EFFECTS OF CITIZENSHIP CURRICULUM TRAINING ON
NINTH-GRADE DISCIPLINE-PROBLEM STUDENTS

DISSERTATION

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By

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This study was conducted to measure the effects of classroom instruction entitled Citizenship Curriculum Training on high school discipline.

Data for this study were collected and analyzed for fifty-eight ninth-grade students who had been referred to the principal's office three or more times the semester prior to the experimental treatment. An experimental group of twenty-nine students received citizenship curriculum instruction. The control group of twenty-nine students received only the school's traditional curriculum during second period class. Two teachers presented the citizenship curriculum training which included instructional units on beliefs, attitudes, emotions, anger, decision-making, communications, confrontation, positive attention, stress, peer pressure, authority figures, getting along in school, and the society game.

Data were collected relative to grade-point average, absences, discipline referrals, and attitude toward high school as measured by the Remmers High School Attitude Scale.
T-tests for correlated samples and analysis of covariance examined the effects of the Citizenship Curriculum Training on the four variables measured. The .05 level of significance was used to test the four hypotheses.

The results of the study indicate that Citizenship Curriculum Training does not improve the students' grade-point averages, absentee rate, lower the number of discipline referrals, and does not improve students' attitude as measured by the Remmers High School Attitude Scale.

It is recommended that similar studies be conducted to address the problems of grade-point average, number of discipline referrals to the office, high absentee rate, and attitudes toward high school by teaching discipline students in small classes with a curriculum that aims at improving these specific problems.

Future studies should collect the posttest data the first grading period following the experimental treatment to test for immediate results.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Discipline, or the lack thereof, continues to be identified by the public as the greatest and most pressing problem facing school personnel today (10, p. 74). In the Phi Delta Kappan's Annual Gallup Poll of the public's attitudes toward the public schools, respondents consistently rank discipline as the major problem plaguing education in the United States (7, p. 35).

The problem of discipline in the schools is so significant that numerous books have been written on disciplinary approaches (Furtwengler and Konnert, 1982; Jones and Jones, 1981; Madsen and Madsen, 1981; Wolfgang and Gluckman, 1980). In 1979, the National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin devoted two entire issues to the problems of student discipline (16, 17).

The traditional form of school discipline has attempted to maintain order by rules and regulations enforced by penalties. The severity of the penalty varied with the kind and degree of infringement. Among the penalties that have been frequently employed were reprimands, detention, withdrawal of privileges, corporal punishment, and expulsion.
While the use of such penalties has by no means been abandoned, they have been used less frequently in recent years. The tendency today is to seek proper conduct through learning rather than by arbitrary authority (9).

Teachers continue to express considerable concern about student misbehavior. A recent report (22) suggests that disruptive student behavior is a major factor that contributes to teacher stress and job dissatisfaction. Recent data show that our school system is in a dilemma regarding discipline and the use of punishment. The controversy over punishment cannot be resolved unless teachers are given alternatives for dealing with children who misbehave and refuse to learn (15, p. 455).

There are problems in both our schools and society that have not been present previously. Students are different; rules and home environments are different. Students no longer accept parents' and teachers' judgments as absolute. Indeed, in many cases students pay little or no attention to parents and teachers. Parents are being called upon to justify students' actions in ways which were not expected of them in the past (3, p. 12).

Open and structured classrooms suffer the effects of misbehavior as do upper- and lower-class schools. Both black and white, ghetto and non-ghetto students misbehave in school. Teachers and principals are frustrated; parents
are both frustrated and angry. Discipline has definitely been identified as a problem of major proportions (2, p. 13).

Discipline is the most basic all of basics (18, p. 1). One of the principal goals of education should be to teach discipline for the purpose of improving classroom behavior. The challenge for educators and parents is to help students to develop the skills of responsible behavior by creating an environment in which students may acquire those skills.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to determine the effects of citizenship curriculum training on the grade-point average, discipline referrals, school attendance, and attitudes toward high school of ninth-grade students who were classified as discipline-problem students.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were developed for testing in this study.

1. There will be no significant difference in the adjusted grade-point averages of discipline-problem students who received citizenship training and discipline-problem students who did not receive the training.

2. There will be no significant difference in the adjusted daily absentee rate means of discipline-problem students who received citizenship training and discipline-problem students who did not receive the training.
3. There will be no significant difference in the adjusted average number of discipline referrals of discipline-problem students who received citizenship training and discipline-problem students who did not receive the training.

4. There will be no significant difference in the Remmers High School Attitude Scale adjusted mean scores of discipline problem students who received citizenship curriculum training and discipline-problem students who did not receive the training.

Background and Significance

Few concerns during the history of American public education have spawned, over such a brief period of time, so much program development, staff training, scholarly inquiry, press coverage, policy making, and intense feelings on the part of parents and professionals as the contemporary student discipline "crisis." What surfaced during the mid-1960s as student unrest and alienation had grown by the 1970s into a nationwide rejection by large numbers of young people of the rules and conventions by which schools and homes had been run for over a century (6, p. 25).

Duke and Jones (6, p. 26) report that this concern was reinforced during the early 1980s by reports from the National Commission on Excellence in Education and the Task Force on Education for Economic Growth of the Education Commission of the States. These reports focus attention on
low academic standards and poor student achievement, thus reinforcing the importance of on-task student behavior.

Students need to learn to behave in a socially accepted manner in order for a healthy learning environment to exist (21, p. 390). One way to encourage students to exercise responsibility is to teach them to be responsible. Responsibility, like reading, is learned through practice.

Teachers should not assume that students understand how they are supposed to behave in school. A study by Duff concludes that students are uncertain about how to act in school (4, p. 502).

A recent Gallup Poll (7) indicates that the public wants more classtime devoted to teaching students how to behave properly. According to Duke (5), school rules and issues related to student behavior belong in the regular school curriculum. Duke also suggests the following ways in which student behavior and related topics can be addressed within the context of the regular academic curriculum.

1. Analyzing values and the ways individuals develop their own values;
2. Teaching specific values necessary for the perpetuation of society;
3. Discussing human behavior in general and student behavior in particular;
4. Teaching group dynamic skills that can be useful in resolving conflicts related to behavior problems; and
5. Teaching school rules and the consequences for disobeying rules (5, p. 51).

Duke and Jones report that a growing number of researchers are working on curriculum approaches aimed at
both reducing discipline problems in schools and increasing student interest in learning. One researcher studied a variety of cooperative learning projects that required students to work together effectively, thereby minimizing the likelihood of class disruptions and distractions. Other researchers analyzed various ways to teach about conflict resolution, ethical development, and justice (6, p. 29).

The most ambitious attempt to address student behavior through the curriculum has been developed by Kohlberg (13) who is a moral-development theorist. Kohlberg developed the cognitive-development approach to moral education that teaches students how to function in a rule-governed organization and how to be contributing members of a democratic microsociety. Duke (5, p. 11) discusses a similar program that seeks to improve student behavior by increasing interpersonal sensitivity through a curriculum unit devoted to teaching emotionally disturbed and socially maladjusted students to care about each other.

According to Ban (1, p. 345), behavior in school should be an object for study in the classroom. Ban proposes that instruction during the first week of school should center on conduct and its consequences. A lesson plan should be prepared for the purpose of teaching proper behavior.

Self-disciplining structures are based on the recognition that learning of self-discipline and personal
responsibility on the part of students is a basic purpose of any educational institution. Stensrud and Stensrud (20, p. 165) suggest that one of the best ways to eliminate the discipline problem is through the conscious structuring of educational institutions for the learning of responsibility and the self-discipline which this requires. Self-discipline does not develop without being encouraged and, if it is a major concern, it should be a major part of any curriculum.

This study examined the effects of a citizenship curriculum training program on ninth-grade discipline-problem students. The areas examined included grade-point average, attendance record, discipline referrals to the principal's office, and the students attitude toward high school.

Definition of Terms

For clarification purposes and handling of the data, the following terms are descriptively defined.

Discipline-problem students are students who had been removed from the classroom setting three or more times due to discipline problems.

Citizenship curriculum training is the experimental instructional treatment used in this study. The citizenship curriculum training is discussed in detail in Chapter III.
Discipline includes procedures and rules by which order is maintained in a school.

Grade-point average is the numerical point assignment for grades received each grading period.

The Hawthorne Effect (8) is a term used to describe a situation where the fact of being studied rather than the experimental factors being manipulated cause the subjects being studied to react.

Attendance record is the daily school attendance of schools.

Students attitude toward high school as used in this study refers to a score on a seventeen-item, Thurstone-type scale entitled Remmers High School Attitude Scale developed by H. H. Remmers to measure a student's attitude toward high school (Appendix A).

Discipline referrals are the number of times a student was referred to the principal's office for discipline problems (Appendix B).

Limitations

This study was limited to discipline-problem students who were enrolled in an inner city high school in a large North Central Texas school district. The selection of discipline-problem student (see definitions on page seven) was limited to those students who were referred to the
principal's office three or more times for discipline problems.

Basic Assumptions

The following basic assumptions were made for this study.

1. It was assumed that the Hawthorne Effect (8) may have had a major impact on the findings of this study that was not measurable.

2. It was assumed that the Remmers High School Attitude Scale (19) is a valid and reliable measure of student attitudes toward any high school.

Methodology

The following procedures for collection of data were utilized in this study. Areas briefly discussed include the population of the study, pretest and posttest administration of the instrument, data collection, and analysis of data.

The population of this study was composed of 434 ninth-grade students from a high school in a large urban school district in North Central Texas. The sample population for this study consists of fifty-eight ninth-grade students who were removed from the classroom setting three or more times because of disciplinary problems.

Twenty-nine students were selected randomly from fifty-eight discipline problem students to form the experimental
group. The twenty-nine remaining students from the sample population, who were not randomly selected for the experimental group, served as the control group for the study.

All students in both sample populations were administered the Remmers High School Attitude Scale (19) as a pretest measure in March, 1982. All students in the experimental group participated in a citizenship curriculum training course. All students in both sample population groups were administered the Remmers High School Attitude Scale (19) as a posttest measure in January, 1983.

At the end of the Fall Semester in January, 1982, pretest data on the sample population groups' grade-point average, number of discipline referrals, daily attendance record, and the pretest score on the Remmers High School Attitude Scale were collected. These data were recorded as premeasures. At the end of the Fall Semester in January, 1983, data on the same variables were recorded as postmeasures.

One-way Analysis of Covariance was the statistical procedure that was used for analysis of the data. The .05 level of significance was utilized to test all of the hypotheses. T-tests for correlated samples were utilized to compare the differences between the experimental group's pretest and posttest mean scores and, to compare the differences between the control group's pretest and posttest mean scores.


The literature relevant to this study was examined in four specific areas in relation to discipline-problem students. Topics covered are (a) the lack of discipline, (b) the role of discipline, (c) discipline and school rules, and (d) the pedagogical approach.

The Lack of Discipline

The problems of lack of discipline and the misbehavior of school age children, plus the many problems that are created by lack of discipline in youngsters, are concerns that are not new. Concerned with the youth of his day, Socrates stated in 400 B.C.,

Our youths love luxury. They have bad manners, contempt for authority; they show disrespect for their elders, and love to chatter in place of exercise. Children are now tyrants, not the servants of their households. They no longer rise when their elders enter the room. They contradict their parents, chatter before company, gobble up their food, and tyrannize their teachers (56, p. 9).

This classic lament of Socrates could easily be attributed to parents of students in the mid-1980s. The concern with discipline problems is not new; what appears to be new, according to Raffini (56), is the frustration faced by teachers and parents when they apply the traditional
approaches and techniques of control with today's disruptive and discipline-problem students.

United States President Ronald Reagan made school discipline one of the major issues in his 1984 re-election campaign (38). Reagan has waged a campaign against unruly behavior in schools and is making improved discipline and reduced school violence a major focus of his efforts to foster excellence in education.

Baker (6) and Bauer (8) agree with President Reagan's campaign against lack of discipline in our schools' classrooms. Bauer states that student misbehavior is one of the most serious problems facing our schools today. Civil behavior in the classroom is a prerequisite for learning. Even a few disorderly students can disrupt the education of the majority of the students who are in school to study and learn. More than a few disorderly students make education virtually impossible. Rutter and Mortimore (57) found in their research that a school's internal life influences how all students behave and learn, and often does so more powerfully than the home or community.

The National Institute of Education (51) surveyed a nationally representative sample of principals, teachers, and students in secondary schools on the extent of disruptive and criminal activity in United States schools. The NIE study, commonly referred to as the "Safe School Study," found that
only about one of every fifty-eight crimes that occurred in the schools was reported to the police. According to this study, in each month of 1976 the scope of criminal activity in America's secondary schools was as follows:

1. 282,000 students were physically attacked,
2. 112,000 students were robbed through force, weapons, or threat,
3. 2.4 million students had their personal property stolen,
4. 800,000 students stayed home because they were afraid to attend,
5. 6,000 teachers were robbed,
6. 1,000 teachers were assaulted seriously enough to require medical attention,
7. 125,000 teachers were threatened with physical harm,
8. more than 125,000 teachers encountered at least one situation in which they were afraid to confront misbehaving students,
9. one out of two teachers was on the receiving end of an insult or obscene gesture,
10. 2,000 fires were set in schools,
11. 13,000 thefts of school property occurred, and
12. 24,000 incidents of vandalism occurred (51, p. 74).

A study conducted by Boston's Safe Schools Commission, in 1983, which involved nine hearings around the city and surveys at four out of seventeen high schools, resulted in similar findings to the NIE study. The results show that three out of ten students admitted carrying weapons to school. Half of the teachers and almost 40 percent of the students were victims of school robbery, assault, or larceny. Further, nearly four in ten students often feared for their safety in school or reported avoiding corridors and restrooms (53, p. 12).

In another study reported by Bauer (8), which was conducted by the Detroit Free Press in 1983, teachers were
surveyed across the State of Michigan, and the data revealed that 46 percent of all teachers had been threatened with violence. One out of five teachers in the study (19 percent) had been hit by a student. Two out of three teachers said that unmotivated and undisciplined students were a serious problem in their classroom.

The NIE's Safe School Study (51) found that three million teenagers from fourteen to seventeen years of age had problems with alcohol. One out of four students from grades ten to twelve drank alcohol at least once a week; 6 percent of the twelfth graders drank daily. The National Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Research and Development Project in 1983 found that the proportion of seventh-grade students who reported being high on drugs or alcohol at school ranged from 2.2 percent to nearly one in every ten students (52).

Although the different types of discipline problems receiving the greatest attention have changed over the past two decades, the overall level of public concern regarding discipline has remained high (14, 19, 55, 62). The problems involving student discipline have reached alarming numbers, particularly at the high school level. Duke (19) identified the various types of discipline problems that are encountered in schools and placed the infractions into five major categories.
Attendance-Related Problems:
A. Absence from school without permission (truancy).
B. Absence from class without permission (skipping, cutting).
C. Late arrival to school or class (tardiness).
D. Leaving school without permission.

Out-of-Class Problems:
A. Criminal behavior
   1. Physical assault and battery.
   2. Extortion; intimidation.
   3. Theft.
   4. Possession of weapons.
   5. Possession, use or sale of controlled substances.
   6. Destruction of property (vandalism).
   8. Setting false fire alarms.
B. Noncriminal behavior
   1. Fighting (without injury).
   2. Cigarette smoking (outside of designated smoking areas, where they exist).
   3. Use of "nuisance" equipment on school property (radios, skateboards, etc.).
   4. Littering.
   5. Loitering in halls or unsupervised areas.
   6. Public displays of affection.
   7. Improper attire.
   8. Disruptive behavior on school bus or at an extracurricular activity.

In-Class Behavior:
A. Classroom deportment
   1. Talking or answering out-of-turn.
   2. Disrespect toward the teacher.
   3. Disrespect toward another student.
   4. Disruptive behavior.
   5. Chewing gum or eating.
   6. Moving around the classroom without permission.
B. Conduct Related to Academic Work:
   1. Failing to complete assignments.
   2. Not completing assignments on time.
   3. Forgetting equipment (pencil, textbook, etc.).
   4. Cheating on tests.
   5. Copying homework from another student or plagiarism.
   6. Failing to prepare for class (i.e., not suiting up for physical education class) (19, p. 4).
The American public has been alarmed by the above-mentioned problems that continue to confront our nation's schools. According to Hyman and D'Alessandro (38), respondents to the Annual Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitude toward the Public Schools have consistently ranked lack of discipline as the major problem plaguing education. Lack of discipline has been named as the primary problem concerning the American public on fifteen out of sixteen Annual Gallup Survey Polls.

Teachers' attitudes were surveyed in the First Annual Gallup Poll of Teachers' Attitudes toward the Public Schools (29) in October, 1984. The purpose of the survey was to track opinion trends and to compare teacher attitudes about key school topics with the attitudes of the general public, including those of parents and children. The results of the 2,000 teacher survey study indicate that the public's perception of discipline in the schools differs considerably from that of teachers. The teachers named lack of parental support as the most crucial problem facing local public schools. The teachers ranked lack of discipline as the fourth most crucial concern in education; 16 percent of the teachers compared to 30 percent of the parents thought that disciplinary problems were very serious.

Huber (36) conducted a study of parents, teachers, and principals in forty-four middle schools in South Dakota. Huber's study investigated the discrepancies of disciplinary
concerns among parents, teachers, and principals. The results of the study indicate that parents rank student use of drugs, alcohol, and tobacco as their primary discipline concern. Both the teachers and principals were most concerned about students' lack of interest and apathy toward the school.

Duke and Jones (20) report that earlier research concerning lack of discipline supports evidence that educators feel the public's concern over discipline is justified. In one study, 60 percent of the teachers sampled in a midwestern metropolitan area agreed that public alarm over discipline was warranted. Other studies indicate that lack of discipline is the key contributing factor to teacher stress and "burn-out."

From its 1983 Nationwide Teacher Opinion Poll, the National Education Association says,

Nearly one half of all respondents (45 percent) reported that student misbehavior interferes with their teaching. Another 46 percent reported that student misbehavior interferes to a small extent with their teaching; only 9 percent reported no interference from student misbehavior (50, p. 10).

Teachers are leaving the teaching profession at an astounding rate according to the National Education Association teacher survey. Wolfgang and Glickman (68) cite the 1977 NEA report which found that only 14 percent of the teachers surveyed had been teaching twenty years or more.
That was half the percentage (28 percent) of fifteen years before. Only one-third of the teachers still in the profession believe that they would make the same choice again in 1977. Duke and Jones (20) report that in 1982, 63 percent of teachers polled cited discipline problems as the reason for job dissatisfaction, and the major reason for leaving the teaching profession was negative student attitudes and discipline.

According to Hyman and D'Alessandro (38), the results of the public's outcry throughout the last fifteen years has illuminated a national concern but also engendered a harmful overreaction by influencing educators to make drastic changes in discipline policies. School systems across the country appear to be attempting to respond in rational ways to irrational stimuli. Baker (6) reports that school reforms pertaining to lack of discipline have been initiated by eleven states since January of 1984. Eleven states have acted on school discipline legislation; fourteen states have formed task forces on school discipline and school crime; eighteen states have submitted special reports on school discipline and crime to their legislatures; and seventeen states are involved in other discipline-related activities. Duke and Jones (20) suggest that the difficulties posed by the lack of school discipline and class disruptions are intensified by the disagreement of school officials over which problems
are most serious or how to go about handling the different types of problems.

The Role of Discipline in School

Strong historical roots support the theory of the necessity for the discipline of students to adopt certain behavioral dispositions in keeping with expectations of dominant power-groups. In the case of classical Sparta, the process was harsh, inflexible, and oriented toward highly specific ends. Castle (13) relates how Spartan schooling involved the complete submergence of individuality in a system where the state possessed the child, body and soul. Discipline was construed in terms of obedience to immediate superiors in a hierarchy of persons themselves obedient to a static community tradition and was enforced by means of incessant corporal punishment and the ruthless conditioning of young minds toward an exclusively military ideal.

In the English schools of the last century, according to Landon (47), obedience was enforced for the most part less brutally and without military goals in mind. But still, discipline in England has been essentially a process of obedience--training for society at large. The real intention of early English discipline in schools was apparently to provide a schooling in subordination.

Durkheim (22), the French sociologist, also saw school discipline in terms of preparing the child for the "discipline
of society," but not in the sense of reducing him to a position of insubordination. Durkheim argues that education should be in harmony with the values and needs of society and that the objectives of moral education could be determined by identifying the collective interests of society. These interests Durkheim saw as a collection of societal "facts" that were roles, habits, customs, and laws which through education could become internalized by all members of society. Durkheim believed that teachers had a moral responsibility to cultivate in their pupils what he called "the spirit of discipline." This, he advised, could be achieved not in terms of inducing uniformity of behavior nor in terms of controlling students to make them work. Durkheim's emphasis was on regularizing the child's conduct, moderating his egocentric desires, and encouraging him to respect authority. This he called the guarantee of the survival of society.

Schools in the Soviet Union do not have problems identifying the needs of the Russian society because the goals of education in Russia are implicit in the notion of "communist morality" and are explicitly defined in manuals, books, and the popular press. Bronfenbrenner's (11) Two Worlds of Childhood: U.S. and U.S.S.R. illustrates vividly the ways in which Russian children are trained to behave by "collective means" through the influence of the community. Russian parents and teachers are given detailed guidance concerning
the expected behavior of children at home, school, and the community. The mode of behavior in Russian schools must be seen in the context of Soviet collective upbringing where the classroom is a unit of the communist youth organization, and where all activity is oriented toward agreed ends in keeping with Soviet ideology. The school regime is not a punitive one; rewards, praise, and competition are heavily emphasized and carefully systemized with the group rather than the individual as the referent. Although it is the teacher who first sets the standards, monitors assigned to each class and to each row within each class gradually take on responsibility for maintaining order through interclass and interrow competition. Always, the appeal is to the group. As a result of this collective way of upbringing, Russian children are seen by Bronfenbrenner as being more conformist, less anti-adult, and less rebellious than their United States counterparts.

Ausubel (5), an American psychologist, regards discipline partly as a process necessary for orderly teaching, and partly as a means for providing students with emotional security. According to Ausubel, discipline can be construed as a form of training that contributes toward the development of a stable personality.

Sociologists have tried to show how education serves as a function in preserving the structure of society and the
social order. Education serves the demands of the economy and the political system and has little control over its own destiny. Shipman (59) contends that the socializing influence of schools may well outweigh educational influence in terms of cognitive development. Shipman argues that the pervasive quality of the disciplinary environment constitutes part of the hidden curriculum so that the values which are enforced in school are precisely those which are needed for the efficient functioning of bureaucratic organizations and the maintenance of the social order. Part of the hidden curriculum are obedience, abiding by rules, loyalty, industry, punctuality, regular attendance, quietness, orderly work in large groups, working to a strict timetable, tolerance to monotony, the ability to change readily from one situation to another, and ignoring personal needs when these are irrelevant to the task at hand. Shipman points to the "moral courses" laid down by the Japanese government in the 1950s which led to the industrialization of Japan and received support from the educational system that helped create a readiness to accept training and discipline in industry as well as an aggressive nationalist outlook. Respect for service, good manners, impartiality, and observance of rules, the difference between right and wrong, the appreciation of labor, were emphasized by Japanese education and Shipman sees this as an illustration of the Japanese faith in the power of the educational system.
American economists Bowles and Gintis (10) attempt to demonstrate the economic importance of the education system in reproducing the social relationship of the American capitalistic mode of life. Bowles and Gintis claim that "since its inception in the United States, the public school system has been seen as a method of disciplining children in the interests of producing a properly subordinate population" (10, p. 37).

Bowles and Gintis do not view the nature of discipline in American schools as being personalized but rather as part of a large bureaucratic structure of the schools that relies on regulations from higher authorities with the aim of compliance giving its way to behavior modification with the objective of self-control. The American system operates to inhibit those manifestations of personal capacity which pose a threat to hierarchial authority, thus playing an insidious role in social control. This state of affairs is a reflection of the force of business interests and the ideology of efficient management.

The use of the word discipline coterminously with control is fairly prevalent in educational literature. Ausubel's (5) definition of discipline also means control, the absence of permissiveness, while self-discipline signifies the internalization of extrinsic controls. Ausubel emphasizes that discipline must have certain characteristics which are in keeping with a democratic society.
Democratic discipline is as rational, nonarbitrary, and bilateral as possible. It provides explanations, permits discussions, and invites the participation of children in the setting and enforcement of standards whenever they are qualified to do so. Above all, it implies respect for the dignity of the individual, makes its primary appeal to self-control, and avoids exaggerated emphasis on status differences and barriers between full communications. Hence it repudiates harsh, abusive, and vindictive forms of punishment and the use of sarcasm, ridicule, and intimidation (5, p. 511).

Democratic discipline is an appropriate way of controlling students through processes which are noncoercive. Hobsen (35) makes the conceptual point that coercion can never be a method of educating, in the sense of helping students to grasp what is true. Hobsen says coercion is forcing a belief with a threat and is irrational because it does not provide a moral reason for action, only an expedient one.

Silberman (61) deplores the ban on movement prevalent in many American schools where even the length of time which can be spent in the toilet may be rigidly prescribed and where corridors are constantly patrolled by staff. Control in this sense is a means to an end with a preoccupation with efficiency where orders are given in the interest of convenient administration rather than in relation to the task of educating students. Silberman suggests the reason for this present condition in American schools.

If teachers are obsessed with silence and lack of movement, it is in large part because it is the chief means by which their competence is judged. A teacher will rarely, if ever, be called on the carpet or denied tenure because the students have not learned anything; he most certainly will be rebuked if the students are talking
or moving about the classroom--or even worse--found outside the room (61, p. 144).

According to Smith (60), discipline has been referred to as the procedures, including rules, by which order is maintained in a school. For a school to function properly, the discipline and conduct of the students must conform to conditions that are conducive to learning. In recent years the system of discipline characterizing society has been moving from force to persuasion and thence in the direction of self control.

In the early days order was secured by coercion, the older form of school discipline maintained order by rules and regulations enforced by penalties. The severity of the penalty varied with the kind of infringement. Among the penalties frequently employed were reprimands, detention, withdrawal of privileges, corporal punishment, and expulsion. The use of such penalties has by no means been abandoned in the mid-1980s but the use is less frequent in recent years. The tendency is to seek proper conduct through learning rather than by arbitrary authority (60).

Jones (42) discusses the concern about the manner in which school discipline is being handled, which has also been expressed by minority groups who point to studies indicating that a disproportionate percentage of minority children are suspended and expelled. Consequently, racially integrated schools have begun to explore reasons for the imbalance in punishments given to minorities. Furthermore, a strong
concern has been expressed that too many educators do not try to prevent discipline problems. Educators in the past have waited until the problem has reached a crisis, and then they administer short-term interventions that ignore the reasons why the crisis originated and that promise only momentary relief (44).

Duke and Jones (20) identify the lack of clear, consistent, and comprehensive definitions of classroom management and school discipline. This problem has slowed the development of discipline and classroom management as a widely recognized specialization. Currently, in 1986, widespread agreement does not exist concerning the most effective ways to manage classrooms, prevent behavior problems, or coordinate school discipline.

School Rules and Discipline

School discipline is often seen as an important ingredient in the process by which students are enabled to function in society. According to Docking (15), if students are to participate in adult society, they must develop rule-following and law-abiding habits. Students must conform to the general social expectations of mainstream culture, thus absorbing the culture's basic attitudes and beliefs.

The use of formal school rules in the past has been based on the somewhat cynical belief that students will tend to misbehave unless external limits are placed on their
behavior. Duke (19) points out that such a belief derives some legitimacy from religious notions of "original sin." It is the belief, according to this theory, that in the absence of established authority, humans (particularly immature humans) will act selfishly and irresponsibly. A corollary of this belief is that rules are more useful when promulgated before being needed rather than afterward.

In many cases in the past educators have used the word discipline as a synonym for punishment. Students have been punished for doing things that the teacher thought were immoral, illegal, unsafe, or disruptive of the learning situation. Teachers also punished students for misbehaviors that were distasteful to the teacher. These misbehaviors, which were often called impolite, discourteous, or uncouth, comprise the majority of discipline referrals to the principal's office. Newly hired teachers are oriented toward the ground rules of discipline in their schools by receiving long lists of rules and their corresponding punishments (31).

Because living in society involves living in accordance with certain agreed rules which govern an individual's behavior, Docking (15) contends that schools are sometimes regarded as a kind of training-ground where children come to internalize the behavioral values of the dominant culture and learn to act accordingly. It is clear that the notion
of social values and of rule-following is implicit in the
notion of society. Alexander also points out that

a society without rules is inconceivable, and rules
without some attitude of disapproval towards breaking
them are inconceivable. Anyone who seeks to change
a society rather than to abolish society altogether
must be aiming at something with some rules, however
exiguous (2, p. 149).

Schools cannot afford to disregard societal values and
behavioral expectations. Schools have been set up by society
for the purposes of society, and one purpose of a school is
to ensure that students' behavior is commensurate with
society's general expectations (15).

Despite the popularity of rules, the evidence concern-
ing their effectiveness is mixed according to Duke and Perry
(21). Duke and Perry have observed that the absence of long
lists of rules may help improve students' behavior. They
state that too many rules may actually contribute to the
creation of discipline problems by overtaxing the capacity
of teachers and administrators to enforce them. This leads
to inconsistent discipline, teacher frustration, and under-
mining the school's credibility as a rule-governed organiza-
tion.

Administrators must realize the cost of using their
position to establish rules and more controls. The cost
may outweigh the benefits in many cases, according to
Gouldner (33). Gouldner indicates that the intent to
obtain control of students through increasing bureaucratic
rules may have the reverse effect. When the rules are spelled out they are typically the minimum acceptable standards, and Furtwengler and Konnert (27) state that many schools, teachers, and administrators expect more from students than meeting the minimum acceptable standards for appropriate behavior. The increased supervision necessary to make certain that the rules are being complied with makes the power relations more visible, and thus produces more interpersonal tension between the students and the supervisors of those rules. The establishment of more rules and regulations increases the need for control devices and may have negative rather than positive consequences.

Gouldner suggests that rules should have the following characteristics.

1. Rules should be initiated and supported by both students and teachers.
2. Rules should be enforced by the educators and obeyed by the students.
3. Violations of rules should be received as a lack of information.
4. Attempts to educate violaters about the rules should be initiated (33, p. 162).

Hargraves, Hester, and Mellor (34) report on one of the most extensive studies of school rules, and they conclude that in some schools some of the rules could be abolished without any serious consequences.

If a rule is not strictly necessary or does not serve any really important purpose, might not its abolition--and the abolition of all its associated deviance be in the best interest of all? Teachers might devote greater attention to examining the pupils' perspective
on rules, for they may not always understand or share the teacher's justification for the rules. Research has shown . . . that where teachers enforce rules which are seen by some pupils as illegitimate the enforcement of the rules may provoke an entirely unintended and unanticipated widespread deviance (34, p. 256).

Duke and Jones (20) concur with Hargraves, Hester, and Mellor and observe that the enforcement of rules is reputedly inconsistent within and among schools as well as over time.

In the study of teacher behavior and classroom management, Gage and Crawford (28) and Kounin (46) are credited for advancement in these two areas. Gage and Kounin identified that there is a need for teachers to develop a system of rules that allows pupils to attend to their personal and procedural needs without having to check with the teacher.

Charles (14) states that every classroom needs a set of rules that governs two things—work habits and personal behavior. Charles also adds that for rules to be effective they must be jointly formulated, reasonable, positive, succinct, observable, public, enforceable, and enforced. If broken rules call for appropriate penalties, penalties must be applied immediately, consistently, and impartially without malice. Obsolete or unnecessary rules should be dropped; since all rules are made to be obeyed, unreasonable rules can be changed. As long as rules are in effect, these rules should apply to everyone.
Teachers should not assume that students understand how they are expected to behave in school. A survey by Duff (17) asked the question, "Do students have a clear idea of what is expected of them where student behavior is concerned?" The results of the survey show that 30 percent of the students answered "no" to the question. This negative response occurred even after the students had received instructions in an assembly for the sole purpose of discussing behavior standards. The results of the survey were questionable as to whether or not the students were displaying a lack of understanding of the rules or disagreement with the reasons for the rules.

A study conducted in 1980 by the National Opinion Research Center at the University of Chicago for the National Center for Education Statistics (50) surveyed 1,015 schools and school administrators pertaining to school rule enforcement, rule perception, and misbehavior in school. Students perceived rules as being enforced more often in schools where there was a lower rate of misbehavior than in schools with higher levels of misbehavior. The study also found that high schools which enforced more rules had lower rates of misbehavior reported by the students. A relationship was found between rule enforcement and a perception of fairness. Students in the survey felt that where rules of conduct were strictly enforced, disciplinary procedures were unfair (50).
School rules and regulations have been developed by school boards, superintendents, principals, teachers, and trustees since the development of the public school movement. Johnson (41) reports that studies of school rules which were compiled by Henry Barnard from forty-nine cities when he served as United States Commissioner of Education in 1870, indicate that for every rule listed by Barnard a counterpart could be found in rules and regulations today.

Johnson (41) emphasizes that school administrators and teachers need to remember that it is difficult to organize and operate today's schools with rules that were developed even five or ten years ago. Rules and policies should be developed in order to assist teachers in the elimination or prevention of classroom discipline problems, thereby enabling teachers to develop the best learning climate possible.

Administrators and teachers can do much to prevent or eliminate some school discipline problems if they would

1. review present rules, regulations, and policies and revise them if they are outdated or difficult to enforce;
2. make sure that each rule is designed to assist in the development of a better school climate;
3. provide a variety of alternatives for students when punishment is administered (when possible);
4. ask key students to review the present rules and suggest revision, additions or deletions;
5. ask parent committees to review present rules and suggest changes; and
6. build flexibility in each rule (41, p. 36).

The removal of all unnecessary school and classroom rules would allow and encourage teachers to use their own
professional judgement to solve minor infractions. This would also reduce discipline referrals to the principal's office, and the time saved would allow administrators to work more effectively with the serious discipline cases.

The Pedagogical Approach

Discipline has always been a concern of educators. Different cultures throughout the world proscribe acceptable techniques to shape the process of socialization in their children. In Western society, the socialization process is associated with the term discipline, which has different meanings for different people.

The word discipline has its roots in the Latin word *disciplina*, which refers to teaching and learning (67). One meaning of the word discipline refers to a particular field of study. Another definition implies self-control, while a third definition involves the concept of punishment. It is the latter meaning that most educators often associate with the act of disciplining. According to Hyman and others (37) it is important to note that both the term discipline and the closely associated Latin word *disciple* are associated with the concept of education and learning and do not necessarily have negative connotation.

Discipline is part of education and educators need to provide positive educational approaches to discipline to re-establish order in our schools (54). Discipline should
be a process by which adults inculcate values and encourage behaviors that are considered acceptable within our society. By teaching students the development of self-control and positive behavior, it is believed that discipline can be achieved without the use of punitive approaches to discipline (37).

Stensrud and Stensrud (62) suggest in their research in educational psychology that teachers should seek alternative ways to conceptualize discipline. Rather than viewing discipline as a behavior to be coerced, Stensrud and Stensrud recommend that discipline be viewed as an attitude which can be learned through the process of responsible decision making. Discipline can be learned and can have a great impact on an individual's entire life. However, for discipline to be learned, it must be taught. One of the best ways of eliminating the discipline problem is through the conscious structuring of educational institutions for the learning of responsibility. Since self-discipline is a major concern that does not develop without being encouraged, it should be a major part of any curriculum.

Duke (19) and Furtwengler and Konnert (27) believe that training and education toward self-control must be provided for school-age children. Teachers have been in a perfect setting to teach discipline to their students since the doors of the first school opened. Teachers can teach about
rules, responsibility, communication, and consequences for rule violations. Teachers may begin in the early grades by treating rules as subject matter worthy of serious study. Duke also suggests that students should get a grade for classroom instruction on school rules. Classroom discussions on rule violations and the consequences for disobeying rules will help to demonstrate to students how to improve their school attitude and acquire acceptable behavior. Van Avery states, "The process of learning responsibility can best take place between people who can really get to know each other. We need continually to be concerned about allowing small groups of young people to interact with responsible adults" (65, p. 177).

Gordon (32) proposes a formal problem-solving process to deal with discipline problems in a creative way. The teacher defines the discipline problems and guides a brainstorming of possible solutions (all listed on the board) that are then evaluated. The class moves toward a consensus on the one solution that everyone, including the teacher, is willing to try for a specified period of time.

The schools must realize the value of teaching students which behaviors are desirable, if the students are to benefit from their public school experience. First and Mizell (25) state that there seem to be few initiatives by schools to teach students responsibility and to give them the opportunities to exercise the learned responsibility. School
discipline is a process that usually occurs between individuals, most often two people. The problem of discipline is a process that comes into play because very few students are taught the skills of how to deal with personal problems or with the problems of others. Discipline is a process that involves confused, angry, and frightened students in a conflict situation.

Phi Delta Kappan's annual polls have reported in the past that the American public wants more classtime devoted to teaching students how to behave in the classroom (17). Duke (19) contends that school rules and issues related to student discipline belong in the regular academic curriculum. Social skills, attitudes, rule making, and the nature of rule-governed organizations should be incorporated in the regular academic curriculum of the school.

Bort (9) agrees with Stensrud and Stensrud (62) that strict discipline and control policies treat only the symptoms of the difficulties experienced by students with anti-social behavior. Discipline should be coupled with serious instruction on effective communication between students. Bort suggests the use of group discussions so that students can learn the dangers of drugs and alcohol, how to handle threats, fights, intimidations, shakedowns, and how to develop respect and cultural sensitivity for other students.
The modern view of discipline recognizes that the schools have the responsibility for teaching good citizenship behaviors as well as good academic behaviors, and that the teacher must set up classroom experiences to encourage and develop both. Good citizenship in a classroom is made up of specific acts that can be described and understood. The teacher who takes the opportunity to explain and illustrate the classroom rules and regulations usually spends less time correcting students' misbehavior. When rules are broken, the teacher's time can well be spent giving a brief explanation of why the behavior was wrong and a description of another more preferable response to the situation (31).

Wagner (66) supports the idea that most discipline problems result from communication problems with others. According to Wagner, students need to learn and be taught communication skills in order to behave in a socially approved manner.

Duke (19) links the teaching of responsibility to students with acting like a responsible student. Teaching responsibility, according to Duke, is an exercise that can be learned through practice. The teaching of responsibility and school rules should be incorporated in the regular academic curriculum.

In recent years, a variety of programs have been developed to increase student awareness of themselves, their behavior, and the world they live in. Values-clarification
activities employ hypothetical situations and forced-choice techniques to stimulate students to consider why they act in certain ways. "Self-sciencing," "reality therapy," and "program tribes" are current group-dynamics strategies that utilize actual student concerns to foster discussions about personal feelings (19).

Mosher and Sullivan (49) have developed a particularly comprehensive approach to student behavior in the "Curriculum in Moral Education for Adolescents." The curriculum is intended for high school juniors and seniors and consists of four phases: (a) personal introductions, (b) discussion of moral dilemma through case studies, (c) learning counseling skills, and (d) teaching high school students to be moral educators with younger children (49, p. 159).

Kohut and Dale point out that traditional approaches and methods for helping students to cope with values, attitudes, and emotions have usually included "telling" the students (a) how they should act, (b) how they should feel, (c) what they should desire, and (d) what was right or wrong (45, p. 43). Kohut and Dale note that traditional approaches have provided little active opportunity for students to explore the values, attitudes, emotions, and concerns of themselves and others. Many previous approaches emphasize knowing rather than experiencing. The students in the past have undergone indoctrination rather than
development through exploration. Kohut and Dale list the following techniques that can be used by teachers to provide exploration and understanding of problems.

1. Dramatic play—students try out different roles and behavior to experience feelings of the characters portrayed. Discussion follows role playing.
2. Role-playing—acting out a situation, then reacting to behave properly. A safe way to try out different behavior.
3. Sociodrama—groups act out a social problem then discussion follows.
4. Unfinished problem stories—the teacher presents a problem that is discussed by the group.
5. Questioning strategies and self-analysis sheets—students identify their own values and those of others, student finds out what makes him happy, what he does well and things he likes to do.
6. Bibliotherapy—individuals and the teacher discuss another person's problem that is similar to the student's problem to search for a solution (45, p. 43).

Duke (19) assumes that some students misbehave simply because they have not learned how to behave properly or they lack the understanding or the values that would result in acceptable conduct in school. Among the curriculum-augmentation procedures identified by Duke are (a) deport- ment training, (b) moral education, (c) values-clarification, and (d) effective education. The little research that exists on these approaches fails to demonstrate their general effec- tiveness as prevention procedures. However, these approaches may work only for particular students.

New students, according to Byerly (12), should be pro- vided with rules orientation and school rules instruction when they transfer from other schools. An exemplary program
for transfer students in Milwaukee was established as an induction center for the entire school district. Students were placed in small classes and taught by specially selected and trained teachers. The objective of the program was to socially readjust the incoming students as well as to teach all students the expected school rules. Once students manifested an adequate level of adjustment, they were sent to regular school programs. Byerly notes that behavior problems and negative attitudes were minimized if not eradicated by placing pupils in the orientation-center classes.

In dealing with angry students, Anderson (4) stresses that the teachers' actions should be motivated by the need to protect and to teach—not by a desire to punish. Parents and teachers should show a child that they accept his or her feelings while suggesting other ways to express the feelings. An adult might say for example, "Let me tell you what some children would do in a situation like this." Anderson concludes that it is not enough to tell children what behaviors we find unacceptable; children must be taught acceptable ways of coping by creating an atmosphere of quiet firmness, clarity, and conscientiousness, while using reasoning (4).

A lesson plan approach to dealing with discipline problem students has been developed by Ban (7). The approach addresses misbehavior before it happens. Ban proposes that teachers set aside the teaching of subject matter during the
first week of school, during which teachers would devote that time to "comportment training." Teachers should teach not only behavior in general but also, more specifically, behavior in education institutions. Students should be encouraged to study in detail the school board's discipline policy and the school's conduct code—including behavior, corporal punishment, suspension, expulsion, due process, student responsibilities, specific offenses, and consequences for breaking rules. Students should be given the opportunity to explore the reasons behind these rules and express their reactions to them. Ban believes that understanding the role of rules or laws in society is closely tied to any effective discipline system. Discipline can be learned from studying it and it can be taught to the students.

Dreikurs (16) points out that Alfred Alder was among the pioneers in the use of class group discussion in the educational process. Recently many known educators advocate group dynamics, especially the use of group discussions for training students to understand behavior and to unite them toward common goals. The use of group discussion not only helps children develop better personal relationships but also enhances learning through accumulated information. Effective communication of ideas leads to problem solving. Students learn through discussions to explore controversial matters and to deal with people of different backgrounds.
In a discussion group, children form attitudes and set values that may influence them for their entire life and may affect their behavior inside and outside the school. Group discussions provide opportunities for emotional and intellectual participation and reassurance that the student is not alone. Difficult tasks seem lighter when ideas, aspirations, successes, problems, and anxieties are shared. The student learns to evaluate and profit from another classmate's experience as well as from his own experiences. The student in a group feels supported and becomes more responsive. Valet contends, in agreement with Sheffler (58), "that the affective domain of human development has been seriously underrated in education as determined through curriculum offerings and methods of school organization" (64, p. 23).

Scheffler (58) believes that the growth of cognition is inseparable from education of the emotions. In his study of cognitive and effective teaching techniques and success in solving classroom disruptive problems, Scheffler found out that teachers can improve learning climate in their classrooms by identifying disruptive problems and seeking methods for improvements by education for the emotions.

Alschuler (3) proposes problem-solving education to overcome oppression in interpersonal relationships.
The teaching-learning enterprise should be critical problem solving. Freire (26) more specifically indicates three characteristics of problem-posing education as follows: (a) "teachers and students engage in dialogue," (b) "teachers and students attempt to speak words about central conflicts," and (c) "the meta-goal of specific problem solving is to develop critical consciousness, not magical or naive consciousness" (26, p. 71).

Alschuler's problem-posing education is likened to collaboratively resolving a live classroom conflict instead of studying the dead battles of the Revolutionary War. Problem-posing education addresses problems-in-living (answers have to be invented). There is a value in learning about people, about things, love, and critical problems to help balance what others call regular academic education.

Johnson, Miskel, and Crawford (40) discuss a case in point. East High School in Wichita, Kansas, was having many problems with discipline in 1975. The school principal formed a task force of students, teachers, police, psychologists, and sociologists to develop a new set of instructional courses which was called the "Peer Leadership Program." The assumption behind the new curriculum was that students can teach other students and produce a positive learning environment to help alleviate many student problems. Students were involved in teaching discipline to students who needed help.
The curriculum consisted of the following seven goals of the Peer Leadership Program.

1. To develop an understanding of preventive law in society.
2. To develop communication, personal interaction, and group process skills.
3. To develop an appreciation and acceptance of other's values.
4. To provide resources and guidance to peers in helping them solve problems.
5. To develop an understanding of leadership qualities and of the power of peer leadership.
6. To provide an opportunity for classroom discussion of student problems.
7. To improve students' attitudes toward school (40, p. 82).

The Peer Leadership Program classes were taught by selected student leaders. The students in the classes were those who had been having discipline problems. Four teachers were assigned to help the students teach the class. Students were divided into groups of fifteen to twenty to receive the instruction on positive discipline. Data were collected for two school years and the results of the program were impressive: a 4.6 percent decrease in student absences, an 8.6 percent decrease in the dropout rate, a 22 percent decrease in physical attacks, a 25.2 percent decrease in vandalism costs, and a 46 percent increase in student involvement. The only process that did not change was the number of referrals for discipline to the office. Overall the program was successful at East High School (40).

Albert (1) compared the changes in attendance, grade-point average, self-concept, and number of discipline
referrals between a group of students who were in short-term group counseling and a group of students whose parents were in short-term group counseling. Forty-five tenth graders were administered a pretest and posttest self-concept attitude test and divided into three groups. One group of fifteen students received short-term group counseling from the school, the second group of fifteen students received short-term group counseling from their parents, the third group of fifteen students served as the control group and did not receive any counseling. Albert's research study concludes that short-term counseling does not significantly reduce the number of discipline referrals, improve grade-point average, improve attendance, or improve students' self-concept and attitude.

Another attempt to reduce the number of discipline referrals to the office was made by Wright (69) in 1978. Wright conducted a study of fifty-eight fifth- and sixth-grade students who were discipline problem students. All students were administered the Spielberg State Anxiety Inventory to measure their anxiety changes. Behavior changes were measured with a check list by the students' teachers. One group of students received relaxation instruction fifteen minutes a day for four weeks. Two control groups were utilized in the study. Control group one received a psuedo treatment for fifteen minutes a day for four weeks; control group two received no treatment.
The results of the study indicate that relaxation training did not significantly reduce the number of discipline referrals to the principal's office.

The teaching of values clarification to reduce the number of discipline problems was investigated by Dye (23) in 1979. Dye identified forty-five discipline-problem students in middle school, and she assigned one group to receive values-clarification instruction in a self-study student packet for nine weeks. The second group received values clarification instruction in small group settings for nine weeks. The third group served as the control group and received no values-clarification instruction. At the conclusion of the study the number of referrals to the office were counted, and the results indicated that values-clarification instruction by self-study or in a small group setting did not significantly reduce the number of discipline referrals to the principal's office.

The effects of client-centered group counseling and relaxation on the self-concept and negative behavior of thirty discipline-problem students was investigated by Kaggwa (43) in 1981. All thirty discipline-problem students were administered the Tennessee Self-Concept Test before and after the experimental treatment. The experimental group participated in group counseling and relaxation sessions. The control group received no group counseling or
relaxation sessions. The results of the study did not show any significant improvement in the students' behavior after group counseling sessions. The subjects in the experimental group scored lower on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale after the treatment. Kaggwa explained this unexpected regression as the operation of the students' defensive distortion mechanism in the pretest scores and a reduction in defensiveness as a result of the counseling being reflected in the posttest scores.

The impact of a humanities education curriculum was studied by Feinman (24) in 1982. The humanities curriculum, entitled The Interchange Program, was administered to 104 ninth- and tenth-grade students, and 102 students served as the control group. After measuring and tabulating data both before and after the humanities instruction, the results of the study showed that humanities curriculum instruction did not benefit the students, did not significantly improve the students' self-concept, did not improve students' attendance or grades, and did not eliminate racial prejudice or reduce discipline referrals.

Discipline—the learning of good behavior, distinguishing the right from the wrong thing to do, the helpful from hurtful—is no different from the things that teachers teach in the classroom, states Hymes (39). Teachers must realize that students do not know how to behave and do not understand
due to lack of experience or lack of maturity. They need more practice in doing what teachers call the right thing. Students do not get the hang of good behavior right away all the time; no more than they get the knack of reading, dancing, or typing immediately. Most students want to be good, but the ways of behavior—the right things to do and the acceptable appropriate actions—are hard to master. Teachers have to explain. Teachers have to talk things over and find out what part is not clear. Teachers have to emphasize certain points again. Teachers have to make the generalizations clearer. Teachers have to give the underlying reasons again and offer more examples. Teachers have to talk through with the students what could happen, what might happen, and why the right way is the best. Teachers have to teach discipline to their students to help them understand the right from the wrong, truth, promptness, kindness, respect, and other needed lessons in life. A student has to learn all of these, but he cannot apply any of these lessons automatically. Teachers should not expect students to learn discipline overnight. Hymes strongly encourages teachers to plug away patiently and steadily and keep teaching discipline year after year. It takes longer to teach discipline. The teaching of discipline calls for even more of a teacher's patience and demands more growth and more maturity (39).
Kohut and Range (45) believe that by providing students with experiences in dealing with their specific values, attitudes, emotions, and behaviors, the teacher increases the potential for students' self-discipline. Kohut and Range believe that these areas must be "explored" by each student if he is to form an identity and begin to control and direct individual behavior toward self-discipline.

According to Docking (15), school discipline can be regarded as character-building or as training for society in order to reinforce certain values, usually those upheld by the dominant culture in society. Discipline can also be seen or interpreted primarily in terms of control, in which case it is regarded as a means whereby teaching is facilitated. Discipline can also be seen very definitely in terms of education where it is regarded as one thing which leads to something else, thus being part of educating students. Discipline should be an aspect of social education which places emphasis on the way children construe their own behavior in relation to others. Through social education students can learn to think about discipline in an educative sense and come to view their behavior involving some rational appraisal of what is right and wrong in contrast to what is approved or inappropriate. Discipline is part of the educational process.
Summary

Discipline has been a major problem to parents and teachers since ancient times. The lack of discipline in schools has been so disruptive that Ronald Reagan made discipline a major campaign issue in his 1984 re-election campaign. Several reports (51, 53, 57) and studies have revealed that a nationwide problem exists. Duke (19) identifies the various types of discipline problems that are encountered in schools as (a) attendance related problems, (b) out of class problems, (c) noncriminal behavior, (d) in-class behavior, and (e) conduct related to academic work.

The American public has continuously named discipline as the number one problem in the public schools (30). Parents show strong concern over the use of drugs and alcohol. Teachers and principals show their greatest concern about the lack of parental interest toward the school (36). Lack of discipline creates stress and job dissatisfaction among teachers. Class disruptions and the lack of discipline are the major reasons for teachers leaving the teaching profession (20).

Discipline and the role of discipline implies the development by individuals of the necessary self-control to allow the individual to be an effective and contributing member of society (11, 13, 22, 47). The role of discipline
includes the training of students for the efficient functioning of bureaucratic organizations and the maintenance of the social order. Shipman (59) identifies a hidden curriculum which includes (a) obedience, (b) abiding by rules, (c) loyalty, (d) industry, (e) punctuality, (f) regular attendance, (g) quietness, (h) orderly work in large groups, and (i) working to a strict timetable, as necessary roles that students need to learn to survive in our society.

Discipline, according to others (5, 10), plays an insidious role in social control. Discipline inhibits those manifestations of personal capacity that pose a threat to hierarchial authority (10). In the early days order in schools was secured mainly by coercion. School discipline was maintained by rules and regulations that were enforced by penalties. The penalties frequently employed were reprimands, detention, withdrawal of privileges, corporal punishment, suspension, and expulsion (60). The use of such penalties has not been completely abandoned in the mid-1980s. The tendency at present is to seek proper conduct through learning rather than by arbitrary authority.

Docking (15) stresses the development of rule following and law abiding habits for students if they are to participate successfully in adult society. School rules, according to Gouldner (33), should be initiated and supported by students and teachers. Rules should be enforced by teachers
and obeyed by students. Rule violations should be perceived as a lack of information. Gouldner also emphasizes that students should receive educational instruction about rules when the rules are violated. Rules and policies should be developed to assist teachers in the elimination or prevention of classroom discipline thereby enabling teachers to develop the best learning climate possible.

The word discipline has its roots in the Latin word *disciplina*, which refers to teaching and learning (67). Responsibility and discipline can be taught to students in different types of settings during the school day. Schools have the responsibility for teaching good citizenship behaviors as well as good academic behaviors. The teaching of discipline should provide experiences for students to explore specific values, emotions, and behaviors to increase the potential of students' self discipline. Discipline should definitely be part of the instructional curriculum.
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CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This study was designed to measure the effects of a set of instructional units on the behavior of ninth-grade discipline problem students. The citizenship curriculum instructional units were developed as a result of a needs assessment study by a large urban school district in 1980-1981. The large urban school district identified a need for an instructional approach for dealing with student discipline. These instructional units were developed in 1981-1982 and were entitled Citizenship Curriculum Training.

Description of the Citizenship Curriculum Training

The approach to improve student discipline that was experimentally investigated in this study was the Citizenship Curriculum Training developed by Robin Otstott for the Dallas Independent School District. Funds for the curriculum development project were provided by a Title 4-C Grant to the Dallas Independent School District for the development of an alternative program to improve student discipline. The Learning Council of the Dallas Independent School District approved the use of the citizenship curriculum units for the purpose of this experimental study (Appendices C-R).
The purpose of the citizenship curriculum training is to teach responsibility, decision making, and communication skills to students in the fourth through twelfth grades. The citizenship training is intended to intervene with students who exhibit antisocial behavior and to prevent antisocial behavior from occurring with students who are more well adjusted (2, p. 2).

The citizenship curriculum training was developed to be utilized in the following settings.

1. Alternative education programs for disruptive students.
2. Social studies classes.
3. Low-level reading classes.
4. Special education classes (self-contained resource room).
5. Language arts classes.
6. Counseling programs.
8. In-school suspension programs.
9. Talented and gifted classes (2, p. 2).

The citizenship curriculum training was presented by a team of two high school teachers who had participated in a teacher orientation training session (Appendix C) for the presentation of the citizenship curriculum training units. The two teachers presented the instructional units to
twenty-nine discipline problem students for fifteen consecutive school days as follows.

**Unit 1. Citizenship Curriculum Training Unit on Beliefs**

The teacher presented a basic concepts introduction on beliefs by explaining the following concepts.

1. Beliefs like values are the things people like or dislike.
2. Beliefs are the things or ideas that are important to a particular individual.
3. All people have beliefs.
4. Some beliefs are more important than others.
5. We often learn beliefs from the people that are close to us and from our family.
6. Our beliefs change as we grow up.
7. People who have the same beliefs often like each other.
8. People who have different beliefs often think that they do not like each other.
9. In order to have harmony and cooperation among people it is important to understand and accept people who have different beliefs than ours.
10. Beliefs are important in a person's life because people act and make decisions based on their beliefs.
11. The three steps in developing your own beliefs are (a) choosing, (b) prizing, and (c) acting.
A worksheet on beliefs (Appendix D) was passed out to all students.

1. The class participated in a discussion of the first two paragraphs by answering the following two questions: (a) What are beliefs? and (b) How do we acquire beliefs?

2. The class was asked to respond to the term "experience." The teacher wrote a list on the chalkboard for discussion.

3. The class participated in a brainstorm activity on the question "How do I know what is important to me?"

4. As a group the students were assigned to work on the worksheets following the teacher's directions as the teacher read the worksheet out loud for the students.

Unit 2. Citizenship Curriculum Training on Emotions

The teacher presented a basic concepts introduction on emotions by explaining the following concepts.

1. All people have emotions.

2. Emotions are feelings such as (a) happiness, (b) sadness, (c) anger, (d) love, (e) fear, and (f) excitement etc.

3. It is natural to have emotional feelings.

4. The important thing about emotional feelings is not whether we have the feeling, but what we do (what action we take) because of that emotional feeling.
5. Sometimes our emotions can get us into trouble with other people (like arguing or fighting).

6. People feel their emotions on the inside where no one can see them or know what they are unless the feeling is expressed physically or by telling someone.

7. Physical expressions of emotions are (a) making faces, (b) yelling, (c) crying, and (d) laughing-smiling.

A worksheet on emotions (Appendix E) was passed out to all students.

1. A brainstorm session was conducted on naming the different kinds of emotions that people experience. A list of emotions was written on the chalkboard by the teacher.

2. A discussion session was conducted based on the following questions. (a) Are any of the emotions written on the chalkboard related? and (b) Are there any "good" or "bad" emotions listed on the chalkboard?

3. The class was divided into eight groups and assigned to discuss only one of the following per group: (a) love, (b) anger, (c) happiness, (d) sadness, (e) fear, (f) excitement, (g) irritability, and (h) jealousy.

4. Each group was assigned to answer the following two questions pertaining to their particular assigned emotion on activity number four above. (a) How the emotion makes a person feel on the inside? and (b) What the emotional behavior looks like on the outside?
The teacher presented a basic concepts introduction on anger by explaining the following concepts.

1. Anger is a strong feeling of displeasure and usually of antagonism.

2. When people do not like something or if something or someone rubs them the wrong way anger usually results.

3. It is important to remember that it is all right to get angry during certain situations.

4. Some people have a bad habit of getting angry at any little thing that may happen to them.

5. People need to learn to control their anger (temper).

6. Sometimes students bring their anger from home to school and end up getting into trouble.

7. People need to learn ways to release anger in ways where nobody gets hurt or in trouble.

A worksheet on anger (Appendix F) was passed out to all students.

1. All students were individually assigned to answer the following questions.

   (a) What are some words that mean the same as anger (feeling words)?

   (b) What are some thoughts that come into your mind when you think of anger?
(c) What do you feel like when you are angry?

(d) What does your body do when you are angry?

2. A class discussion on activity number two was conducted.

3. The students were divided into eight groups to brainstorm on (a) What makes teenagers angry, (b) Is life fair to all of us, and (c) What does the expression "I never promised you a rose garden" mean?

Unit 4. Citizenship Curriculum Training
Unit on Decision Making

The teacher presented a basic concepts introduction on decision-making by explaining the following concepts.

1. Learning to make sound positive decisions is one of the most important things a person can learn to do.

2. A decision is the act of making up one's mind to do something.

3. Many students get in trouble because they lack the skill of making positive decisions.

4. All decisions have consequences.

5. Students can learn to make good decisions by (a) learning from their own mistakes, (b) learning from others' mistakes, (c) by using their feelings and thoughts when considering a decision, (d) by using will power as a force to do what is best, and (e) planning ahead by looking at the consequences of the decision.
A worksheet on decision-making (Appendix G) was passed out to all students.

1. All students were assigned to answer the following questions.
   (a) What is a good decision?
   (b) Why are good decisions important?
   (c) How do we learn to make good decisions?
   (d) What can you learn from other people's experiences?
   (e) When have your feelings forced you to make a wrong decision?
   (f) When have you forced yourself to make a good decision?

2. The students were given a writing assignment requiring an answer to the question, "What happens when I make a wrong decision?"

3. Students were assigned to read the worksheet.

   Unit 5. Citizenship Curriculum Training Unit on Decision-Making, Part II

The fifth day instructional session presented the following steps in effective decision-making.

1. Identify the problem.
2. List all possible choices you have.
3. Identify the consequences (outcomes) of each choice.
4. Decide if you need more information about your choice.
5. Explore what your feelings, beliefs, and goals tell you about this decision choice.

6. Make your decision and accept responsibility for it.

A worksheet on decision-making (Appendix H) was passed out to all students.

1. The students were instructed to think of a problem they have had and to apply the six steps of making an effective decision to see if the decision-making problem can be solved easier.

2. A group activity was conducted with students reading and discussing the worksheet problem, "Goals—how am I going to live my life?"

3. All students were assigned to work on the worksheet.

**Unit 6. Citizenship Curriculum Training Unit on Communications, Part I**

The teacher presented a basic concepts introduction on communication by explaining the following concepts.

1. Communication is a way of sharing messages.

2. Good communication between people and groups is an important skill that people should have.

3. Good communications prevent needless misunderstanding between people.

4. The following terms related to communication are important in this lesson: (a) sender, (b) receiver,
(c) message, (d) listening, (e) observing, (f) feedback, (g) verbal communication, and (h) non-verbal communication.

A worksheet on communication (Appendix I) was passed out to students.

1. The teacher led a class discussion on the worksheet while the students responded to questions and wrote the answers on their worksheets.

2. The students were assigned to answer the following questions: (1) What is listening, and (2) Is listening part of communication (why)?

3. The students were divided into seven groups. Each group was assigned to role play an expressive feeling using effective communication skills (voice, body language) for (a) anger, (b) excitement, (c) sadness, (d) frustration, (e) happiness, (f) pride, and (g) sharing love.

Unit 7. Citizenship Curriculum Training Unit on Communication, Part II

The teacher presented the following basic concepts on communication.

1. Feedback in communication occurs when a response is made to a message.

2. There are two types of feedback—(a) "I" messages and (b) "you" messages.

3. "I" messages tell someone who we are feeling—"I feel very mad."
4. "You" messages blame other people for how we feel or act—"You make me so mad."

5. "I" messages allow us to accept responsibility for our feelings and actions.

6. "You" messages may make other people defensive since we are blaming them for how we are feeling or acting.

7. Active listening is part of good communication.

8. Good listening includes (a) hearing the words and figuring out what the person means, (b) listening to the tones in the voice (loud, soft), and (c) observing the body movements, gestures, and facial expressions.

A worksheet on communication and feedback (Appendix J) was passed out to all students.

1. The class read the worksheet as the teacher explained the main points.

2. Three students were assigned to role play three scenes using "I" and "you" messages on the following: (a) teacher mad at student, (b) parent proud of child, and (c) student angry at teacher.

3. Students were assigned to read the worksheet on active listening.

Unit 8. Citizenship Curriculum Training Unit on Confrontation, Part I

The teacher presented the following basic concepts on confrontation.
1. Confrontation is a term that describes when we tell people how we are feeling about them or about a problem we are having with something they have done or said.

2. Confrontation does not have to cause yelling or fighting.

3. Some ways are better than others in confronting someone.

4. The goal of good confronting is to let someone know how you are feeling and thinking without causing unnecessary hard feelings.

5. Working for cooperation and resolution of the problem is important.

All students received a worksheet on confrontation (Appendix K).

1. The students were assigned to read along as the teacher explained the information on the worksheet and called on students for responses and examples to the following questions.

   (a) What does relate mean?

   (b) What does confront mean?

   (c) What do you do when you are upset with a person because of a problem and that person does not know you are upset?

   (d) What is brood?

   (e) What is resentful?

   (f) What is self-disclosure?
(g) What is conflict?
(h) What is conflict resolution?

2. The students were divided into five groups for a group discussion of the worksheet entitled, "What might I do?"

Unit 9. Citizenship Training Unit on Confrontation, Part II

The students were divided into the same five groups that they were in for the previous day's activities. A worksheet (Appendix L) was passed out to all students. The worksheet introduced the following confrontation model.

1. Think of what is bothering you about the other person.

2. Set the stage for the proper time and place you want to talk to the person you are having the problem with.

3. State or show how you feel by using an "I" message about whatever the other person is doing.

4. State what it is that you want to happen.

5. Stop talking and begin to do some active listening. Respond with some feedback.

6. What do we want to happen? Negotiate and compromise and reach a decision.

The students received a worksheet (Appendix L) describing five confrontation situations. Each one of the five groups was assigned one confrontation situation for group discussion and activities as follows:
1. Read the confrontation situation and think about it.
2. Decide how the confrontation should be solved.
3. Utilize the confrontation model learned earlier today to solve the problem.
4. Assign members of the group to role play the confrontation problem in front of the class.

**Unit 10. Citizenship Curriculum Training**

**Unit on Positive Attention**

The teacher presented a basic concepts introduction on positive attention by presenting the following information.

1. People need attention to survive and it does not matter if the attention is positive or negative.
2. People know instinctively that they need attention and will create a situation when there is need for attention.
3. Positive attention is attention that makes a person feel good.
4. The students were asked to define the following terms: (a) attention, (b) positive, (c) negative, (d) positive attention, (e) negative attention, and (f) compliments.
5. The teacher explained to the students that people need to accept the responsibility to see that their attention needs are being met.
6. People get attention for three kinds of things: (a) for having, (b) for doing, and (c) for being.

A worksheet on positive attention (Appendix M) was passed out to all students.
1. The teacher led a group discussion on pages one and two of the worksheet.

2. Students were allowed to complete page three individually.

3. Volunteers were called on by the teacher for a discussion on page three of the worksheet.

**Unit 11. Citizenship Curriculum Training**

**Unit on Stress**

1. Stress is something that happens to people when they are feeling very emotional and nervous.

2. Stress occurs when there are many changes going on in a person's life at the same time.

3. The following symptoms may occur during stress:
   (a) rise in blood pressure, (b) hypertension, (c) fast heart-beat, (d) weight gain or loss, and (e) possible reliance on drugs or alcohol.

4. Taking good care of our physical, emotional, and mental self will prevent many stressful problems for people. There is nothing wrong with having feelings, but positive ones feel better than negative feelings. It is important to get rid of or to release uncomfortable feelings as fast as possible. We can do this by (a) finding the origin of our feelings, (b) working toward changing the situation, (c) releasing the emotion and tension by doing exercise, jogging, or other forms of positive releases where the positive side of life is emphasized, and (d) taking proper care of yourself.
A worksheet on stress (Appendix N) was passed out to all students.

1. The teacher read the worksheet to the students and called on students to respond to the questions.

2. The teacher asked for volunteers to describe some of their stressful situations that they have encountered and how they will attempt to work them out in the future by using the information they received today.

Unit 12. Citizenship Curriculum Training Unit on Peer Pressure

The following information on the concept of peer pressure was presented to the students.

1. Peer pressure is a term used to describe when a student's peers or friends encourage the student to do things to "just go along with the gang."

2. As students grow older the students become less dependent on their parents' values and advice and begin to listen to their friends more.

3. It is important that students learn to decide for themselves what they need to do in any situation.

4. Having and learning self-control is part of being a responsible person.

5. When a person controls himself that person has learned to release feelings in a positive way.

6. The following terms relating to peer pressure were discussed: (a) peer, (b) pressure, (c) dependent,
(d) independent, (e) responsible, (f) influence, (g) self-control, (h) values, and (i) friends.

A worksheet on peer pressure (Appendix 0) was passed out to all students and discussed by the class.

1. Students were asked to think of situations that have happened in school where a person went along with a friend's decision because of peer pressure and then got into trouble. Volunteers were called on to share the experience and role play two situations as follows: (a) student had to do his homework but lied to his parents and went to the movie instead and received a zero on the homework assignment, (b) student was told to keep a bag of drugs in his locker for a friend and the student was caught with the drugs; but the principal did not believe him when he said that the drugs belonged to someone else.

2. Worksheet exercise on people who influence us (Appendix 0).

Discussion questions on above handout.
(a) Do you admire all the people who influence you?
(b) If not, why do they influence you?
(c) If so, what do you admire about them?
(d) Who is influencing you now?
(e) Who do you expect to influence you in three years?
The teacher introduced the following basic concepts on authority figures.

1. Authority figures are people who have authority over certain things, actions, or people.
2. People in authority are human.
3. Sometimes people in authority may seem to act fairly in different situations and sometimes they do not.
4. Since all people are different, each person may be dealt with differently.
5. The police are authority figures.
6. Teenagers who have trouble with the police often get into power struggles with the police and are people who have trouble with people in authority positions.
7. Learning how to handle difficult situations with the police or other authorities helps to prevent further problems.
8. The following terms relating to authority figures were discussed: (a) supervisor, (b) rules, (c) cooperation, (d) laws, (e) authority, (f) enforce, (g) protect, and (h) power struggle.
9. The class was asked to write the answer to the following two questions.
   (a) What would society be like without authority figures? (Discussion followed.)
   (b) What would society be like without rules or laws? (Discussion followed.)
A worksheet on authority figures (Appendix P) was passed out to all students.

1. Students were asked to volunteer examples of people in authority in school who have put them down.

2. Brainstorm session followed on type of jobs where people have authority over others.

3. The teacher read page one of the worksheet (Appendix P) to the students and asked the following questions.
   (a) What is an authority?
   (b) Can you name some people who have authority over you?
   (c) What will happen if you curse out a teacher?

4. The students were allowed to work on their worksheets on an individual basis.

Unit 14. Citizenship Curriculum Training Unit on How to Get Along in School

The teacher presented the following basic concepts that will help students know how to get along in regular high school.

1. Learning how to get along in regular school is important.

2. Truancy makes it difficult for any student to learn to discipline himself for responsibilities that lead to success in future jobs.

3. Going to school every day is a training time for future employment.
4. Teachers are people and they have duties to perform within their classrooms for the benefit of all students.

5. It is important to learn that getting along with teachers and principals will help the student in school.

6. One way for students to enjoy school is to have goals that they want to accomplish in school.

7. Some important skills needed for finishing high school are (a) perseverance, (b) endurance, (c) patience, (d) tolerance, and (e) self-discipline or self-control.

A worksheet on how to get along in high school (Appendix Q) was passed out to all students.

1. From the worksheet the students were asked the following questions for group discussion.
   (a) How do you feel about high school?
   (b) What are the similarities between going to school and going to a job?
   (c) What does truancy mean?
   (d) How do students who do not get in trouble act?
   (e) What can I do to enjoy school more?
   (f) Do I know what I want or need from school?
   (g) What are goals for your school years?
   (h) What are the pros and cons of going to school?

2. Brainstorm on things that students do not like in school. List was posted on the chalkboard.
3. As a group activity the students were asked to go over all the school rules and discuss if the rules are needed and why.

4. As a group the students were asked to name the things that teachers like and do not like of their students. Two lists were made on the chalkboard.

**Unit 15. Citizenship Curriculum Training**

**Unit on the Society Game**

The teacher explained to the students that for this lesson the words game is used for the word role. The following basic concepts pertaining to the society game were presented to the students.

1. The expression playing the society game means living your life by following the rules of society such as (a) being polite, (b) being courteous, (c) being respectful, and (d) having good manners.

2. To get along "out in the real world," we need to know the society rules so that we can play the society game when we need to.

3. All successful people know how to play some of society's games (a little politics).

4. Students can play the society game in school by following the rules of the society. Sometimes a teacher may change a student's grade to passing when the student shows courtesy and respect when requesting the opportunity for re-testing. Being nice often returns kindness.
5. If a person wants a certain job, that person needs to understand the rules of getting that job.

6. The steps to be successful in society are (a) finish high school or learn a trade; (b) know and practice what society expects as far as manners, respect, courtesy, different roles for church, school, work and public places; (c) learn how to get a job—ask for help if needed; and (d) remember, do what society expects if you want to win at society's game.

All students received a worksheet on the society game (Appendix R).

1. The students were asked to respond to the following questions.

(a) How do you feel about persons with good manners?
(b) If we all play by society's rules would you hire a person with bad manners to work for you? Why or why not?

2. The students were assigned to individually work on their worksheets.

Selection of the Subjects

The sample of subjects for this study were fifty-eight ninth-grade students in a large urban school district. The subjects selected were students who had been referred to the principal's office three or more times during the 1982 Fall
Semester of school because of discipline problems in the classroom.

A meeting was held in January of 1982 in the school auditorium and the fifty-eight ninth-grade students who had three or more discipline referrals were randomly assigned to the experimental or the control group. Twenty-nine students were randomly assigned to the experimental group and twenty-nine students were randomly assigned to the control group.

Application of the Treatment

The experimental group was informed by the principal that they would participate in a special class to receive Citizen Curriculum Training for fifteen consecutive days during the months of March and April of 1982. There was no incentive for students to attend. The experimental group was excused from second-period class to attend the citizenship education classes. The control group attended their regular academic second-period class.

Instrumentation

The Remmers High School Attitude Scale that was developed by Remmers (4), in 1960, at Purdue University in Lafayette, Indiana, was used to measure attitudes toward any high school (Appendix A). The Remmers High School Attitude Scale contains seventeen items and has one
validating item on which the subject reports his attitude toward school on an eleven-point continuum. The response mode of the test requires that subjects check those items with which they most agree by marking those items with a check (✓) mark. The score for each subject is the median of the scale values of all statements checked by the subject. Scores above 6.0 reflect favorable attitudes toward high school; scores under 6.0 reflect unfavorable attitudes toward high school.

Hancock (1, p. 142) reported a reliability range from .71 to .92 for a variety of samples ranging from sixth-grade to advanced graduate students. According to Sigerfoos (6, p. 177), this method of test construction provides content validity; and is considered to be an adequate scale for the purpose of group comparisons.

Data Collection Procedures

Data for this study were collected and compiled in the following manner.

1. Frequency counts on students referrals to the principal's office for disciplinary problems were recorded for the Fall Semester in January, 1982.

2. The Remmers High School Attitude Scale was administered in March, 1982, as a pretest. The test was scored and the data were complied and recorded in March, 1982.
3. Frequency counts of the students' attendance records were recorded for the Fall Semester in January, 1982.

4. Students' grade-point averages were calculated and recorded in January, 1982.

5. Frequency counts on student referrals to the principal's office for disciplinary problems were recorded for the Fall Semester in January, 1983.

6. Frequency counts on students' attendance records were recorded for the Fall Semester in January, 1983.

7. Students' grade-point averages were calculated and recorded in January, 1983.

8. The Remmers High School Attitude Scale was administered in January, 1983 as a posttest. The test was scored and the data were compiled and recorded on a data collection instrument. These data were collected during the period from January, 1982, through January, 1983.

Analysis of Data

The One-Way Analysis of Covariance was used to test the four hypotheses for statistically significant differences between the experimental and control group adjusted means. T-tests for correlated samples were utilized to compare the differences between the experimental group's pretest and posttest mean scores, and to compare the differences between the control group's pretest and posttest mean scores. These
data were tabulated and are presented in tables in Chapter IV.

The formula for the t-test for correlated samples is (5, p. 227),

\[ t = \frac{D}{SD} \text{ where } D = M_2 - M_1 \text{ and } \overline{D} = X_2 - X_1. \]
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY


CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

The purpose of this chapter is to present and analyze the data and findings of this investigation. The data are examined as they relate to each hypothesis.

The data in this study are presented to analyze and compare two groups of ninth-grade discipline problem students who participated in an experimental study of the effectiveness of a citizenship curriculum training program upon their (a) grade-point average, (b) absentee rate, (c) number of discipline referrals to the principal's office, and (d) attitude toward high school.

Fifty-eight students who had three or more discipline referrals to the principal's office the semester before the experimental treatment were identified as discipline-problem students.

Twenty-nine discipline problem students were randomly assigned to the experimental group that received the citizenship curriculum training instructional classes during the second period of the school day the following semester. The instructional units were presented for fifteen consecutive school days. Twenty-nine discipline-problem students were randomly assigned to the control group and did not receive
the experimental treatment of citizenship curriculum training. The students in the control group attended their regular classes during the second period class of the school day.

The experimental and control groups pretreatment data were collected, tabulated, and recorded at the end of the semester prior to the experimental treatment. The pretreatment data for the experimental and control groups are shown in Tables I and II.

The posttreatment data for both the experimental and the control group were collected, tabulated, and recorded the semester following the experimental treatment. Posttreatment data for the experimental and control groups are shown in Tables III and IV.

Analysis of Data

The four null hypotheses were analyzed statistically by the analysis of covariance one-way design technique to test for significant adjusted mean differences. The .05 level of significance was selected to test all the hypotheses. The pretest scores were used as covariate measures in order to control for possible pretest differences between the experimental and control groups. Pretest scores on grade-point average, absentee rate, number of discipline referrals, and high school attitude were the covariate measures. The posttest scores on the same measurements were the dependent
TABLE I

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP PRETEST DATA RECORDED
THE SEMESTER PRIOR TO THE EXPERIMENTAL
TREATMENT (N = 29)

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### TABLE III

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP POSTTEST DATA RECORDED THE SEMESTER AFTER THE EXPERIMENTAL TREATMENT (N = 29)

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Student Identification Number</th>
<th>Grade-Point Average</th>
<th>Number of Discipline Referrals to the Principal's Office</th>
<th>Number of Absences from School</th>
<th>Postscore on Remmer High School Attitude Scale</th>
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TABLE IV

CONTROL GROUP POSTTEST DATA RECORDED THE SEMESTER AFTER THE EXPERIMENTAL TREATMENT (N = 29)

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<th>Student Identification Number</th>
<th>Grade-Point Average</th>
<th>Number of Discipline Referrals to the Principal's Office</th>
<th>Number of Absences from School</th>
<th>Postscore on Remmer High School Attitude Scale</th>
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variables. T-tests for correlated samples were utilized to compare the differences between the experimental group's pretest and posttest mean scores and, to compare the differences between the control group's pretest and posttest mean scores. Results of the study are presented in the order of the hypotheses as stated in Chapter I.

**Hypothesis 1**

Null Hypothesis 1: There will be no significant difference in the adjusted grade-point averages of discipline-problem students who received citizenship training and discipline-problem students who did not receive the training. The grade-point averages means, adjusted means, and t-tests for dependent measures for the experimental and control groups are shown in Table V.

**TABLE V**

EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP PRETEST AND POSTTEST GRADE-POINT AVERAGE MEAN RAW SCORES, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, ADJUSTED MEANS, AND T-TESTS FOR CORRELATED SAMPLES

<table>
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<th>Condition</th>
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<th>Criterion Posttest</th>
<th>Adjusted</th>
<th>t</th>
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<td></td>
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<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
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<td>0.604</td>
<td>1.193</td>
<td>0.681</td>
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The data in Table V indicate that the experimental and control groups are very similar with respect to both mean scores and standard deviations on the variable of grade-point average. The experimental group did not show a significant difference between pretest and posttest grade-point average mean scores after receiving citizenship training. Also, the control group did not show a significant difference between the pretest and posttest grade-point average mean scores.

A statistical comparison for significant differences between the experimental and control groups' adjusted grade-point average means was accomplished by the one-way analysis of covariance. The analysis of covariance data pertaining to Hypothesis 1 are shown in Table VI.

**TABLE VI**

**ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP'S GRADE-POINT AVERAGE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
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<td>0.228</td>
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<td>24.435</td>
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</table>
The data in Table VI indicate that the F-value of 0.519 was not significant at the desired .05 level, therefore, Hypothesis 1 was not rejected. The analysis of the data indicates that the experimental group did not demonstrate a statistically greater adjusted mean score increase in grade-point average than the control group.

**Hypothesis 2**

**Null Hypothesis 2:** There will be no significant difference in the adjusted daily absentee rate means of discipline-problem students who received citizenship training and discipline-problem students who did not receive the training. The absentee rate means, adjusted means, and t-tests for dependent measures for the experimental and control groups are shown in Table VII.

The experimental group showed a significant increase between the pretest and posttest absentee rate mean scores after receiving citizenship training. The control group also showed a significantly higher number of absences between the pretest and posttest absentee rate mean scores.

A statistical comparison for significant differences between the experimental and control groups' adjusted means was accomplished by the one-way analysis of covariance. The analysis of covariance data pertaining to Hypothesis 2 are shown in Table VIII.
TABLE VII

EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP PRETEST AND POSTTEST ABSENTEE RATE MEAN RAW SCORES, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, ADJUSTED MEANS, AND T-TESTS FOR CORRELATED SAMPLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>N</th>
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<th>Criterion Posttest</th>
<th>Adjusted Mean</th>
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*P < .01, two-tailed test.

**P < .05, two-tailed test.

TABLE VIII

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP'S ABSENTEE RATE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
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The data in Table VIII indicate that the F-value of 0.559 was not significant at the desired .05 level, therefore, Hypothesis 2 was not rejected. The analysis of the data indicates that the experimental group did not
demonstrate a statistically lower absentee rate than the control group.

**Hypothesis 3**

**Null Hypothesis 3:** There will be no significant difference in the adjusted average number of discipline referrals to the principal's office of discipline-problem students who received citizenship training and discipline-problem students who did not receive the training. The means, adjusted mean scores, and t-tests for dependent measures for the number of discipline referrals to the principal's office for the experimental and control groups are shown in Table IX.

The experimental group showed a significant decrease between the pretest and posttest average number of discipline referrals to the principal's office after receiving citizenship training. The control group also showed a significant decrease in the average number of discipline referrals to the principal's office between the pretest and posttest average number of referrals.

A statistical comparison for significant differences between the experimental and control groups' adjusted mean scores was accomplished by a one-way analysis of covariance. The analysis of covariance data pertaining to Hypothesis 3 are shown in Table X.

The data in Table X indicate that the F-value of 1.994 was not statistically significant at the desired .05 level,
TABLE IX

EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP PRETEST AND POSTTEST MEAN RAW SCORES, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, ADJUSTED MEANS, AND T-TESTS FOR CORRELATED SAMPLES ON NUMBER OF DISCIPLINE REFERRALS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Pretest M</th>
<th>Pretest SD</th>
<th>Criterion Posttest M</th>
<th>Criterion Posttest SD</th>
<th>Adjusted M</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.621</td>
<td>1.449</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>2.457</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>-3.95*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.517</td>
<td>1.883</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>1.885</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>-5.01*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*P < .01, two-tailed test.

TABLE X

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP'S NUMBER OF DISCIPLINE REFERRALS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.144</td>
<td>9.144</td>
<td>9.144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>252.247</td>
<td>4.586</td>
<td>. .</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>261.291</td>
<td>. .</td>
<td>. .</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

therefore, Hypothesis 3 was not rejected. The analysis of the data indicates that the experimental group did not demonstrate a statistically lower number of discipline referrals to the principal's office when compared to the control group.
Hypothesis 4

Null Hypothesis 4: There will be no significant difference in the Remmers High School Attitude Scale adjusted mean scores of discipline-problem students who received citizenship training and discipline-problem students who did not receive the training. The means, adjusted mean scores, and t-tests for dependent measures comparing the attitude toward high school of the experimental and control groups are shown in Table XI.

The experimental group showed no significant difference between the pretest and posttest Remmers High School Attitude Scale mean scores after receiving citizenship training. The control group also showed no significant difference between the pretest and posttest Remmers High School Attitude Scale mean scores.

TABLE XI

EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP PRETEST AND POSTTEST MEAN RAW SCORES, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, ADJUSTED MEANS, AND T-TESTS FOR CORRELATED SAMPLES ON THE REMMERS HIGH SCHOOL ATTITUDE SCALE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Criterion Posttest</th>
<th>Adjusted</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>M  SD</td>
<td>M  SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>8.262 1.002</td>
<td>8.000 1.012</td>
<td>9.78</td>
<td>0.996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>8.076 0.907</td>
<td>8.207 0.824</td>
<td>8.22</td>
<td>0.788</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A statistical comparison for significant differences between the experimental and control groups' adjusted means was accomplished by the one-way analysis of covariance. The analysis of covariance data pertaining to Hypothesis 4 are shown in Table XII.

**TABLE XII**

ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS' SCORES ON THE REMMERS HIGH SCHOOL ATTITUDE SCALE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.852</td>
<td>0.852</td>
<td>1.026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>45.689</td>
<td>0.831</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>46.541</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data in Table XII indicate that the F-value of 1.026 was not significant at the desired .05 level, therefore, Hypothesis 4 was not rejected. The analysis of the data indicates that the experimental group did not demonstrate a statistically greater adjusted mean score on the Remmers High School Attitude Scale when compared statistically to the control group scores on the Remmers High School Attitude Scale.
Summary

This chapter presented statistical data comparing the effects of a citizenship curriculum instruction on the grade-point average, daily attendance, discipline referrals to the principal's office, and attitude toward high school of fifty-eight students defined as having discipline problems. Each of the four hypotheses were analyzed and discussed separately. T-tests for correlated samples and a series of one-way analyses of covariance were conducted to determine the effect. A series of one-way analyses of covariance was conducted to determine the effect of the citizenship curriculum training on the experimental and control groups' grade-point average, daily attendance, discipline referrals to the principal's office and attitude toward high school. Adjusted mean scores and one-way analyses of covariance tables are presented for each of the four variables. The .05 level of significance was utilized to test all the hypotheses. Each of the four null hypotheses of the study were accepted.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was undertaken to examine the impact of classroom citizenship instruction on school discipline. This chapter presents a summary of the study's methodology, findings, conclusions, implications, and recommendations suggested by the results.

Summary

The problem of this study was to determine the effects of citizenship curriculum training on the grade-point average, absentee rate, number of discipline referrals, and attitudes toward high school as measured by the Remmers High School Attitude Scale on an experimental group of twenty-nine students who had been identified as discipline-problem students.

Two high school teachers who had participated in citizenship curriculum teaching in-service training presented the citizenship curriculum instructional classes to an experimental group of twenty-nine students for fifteen consecutive school days during second-period class. The control group of twenty-nine students attended their regular second-period class and did not receive the training.
Pretest and posttest data were collected on both the experimental and control groups relative to the following variables: (a) grade-point average, (b) absentee rate, (c) number of discipline referrals to the principal's office, and (d) attitude toward high school as measured by the Remmers High School Attitude Scale. The experimental treatment was administered approximately one month after the pretest data were collected in January, 1982. The posttest data were collected in January, 1983, a semester following the training.

T-tests for correlated samples and a series of one-way analysis of covariance were utilized to examine the impact of the experimental treatment on the dependent variates grade-point average, absentee rate, number of discipline referrals to the principal's office, and attitude toward high school. Results were used to reject or retain each hypothesis, as stated in Chapter I.

Findings

Each hypothesis was rejected or retained on the basis of the analysis of covariance data presented in Chapter IV. Each of the four hypotheses were statistically tested at the .05 level of significance. The analysis of the data resulted in the following findings.

1. There was no significant difference between the adjusted mean grade-point averages of the experimental and the control group of discipline-problem students.
2. There was no significant difference between the adjusted absentee rate means of the experimental and the control group of discipline-problem students.

3. There was no significant difference between the adjusted mean number of discipline referrals to the principal's office of the experimental and the control group of students.

4. There was no significant difference in the Remmers High School Attitude Scale adjusted mean scores between the experimental and the control group of discipline-problem students.

Conclusions and Implications

The grade-point average of both the experimental and control group did not change significantly between the pretest and posttest periods. In fact, the grade-point average of the experimental group dropped slightly and the control group's grade-point average showed a minor increase, however, in a non-significant manner. The citizenship training instructional classes did not seem to address or effect the problem of academic achievement in the experimental group.

The citizenship training instructional classes did not seem to improve the absentee rate of the experimental group. The experimental group showed an observable higher absentee rate than the control group. The control group also showed
an increase in the average absentee rate indicating that there was a possibility of unexplained factors that may have affected the absentee rate of both groups in this study.

The number of discipline referrals to the principal's office was not decreased as a result of the experimental group's participation in the citizenship training instructional classes. The fact that both the experimental and control groups had significant decreases in the number of discipline referrals between the pretest and posttest periods cannot be attributed to the citizenship training instructional classes but to other unexplained factors.

Students' attitudes toward high school, as measured by the Remmers High School Attitude Scale, seem to have been unaffected by the citizenship training instructional classes. The experimental and the control groups showed a favorable attitude toward high school before and after the experimental treatment. However, the experimental group had a slight decrease in attitude; whereas the control group had a slight increase in the attitude toward high school when compared to the experimental group.

In view of these data it can be concluded in this study that the citizenship training instructional classes had no effect on the grade-point average, absentee rate, number of discipline referrals to the principal's office, and attitude toward high school as measured by the Remmers
High School Attitude Scale of ninth-grade discipline-problem students in this study.

The citizenship curriculum training classes did not seem to address the specific problems that the students in this study were facing. Therefore, the citizenship curriculum training did not ameliorate the students' problems in low grade-point average, absences from school, high number of discipline referrals, and attitude toward high school as used in this study.

Recommendations

On the basis of the findings, conclusions, and implications of this study, the following recommendations are made.

1. That similar studies be conducted to address the problem of school attendance by teaching students with truancy and attendance problems in a small size class with a curriculum content that aims at improving their school attendance and attitude toward school and teachers.

2. That similar studies be conducted to address the problem of discipline-problem students with low grade-point averages in a small size class with a curriculum content that aims at improving their study skills, academic achievement, test-taking skills, and attitudes toward school and teachers.

3. That similar studies be conducted to address the problem of reducing the number of discipline referrals of
discipline-problem students by teaching students with a high number of discipline referrals in a small class with a curriculum content that aims at improving their self-concept, attitudes toward school, and behavior in an effort to reduce the students' conflicts with teachers and other students.

4. That future similar studies should collect the posttest data the first grading period following the experimental treatment rather than the following semester to see if the treatment had any immediate effect on the students' grade-point averages, attendance, number of discipline referrals, and attitude toward high school.
APPENDIX A

HIGH SCHOOL ATTITUDE SCALE
HIGH SCHOOL ATTITUDE SCALE

Form A  Edited by H. H. Remmers

Date

Name (optional) ____________________________ Sex (circle one) M F

Age ____________________________ Grade ____________________________

Directions: Below is a list of seventeen statements about school. Place a check mark before each statement with which you agree, and leave unmarked those with which you disagree. This test will in no way affect your standing in school.

1. A high school education is worth a million dollars to any young person.
2. High school develops self-reliance.
3. A high school education will help one to be a good citizen.
4. It helps one to get a job if he has a high school diploma.
5. I like to do school work.
6. I would rather go to high school than to stay at home.
7. I don't like to associate with people who haven't a high school education.
8. High school has its drawbacks, but I like to go.
9. I don't care about high school, but I think one ought to.
10. High school is all right, but I don't like it.
11. High school may be all right, but I don't think it does any good.
12. There are too many rules and regulations in schools.
13. My classes are very uninteresting.
14. I can learn more working on a job than in high school.
15. A high school graduate is often worse off morally than he was before going to high school.
16. In high school, pupils learn to disrespect everything of high idealistic character.
17. High school teachers are parasites on the community.

Place a check (✓) below along the line to indicate your attitude toward school. A is extremely favorable and K is extremely against. F is neutral and the other letters indicate graded steps between.

A B C D E F G H I J K

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APPENDIX B

DISCIPLINE REFERRAL FORM
STUDENT REFERRAL TO PRINCIPAL’S OFFICE

This referral form is to be used in all cases where, in the judgment of the teacher, a problem related to student behavior warrants action by the principal.

(Use Separate Form for Each Student Referred)

STUDENT NAME

Grade (Last) Age Date

Location of Incident Period

REASON FOR REFERRAL

☐ Assault with a prohibited weapon
☐ Assault of school personnel
☐ Assault on another student or fighting
☐ Possession of prohibited weapon
☐ Illegal solicitation of money or other property
☐ Verbal abuse of school personnel
☐ Insubordination
☐ Disruptive behavior
☐ Theft

☐ Vandalism
☐ Profanity
☐ Possession and/or improper use of drugs
☐ Violation of smoking rules
☐ Gambling
☐ Violation of school attendance regulations
☐ Failure to observe school rules
☐ Failure to observe school regulations
☐ Other

DESCRIPTION OF INCIDENT:

Time — Race — Sex

Classroom — Other (Specify)

Names of Witnesses

PREVIOUS ACTION TAKEN BY TEACHER TO IMPROVE BEHAVIOR:

TYPE OF PRIOR PARENT CONTACT:

☐ Telephone ☐ In Person ☐ Letter ☐ No Previous Contact

ADMINISTRATIVE DISPOSITION:

☐ Conference with student
☐ Returned to teacher with suggestions
☐ Referred to counselor
☐ Referred to staff personnel committee
☐ Parent contact by telephone
☐ Parent conference requested

(Disposition _______)

☐ Referred to Guidance/Youth Action Center (Visiting Teacher/Nurse)
☐ Suspension of privileges
☐ Alternative class placement
☐ Corporal Punishment
☐ Suspension ( _____ Days)
☐ Referred to law enforcement agency
☐ Referred for third party hearing
☐ Other

COMMENTS:

Administrator’s Signature (Date)
APPENDIX C

TEACHER ORIENTATION TRAINING
Since the curriculum is a developmental one and open-ended in nature, the teacher needs to be innovative, creative and to believe that all people, children and adults alike, are in different stages or processes of personal growth, both mentally as well as emotionally. Included here is the idea that people have the capability of growing and changing throughout their lives, and that, as human beings, we never stop our development unless we so choose.

The teacher needs to be self-motivated, adding his/her own life experiences to the classroom setting, when appropriate, which will enhance the material he/she is using. Teacher self-disclosure can be very beneficial for this type of curriculum. Self-disclosure is sharing parts of ourselves, our feelings or thoughts, with others which often opens the receivers to sharing their ideas in return. Self-disclosure is a way of showing people that we are all human and have similar problems. Appropriate self-disclosure bridges gaps between people for these reasons. Proper timing is important and teachers are encouraged to be discreet about disclosing very personal information. An example of self-disclosing might be, "when I was your age, we did so-and-so". Students know when a person is being "real" with them and this feeling of a "real person telling me real things" gives validity to any meaningful discussion.

New and possibly better or more suitable activities may be found besides those written into this curriculum. Books on classroom activities in these content areas are being published all the time, therefore, the teacher will continually strive to better the quality of the student's classroom experience by researching and finding activities "that work". If the teacher does not feel that a section of the curriculum is complete then the teacher should take the responsibility of deciding what additional information would be helpful to present to the students and then doing so.

As an example, the student handouts are used to promote critical thinking, as well as to be informative. In the handouts, the students have spaces to write their answers. If the students are not receptive to writing, the teacher can use these worksheets for classroom discussion. In other words, there are no hard and fast rules as to how this material is presented. The goal is to insure that the students receive the information in a format conducive to their comprehension.

The purpose of this curriculum is to teach basic social and thinking skills to students who may not have received these skills earlier in their lives. There will be a definite variation in how some students will respond to this information. Some students will take for granted the content, saying, in gist, "I already know this". Others will be wide-eyed and will absorb the information that they have never heard before. The activities are designed, however, to be enjoyable and reinforcing for everyone. As one student remarked, "This is fun; it's not like regular schoolwork."

Students' range of understanding this material will vary, therefore, the teacher will have to re-interpret it depending on the child's ability to
3. Guidelines for Discussion—Group discussion is employed extensively in Citizenship Education because it is an effective way to encourage teacher-student and student-student interaction. In most of the large group discussion sessions, and in some of the small group discussion sessions as well, the teacher has the role of leader, with the students reacting to the teacher and to one another. At first, the students may tend to react only to the teacher, but with encouragement they will become comfortable reacting to one another. The teacher can encourage student-student interaction by asking questions such as, "Mary, what do you think of Peter's suggestion?" rather than responding to Peter himself. The activity-discussion sequence followed in this program provides the student repeated opportunities to internalize new, and hopefully more mature concepts, attitudes and behaviors. Discussion following an activity is regarded as a very important tactic in stimulating affective development.

The teacher should require each student to follow the rules for discussion or participation that the group is observing. It is important to have in mind the difference between acceptance of and respect for the student's ideas and feelings and acceptance of out-of-turn, disruptive, inappropriate behavior. Judgment has to be used here, of course, and in the authors' experience teachers err in the direction of being too permissive rather than too structured. Structure paradoxically tends to increase freedom by making it possible for all students to participate and contribute.

5. The Use of Questions—At the end of most lessons, questions are provided for class discussion. Some teachers with group discussion experience and experience with affective education may wish to use different questions than those provided in the lessons. In so doing, the teacher should be aware that different questions may direct the students' attention toward outcomes which are different from those stated. The questions included in Citizenship Education and the range of outcomes they produce have been carefully reviewed, with special attention to the issue of invasion of privacy. Students should not be asked to reveal ideas, feelings, and experiences which by virtue of their highly personal or peculiar nature could be embarrassing. It is very important not to ask probing questions which leave the student undefended or feeling psychologically assaulted. Even when aggressive probing does not precipitate a blow-up, it produces distrust and resentment and is therefore to be avoided. We are striving to help students develop openness, self-acceptance, and awareness through their own efforts as they interact with their peer group and teacher.

Students will often respond to a question by saying, "I don't know", which gets the discussion nowhere. "I don't know" usually means "I really don't know", "I don't want to tell you", "I don't want you to bother me with these questions". It is helpful, therefore, to make a class rule that "I don't know" is not an acceptable response and even if the student doesn't know an answer, a response will still be expected. If the student is wrong, it won't matter since the goal is to learn, not to be "right". We learn from our mistakes.
7. The Unusual Student Response—In general, students will share only those things which are safe to share, and most students have an excellent notion of what can be shared and what should not be shared. Occasionally a student or two will share very personal, potentially embarrassing, sometimes weird, vulgar material. The teacher should use considerable judgment in deciding what is embarrassing, weird, or vulgar and should concentrate on preventing the student from being rejected by the peer group. Although the teacher should communicate acceptance of the student’s material, he or she should also try to make it clear that similar information should not be shared. Because group norms are powerful and can be damaging, some students may need temporary relief from peer pressure. However, the student who divulges very personal information needs to talk about it, and so a special opportunity to do so should be provided if at all possible. The teacher can support, protect, and help these students by doing one or more of the following:

a. Excuse the student temporarily from Citizenship Education sessions so that a resource person such as a school psychologist, counselor, or school social worker can work with him or her individually during the Citizenship Education period.

b. Conduct small group Citizenship Education sessions with the assistance of a resource person if several students need special attention. Students from several classrooms can be included in these special Citizenship Education sessions.

Group activities are powerful tools for learning. They encourage student interaction and confrontation which are necessary for affective development.

8. You can nurture your students’ positive self-concepts by:

a. Always calling your students by their name and finding out what they like to be called.

b. "Touching base" with each student daily. Greeting them at the door; using eye contact, etc.

c. Praising them for their positive efforts and their appearance. Ignoring, whenever possible, their negative behaviors.

d. Allowing your students to meet some of their personal needs in the classroom.

e. Allowing them to express their emotions in appropriate ways.

f. Allowing your students to make contributions to the class.

g. Giving them opportunities to focus on their skills and showing pride in their work.

h. Giving them more responsibility in class.

i. Giving your students choices and letting them carry out their choices.

j. Letting them set some goals and reach them, no matter how small.

k. Letting them help set rules or guidelines for the classroom and then living by them.

l. Separating learning and grades.

m. Keeping your power under control.

n. Knowing your own beliefs, but not using them to ridicule or to criticize your students; avoiding sarcasm, it just builds distrust.

o. Accepting criticism as part of an on-going relationship and not as a threat.

p. Letting your students know you have often felt the same feelings they are experiencing, self-disclosing when appropriate.

q. Disarming those who are alienated. Getting them alone and listening to their grievances. Making changes, when possible, or giving reasons when there will be no changes. Giving them your support, understanding and suggesting alternatives for their behavior.
Introduction

A major theme that runs throughout this curriculum is the idea of learning to take proper care of the self: physically, emotionally, and mentally. The opposite of self-defeating, self-destructive behavior is having a positive self-image, and generally, feeling good about the self, or having self-esteem. After we have learned to take care of ourselves, as a positive, nurturing, loving parent would care for a child and as we treat the self as a very best friend, then and only then, can we take really good care of the people close to us, friends, relatives. Once people have begun to respect themselves and significant others, then they may be able to care about larger groups of people in their school, community, work life, as well as national and international arenas.

This inadequate self-care is one reason why so many people have unhappy relationships with their children, their spouses and friends. We cannot truly give to another person what we do not feel and possess within ourselves.

There is a hierarchy of needs that people have, starting at the foundation with positive, balanced, internal self-love and working outwards with genuine love for others, and finally to love for mankind. Skipping these early steps of learning and practicing a healthy and balanced self-love, will hinder and diminish attempts towards loving others.

Teacher Responsibility

The basic concepts found in the content of each lesson are listed after the Table of Contents page of each unit, and they are also listed below, by Level, Goal, and unit. The concepts for each unit are the main ideas that are to be imparted to the students. All lessons, activities and worksheets reinforce these basic concepts. The first activity for each day's activities will usually be student handout or worksheet and it carries, in writing, the bulk of the concepts for that lesson. All other activities supplement the basic worksheet or student handout. Presentation of the student handout is mandatory, although the form in which it is presented may vary depending upon teacher preference (class discussion, individual worksheets filled out together as a class or individually by students, use of overhead projector, etc.) THE STUDENT HANDOUTS OR WORKSHEETS DO NOT HAVE TO BE USED AS LONG AS THE TEACHER PRESENTS THIS MATERIAL TO THE STUDENT IN SOME ADEQUATE FORM. Presenting this material to the student is the responsibility of the teachers as the students will be evaluated to see if they have absorbed and retained this information.

These concepts are basic ideas that affect all humans. It is necessary, therefore, that the teacher understand the concepts and be able to apply them, though privately, to his or her personal life experience. As all written material is subject to interpretation and is therefore, fallible, if the teacher does not understand all or part of the written concept, it is important that this be cleared up before the teacher presents this material to the students. Sharing and discussing the concepts with involved staff will enhance and stimulate each teacher's ideas towards the concepts and curriculum, and therefore, will enhance the student's experience. These concepts should be reinforced as often as possible in as many ways as possible and at each level.
Brainstorming is an activity that we will use a lot throughout the citizenship activities. It is a technique that is used for class discussions to get to as much information as possible.

Here are the rules of brainstorming: A topic for discussion is chosen.

1. Everyone has a chance to talk and people can say as much as they want and that there are no right or wrong answers. The purpose is to get out as many ideas as possible and for people to greatly use their minds and imaginations. New and wild ideas are encouraged for people to begin to develop their imaginations and creativity. What does 'creativity' mean?

2. People can say what they want to as long as it is on the subject and no one is to judge or criticize what another person has said. All ideas are accepted. What do these underlined words mean?

   Judge
   criticize
   accepted

3. People are encouraged to add to each other's ideas. This is called "piggybacking".
4. Each idea is to be recorded on the board.
5. A time limit should be set for this activity, usually five minutes is a good amount of time.

Now, using these rules, practice brainstorming. Here are some topic ideas or make up your own in class.

1. Name as many uses for a gatorade bottle as you can.
2. Name as many emotions as you can.
3. Name different ways that people can take good care of themselves.
Our beliefs are the attitudes and opinions that we think are important. When someone asks you if you like chocolate ice cream, going to church and making money, then you could also say that you like or value those things. Everything we say, do, feel, or think has a belief behind it at school, at home, at work and at play.

Our beliefs are taught to us by our parents, teachers, adults, friends and all those people who we come in contact with every day. We also learn what is important by watching television shows, listening to music, watching movies at the theater. Because each of us is unique and an individual, we have all had different experiences.

What does "experience" mean?

Since our beliefs often come from our experiences, and each of our experience is different from others; then each of us has a different set of beliefs or what we feel to be important in our lives.

Our beliefs change as we grow up, just as all parts of us change, our bodies, our emotions, our thoughts, and our actions or behavior. When we were very young, we liked milk and baby food. What is one of your favorite foods now?

People like cornbread and turnip greens. Some people like steak and potatoes. Some people like both! Some people eat only vegetables. Some people like Mrs. Jones, the Math teacher, some people don't. Some people go to church, some people don't.

People who have some of the same beliefs often like each other. They have a lot in common. People who have different beliefs and experiences often think that they do not like each other because they are too different from each other. We can often be friends with people even if our beliefs are different. Having different beliefs from other people doesn't mean we are better people—it means that we are just different and differences can be fun. As we grow and change, our beliefs also change.

There is an old Indian parable "Do not criticize your neighbor until you have walked a mile in his moccasins". What do you think is the meaning of this parable?

How Do I Know What's Important to Me?

From the time you get up every morning until the time you go to bed at night, you make little decisions and big decisions. What is a decision?

What are some of the little decisions you have made so far today?
How Do I Know What's Important to Me?

What are some of the big decisions you have made today?

Before you could make each of these decisions, you had to consider how you feel about the decisions and what is important to you. Behind each decision is a belief. The reason why we study beliefs is so that we will know how we think and feel about things in order that we can make better decisions. Some people don't even know how they feel, think or what they value or believe. It is hard to make good decisions when we don't know how we feel about things. Events or situations can "backfire" on us if we do not know how we feel, think and what we believe in. Think of the last time you made a decision to do something and it backfired. What was the situation?

What went wrong? How did things get messed up?

What will you do differently next time?

What you learned from your bad decision will help you make better decisions in the future. Some students need to learn to make good decisions so they can stay out of trouble both at school and at home. This unit works toward helping you understand who you are, why you do the things you do, and how to learn to do things more successfully so you will be a happier person.
Adults Beliefs

What kinds of Beliefs do the adults that you know have. Answer the questions below as you think an adult that you know might answer them.

1. Kids today are just "going to the dogs." ________________________

2. School is very important. ______________________________________

3. Taking drugs is not alright for anyone. _____________________________

4. Keeping a job and going to work regularly is important. ____________

5. Watching how the family spends money is important. ________________

6. Paying the monthly bills is an important thing to do. ________________

7. Driving safely is important. ______________________________________

8. Children and parents should try to work out their differences. _________

Optional

9. Drinking alcohol is alright for adults. ______________________________

10. Going to Church is an important thing to do. _______________________

A. After you have finished answering these questions as adults might have, go back and put "A" on the line if you agree with their ideas or "D" if you disagree with their ideas.

B. Now, look at the list of 10 statements and rank them in order of importance to you, from 1 to 10, putting the statement you think is the most important first, and the statement you think is least important last. Put your number on the line to the left by the statement number.
Three Steps

There are three steps in learning about yourself and what's important to you. We call them:

1. Choosing
2. Prizing
3. Acting

1. The first step, "choosing" means that you pick or decide what is important to you based on your own ideas and beliefs. It has to be important to you, not to your mother or teacher or best friend. You also have to choose from alternatives. What does "alternatives" mean?

When we make a decision, we pick between two or more choices or alternatives. After you have figured out what's important to you and have looked at the alternatives, you then have to consider the consequences of the alternatives.

What does "consequences" mean?

2. The next step after figuring out what's important to you is "prizing". Another word for prizing is "cherishing". What does "cherishing" mean?

Beliefs are something to be cherished. It is important that we feel good about what's important to us. We should also be able to tell other people about what's important to us. Telling other people means that we might take a stand on an issue in public. For example, we might campaign for someone who is running for office, or to convince a friend about something we feel strongly. Think of something that you "cherish" or feel strongly about.

3. After you are able to prize or cherish your beliefs and are willing to talk to others about them, the third and final step is "acting." You have heard the expression "Action speaks louder than words". What does that mean?
Name: ___________________________ Date: ________________________

**Forced Choice**

1. It is Saturday afternoon. You had promised your mother, who works on Saturday, to take your brother to the doctor. A friend calls you up and says he has 2 tickets to the movies. Do you:
   - [ ] go to the movie
   - [ ] take your brother to the doctor

2. You are on probation and one of the terms of the probation is that you attend school regularly and your probation officer makes periodic checks on your attendance. On the way to school one morning a group of friends (not on probation) suggest that you skip school and go get high. Do you:
   - [ ] skip school and go with them
   - [ ] go to school

3. You go to a record store with a $3.00 bill. Your favorite album is on sale for $4.99. Do you:
   - [ ] buy a cheaper album
   - [ ] shoplift the album you really want
   - [ ] decide to wait until you get the $4.99

4. You haven’t seen your father in 2 months. As you are leaving the house to go to a concert with some friends, he shows up and wants you to go with him. Do you:
   - [ ] go with him and forget about seeing your friends
   - [ ] go with your friends

5. Suppose your grandmother hasn’t been feeling well lately. You go to the doctor with her and find out that she is dying of cancer. You and your mother get into a discussion about whether to tell her the truth. What do you think? Should you:
   - [ ] tell your grandmother the truth
   - [ ] keep the truth from her

6. Your best friend meets a new friend at the movies and begins to spend a lot of time with her and not much time with you. You meet someone who knows this new person and you learn from them that this new person has been in a lot of trouble. Do you:
   - [ ] go to your best friend and tell them what you learned
   - [ ] keep it to yourself

7. Your mother has a chance for a new job that pays more money. But to take the new job means moving to a new city. She asks you for your opinion. Do you:
   - [ ] tell her to take the new job although it means you must move
   - [ ] advise her to keep her old job because you don’t want to move to a new city

8. You and your best friend go into a store together. You are on probation and if you get in trouble again, you’ll be sent to the State School for Juvenile Offenders. As you browse through the store, you discover that your friend is shoplifting calculators, radios, and cameras. You weren’t aware that that is what he had in mind before you went shopping. Do you:
   - [ ] call your friend to put the merchandise back
   - [ ] leave your friend at the store
   - [ ] not say anything, be cool and hope you don’t get caught

9. You have a contract with your counselor at school to be on time. While you are downtown changing buses, a friend wants you to go to the drugstore to help him pick out a birthday present and says that he’ll catch the later bus. Do you:
   - [ ] keep your contract and go on
   - [ ] stay and help your friend

10. You are at school. You need one more good behavior point to progress to the next level. During a game of ping pong, two students begin to pick on one of your friends who is a real small and can’t take care of himself very well. Do you:
    - [ ] take care of the verbal abuse yourself
    - [ ] go get a staff member to straighten things out
APPENDIX E

CITIZENSHIP CURRICULUM TRAINING EMOTIONS WORKSHEET
EMOTIONS

What are emotions? Emotions are feelings. Everyone feels. Some kinds of feelings that people have from time to time are happiness, sadness, anger, love, irritation, fear, joy, resentment and excitement. Do you know what these feelings mean? Can you name some other kinds of feelings?

It is alright to have feelings. It is part of being a human being to feel. There are no good or bad feelings, but some feelings feel better than others. Sometimes we are happy, and sometimes we need to be angry or upset. The important thing about feeling is what we do with our feelings or how we act on our feelings. What we do with our feelings can sometimes cause problems for us and for other people.

What do you do on the outside when you are feeling on the inside? Feelings are on the inside of us. Sometimes other people cannot tell what we are feeling unless we tell them or show them. What do you show on the outside to other people when you have a feeling on the inside? (Class Discussion).

Everyday we feel and think. Everyday we make decisions and act on those decisions. Sometimes, if we do not think carefully, we will make a decision that is not good for us. Sometimes we may feel a certain way and we may act on our feelings only, instead of acting on our thoughts and our feelings together.
When a person doesn’t think much, but makes quick decisions, depending upon his or her feelings only, he is often being impulsive. Sometimes our feelings make us make decisions that are not good for us. This is a time when many people make poor decisions and often get into trouble. It is important to get into the habit of thinking clearly. It is also important to understand our feelings and to figure out what is causing us to feel a certain way. We need to be able to control our thoughts and feelings so that they work for us and not against us.

When we start thinking clearly and when we begin knowing and understanding our feelings, we begin to feel better about ourselves and liking ourselves better. Have you ever heard the expression, “KNOW THYSELF”? Knowing yourself means knowing and understanding how you feel and think. Another word for knowing yourself is called self-awareness. When I am aware of how I feel and think about myself, then I will begin to understand myself better. When I understand myself better, I can decide if I want to change certain things about myself or stay the same. I have more control over myself, and then, I usually feel better about myself. Loving ourselves is very important. It is hard to really love other people if we do not love ourselves and take good care of ourselves first. It is hard to give to others what we do not have within ourselves.

Let’s go over some feelings, thoughts and actions situations and see if you can tell if the person felt, and thought before he or she acted. Remember most of the time it is better to think and feel together before we act.
Emotions (con't.)

1. A boy in your class named Tom pushes Jane's books off of her desk. Jane immediately gets up out of her chair and hits Tom in the head with her ruler. Tom hits her back with his fist.
   a. Did Jane act?______ If so, what did she do?______

   b. Do you think that Jane felt anything when Tom pushed her book off her desk?______ If so, what?______

   c. Did Jane think before acting?______ If so, what do you think that she was thinking?

   d. What could Jane have thought to make this situation turn out better?

2. John had studied hard for his test. When he got his paper back and the class went over the answers, he noticed that the teacher had marked an answer of his incorrect and it had been correct. He was very upset but decided to wait and talk to his teacher after class.
   a. Did John act?______ If so, what was his action?

   b. Did John feel before he acted?______ If so, what do you think that he felt?

   c. Did John think before he acted?______ If so, what did he think?

3. Susan was talking to Debbie in the hall between classes. Jim came up and pushed Susan's books out of her hand. She was so mad that she hit Jim in the back. He fell down and his glasses fell off and broke.
   a. Did Susan act?______ If so, what was her action?
b. Did Susan feel before she acted? If so, what do think that she felt?

c. Did Susan think before she acted? If so, what did she think?
APPENDIX F

CITIZENSHIP CURRICULUM TRAINING WORKSHEET ON ANGER
OUR ANGER! IT CAN GET US INTO TROUBLE

Let's take a look at anger. Many students get angry and then do something with their angry feelings that gets them into trouble at school. What are some feeling words that mean the same thing as "angry"?

What are some pictures that come into your mind when you think about anger?

What does anger feel like? What do you feel like when you're angry?

What does your body do when you are angry?

It is important to remember that sometimes we may need to be angry, like when we see someone hurting someone else. It is also possible to learn to get angry at any little thing that happens to us. We can learn how to be happy, sad, or angry from people who are close to us. We watch them and we learn to get angry at the same kinds of times as when they get angry. Have you ever noticed the things that make your relatives angry? Are they the same things that make you angry?

The actions that we take because we are angry is the important issue. We need to learn how to control our anger and to release our angry feelings in ways that we do not hurt ourselves or other people.

Now, as your teacher writes on the board, brainstorm all the things you can think of that make you angry at school (and/or at home, if time permits).

At school, at home, at work, and out in our life, things happen to us that don't seem fair or right. Can you list some things that seem unfair to you? Many times we get angry or we stay angry because we think or feel that people or situations are not fair.

Is life always "fair" to people? Have you ever heard the expression, "I never promised you a rose garden"? What do you suppose this phrase means?

Can you learn to handle unfair or uncomfortable situations without getting so angry that you do something to get yourself in trouble?
Our Anger: It Can Get Us Into Trouble (Con't)

Sometimes we bring our anger to school from home. If you have a fight in your family, it is sometimes hard to let go of the angry feelings and we may bring them to school and then get into trouble at school. Has this situation ever happened to you? Have you ever heard of the story where the husband and wife get into a fight, the father yells at the mother, the mother yells at the son, the son yells at the sister and the sister kicks the dog? This is an example of how our feelings can affect each other if we let them go unchecked.

Sometimes when we are angry, there is another feeling going on underneath the anger. Here is an example: Judy and Debbie were best friends. Judy told Debbie that she didn’t want to be best friends anymore because she wanted to be best friends with Sandy. Debbie got very angry at Judy and told her not to ever see or call her again. Do you think that there was a feeling underneath the anger? How would it feel for a friend to tell you that he or she doesn’t want to be best friends with you anymore?

One feeling would be sadness. Many times when we get angry it is because we got our feelings hurt. It is important to know these feelings because then if we know that we are sad, we don’t have to cover up the hurt and sadness with anger. We can work with the sadness and let it go.

Now that we have talked about anger, what are some ways that we can release or get out of our angry feelings? There are some positive ways and some ways that are not very helpful in the long run. Some ways of releasing anger or any feeling have serious consequences. Do you remember what “consequence” means? What?

Positive Ways of Releasing Anger

1. Talk to a friend.
2. Talk about your anger with the person you are angry with.
3. Change moods by changing activities.
4. Cry, be unhappy for awhile and get it out of your system.
5. Be alone for a while to clear your head and think through your problems.
6. Yell and scream.
7. Run around the block.

What do you do to get out of being angry? Look at the above lists. Maybe you can think of some others.
I. Please read this story about John and Jim:

JIM, YOU'RE A WORTHLESS BEAN-EATER

NOBODY IS GOING TO CALL ME A BEAN-EATER AND GET AWAY WITH IT!

IT IS JOHN'S FAULT THAT I HIT HIM

D. Do you think it is John's fault that Jim hit him? Why or why not?
APPENDIX G

CITIZENSHIP CURRICULUM TRAINING WORKSHEETS ON

DECISION MAKING, PART I
MAKING GOOD DECISIONS

Since making good decisions is so important in our lives, we are going to look at decision-making from several different angles. Here are some other ways we will look at decisions.

A. What do you think is a good decision?

A good decision is one that doesn’t hurt you, and is one that helps you to take good care of yourself. If someone else besides yourself is involved in your decision, a good decision might be one that also helps take care of someone else. When we get into trouble at home or at school, we are often not making very good decisions for ourselves. If you run into the street in front of a moving car, is this a good decision for you? Is this decision helping you take good care of yourself? Why, then, is it important to learn to make good decisions?

If you said because you would be taking good care of yourself, you were right.

We discussed earlier the importance of beliefs in making decisions. How do your beliefs, your opinions, your likes and dislikes affect your decision-making?

B. How do you learn to make good decisions?

1. You may learn from your mistakes, from your experiences. If you lose money in a certain coke machine several times, you learn not to use that coke machine again until it is fixed. Think of a time when you learned something new from a mistake you made.

2. You may learn from other people’s experiences and mistakes. If you watch other people to see what they do, you can learn from them. Why should you go through an experience if you can learn that lesson from someone else? Here is an example of this idea: If a boy in your class throws his paper into the trash can from his desk and the teacher gets upset with him for doing that, then you know that if you throw paper in the trash from YOUR desk, the teacher will probably get upset with you, too. So, you can decide what you want to do by watching other people. This is a good way to learn how to handle certain situations. Think of a situation in which you learned something new by watching other people.
5. Once again, making good decisions is a way you can take good care of yourself. Just as a good parent takes care of a child, you can learn to take good care of yourself. Taking care of yourself means that you do not do things that will hurt or harm yourself. Getting in trouble is one way of hurting yourself. Think of some other ways people (and students) do not take good care of themselves.

Now, think of some ways that YOU take good care of yourself with your decisions.

C. What happens when you make a wrong decision?

Everybody makes mistakes. Most everybody tries to make good decisions, but sometimes they turn out not to be as good as a person would like. Sometimes the outcome, result or consequence of your decision was not what you thought would happen and you may get upset.

What do you do when you do something that you wish you hadn't done, or that you wish you had done differently? Mark the answers below: (You can answer more than one.)

1. I get angry at myself and put myself "down".
2. I get sad and feel that I can't do anything right.
3. I just "get up, brush myself off, and start going again".
4. I think about how I am going to take good care of myself, how I am my own best friend, and how it's alright to make mistakes. I know that I can learn from my mistakes and do better next time. I know that it is important to forgive myself and to love myself, so I can move on to learning bigger and better things.
Steps in Making Decisions

Key Words: These words to the left are to help you remember the six steps in making decisions.

1. Problem -- Identify the problem - Figure out what the decision is that you are trying to make.

2. Choices -- List all the possible alternatives or choices that you have. These are all the possible decisions that you could make.

3. Consequences -- Identify the consequences (outcomes) of each alternative or choice - Example: "If I do so and so, what will happen?" Which consequence are you willing to accept or to "live with"? See from as many angles as you can when looking at your choices.

4. More Information -- Do you need more information about your choices? What information do you need and how will you get it?

5. Feelings, Beliefs, Goals -- Feelings, Beliefs, Goals -
   a. How do you feel about each of these choices?
   b. What are your beliefs about each of these choices?
   c. What are your goals about this decision? In other words, what are you trying to accomplish or to get done by making this decision?

6. Decide -- Make your decision and accept responsibility for it. Is your decision going to take good care of yourself? How? After you have all the facts, you know your choices and their consequences, you know your feelings, beliefs, and goals about your choices and the decision that you want to make, then MAKE YOUR DECISIONS! Accepting responsibility for your decision means that you blame no one else for the outcomes to any decisions that you make. We don't always know how decisions will turn out. If they don't turn out the way we want or the way we expect, it is still our responsibility for making the decision. All people need to learn to make decisions. Being responsible means growing up.
APPENDIX H

DECISION MAKING, PART II WORKSHEETS
Goals - How Am I Going To Live My Life?

Some people think and feel that they have no control over their lives, that each day goes by, one after the other until they die. If something good happens to these people, they think that it is luck. Do you feel this way?

Other people feel that each day is a new opportunity for growth and change in their lives, that each day is a new beginning, a new chance to have a happier, more fulfilling life. Do you feel this way?

People live their lives according to their beliefs. That is why beliefs are very important. If you were a captain of a ship and your ship was in a great storm with thunder, lightning, heavy waves, waves crashing over the sides of the ship, and the ship was fiercely rolling from side to side, what would you do?

1. As the captain, would you get in your cabin under the deck of the ship and hope for the best and that the storm would soon pass? or

2. Would you take the ship's wheel and steer the ship through the storm, trying to miss big rocks or high, violent waves?

There are two ways that people decide to live their lives: 1) Letting the storm (or life events) control them, or 2) taking control of the ship (our life) and getting through the storm and into calmer seas. If we want to make the best of our lives, we must take control of it, and to take responsibility for what happens to us. If we do not have dreams or goals for our lives, we should not be surprised if things do not turn out for the best for us.

Most everyone wants control over their own life. What does "control" mean?

When we live in a family, we can share the control of family affairs with the people who live with us. In order to have control over our lives, we must think in some special ways. We must:

1. Decide what kind of life we want to live and decide what we want out of our life.

2. Decide if our wants are realistic and are good for us and those that we can live with and love. Realistic, here, means that we should use common sense about what we want for ourselves. We should not decide to be a nuclear physicist if we don't get very good grades in science class.

3. After we have decided what we want, we should GO FOR IT! We need to develop a plan of action to get from here to there, to get what we want out of our life.
Name

CAUSE/EFFECT AND CONSEQUENCES (Cont'd.)

We need to think ahead about the consequences or effects of the things that we do, so that we can be happier and stay out of trouble. If we think ahead, we will often not make mistakes about the things we say and do. THINKING IS VERY IMPORTANT!

Let's see if we can THINK AHEAD and decide what some of these consequences or effects will be. Name more than one consequence or effect, if you can. It is important to know that the same cause will not always produce the same effect. It depends on what's going on in a situation. For example: If I say "hi" to you (cause), you may say, "hi", "leave me alone", or "what's going on?" (different effects).

1. At school, if I am in the hall without a pass, what will happen to me? (the consequence)

2. If I curse out a teacher, what could be the consequence for me? What could happen to me?

3. If I am absent from school a lot, what is the consequence for me? What will my parents do?

   What will the school do?

4. If I hit my sister or brother, what will my parents do to me?

5. If I steal a watch and the police catch me, what are the consequences for me?

6. If I help my teacher erase the board, what is the consequence for me?

7. If I run away from home and I get caught by the police, what will happen to me?

8. When I clean up the kitchen at home before my parents ask me to, the consequence for me is.

9. If I get into a fight at school, what will be the effect of my actions on me?
APPENDIX I

COMMUNICATIONS WORKSHEET, PART I
Communication is defined as sharing messages. In communicating, there is a sender and a receiver just as in a football game when one player throws the ball and the other player, or receiver, catches the ball. Good communication happens when a sender sends a message and the receiver understands the message just as it was sent. The receiver then sends a message back to the sender and that message is also understood as it was sent. Understanding the message being sent is like a football player catching the football rather than fumbling it. Roleplay this idea in class. Let someone be the sender and someone be the receiver.

Communicating is one of the most important things we do. The goal of good communication is to understand what other people are trying to tell us or not tell us and then for people to understand what we are telling them. When we understand people, then we often don't have as great a need to get upset with other people. Our understanding each other is very important.

Here is an example of understanding someone. Pretend that you are walking down the street and suddenly you feel a sharp pain in your back as if someone were poking you with a very sharp object. What would you be feeling as this happens to you?

You quickly turn around to see who is poking you and you see a blind man with his walking stick, feeling his way as he walks down the street. He accidently poked you as he was feeling his way. Now that you understand what is going on, how do you feel about the whole situation?

We are communicating all the time. We are sending messages all the time. We send messages by the clothes we wear, our hair styles, the expressions on our face, the way we walk, how we use our bodies, and how we talk to people.

Singing is communication.
Dancing is communication.
Silence is communication.

How is silence a type of communication?

Here are some terms that you need to know while we study this unit on communication. As the teacher discusses these terms, write the definitions in the blank.

1. Sender
2. Receiver
3. Message
4. Listening
WHAT IS COMMUNICATION? (Cont.)

5. Observing
6. Feedback
7. Verbal Communication
8. Non-Verbal Communication

VERBAL & NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

I. Verbal communication: When we open our mouths and utter sounds and words, we are using verbal communication. Anything that is spoken is said to be verbal.

We use words when we talk. Words are symbols. This means that words represent other things or ideas. The word "apple" is not the apple. It is a symbol for the apple. If you have an apple in your hand then that apple is the apple!

There are all different kinds of words: like slang expressions. Slang means words that certain people use, informal expressions, like "check you later." What are some other slang expressions?

There is technical language that people in different professions use, such as lawyers use words like client, statutes, corporate law, criminal law. Seamstresses use words such as thread, tuck, whip, hem. What are some words used in football?

There are words that people use who live in different parts of the country. These are called regional words like in Texas, people say "ya'll" instead of "you." Can you name some other regional words?

II. Non-Verbal Communication - is any message that we send without using our voice.
Some ways that we use non-verbal communications are:

1. Appearance - how you dress and dress
2. Gesture - body movements; waving - Another term for this is called "Body Language"
3. Posture - walking - How we carry or position our body
4. Facial expression

Have teacher and class give examples of each of the above in the classroom.
- Have you ever had a grown-up relative or parent frown at you, without speaking, and you knew exactly that they were upset with you or they are trying to tell you something?
- Sometimes our verbal and non-verbal behavior are not the same. We may hide our true feelings because we don't want other people to know how we feel.
Most people don’t know how to listen very well. We think we are listening, as someone speaks to us, but our minds may be wandering, and we may be getting only a part of what someone is telling us.

All people need attention from other people. We get attention by having people watch us, talk to us, and LISTEN to us. Listening is very important.

A good listener is someone who knows and understands exactly what the other person is saying both verbally and non-verbally (facial expressions, gestures). A good listener listens to words that are said, the tone of voice (loud, strong, soft), watches body movements, and listens for feelings. Can you feel when a person is happy or sad or angry even though someone might not be telling you how they feel? This is part of listening.

1. Words
2. Voice tone
3. Body Movements
4. Feelings

When people really listen to us, that means that they have a good chance of understanding us and what we are saying.

Think of a time when someone really listened to you. What was the situation?

How did you feel about the person listening to you?

Think of a time when you were a good listener and listened to someone else.

How did you feel about listening?

Think of a time when someone did not listen to you but you wanted them to listen.

How did you feel about this situation?
LISTENING AND OBSERVING FOR FEELINGS

Can you guess how someone is feeling without asking them? Can you listen and observe or watch someone and tell how they are feeling? We can listen and observe the types of words people use, their body language (facial expressions, body movements, gestures and posture) and their voice tones (loud, soft, gentle, harsh, smooth).

In the following exercise either discuss the following types of feelings and how they "look" or have someone role-play the feelings and have class describe the feelings and behavior.

1. Anger
   - Describe:
   - Words:
   - Voice tone:
   - Body language:

2. Excitement
   - Words:
   - Voice tone:
   - Body language:

3. Sad
   - Words:
   - Voice tone:
   - Body language:

4. Frustrated or upset
   - Words:
   - Voice tone:
   - Body language:

5. Happy or glad
   - Words:
   - Voice tone:
   - Body language:

6. Proud
   - Words:
   - Voice tone:
   - Body language:

7. Showing love
   - Words:
   - Voice tone:
   - Body language:
APPENDIX J

COMMUNICATIONS WORKSHEETS, PART II
We have talked about feedback earlier. What is Feedback?

When a person tells us something and we respond to the message that we were given, our response to the message is called Feedback.

Message

Sender --------> Receiver

Feedback

We are "feeding back" a response to what the person said to us. Here is an example of feedback:
1. Susie says, "Hi, John; How are ya?" as she talks, she playfully hits John on the arm and it hurts him.
2. John might give Susie feedback by saying something like, "fine", and hit her back or "Susie, don't hit me", or "Susie, you better not hit me again".

When we answer a person or react to the messages we are given, we are giving feedback.

There are many different ways to give a person "feedback". Some ways help communication keep going and some feedback stops or hurts the communication.

Remember when we talked about 'responsibility' and 'blaming other people' for the things that we do? We can also blame other people for the things that we feel. If we have a feeling, it is our feeling. Someone may have helped us feel a certain way but it is still our feeling.

Two ways of giving feedback are with "You Messages" and "I Messages". We use "You Messages" when we put "you" at the beginning of our messages. Here are some examples of a "You Message"

"You make me so mad!"
"You think you're so great!"
"You're a turkey!"
"You made me get into a fight!"

"You Messages" blame other people for how we feel or act. They usually don't make us feel very good. Write on the black board some examples of "You Messages" you have said or heard recently.

"I Messages" are sometimes harder to say, because we have to do some more thinking. In the long run, however, they make our communications much better. "I Messages" tell someone how we are feeling rather than blaming someone else for how we are feeling as "You Messages" do.
When we use "I Messages", we use "I" and then add a feeling afterwards. Let's use the example as before: Susie comes up to John and says, "Hi! How are ya' doing?" and hits John on the arm. John doesn't like the hit, even though Susie was just playing. Using an 'I Message', John might say something like, "Susie, I feel angry when you hit me, even if you are playing. I don't like to be hurt." If someone said this 'I Message' to you, how would you feel about it?

Write an example of a "You Message" that John might say.

At first, new ways of doing things are uncomfortable for us. "I Messages" make us more responsible for ourselves and our feelings, and they are a way we self-disclose or share our feelings with other people. Self-Disclosure helps us get closer and understand people better. Responsibility and self-disclosure are two topics that we have studied before.

Think of 5 'You Messages' that are the kinds of messages you might hear everyday.

Think of 5 "I Messages" that you could use throughout the day (a hint: use 'I' with a feeling word)

FEEDBACK - "I MESSAGES—YOU MESSAGES"

What is a "You Message"?

What is an "I Message"?

When we use "active listening", we are not thinking about ourselves and how we feel. We are trying to understand how the person we are listening to thinks and feels. We are a mirror for the other person.

When we use "feedback" we are telling the person who we are listening to how we react or feel about what we have just been told.
The answers to these questions are not strict or rigid, but generally, you use "active listening" when the other person is feeling upset or feeling emotional. You use feedback when either you are feeling upset or emotional or when you want the other person to know how you took what he or she just said to you.

Here are some situations that can be discussed or roleplayed. Write down or discuss, what would be a usual "You Message" that you might use and then write or discuss what might be an "I Message" that you could use.

Remember---"You messages" blame other people for how we feel or act.
"I messages" tell people how we feel about what they have said to us. "I messages" are a way of self-disclosing.

1. Your little brother comes in your room while you are there. He has chocolate all over his mouth and hands. He picks up a clean shirt of yours and gets chocolate all over your clean shirt. What do you say to him?

"You message"

"I message"

2. Teacher is giving instructions in class on the class assignment. He or she goes so fast over the directions that you don't understand what was said. What do you say to your teacher?

"You message"

"I message"

3. Your older sister who has her own family, visits you at home. She asks you to babysit that night for her two younger children. You had already planned to go to the basketball game with a friend. What do you say to your sister?

"You message"

"I message"
ACTIVE LISTENING - INTRODUCTION

Listening to another person is one of the nicest gifts you can give someone. Really good listening takes time and thinking. When we listen carefully to another person, we are trying to get the whole message, to understand directly what the other person is telling us.

Listening includes:
1. Hearing words and figuring out what the person means when he uses certain words.
2. Listening to the tones in the voice (loud, soft).
3. Watching body movements, gestures and facial expressions.

List the ways you can tell if a person is listening to you.

List the ways you can tell if a person is not listening to you.

When we listen to someone, we are telling someone that:
1. We are interested in them as a person.
2. We respect what they say and feel, even if we don't agree with them.

When we really try to understand what another person is saying, we will listen and watch the person for feelings and watch his body movements.

When we listen carefully to another person, we don't worry or put our attention on ourselves. We put our attention on the person who we are listening to. We also let the person know that we have heard what he or she has said and that we think we understand it. This is called "active listening". Active listening is listening to someone else and not thinking about ourselves at that time and active listening includes letting the person know that we are really trying to understand what he or she has just said.

There are several ways to show someone that you are listening to them and trying to understand what they have said. You can nod your head, say "uh-huh", or "yes, I understand", or "yep, I know what you mean".

When you are using active listening, you are asking the person about the words he uses, the feelings that he is showing or his body movements. Here is an example: A girl in class throws down her paper in a huff, and says very loudly and with a frown on her face, "I hate this work! I can't do it!" The teacher can get angry or the teacher can say something like, "Debbie, it sounds like you are pretty upset with this work assignment. Is that true?" And Debbie will probably reply, "Yeah" or something like that. Then the teacher can go on farther and say to Debbie something like, "If you'll wait a minute, I'll come around and see if I can help you with your work". The teacher is
helping Debbie by talking to her this way. The underlined sentence is the active listening by the teacher. In this sentence, the teacher asked Debbie if she was upset and Debbie said yes. The teacher was asking Debbie if she was upset. She did not tell Debbie that she was upset. Then, the teacher could understand Debbie better and try to help her with her work. This is better for Debbie than the teacher getting angry at her and cutting her off, isn't it?

It is important to remember that when we use active listening, we should ask rather than tell people how they feel because we might not be right.

Here is a review:

Active listening means:

1. That we are concentrating on the person who is talking and trying to listen and understand what he or she is saying.

2. That we are asking the person if he or she is feeling a certain way so that we can understand better what he or she is trying to tell us.

3. Look beyond the words and try to figure out what the person means by his message.

When we actively listen we are a mirror for the other person. We mirror back what we see and hear.

Teacher: Roleplay 3 scenes and have students mirror your responses and write down what they see and hear.

1.

2.

3.

"ACTIVE LISTENING: YOU ARE THE MIRROR"

Last time we talked about "active listening". What is "active listening"?

In today's activity, we are going to watch some roleplays or scenes and write down the words, body movements and feelings that we see and hear. Then we are going to practice responding to the person we are listening to, showing the person that we understand what he or she is saying to us. We are going to be the person's mirror.

1. Your mother comes home from work, you are watching T.V. and your little brother is in the kitchen getting some milk. He spills the milk all over the floor as your mother walks into the kitchen. She says: "Johnny, what's going on here? Don't you know better than to spill the milk?"

   a. Key words mother uses:

   b. Mother's body movements:

   c. Mother's feelings:
APPENDIX K

CONFRONTATION WORKSHEETS, PART I
We have studied several important communication skills that people need in order to be happy with themselves and other people. We have learned the importance of listening, observing, giving feedback and working for understanding what other people and ourselves are saying. We can never be too good at communicating with each other. We can always learn better ways to understand and to relate to each other. What does "relate" mean?

Another important communication skill is known as "confrontation". What does "confront" mean?

Have you ever had a problem with someone and that person may not even be aware that something is bothering you about what they do or have said? This is very common. Sometimes if we are having a problem with someone, it has to do with our feelings. We are usually upset, angry or feel hurt. What do you do when you are having a problem with someone that you are upset with and that person may not know it?

1. Do you talk to the person about the problem?
2. Do you "brood" and get resentful of the person?
   Define "brood".
   Define "resentful".
3. Do you "blow it off"? This means, that you try to forget the problem and go on?

Sometimes it is hard to just forget a problem or to simply "blow it off". Sometimes we need to let people know how we are feeling because it can make us feel better about the person in the long run and we can work toward understanding each other. We don't have to tell people every little thing we are feeling or thinking but sometimes it helps a relationship or a friendship to share our feelings with people so that we understand each other better. Remember when we talked about the importance of "self-disclosure"? What does "self-disclosure" mean?

When we tell people how we are feeling, we are "self-disclosing".

When we tell people how we are feeling about them or telling them about a problem we are having with something they have said or done, this is called confronting. Confrontation doesn't have to cause a fight or yelling or screaming between people. It can be done calmly and quietly, so that each person knows how the other feels and thinks. If we know how people are feeling, we may decide to change our behavior to make them feel better. If people know that they are helping us have upset or angry feelings, they may decide to change their behavior so that we won't be upset anymore. People usually won't change their behavior unless they know that someone is having trouble with it.
What Might You Do?

Whenever a problem arises between people, someone owns that problem. When the problem is yours, you are the one who feels bothered. This is a time to give feedback: an "I message"

When the other person is bothered, the problem is theirs. This is a time to try active listening.

Decide whether it would be better to give feedback: "I message" or active listening in these situations. If you choose feedback write what you should say or do.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation</th>
<th>I Message</th>
<th>You Message</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Your older brother has just lost the city championship for basketball and says, &quot;I hate school.&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. You are reading to a third grade class and two students start throwing paper across the room.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3. You are visiting a nursing home and one of the old people says, &quot;I wish I were young.&quot;</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Your two best friends tell someone else a secret you had told them.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. For the third time this year your teacher lost the homework you gave her.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Your mother comes home and complains that her boss picks on her for no reason.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Your younger brother says, &quot;I don't want to play with Billy anymore. He's a mean dummy.&quot;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Your parents or close relatives forget your birthday and you are very angry and upset.</td>
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</tbody>
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APPENDIX L

CONFRONTATION WORKSHEET, PART II
Confrontation Model

1. Think long and hard on what it is that is bothering you about the other person. Then ask yourself, what part did I play in this situation? What part did I play in how I am feeling now? What part did the other person play in how I am feeling now? In other words, who is responsible for what in this situation?

2. Set the stage—pick a time and place to talk to the person so that you won't be interrupted. You don't want the person to leave in the middle of the talk. Sometimes you need to ask the person when would be a good time to discuss something with them, so that he or she will be willing to listen to you.

3. Statement—Use an "I message". (Remember what "I message" means?) Tell the person how you feel about whatever it is that he or she is doing. Show how you feel. Example: "John, I am upset about what you said to Debbie about me."

4. State what it is you want to happen.

5. Stop talking and begin to do some active listening. Listen for facts and feelings. If the other person starts showing feelings, listen and be helpful. You can learn a lot when you watch for other people's feelings. Then, give the person feedback. This means responding to the person, with words, by being a mirror for what the person is saying to you. Example: "John, it sounds as if you are angry that Debbie and I are friends. Is that true?"

6. What do WE want to happen. Both you and the other person should declare what changes you want and then negotiate and compromise with each other and reach a decision.
Worksheet:

1. Pass out worksheet. Read and discuss worksheet and confrontation model with students.

2. Divide into five groups and give each group a situation:
   
a. Your best friend has just told you that she is not going to the store with you because she has decided to go to the movies with someone else. You were all dressed and ready to go. Now, you are very upset.

b. Your big brother has two of his friends over. You are watching T.V. They want to watch another T.V. program and come in and change the channel. You are angry and you finally just leave.

c. Is it safe to confront a teacher? Suppose you had just turned in an assignment but it was a day late. Your teacher put a C on it before she even graded the paper. She said this was her rule for late papers. You say you had never heard of that rule before.

d. Your mother and father have an argument. Both of them are in angry moods and everytime you open your mouth, your mother yells at you. You are angry and upset.

e. Your boyfriend is a nice guy but he never calls you before he comes over and then other times, he says he's coming over for a visit and then he won't show up. You're upset. How will you confront him?

Each group should discuss the situation and decide how the confrontation should go, based on the six-step confrontation model. Then people from the group should be selected to roleplay the confrontation before the entire class.

APPENDIX M

POSITIVE ATTENTION WORKSHEETS
Positive Attention

Today we are going to spend some time talking about attention: what it is, different kinds of attention, and how to get it. How do you know when someone is giving you attention? Write down some ways you can tell when you are getting attention—what happens:

Are you getting attention from someone else when:

1. A friend comes up and hits you in the arm? Yes  
   No

2. A friend gives you a hug? Yes  
   No

3. Someone tells you to shut up? Yes  
   No

4. During a conversation a friend maintains eye contact and nods? Yes  
   No

These examples help us understand that attention can be positive or negative, verbal or non-verbal.

Imagine walking into class today and the teacher says, "You did really well on your test yesterday. I'm proud of you. Keep up the good work." How would you feel if someone said that to you? What would be your response—physically, verbally, emotionally?

Now imagine walking into class and the teacher says, "You really did a poor job on that test. You got the lowest score in the class. I'm very disappointed in you." How does that make you feel? What would be your response—physically, verbally, emotionally?

In both situations you received attention, but one was positive attention and the other was negative. Positive attention makes us feel good about ourselves, it may make us stand up straight and can brighten our day. Negative attention makes us feel badly about ourselves, we may slouch or avoid eye contact and it can put us in a bad mood.

People need attention in order to survive and it doesn't matter if the attention is positive or negative. We know instinctively that we need attention and we will create a situation to get attention when we are needy. But because our society seems to give negative attention more easily than positive, many times we ask or settle for
negative attention because it is easier and quicker to get. If you wanted to receive attention in this classroom right now what would you do that you know would get you the attention?

Is it positive or negative? Probably negative because it is easier to get. Unfortunately we are part of this problem, too. You probably give more negative attention to people than positive attention. Write down 3 ways you have given negative attention to somebody today.

Have you given anyone positive attention? How?

When you receive negative attention from someone, you probably give that person negative attention in return. It works the other way, too. You will usually get positive attention from those people you give it to.

There are five myths about getting and giving positive attention (which is also called "strokes").

1. Don't give strokes. Don't tell people that you care and don't give them compliments. They might get conceited or think you want to go out with them.

2. Don't accept strokes. If someone gives you a compliment, shrug it off, because you don't want people to think you believe them—you might get conceited. "Oh this old thing? I got it on sale and I've never really liked it."

3. Don't ask for strokes. Asking for attention or a compliment is a sign of weakness. People will think you are vain.

4. Don't stroke yourself. When you do something well, be sure to figure out how you could have done it better, quicker, or a different way. Otherwise people will think you are bragging.

5. Don't reject strokes you don't want. Frequently people are given strokes which, for one reason or another, don't feel good or are not wanted. If you are a girl and you hit a home run on your baseball team, when a boy compliments you on how cute you look in your uniform, you may not want to hear about being cute—you probably want to hear that you did a good job at bat. But you say "thank you" anyway.

One of the reasons that these myths exist is that people think we only have a certain amount of compliments in our possession. If we give lots of positive attention to a lot of people, we will run out of compliments and not have any left to give to the people we are very close to. So people get stingy with positive attention, like they do with money. We need to realize that the positive attention we have to give others is unlimited. If you give a friend a compliment or stroke, that does not take away from your boy/girl friend—you can still give your boy/girl friend compliments, too.
Positive Attention (Cont.)

We don't accept strokes or stroke ourselves because we have been taught that you get conceited if you get too many compliments. So sometimes we deny the little positive attention that comes our way, yet because we know we need some kind of attention, we end up asking and receiving negative attention. We are basically alone in this world and responsible for ourselves. And if we don't ask for positive attention from others or give it to ourselves, then we won't get it. We need to accept the responsibility for ourselves to see that our attention needs are being met.

We get attention for three kinds of things: for having, for doing, and for being.

We get attention for having things, like a new dress or new car. We get attention for doing things, like making good grades or doing well in athletics. We can also get attention for being, like being pretty or being understanding or being fun to be around. Most of the attention we get is for having or doing—getting attention for "being" a nice person, etc. is not as easy.

Write down a stroke for yourself for having: ________________________________

Now write down a stroke for yourself for doing: ________________________________

Write down a stroke for yourself for being: ________________________________
Stress is something that happens to us when we are feeling very emotional and usually nervous. We feel stressful when we have many changes in our lives that happen near the same time. Most everyone feels stress now and then. When we are feeling stressful, our bodies act in certain ways. Things that can happen are: your blood pressure rises, heart pumps faster, muscle tension increases, sugar and fats in blood increases, blood clotting time speeds up and adrenalin pours into the bloodstream. What is "adrenalin"?

Our emotional life can greatly influence our physical body. The results of all of these conditions are chronic hypertension, damaged heart muscle and blood vessels, fatty deposits in vessels, and possible reliance on drugs and alcohol. Our society, with its fast pace and many changes, helps cause people to have stress.

The attached handout (A) shows the different kinds of life changes and a point count. If a person has 200 points in one year, he or she is under a lot of stress. Study this chart to see how many stress points you have had in the last year.

There are ways to get over stressful situations so that they don't upset our physical bodies or our emotions. Discuss the (B) handout, "Cures for Stress." We have also discussed many ways of releasing emotions in ourselves.

Researchers who have studied people in stressful situations have found that taking care of yourself helps get rid of stress. People who did the following things had less stress than people who did not do these things.

1. got 7-8 hours sleep
2. ate balanced meals
3. ate breakfast-Hunger leads to stress. Never skip breakfast.
4. did not smoke
5. drank moderately
6. exercised at least 4 times a week, ½ hour each time
7. stayed near their proper weight
8. an anti-stress diet includes a lot of protein, is low in fats, additives and sugar, and is big on fresh fruits, vegetables and fiber.

Once again, taking good care of your physical, emotional and mental self will prevent many problems for you. There is nothing wrong with having feelings, but positive ones feel better and make us happier than over that don't feel so good. It is important to get rid of or to release uncomfortable feelings as fast as possible. You can do this by

1. Finding the origin of your feelings, i.e. "What is making me feel this way?"
2. How can I change this situation.
3. Release the emotions from yourself and replace them with happy feelings.

STRESS

Have you ever heard of the term, "stress"? What does it mean?
CURES FOR STRESS
(WHERE DO I START?)

Short Range or Preliminary Steps:

I. Who really owns the problem?
   Is it my problem, the situation, or is someone else truly
   causing it?

II. What will it cost me?
    $—relationship—work—change—etc.

III. Which stress can I realistically handle now?
    Where can I start and be successful?

IV. Decide to do something about it.
    Tell someone—a supportive person—write it down, or make
    a contract with yourself.

V. Begin getting in touch with yourself 3 or 4 times daily.

VI. Identify and be aware of your stress indicators.

VII. Let others know about it.
    husband/wife, boy or girl friend, co-workers, students, children, etc.

Long Range:

I. Develop a plan—re-plan.

II. Keep keeping in touch with yourself.

III. Stay away from tranquilizers and alcohol (as a cure!)

IV. Maintain a support system.

V. Physical exercise.

VI. Hobbies/Pleasure.
    Look at your priorities and act on them.

VII. Get organized.
    Time management, lesson plans, etc.

VIII. Develop techniques of relaxation.
    The Centering Book—Awareness Activities for Children, Parents
    and Teachers, Gay Hendricks and Russell Wills, Prentice-Hall, Inc.,
APPENDIX G

PEER PRESSURE WORKSHEETS
PEER PRESSURE/CONTROL

I. Peer Pressure -

People who are our age or that do similar kinds of things that we do, like working together or being in class together are called our "peers". When we are young children, we stay very close to our parents or relatives and we listen and do what they say because they are bigger than us and we count on them heavily for our safety, our food, our clothes, and where we live. We are dependent on our parents when we are small and this is normal. What does dependent mean?

As we grow up and become teenagers, we begin to separate from our parents and we begin to listen to other adults, like teachers or friends, and we listen to our peers, the people who are our age. We start becoming less dependent on our parents and we start becoming more independent and start having thoughts of our own that may be different from our parents or other adults. This is also a natural and normal part of growing up.

We sometimes listen to our friends instead of our parents. We begin to separate from our parents and begin listening and doing what our friends do. We can still love our parents and begin to have different ideas than they do. These changes sometimes cause arguments and conflicts in our family.

As we grow up, especially in our teenage years, we want to make a good impression with our friends so that they will remain our friends and support us. We have to be careful, however, not to do things that our friends want us to do if it is not good for us. It is very easy to be influenced by our friends, but it is important not to get in trouble because our friends want us to go along with them.

While it is important and fun to have friends, it is also important to think for ourselves and not always go along with our friends if it means not making a good decision and not taking good care of ourselves. Sometimes our friends will try to pressure us into doing things, by saying things like, "Oh, you're just a chicken" or "I dare you to do so and so". These are easy ways for us to get in trouble by not thinking about what is right for us.

We need to learn to LISTEN to our parents, because they have had many experiences that we can learn from; we need to listen to teachers, adult friends and listen to our friends. We also need to listen to OURSELVES. After we have listened to everyone, then we need to DECIDE FOR OURSELVES what we want to do in any situation.

Can you think of situations that have happened at school where a person went along with a friend's decision and then got into trouble? What was it?

Did this type of situation ever happen to you? Please explain.
II. Control

Control is an important part of responsibility. Look up "control" in the dictionary and write down the definition here:

There are times when we need to learn to control ourselves so that we will not hurt ourselves or other people. Self-control is like self-discipline. Just as parents discipline their children, so must we learn to control or discipline ourselves. Controlling ourselves does not mean we cannot have fun or have a good time. It means, however, that there are some things that we choose not to do. Even if we feel angry and we feel like hurting someone, we need to decide if this is really what is the best thing for us to do and then possibly decide to stop ourselves before acting. Each person has to decide how they are going to control themselves. Each person needs to ask himself or herself: Even though I feel like hurting someone or getting into trouble, is this action going to help me or hurt me in the long run?

Everyone has angry feelings at different times, with parents, sisters and brothers, relatives, boy and girl friends, teachers and employers. There is nothing wrong with being angry. The important thing is what we DO with our anger. When you get angry, do you hurt yourself, someone else or do you get into trouble? Can you control your temper?

What would happen if we didn't control ourselves? Brainstorm some ideas and write them below. Think of all the things we wish we didn't have to do.
PEOPLE WHO INFLUENCE YOU

There are probably many people who influence you. But some may influence you more than others. Here is a list of people. Rearrange the order of the people in the list, so the first person is the greatest influence on you, the second person is the next greatest influence, and so on. The last person is the one who influences you the least. Write the people next to the numbers. If there are other people who influence you, you can add them to the list, and put them next to the correct numbers. If there are any people in this list who do not influence you, you can leave them out.

1. father or mother
2. classmate
3. friend or parent
4. tv or movie star or rock singer
5. sister or brother
6. teacher
7. best friend
8. aunt or uncle
9. other
APPENDIX P

AUTHORITY FIGURES WORKSHEETS
In studying rules and laws, we need to understand what "authority" means. Using the dictionary, find the definition of "authority" and write it here:

People who have authority over certain things and actions of people are called "authority figures". Name some people that have authority over you.

If you said Teacher, Principals, parents, guardians, some adult relatives and employers, you were right. People who have authority are those that have more responsibility than other people. What is responsibility? Parents have a lot of responsibility because they are the ones that take care of the children. Employers have a lot of responsibility because they are the heads of a company or a department within a company, and they have to make sure everyone is doing their job and that everything is running smoothly. People in authority usually have a lot of responsibility.

When we are small, we believe and do almost everything the people in authority tell us to do, especially our parents and guardians. As we grow up, we often question or we do not believe what the people in authority are saying to us, and that we don't like. Sometimes we are asked to obey rules that we think are unfair or sometimes we have arguments or conflicts with Teachers and parents. When we start having conflicts with these "authority figures", this is known as being in a "power struggle", or struggling for power. In other words, who is going to win or who is right? Most of us have done this at one time or another with our parents.

"You do this."
"No I won't!"
"Yes, you will." Nobody gets anything settled this way, when they are in a "power struggle."

Questioning the truth of what people say and do is normal and a good thing to do. Questioning what authorities say and do is also normal. What we have to learn is how do we deal with or handle problems that come up with people who have authority over us so that we do not get in trouble or lose our jobs.

Do we curse the teacher out?
Do we scream and yell at our parents?
Do we tell our boss that we don't like something about him or her?

Again, how we handle our problems with people is the important thing.

Have you ever said or heard someone say, "You can't make me"? This is a statement that a person will say who is in a "power struggle" with whoever he or she is talking to. It is true that no one can make you do anything but you can choose to do the thing that is best for you in the long run.

The important thing is to love and take good care of yourself. If you do that, then you will learn to choose to do the best thing for you.
People in authority often upset us because we may think that they are unfair or that they do not understand us.

Is your taking good care of yourself when you:
1. Curse out a teacher?
2. Scream and yell at your parents?
3. Tell your boss that you don't like the way he handles his business?

The answer to this question is NO!

What could happen to you if:
1. You curse out a teacher?
2. Scream and yell at your parents?
3. Tell your boss that you don't like the way he handles his business?

Taking care of yourself means working out conflicts, problems and differences so that you don't get into power struggles. It is hard to work out problems when people are in power struggles.

People who are leaders often have authority. Everyone wants to be looked up to as a leader or a successful person or a person who has authority, or a person who is respected. Most everyone wants 'respect' and wants to be understood and appreciated. What does 'respect' mean?

Sometimes people who have 'authority' over us may help us be angry or upset. They may 'threaten' us. What does 'threaten' mean?

How do we feel when we are feeling threatened?

Sometimes people in authority upset us because they seem to 'throw their weight around'. What does this mean?

Sometimes it feels as if people who have 'authority' put other people down. Have you ever had these kinds of feelings about a person in authority? What was the situation?
"AUTHORITY FIGURES" (Cont.)

Sometimes people who have authority over us are caring people who want to be fair with everyone, but because they have certain responsibilities to take care of, they have to lead others and sometimes tell them what to do. Sometimes people who have authority will share some of their responsibilities and decisions with others with whom they work so that everyone can help make the decisions.

As you can see, there are many different kinds of ways that people can use their authority.

Name some types of jobs where people have authority over others. __________________________

What do you do when you get angry at someone who has authority over you? Do you get in trouble with your teachers, principals, parents or relatives? In other words, how do you deal with people who have authority so that you will not get in trouble?

There are some things we've already discussed in other lessons that apply here when talking about people who have authority over us. Here is a review:

1. It is alright to be angry, but it is important what actions we take when we are angry. It is important to take care of ourselves and not get into trouble. Do you believe it is being a 'sissy' or is it being smart and taking care of yourself to not get into fights, or name call or talk to people in authority such as teachers or employers?

2. What does 'conflict' mean? __________________________

What does 'negotiate' mean? __________________________

What does 'compromise' mean? __________________________

What is 'decision-making'? __________________________

It is much better to use these skills that you are learning such as how to negotiate, how to compromise, and how to make good decisions rather than getting into fights, name calling and breaking rules.

It is better to work out our problems rather than getting into "power struggles".

If we learn how to make good decisions, we usually do not get into trouble. Can you remember the decision-making steps that we have studied? What are they?
APPENDIX Q

HOW TO GET ALONG IN HIGH SCHOOL WORKSHEETS
**Introduction**

Many students do not like school. They think it is boring and a hassle. Some students feel that they are not learning anything important that will help them in their adult years. Some students like school. They enjoy the classes, they enjoy P.E. and clubs, and they enjoy being with their friends during the day. How do you feel about school?

There is a different way of looking at our school years. Going to school in grades K-12 is a learning time, a time for us to learn skills that will help us later. Some of these skills have nothing to do with material that is found in the textbooks. If you graduate from high school, you have hung in there for 12 or 13 years, or more through many teachers, some good ones, some not so good, some very boring classes, and some really good ones. If you successfully finish high school, you have developed the very important skills of:

1. **perseverance (define)**
2. **endurance (define)**
3. **patience (define)**
4. **tolerance (define)**
5. **self-discipline and/or self-control (define)**

There are other skills you have learned also, but learning these five skills will get you through many difficulties in life.

There is another important skill that we learn by going to school. Going to school, day in and day out, disciplines you for being able to handle and stay on a job. It is a training time for later employment. Let’s look at the similarities between going to school and going to work. (define similarity):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Job</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Have to go everyday or school staff starts calling home.</td>
<td>1. Have to go to work everyday or boss will wonder where you are and why you’re not working.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. You get grades.</td>
<td>2. You get a salary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. You have teachers and principals who have authority over you.</td>
<td>3. You have supervisors and a boss or employer who have authority over you.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
How To Get Along In Regular School

Introduction

School (Con't.)

4. If you're late, you might get hassled.
5. If you curse out a teacher, you might get suspended.
6. If you don't do your work, you get hassled or get low grades.

Job (Con't.)

4. If you are late, you get hassled or fired!
5. If you curse out a boss, you will probably get fired!
6. If you don't do your work, you get hassled, or you don't get a raise.

One difference in school and a job is that on a job, you get money to live on and so it is very important to keep your job. You may have a family to help support. Many people get fired from jobs because they do not control their mouth, they say inappropriate things to a boss or other workers. They may not show up for work. This kind of behavior can jeopardize your job. Some people never learn to control themselves and they suffer all sorts of consequences. This is why the school time is important for you. If you have trouble with handling anger, or controlling your temper, the school years are the time for working on these behaviors. Some people go from job to job, because they keep getting into trouble with their boss or they come in late or they don't show up for work. Many times bosses or employers are much more tough than teachers about (company) rules. Sometimes it can be a blessing to get a tough, but fair teacher, because he or she can help you work on your own behavior for later employment. How can a tough, but fair, teacher help you?

II. Now, let's move on to another area about school. Brainstorm below all the things that bother you about school. As the teacher writes these on the board, you write down on this paper, the ones that you agree with. Have fun with this exercise. Discuss your gripes, hassles, teachers, classes that you have had trouble with over the years. It may be true that some things that you may list are really unfair and some things are fair. That doesn't matter for this exercise. There are times when school, work or life in general are a hassle or boring. This is a fact of life. Your teacher can add his/her school experiences that caused her or him problems if she wishes, and then, how he/she handled the situation.

Brainstorm gripes and hassles about school:
Why Go To School Anyway?

I. Last time we compared working on a job with going to school. What are some other reasons for going to school? Discuss the Pros and Cons of going to school.

Will I finish high school?_______(yes or no or maybe). If not, what do I plan to do instead?

Will this take care of my money needs?

Almost everyone knows that people get better paying jobs if they have a high school degree because it shows the employer that you can 'hang in there' and get the job done, whether you like it or not! For this reason, employers look closely at high school degrees.

II. Did your parents or guardians finish high school?_______ We often follow in our parent's footsteps even when we don't know it. If they finished high school, then often we would finish high school. If they quit early, often we would be a copy of their actions. If your parents quit school early, and at first you want to quit too, can you change your mind and continue school?

III. Many students are truant. What does 'truancy' mean?

Have you ever been truant?_______ Brainstorm the reasons why people do not go to school. (examples: hassles at school, transportation problems). The more we are truant the more difficult it is to get on a schedule of going to school everyday. Sometimes we have to push ourselves to make ourselves take good care of ourselves. We need to develop our will and willpower in order to get things done.

IV. How do students act who don't get into trouble?

What are they like?

Do I want to start doing some of the things that they do?

Do I do these things already?

Which things do I do?
Why Go To School Anyway? (Con't.)

V. Go over the rules at your school and write on board. Can you handle these rules?

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

Which ones are hard for you?

________________________________________________________________________

Which ones are easy?

________________________________________________________________________

Have class work for solutions for helping students follow the rules that are difficult to follow.

Am I Going To Finish High School?

We've looked at school in this unit. Sometimes school is fun; sometimes it isn't; just as life, or work or being married is not always fun. Have you thought about if you are going to finish high school or not? Let's look at the pros and cons of finishing high school, for you.

Pros | Cons
---|---
1. | 1. 
2. | 2. 
3. | 3. 
4. | 4.

If you don't finish high school, what are you going to do?

________________________________________________________________________

Will you live at home or will you live on your own?

________________________________________________________________________

Will you need to get a job? What kind of job?

________________________________________________________________________

Some students go to a trade school if they leave high school. In our school district, you can learn a trade in school and also finish high school, and get your degree, which will make it easier for you to get a job later.

Can you make a decision now about finishing high school?

________________________________________________________________________

Do you have enough information to make a good decision?

________________________________________________________________________

Using the decision-making steps discussed in other units, practice making a decision about finishing high school:
APPENDIX R

THE SOCIETY GAME WORKSHEETS
THE SOCIETY GAME - INTRODUCTION

We have discussed the different roles that each person plays in our lives; we play roles such as student, teacher, family member, son, daughter, cousin, friend, employer and employee.

We have been taught and know it is important to use good manners such as being polite, courteous and respectful to other people. Having good manners is using common sense. When we are nice to people, even people who have not been very nice to us, people will often change and return our kindness. Try this for yourself and see if it works for you.

What does 'society' mean?

What do you think 'The Society Game' means?

When we use the word 'Game' here, it means the same thing as playing a role. Playing a game or playing a role. There are school roles or games, job roles or games and Society roles or games. In our families, we have roles of father, mother, daughter, son, aunt, etc. role. When people are at home, they may dress in casual, comfortable clothes like jeans and tee shirts or older clothes. You usually don’t dress up just to stay around the house. Sometimes, when you go to a party, go to work, go to church, you wear more dressy clothes because that is a 'society' rule. To get along 'out in the real world,' we need to know the society rules so that we can play the Society Game when we need to. All successful people know how to play some of society’s games. This is natural and important. Everyone can learn these rules; it just takes a little practice.

It is important in society to be kind and polite to people. It is important to be able to speak correct, grammatical English to your employer. That doesn’t mean you have to speak proper English at home or to your friends, but when out in public, it is important to be able to 'put on the dog,' to be able to dress up, use good manners, and be polite. We have discussed manners in another unit. Using good manners is an important society rule.

If you want to get a job, you need to understand the rules of getting a job. If you want to make a good impression on people, which could help you get a raise or a promotion from your employer, then it is important to learn these skills.

There are a few steps in learning the society game:

WHAT DO YOU WANT?

1. First of all, you need to decide what you want in your life that has to do with being out with other people in Society. Here are some examples of things you might want: A good job, a nice house and car, clothes, a happy family life, enough money to take care of entertainment and other needs. Write down here the things that you want to have happen in your life as you grow up.
How are you going to get these things for yourself?

We have discussed how to get these things for yourself more in detail when we talked about goal-setting in another unit.

2. After you know what you want, then you need to decide how you are going to get what you want. A thing is for sure, in order to have a comfortable life, everyone needs to know how to make money. People make money out in the work-world, in society. How are you going to make money? Do you have a rich aunt who just died and left you a million dollars? Most of us don't have rich aunts who have left us a million dollars.

Most of us have to work and learn a skill that we are good at in order to make money. Many people think they can get rich quick. This doesn't happen very often. Learning a skill that can help us earn money is like having a firm solid foundation under a house. It is very necessary for the house's stability and our stability. What does stability mean?

It feels very good to learn a skill or trade and be really good at it; like being an excellent carpenter, welder, electrician, business manager, supervisor, business executive, doctor or landscape designer, to name a few job skills. We feel good on the inside when we know that we are really needed and are accomplishing something worthwhile. Our reward for learning a trade and being good at it is 1) it feels good to be good at a skill and 2) we make money for the excellent job we are doing.

3. Many people feel that society is out to cut us down, to make us feel as if we have failed. If you look at society differently, you may see that we can learn to use society to get what we want and need and do it in a way that is good for us and good for society.

Here are some ways to be successful in society; some things you can do to get what you want out of life. In order to be successful and to earn money, a person must:

1. Finish high school or learn a trade that will get a person a job. This is called job training. Sometimes you can get job training in the schools or after you are hired by a company. The company will train you and pay you at the same time.

2. Know and practice what society expects as far as manners out in public; how to act on buses, at church, at work, restaurants and all public places, at meetings etc.

3. Know how to get a job; from finding the job, to interviewing with the employer.

Can you think of anything else that helps us be successful within society?
BEATING THE SYSTEM

We have talked about society and how to get what you want in society by learning a few rules, such as manners.

Learning a trade or finishing school or getting a good job takes a lot of effort and often hard work. After a person has succeeded in finishing school or learning a trade or getting a good job, he or she can feel proud that he or she has worked hard and the hard work has paid off for them.

Some people do not feel that work or effort is important. Some people think that the world owes them a living or that "Beating the system" is the best thing to do. What does "Beating the system" mean?

People who try to get something for nothing are people who are trying to "beat the system." Some people feel that society is unfair and that every person should be out for themselves and that working with society's rules is not important. Some people believe in "ripping off" the system, of "milking" the system. People who feel this way are people who break laws such as thieves, con artists, drug dealers. Can you think of any others?

These people do not value working within the legal limits of society. They are willing to take from others what belongs to others. They have no feeling that they are taking away from others or that they work against the laws of society. These people are often called "leeches." What is a 'leech'?

Leeches or con artists take no responsibility for themselves. Instead, they feed off of others. They are not "paying their dues." Taxpayers pay a lot of money each year for police, equipment, salaries for people who try to stop the con artists and people breaking the rules. Taxpayers (your parents and grown-ups) pay for upkeep of the prisons too.

Some people think that it is "cool" to break the law or to 'rip other people off'. How do you feel about this?

Some people do not want to put out the hard work and effort that it takes to either finish school, learn a trade or to get a job. So, they "milk" society instead.

There are consequences to ripping off the system. What are they?

There are consequences to working hard and pushing yourself towards accomplishing your successful goals. What are they?
Sometimes it may seem easier to become a con artist or thief than come up the hard way within the 'system'. Sometimes people we know and/or love may feel that cheating and stealing is the best thing to do. Do you know anyone who feels this way?

Can you care for someone without believing the same thing that they do?

This can be hard. It is important to stick to our own positive beliefs and values even if our friends believe differently. You may be able to help them change their beliefs.

We talked in an earlier unit about freedom and responsibility. There is no real freedom without responsibility. Criminals in prison have no freedom because they have assumed no responsibility by trying to cheat or rip people off. They may not have learned to control themselves. How do you feel about making money illegally or through the misfortune of others?

You may just be developing your ideas or beliefs about this, but these beliefs are very important to you, because your later actions will depend upon your beliefs about you and society.

It is important to love ourselves. We cannot give to others (like love) if we do not feel that love for ourselves. After we love and help ourselves, then we can love and help others and others are SOCIETY.
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