This issue of Communique, a newsletter providing resource information for practicing counselors, features an article describing two non-verbal group counseling techniques for the elementary school counselor; a description of value clarification including a definition of values, the steps in the value clarification process, and specific value clarification techniques for use by teachers and counselors; and new materials and resources on the effects of marihuana on the individual and society, on a training program for direction of guidance and pupil personnel services, and on major developments in secondary school career guidance. Brief articles summarizing recent and relevant research for the counselor appear in the Vibrations section of the newsletter. In addition, dissertation abstracts and synopses of journal articles are included, as well as brief comments on them by members of the Communique staff. (SES)
Non-Verbal Groups Techniques for the Elementary School Counselor

by Richard J. Malnati, Ph.D. Temple University

Introduction

Counseling practitioners such as Shutz, Pesso, and Fast have described non-verbal techniques which have been used primarily in encounter and group therapy groups. Few attempts have been made to adequately translate these techniques into forms which can be used by elementary school counselors.

The purpose of this article is to describe two non-verbal techniques appropriate for group counseling with elementary school students. The techniques described can be employed by the counselor in groups and/or in consultation with the teacher in the classroom. These two non-verbal techniques may be used by the elementary school counselors for the following purposes:

1. Eliciting verbal responses regarding students' feelings about themselves and others.
2. Facilitating the process of group counseling.
3. Enhancing the development of various interpersonal skills.
4. Facilitating the process of self-understanding.
5. Informing students of the importance of non-verbal behavior.
6. Examining children's responses and reactions to such topics as aggression, trust, communication, loneliness, etc.
7. Involving the silent member.

In addition, the techniques described can be employed not only by the counselor but also by the teacher in the classroom.

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Clarifying Values: Process & Techniques (p. 62)

New Materials and Resources (p. 64)

Non-Verbal Gossip

Objectives:

1. To acquaint members (to initiate the group).
2. To familiarize group members with the importance of non-verbal behavior.
3. To demonstrate how non-verbal messages may be misinterpreted.
4. To become aware of differences between verbal and non-verbal communication.

Directions:
1. Place members in a circle (seated or standing).
2. Leader asks members to close their eyes.
3. Leader whispers an emotion to a member who portrays it nonverbally to another member.
4. Once a member has communicated the message to the next member in the circle, he may keep his eyes open.

Discussion:
1. Upon completion of the exercise, the last member communicates what he feels was transmitted to him and the group discusses the experience.
2. Long pauses between members can be explored.
3. Discuss the differences between non-verbal and verbal communication. How non-verbal messages can be misinterpreted (go around individual members to see where the original
emotion may have been lost).
5. Emphasize importance of listening as well as observing non-verbal behavior.
Note: This particular exercise could follow the traditional game of “gossip” (verbal), in order to highlight differences between verbal and non-verbal communication.

Group Technique No. II.
“Roleplaying Emotions”

Objectives:
1. To acquaint children with different feelings.
2. To facilitate interaction and involvement by group members.

Directions:
1. Child picks a card and is asked to portray the emotion without speaking.
2. Child may use facial expressions, gestures, or body movements to convey the feeling.

Discussion:
1. Children guess what emotion was portrayed.
2. Children asked if any have ever felt that way and why.

Value Clarification
by Juliet Miller

This article attempts to provide a description of value clarification including a definition of values, the steps in the value clarification process, and specific value clarification techniques which can be used by teachers and counselors.

A Clearer Definition
Value clarification is based on the premise that it is important for each individual student to: (1) identify his current values; (2) explore other available values, (3) consciously select those values which are important to him, and (4) be able to act consistently with his values. Although this approach stresses the importance of clarifying values, it does not advocate a particular set of values as being appropriate for all students. In other words, it is not an attempt to indoctrinate students with the prevailing cultural values.

The value clarification process includes a number of steps. When assisting students with value clarification, the following points are often considered:

1. Definition of Values. Values determine what is important for an individual. What he feels strongly about. What he is willing to work for. What he wants others to understand about him.

2. Identify and Study Values. There are many different values. It is important for students to be exposed to a wide range of values and to freely select their own values. Possible values include: intellectual, kindness, social skills, loyalty, achievement, physical development, honesty, religiousness, self control, creativity, and independence.

3. Importance of Values. The nature of the values which students have will affect the types of decisions they make. Decisions which are consistent with values will be more satisfying and will result in greater happiness.

4. Freedom to Choose Values. Value clarification assumes that students should have the freedom to select their own values after identifying various values and the consequences of each.

5. Act on Values. Value clarification helps students see the importance of acting on values. Students should be able not only to describe their values, but also to act in accordance with these values.

6. Internal Value Conflicts. Value clarification helps students examine the compatibility of their values. It emphasizes the idea that individuals have more than one value. Sometimes values will conflict. It is, therefore, important for the students to examine their values and decide which values have greatest importance for them.

7. Interpersonal Value Conflicts. Students are also helped to see that not all people have the same values. When interacting with another who has different values, the individual is apt to feel uncomfortable. Value clarification helps students find effective ways for interacting with people whose values are different from their own.

8. Changes in Values. Values are learned and tend to be quite stable over time. However, it is possible that an individual will change some of his values. Value clarification helps students understand that as values change, new decisions and actions will be needed.

The goal of value clarification activities, then, is to allow students to explore and select a set of personal values. The outcome of a value clarification program according to Rath, Harmin and Simon (1966) should be students who have selected personal values based on the following criteria: (1) choosing from alternatives; (2) choosing after careful consideration of the consequences of each alternative; (3) choosing freely; (4) prizing, being glad of one’s choice; (5) prizing, being willing to publicly affirm one’s choice; (6) acting upon one’s choice, incorporating choices into behavior; and (7) acting upon one’s choice repeatedly, over time.

Some Value Clarification Activities
A number of value clarification activities have been developed. They are activities which can be used with large groups (an entire class), small groups (a group guidance setting), or with individuals (counseling sessions). Throughout the use of these activities, the counselor or teacher is a nonjudgemental helper who encourages the students to look at their own values and to examine those held by others. Typically, this is done through discussions. The leader may use a series of questions which help students examine values. Rath, Harmin, and Simon (1966, p. 260) have suggested a number of questions which might be used. Some of these include:

Did you consider any alternatives? Did you have to choose that; was it a free
choice? Where would that idea lead; what would be its consequences? Would you really do that or are you just talking? Is that a personal preference or do you think most people should believe that? Is that very important to you? Do you do this often? Would you like to tell others about your idea? Would you do the same thing again?

Some specific value clarification activities include:

Role Playing—Various role playing situations can be used to help students explore their current values or to enable them to examine new values.

Media—Values can be clarified through the use of media such as quotations, pictures with or without captions, scenes from movies or plays, editorials, letters to the editor, popular songs, taped interviews and films. These media facilitate the discussion of values by first allowing students to discuss the values expressed by others and then encouraging them to discuss their own values.

Conflict Situations—Group discussions based on conflict situations and/or hot social issues can encourage the exploration of values. One approach is to have students first discuss the issue in a debate format and then have them discuss it emphasizing the importance of clarifying and understanding each others values.

Games—A number of games or simulated experiences can be used which call for value judgements by students. After completion of the game, students can discuss the values which were influencing their game strategy.

Interviews—Students can interview adults, e.g., parents or people in various occupational areas, to determine which values they are fulfilling through their occupational choice.

Problem Situations—Students can be presented with problem situations where they must make a choice which involves values. For example, selection of people to be included in a fallout shelter in case of disaster.

Values Sheets—This technique asks students to list a number of activities which they enjoy doing. They then examine which values are being expressed in the various activities.

Weekly Reaction Sheets—The weekly reaction sheet is a technique where students record their reactions to various experiences which they have had during the week and then analyze their reactions in terms of values.

Time Diary—A time diary is a log of how time is spent for a period of time such as a week. It includes every activity completed and how much time was used. The time diary is then analyzed in terms of values being emphasized.

Since a decision is satisfying to the extent that it is consistent with an individual's values, it is important that counselors

Career Education and Values

1. Have each student list his hierarchy of values related to work and conduct student group discussions about the differences in each other's list (e.g., race, right to work, sex, money, creativity, responsibility, etc.).

2. Role-play same conflict situations about work choices to demonstrate how conflicts can be worked out (e.g., his value system says that money is very important and he does not want to remain in the same area; also critical. Add other lesser variables and work out choices.)

3. Present case situations where the class can discuss personal compromises that could be made (e.g., student would like to become a doctor but doesn't want to wait that long to get married).

4. Bring in a speaker who would point out what compromises he had to make in attaining his vocational goal; interview a person now working in the same occupation the student has tentatively chosen and ask him what compromises had to be made. The student interviewer might ask the interviewer if he wishes he had made a different decision and why. Discuss findings with the class.

5. Have a panel of retired people talk to the class about changes that occurred in their occupational field over the years and how they went about meeting new requirements of the job they held.

6. Have each student write a paper describing his life style at present and what he would like it to be ten years from now. Then have the students discuss how they will use the information in developing a career goal.

7. Have each student write an evaluation of the accuracy of occupational information received by the student.

8. Have students discuss and computer occupational films which promote various vocations. Identify the emotional content and the factual content in the films. What do we really do that or are you just talking? Is that a personal preference or do you think most people should believe that? Is that very important to you? Do you do this often? Would you like to tell others about your idea? Would you do the same thing again?...
Cannabis Study: Released

Marihuana and Health; Second Annual Report to Congress from The Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare by Robert G. Petersen studies the effects of marihuana on the individual's physical and psychological health as well as the effects of cannabis use on society. A major purpose of this report is to serve as an up-to-date compendium of scientific information bearing on the issue of marihuana and health. In order to make the report maximally useful to the technically trained as well as to laymen, findings are reported in technical as well as in colloquial language. The report attempts to carefully describe the strengths and limitations of the work that has been done in this area. The authors of the report state that with increased knowledge of marihuana and its effects, we can better design research that adequately answers the many questions that its use poses in American society. The report emphasizes the most recent findings and their significance in the light of past knowledge.

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"Flexible Campus" Boosts Morale

Under Boston’s "flexible campus" program every high school in the city has worked out its own ideas on how to let students go out into the community to learn, and how to get the community to come to the high school to teach. The flexible campus was a response to major problems in the Boston schools. Racial disturbances were on the increase and police were patrolling corridors. Students were apathetic or hostile towards the schools, and they weren’t learning. Furthermore, even if they stayed in school until they got their diplomas, many students had no idea what they wanted to do for their life’s work. Finally, because of racial imbalance in the schools, a large chunk of state aid ($50 million) was withheld from the city.

All high schools were invited to devise their own programs. To help them, an institute was set up at the Lincoln Filene Center at Tufts University the summer of 1971. There the administrators, faculty, and students who had been chosen to represent each school heard speakers from other school systems describe their community/school programs. From this, each school chose what it liked best.

The community was invited to help. Universities, businesses, foundations, hospitals, factories, colleges, museums, banks and government officials responded. One university offered to admit any student to its fall term who could pass a course given in the spring term. Businesses offered to hire some of the students who satisfactorily completed a training course taught by their employees.

About 90% of the 4,300 high school seniors took one or more of the (mostly credit) off-campus courses. While the initial survey of students, teachers, parents, administrators, and the community participants is only cursory, it does reveal, according to John S. Gibson, director of the Filene Center, that three basic goals of the program have been achieved: Students became more self directed and self disciplined, the climate for learning has improved, and students are better able to pin down their ideas on careers. One other achievement is also worthy of note: No police are patrolling the city’s high school corridors this year, the second year of the experiment. Further information may be obtained from Gibson at the Lincoln Filene Center, Tufts University, Medford, Mass. 02155.

What's New In College Board Publications?

What resources are available for school counselors, particularly in the areas of counseling college bound students? Counselors are faced with the never-ending task of providing specific, individualized information to students who plan to seek a post-secondary education. To assist the counselor with this endeavor, the College Entrance Examination Board recently announced a series of publications which deal with the many facets of college entrance. A brief description of these publications is provided below.

College Board is a 20-page booklet describing the purpose and operation of the College Board. A synopsis of Board programs and services in the areas of guidance, admissions, placement, financial aid, minority affairs, and research is provided. Free on request.

Free Admissions is a Testing Program publication routinely sent to guidance directors and admissions officers.

College Board Student Bulletin 1972-73 provides instructions for preparing for and taking the Scholastic Aptitude Test and completing the Student Descriptive Questionnaire Response Sheet. The Bulletin is printed in two editions. One lists test centers in the eastern, midwestern, and southern United States, US Territories, and all foreign countries. Except for these lists, the editions are identical.

College Board Achieve- ment Tests 1972-73 explains the nature of the tests and includes sample questions.

College Board Tests for Handicapped Students discusses the arrangements that are possible for physically handicapped students who wish to take the Scholastic Aptitude Test or Achievement Tests.

Perspectives on Your Student Report 1972-73, a booklet for students, explains in nontechnical language the meaning of test scores and Student Descriptive Questionnaire information and their uses in college admissions and counseling. It also contains tables that candidates may use to compare their scores with those of other students.

Guide for High Schools and Colleges 1972-73 contains detailed information about the use and interpretation of the ATP Report form. The publication includes national percentile ranks and mean scores for the Scholastic Aptitude Tests and Achievement Tests.

Announcement of the College Board Validity Study Service. Describes what a college should do to use a service of the College Board that is designed to assist colleges in evaluating applicant data to predict academic performance in college.

Student Search Service: An Aid to Colleges Looking for Students explains how colleges may draw on test scores and biographical information supplied by Admissions Testing Program and PSAT/NMSQT participants completing the Student Descriptive Questionnaire to help locate students with particular characteristics or those from groups currently underrepresented on campus.

College Board Research Report No. 1: Effects of Special Instruction for Three Kinds of Mathematics Aptitude Items is a 60-page study which examines the susceptibility to coaching of three mathematics aptitude item formats—the current regular SAT-mathematics test question, a type of mathematics question called
Statistically analyzed results showed that each of the three item formats was susceptible to the special instruction specifically directed toward it. The authors are Lewis W. Pike and Franklin R. Evans. Priced at $1.50, this report details the research design and outlines the findings.

Research from the Ivory Tower

(Dissertations)

Pyramidal values are values that put exclusive emphasis on getting the job done; they suppress emotions, highlight rationality, and motivate participants through direction, control, and appropriate rewards and penalties. Do school board members have pyramidal values? If so, are these values conducive to the problem solving that occurs at school board meetings? Gerber (1972) studied this topic in an effort to determine what values govern the interpersonal behavior of school board members. His population was three Massachusetts school communities, one of which had per pupil operating expenses at the 25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles, nationally. His conclusions agreed with his hypotheses, namely: (1) a majority of the members of each board had pyramidal values; (2) the interpersonal behavior of a majority of the board members of all three communities was the same, regardless of community differences; and (3) this same interpersonal behavior was not conducive to the problem solving that took place at school board meetings.

A recent study investigated the topic of counselor characteristics as expressed by secondary school students. Using 563 students at Moscow High School (Idaho), the study sought to determine the characteristics these students find desirable in a counselor. Secondly, the study compared desired characteristics with the types of student problems commonly handled to determine if the choice of characteristics was affected by the nature of the problem. Findings indicated that: (1) age and style of dress were not important variables in the assignment of counselors to students; (2) while males and females agreed on preferred counselor characteristics, each sex preferred a same-sexed counselor; (3) generally, students preferred a person active in church work; and (4) students decisively wanted a counselor who is available at all times and preferred him or her to be involved in extracurricular activities. As for the types of student problems, the study revealed that the specific problems did not generally affect the student's choice of counselor characteristics. However, students were more definite in their preferred characteristics when the problem was personal in nature.

What approaches might high school personnel employ to increase student participation in the decision-making process? A recent doctoral investigation reviews the literature and recommends a combination of five basic approaches, in addition to opportunities for student self-organization and self-advocacy. These five approaches were derived from library items, first-hand reports, documents, position papers, and newspaper articles. Five approaches are described: (1) collaborative, a process in which students join with faculty and/or administrators and parents to consider jointly the various academic and administrative issues which confront all groups; (2) parallel, a process in which students in their own independent groups deal with much the same agenda items as adult decision-makers and, then, transmit their recommendations; (3) adversary, a process in which students promote their own interests through tactics of organized pressure and negotiation; (4) independent, a process in which students are given primary decision-making responsibility for specified programs and operating procedures; and (5) individual choice, a process in which the focus is on providing the student the leeway to design his own program and regulate much of his own activity.
Have you been tempted to try out an innovation in your school setting? Then you might be interested in the relationship of success of educational innovation to several variables in the innovative process. A study of educational innovations in Arkansas high schools used two survey instruments: one by the high school principals to rate the innovation's degree of success and the other to identify variables utilized during the implementation of selected innovations. Three categories of innovations were used: curricular, technological, and organizational.

The study concluded that: For curricular innovations, teacher involvement in initial planning stages and meeting student needs seem to be key elements. For technological innovations, successful innovations allowed for greater involvement of community members. For organizational innovations, teacher and district superintendent involvement in initial planning stages appear to be key factors in the success, whereas a lack of financial need appears to be a big determinant in their failure.

Community colleges can offer at least three different types of programs: college transfer, two-year terminal, and one-year occupational. Using two Illinois community colleges and 720 junior college students in her investigation, Anderson (1972) studied and compared the personal and inter-personal values of students enrolled in these three programs. The results showed that terminal and occupational students tend to be more conforming, practical-minded, and accepting of a systematic approach, whereas the college transfer students place more importance on new and different experiences, are less conforming and more flexible in their thinking than occupational students. Also, females in the three programs scored higher on a scale of benevolence than males in corresponding programs, and males scored significantly higher than their female counterparts on a leadership scale. Finally, male college transfers were higher on the leadership scale than male terminal students.

Community college counselors are you aware of the differences among the subgroups and between the sexes of your college population? For example, one social stereotype seems to hold true in this study: males are more leadership-oriented and females more benevolent. The criticism that colleges produce mainly male leaders may be accurate because colleges start with male students, at least in the community college.

Meaningful material rewards provide motivation not only for working adults but for classroom youngsters as well. Results of a study involving 4th grade, white children from middle and lower socioeconomic classes indicate that children seem to learn better when they receive valued material rewards like money and trips than when they receive other forms of incentives. Eighty-seven middle and upper class boys and girls in five different classrooms were involved in a 3-week period of experimentation during which spelling was taught under one of three incentive conditions. While no significant differences in spelling ability were present as a result of social class, the results suggest that material incentives are generally more effective than social incentives or no feedback in the classroom learning of 4th graders.

Research from Your Busy Colleagues

The liberal woman outliberalizes the liberal man. This was a major conclusion drawn from a study conducted at the 1972 Democratic Convention by two political scientists, John Soule, San Diego State College and Wilma McGrath, University of California, Irvine. 326 male and female delegates were given a list of 10 policy statements on marijuana, abortion, Vietnam, busing, wiretapping, and other current issues. The political scientists reported that in every case, a higher percentage of women—14% on the average—took the liberal position on each issue. This flies in the face of conventional wisdom, backed by past Gallup polls, that women usually take more conservative stands. Soule and McGrath believe the seeming swing to the left indicated by their study reflects a liberation from past stereotypes, which pictured women as "ideological eunuchs," dependent on men for their views. They further suggest now that women, or at least those who end up as convention delegates, have freed themselves from this dependence, and they are taking "their logical position to the left of men on the political spectrum." Compassion, pacifism, tenderness, sympathy for the problems of others, all these valued feminine traits "would seem to lead logically to the formation of liberal attitudes rather than conservative."

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Comment: Does simulated career planning affect the vocational maturity of secondary school students? Mulherin (1971) undertook just such a study, limiting his students to ninth graders. Several of the questions he investigated were: If simulated career decision-making affects the vocational maturity of ninth graders do the effects differ by ability of the students? Also, do the effects differ by sex? Using the "Life Career Game" in three urban junior high schools for a period of twelve consecutive days, Mulherin drew the following conclusions:

1) The game increased awareness of factors to consider in curriculum choice and in the relation of curriculum choice to occupational choice for above average ability students; 2) Ninth grade females change their values as a result of exposure to the game; 3) Above average ability game participants increase their willingness to take responsibility for their choices and demonstrate greater overall vocational maturity; and 4) The ability level and sex of ninth grade students are, in fact, significant factors in determining vocational maturity.
How we perceive our social environment helps shape our social interaction. The perception of social actions of lower and middle class, primarily white children from the fourth grade in a University Laboratory School were assessed using a revision of the Paired Hands Test (Zucker and Jordan, 1968). The test measures friendliness and hostility of social perceptions. Scores were used to form four groups. The groups were subsequently asked to work on a puzzle under videotaping conditions. The children who perceived friendly interactions in the test situation made far more task-related facilitative responses than did the hostility perceiving children, and were more methodical in their approach to the task. Hostility perceiving youngsters exhibited few task-related facilitative responses. They were, in fact, highly disruptive. Teachers were surprised at the behavior of some of the hostility perceiving children who they reported were considerably less disruptive in the classroom than they were in the experiment, suggesting that such poor behavior is reinforced in a small unsupervised group of similarly-perceiving peers.

*Psychology in the Schools, 10(1), p.61-66*

Comment. This research presents a good case for groups with a heterogeneous behavioral mix in hopes that the hostility perceiving youngsters will have positive role models to emulate, thereby curtailting their own negative perceptions of interpersonal behaviors.

Will a lecture result in a behavior change? Apparently with the right population and the right topic, yes! A recent study evaluated the effectiveness of a lecture on behavior modification techniques given to three elementary teaching staffs who were volunteered by their principals. Thirty-four teachers selected randomly from the three elementary schools were observed for ten minutes one week before and three weeks after the behavior modification lecture. The results indicated that the rate of teachers' compliments increased and reprimands decreased significantly following the lecture on behavior modification.

*Psychology in the Schools, 10(1), p.48-53*

Comment. Before we knock out walls, perhaps we should reexamine the traditional classroom. Just because it's archaic does not mean it's obsolete nor is the open classroom better just because it's modern. Since schools need to encourage both high achievement and positive attitudes, research should be directed toward locating the sources which encourage both and combining them.

"Open" vs. "Traditional" school—which is best?

A recent study examined matched 4th, 5th and 6th grade students in both types of schools. Compared were total self-concept and factors of interpersonal adequacy, autonomy, academic adequacy and attitudes toward teacher-school from the "How I See Myself" scale (Gordon, 1968). Results indicated that open-environment students found school to be a friendly place where they can do interesting things. However, the other results do not support the superiority claims of the devotees of open classrooms. Academic adequacy was found to be higher in the 6th grade traditional school group than in the open school group and other factors were not significantly different from any group or grade level.

*Psychology in the Schools, 10(1), p.54-64*