of aggressiveness. Or secondly, the frustrated student may simply withdraw and hide the emotions as much as possible. Or thirdly, the student may resort to autistic restructuring which is a kind of fantasizing, daydreaming, or wishing in the

mind which may say in effect, "I wish I were bigger than you, so I could make you do what I want you to." It could be such thoughts as, "I wish Superman would suddenly swoop down and take me out of this mess." It is difficult to ascertain how much of this autistic restructuring goes on in the minds of frustrated learners, but many psychologists suspect that it is considerable. This may very often be the case when the student is "not paying attention to the teacher in class," especially when the teacher is trying to explain subject matter which is very difficult for the learner to understand.

SUMMARY

There are many variables which affect learning. The learner's tension, the setting, the attitude of the teacher, previous experience of the student, and all of this takes place in a Gestalt fashion or as a total experience. The relationship between the learner and the environment is a total effect or the result of a phenomenon. The organism has a disequilibrium which may be a fear, need, desire, tension, motive, drive, or previous experience under a similar situation. The senses then perceive the situation in the present moment according to the physical and phenomenal environment. The new perceptions, notions, or ideas interact with, modify, and are organized and modified by the perceptions and the previous cognitive structure. Some kind of behavior evolves from this simultaneous interaction of the person and the environment. As a result of the feedback obtained from the evolved behavior the tension or disequilibrium states change. The tension may become greater or it may lessen. If satisfactory learning has taken place and the reinforcement or rewards are satisfactory then when a similar situation arises the tendency is to use that experience or situation as a basis for the new interaction which will occur between the person and the environment.

This explanation of how the individual learns is a present theory and fits with the phenomenological idea of "my behavior

is conscious, and I react to situations according to how I see the situation at the present time." Behavior then is purposive and the person's behavior is responsible according to the present simultaneous interaction between the individual and the environment, and according to the phenomena which allows the learner to act "according to my own opinion because that is the way I see and understand the situation."

Hamachek

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himself and his ability to do school work depends partly on how he was treated by people significant to him, his experiences with success and failure, his level of anxiety, and his perceptions of school and teachers.

Each student brings to school with him a certain attitude about his ability to compete and succeed, whether the school is grade school or college. A student's self-attitudes either motivate him to participate vigorously with his classmates or to sit quietly in hopes of not being called on. If the self is learned as a function of experience—and evidence from all quarters suggests it is—then, whether a student is aware of it or not, part of his accumulation of knowledge about himself is acquired in the classroom. A child, ridiculed at the blackboard by an insensitive teacher in front of all his peers, may learn that it's better not to raise his hand and maybe he's not as smart as the other kids. Or a shy, uncertain child appropriately praised in the presence of his classmates for doing a good job on something may learn that speaking out, that taking a risk now and then is not so dangerous after all.

Many different experiences ultimately influence how an individual feels about himself. What happens to a youngster as he goes through school must certainly rank as one of the most important experiences in his life. Depending upon what occurs in school a child learns that he is able or unable, adequate or inadequate. The self is learned and what is learned can be

taught. The question is not whether we approve of teaching for a positive sense of self in school settings, but whether the effects of schooling are positive or negative. For the young student particularly, school is not so much a vestibule to society as we adults picture it. For him it is society. As such, its effects are enormously far-reaching. How he does is related to how he thinks he can do, and schools play a considerable part in shaping the direction of that attitude.

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Many

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Other studies seem to point to the effects of social class, race and ethnic membership as a function in sex variance. Soars and Sears (1967) found advantaged girls tended to score higher in self-esteem than advantage boys, but disadvantaged girls tended to score lower than disadvantaged boys. Black students in Cornwall's study (1970) had lower self-esteem than whites in kindergarten but higher in grade twelve. Zirkel and Moses (1971) also found self-concepts of Black children to surpass those of white children. Yet, Lansman (1968), Long and Henderson (1968) found white's to score higher than Blacks. However, Wylie (1961) and Yeaths (1967) found no significant difference between self concepts of the two racial groups. Duryl (1973) concluded from her study of Black students, grades 1 to 6, that the level of self-esteem does not tend to become increasingly lower as they progress through school and that Black female students tended

to have a higher level of self-esteem than did the males at the same grade level. Coleman (1966) also found White and Black students scored higher on self-concept measures than Mexicans and Puerto Rican students.

With definitions of and tools for measuring self-esteem varying widely, research findings have tended to be inconsistent and inconclusive regarding sex and race differences.

MENTAL HEALTH AND SELF-ESTEEM

Coopersmith (1967) concluded:

"Clinical studies repeatedly demonstrate that failures and other conditions that threaten to expose personal inadequacies are probably the major causes of anxieties. Anxiety and self-esteem are closely related: If it is a threat that releases anxiety, as appears theoretically essential, it is a person's esteem that is being threatened. (pp. 3-4)

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Ausubel (1969) suggests:

Anxiety...results from a threat to one's self-esteem either currently or anticipated. ...Whether the source of threat is internal or external...the threat is objectively capable of impairing self-esteem in a normal person. ...Anxiety is instigated by an objective threat to self-esteem. (pp. 395-396)

There is some convincing evidence existing that relates high anxiety to poor self-esteem as measured by the various instruments.

Miller (1960), after investigating the relationship between self-concept and the anxiety level of 100 college freshman and sophomore women, concluded that the higher the self concept, the less anxiety evidenced. Rosenberg (1965) in a study of junior and senior high

school students observed a strong negative relationship between self-esteem and anxiety. Wine (1971) concluded that regardless of experimental conditions, high test anxious subjects generally describe themselves in more negative terms than do low test anxious subjects.

In a study of over 2000 high school students, Shafiabody (1974) found correlations between self-esteem and anxiety measures to be negative and statistically significant. Nasser (1975) found in a similar population that ethnicity is a major determinant of self-esteem. Spanish surnamed students tend to remain lowest in self-esteem as compared with Black and Caucasian students.

Ausubel's study (1953) of the effect of anxiety on learning indicated the debilitating effect of high anxiety than can surface in novel learning experiences. Further studies by Van Buskirk (1961) and Wittrock and Husel (1962) indicated that anxiety can enhance the learning of complex tasks if the tasks do not seriously threaten one's self-esteem. Sarason et al. (1960) and Phillip (1968) have reported that subjects with high anxiety were more likely to be disliked by peers, view themselves as less worthy and engage in more problem behavior than those less anxious. This suggests many of the same characteristics attributed to those people who possess a low self-esteem.

In *The Psychology of Self Esteem* Brandon (1969) suggests:

There is no value judgement more important to man—no factor more decisive in his psychological development and motivation—than the estimate he passes on himself....The nature of his self-evaluation has profound effects on a man's thinking processes, emotions, desires, values and goals. It is the single most significant key to his behavior. To understand a man psychologically, one must understand the nature and degree of his self-esteem, and the standards by which he judges himself. (p. 103)

CONCLUSION

Self-esteem, an individual's evaluation of himself appears to be significantly related to academic achievement. The more positive one's self-esteem, the greater the likelihood of success in school. Self-esteem is learned. It continues to change and be altered as students have increasing numbers of experiences with people who are significant in their lives. In other words self-esteem develops in terms of response by significant others, parents, siblings, teachers, to the child as part of his experiential background. Teachers, for many students, do take on the role of significant others. They do have an impact on the development of the way students view themselves.

If we can accept the notion that poor self-esteem develops from experiences with frustration, failure and rejection by significant others, we can identify one means of improving self-esteem—by striving to correct these conditions. We can strive to provide success rather than failure and we can also provide genuine acceptance, understanding, encouragement, fairness and warmth rather than rejection, at least by teachers who are almost always considered to be significant by the students.

Palardy (1969) succinctly summarizes the importance of classroom teachers in the formation and enhancing of self-esteem.

There is no lack of research to support the contention that pupils do perceive and value themselves in the same way they think their teachers perceive and value them, or stated...a different way,...pupils' self-perceptions to a considerable extent are formed through interactions with their teachers...teachers do have an impact, both positive and negative, on the development of their pupils' self-concepts. (p. 722)

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Brotmiller

Continued from 16

One high school student of mine was at the chalkboard, suffering from total fear-of-failure. I was afraid that if I "let" him sit down without writing at least one successful sentence (remember that taking the student where he is and letting him learn at his own rate?), I would forever lose him and his own rate would be zilch. I said, "Write what I tell you—I am writing sentences on the chalkboard comma. Now, you put one detail of how you are doing that after the comma." He stood there, pale and trembling, every eye on him, and suddenly lit up, and scribbled, "sweat running down my side." The whole class applauded. He beamed and said, "I'm an author!"

Sometimes a graffiti wall will provide the surface for writing when a blank sheet of paper will inhibit writing. I usually put butcher paper all around the wall—ostensibly to keep the walls clean—and let nature take its course. One young high school student could not bring himself to write for several weeks into the school year. He was perfectly "behaved" and was willing to do anything but write. By some quirk of fate, minor insults began appearing on the graffiti wall about my non-writer. One must have stimulated another, for they multiplied. I did not mention it, or let on that I had noticed, and neither did anyone else. But one day, I came into the room, and there on a previously-clean space on the wall was a whole paragraph, written by my non-writer. "Scott Smith is not happy with the comments on this wall. Scott Smith does not..." and he went on to refute everything insulting written there, in accurate Fonzi-style. I made a huge fuss over "our author of the day." The rest of the class joined in, praising him. And after

that I could not keep Scott from writing. Every day he came into class bearing "some great stuff."

It was not important that his "stuff" was not all that "great." What was important was his attitude about himself. He was a success!

It is a relatively simple matter to improve the quality of the writing after it gets on paper. It is impossible to improve it while it is still locked up in the writer's head. After the perceptual writing success, the students are ready for the essentials of sentence and paragraph structure, mechanics, diction, and all the other more sophisticated rhetorical devices appropriate for their age and ability levels.

For instance, once Scott had tasted success, he was vitally interested in improving his success. It was not uncommon, then, for him to come up to me and ask, "Dear, is this the right 'there'?" or whatever question his current writing problem precipitated. And successful students produce interesting side effects—successful-feeling teachers. Being called "Dear" by a gangling, clumsy fifteen-year-old had a soothing effect on the cockles of this old English teacher's heart, and I thought to myself, I'm a teacher!

Not schools without failure, but schools WITH success. The only valid, lasting reason for learning anything is to increase one's competency. Competency is increased if we can solve a problem, meet a need, or fulfill a desire. When we become more competent, we become more successful-feeling. When we feel successful, we want to repeat our successes.

I once had my students write about their feeling of success. They were to describe an experience in which they learned something concrete—riding a bicycle, controlling their breathing in singing class, memorizing math tables,

finding books in the library, etc. They were then to describe how they felt after they knew that had actually learned something new. Overwhelmingly, three responses appeared—"I wanted to do it again and again;" "I wanted to tell somebody about it;" "I wanted to teach someone else to do the same thing."

The trick, then, is to force-feed that first success, and then let the students repeat the success, tell somebody about the success, teach somebody else to be successful, and viola! Schools with success!

Keppers

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Finally, I wish to present several ways in which a professor can get out of his Ivory Tower: 1. Take a sabbatical as I did. 2. Work out an exchange with a teacher, counselor, or administrator in the public schools; the person from the public schools would teach the professor's classes at the university—there would be no change in contract, etc., just across-the-board shift. (This idea was enthusiastically endorsed by school people, but to date I don't know of any exchanges.) 3. This should be part of the professor's responsibility for a semester or two, the professor's load would be reduced, and he/she would devote full time to this activity. 4. If a professor is supervising student teachers or practicum students, he/she should participate more actively in the activities of the school as part of his/her regular assignment. These are a few suggestions, and I'm sure other strategies could be worked out, but, in any case I say, "Hey, Professor, get out of your Ivory Tower;" it is a great experience.

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