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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is, first, to identify the specific problems and characteristics of the disadvantaged student and, second, to suggest ways in which the school counselor can assist the disadvantaged student toward deriving the optimum benefit from public education.

A REVIEW OF THE PROBLEMS OF, AND A PROGNOSIS

FOR, THE DISADVANTAGED STUDENT

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In Partial Fulfillment

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Master of Arts in Education

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by

Mary Ellen Warbasse

May, 1984

This Research Paper by: Mary Ellen Warbasse

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> A REVIEW OF THE PROBLEMS OF, AND A PROGNOSIS FOR, THE DISADVANTAGED STUDENT

has been approved as meeting the research paper requirements for the

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Chapter One

INTRODUCTION

The obligation to meet the needs of the disadvantaged is strongly
stated by the Old Testament writer, Isaiah in a work dating back to
742-687 b.c. Isaiah attacked social injustice as that most indicative of
man's tenuous relationship to God.

To quote Isaiah 58:6

> Is this not the fast I choose: ...
> Is it not to share your bread with the hungry,
> and bring the homeless poor into your house;
> when you see the naked, to cover him...
> (May and Metzger, Ed., 1962 [p 895])

The Old Testament concern for the disadvantaged was echoed in
the example and words of Jesus in the New Testament book of Matthew
in Chapters 25 and 26 in which Jesus said that at the judgment he will
say,

> Come ye blessed of my father inherit the kingdom prepared for
> you from the foundation of the world; for I was hungry and you
> gave me food, I was thirsty and you gave me drink, I was a
> stranger and you welcomed me, I was naked and ye clothed me ...
> Truly I say to you, as you did it to one of the least of these my
> brethren, you did it to me. (p. 1206)

Failure to do these things, Jesus continued, will result in eternal
damnation. Historically, man did not prove up to the task.

Help appeared from political, social and educational disciplines
which displayed an almost universal concern for the needs of the people
on the lowest rung of the socio-economic ladder. A variety of
responses as to how we must deal with the problem confused us, yet

there is unanimous agreement that the problem is vast, multi-faceted and complicated (Pringle, 1965; Reissman, 1962).

Bloom, Davis and Hess (1965); and Pringle (1973) pointed to studies done and experimental programs run, from which important facts were gleaned: the disadvantaged child, in addition to often having a domestic environment that was not growth facilitating, also lived in a home providing negative influence. Their conclusion: in order for the young student from the disadvantaged home to compete when entering public school, preschool experiences in education were called for (Bloom, Davis, Hess, 1965)

However, further studies showed that the public school offered little encouragement to the disadvantaged student; due, in part, to a conflict of values held by teacher and pupil, and the lack of mutual understanding (Davidson and Lang, 1960; Haller and Davis, 1981). As George Hyrom (1962), Mia Pringle (1975) and Bloom, et al (1965) stated, the disadvantaged student often entered school with a negative self-image and thus was programmed more for failure than success. A positive self-concept was needed. (Davidson and Lang, 1960). And they concluded, teachers and educators needed to assume more responsibility.

From the Higher Horizons Project in New York (1954) and the Youth Project of Champaign, Illinois (1966), came a revolutionary idea. For schools to be successful in working with the disadvantaged, they needed to change their method of operation. It appeared that growth occurred when the individual's unique interests were used to motivate learning; when parents were involved in the process; when work was done to improve self-esteem; and when positive attention resulted in the

"Hawthorne effect". That effect, discovered during the now famous Western Electric experiments, revealed that "the very setting up of experimental groups is often sufficient to produce the desired results". (Riessman, 1962, p. 103)

The most recent study germane to the present research topic came from Harvard Professor Richard B. Freeman (1983) and the National Bureau of Economic Research, Cambridge, Mass. (1983). He stated that dramatic correlations exist between the ability to escape the poverty cycle and the factor of church attendance. This one factor seemed related to all positive behaviors studied, while negative time-allottment-behavior was correlated to dependency on welfare (Freeman, 1983).

The disadvantaged learner may differ from his/her middle class teacher and counselor in both attitudes and values. An understanding of those differences and their causes will also be of major importance to the educator.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this paper is, first, to identify the specific problems and characteristics of the disadvantaged student and, second, to suggest ways in which the school counselor can assist the disadvantaged student toward deriving the optimum benefit from public education.

Importance of the Study

The importance of this study is that it will provide a closer look at the unique problems of the disadvantaged and it will attempt to provide

both a basis for understanding the individual disadvantaged student and a framework for narrowing the gap between him/her and the middle class. In order for the school counselor to provide growth assistance, he or she may need to be re-educated as to the diagnosis and prognosis concerning the disadvantaged student. Ultimately, the results of this study could have an effect on the future for the disdvantaged student to be better served by Iowa schools . The study represents an attempt by this writer to integrate research findings, and personal experience as Head Start social worker and Special Needs Counselor, in order to offer a plan for change.

Assumptions

This research was entered into with the assumption that the disadvantaged face a plethora of problems having a negative effect on their ability to function in a way that will allow them to derive maximum benefit from the public school system.

1. It was assumed that the failure to find successful ways of meeting their most basic needs would result in the inability of the disadvantaged to proceed toward self-actualization. Some of these problems were assumed to deal with unmet psyiological needs such as those relating to proper nutrition, with its resultant problems of illness, physical impairment, etc., and to such things as lack of sleep and inadequate hygiene. The cognitive process is hampered by inability to concentrate due to fatigue, hunger, and poor physical development. Psychomotor abilities are touched by the same factors; reading problems (resulting from psychomotor deficiencies) show a correlation with disadvantage. The affect, feelings, attitudes and

values, are again adversly affected by circumstances relating to economic deprivation.

2. The second assumption was that self-esteem suffers as a result of failure to experience success in meeting both basic needs and expectations of self, parents, teachers and peers. The negative self-concept results in the acquisition of behavior that further impedes progress in education and self-actualization. Specifically this behavior includes acting-out, drug addiction, dropping out, or merely getting by, until the educational system ejected the individual in one way or another.

3. The third assumption was that the educational system, rather than offering opportunities for successful experiences appeared to play a part in the failure process. Teacher, principal and counselor attitudes, values and expectations were in conflict with those of the disadvantaged student, resulting in a subtle, yet almost insurmountable, barrier to their breaking out of the lower end of the caste system.

4. The final basic assumption was that success in the process toward self-actualization is possible for the disadvantaged student. Provisions for bringing about a change in self-concept and success experiences would be pivotal points in any program demonstrating marked progress in education of the disadvantaged, and that teacher/counselor/principal expectations were crucial to this success.

Limitations

The greatest limitation facing this writer was lack of current material addressing the problems of the disadvantaged learner. The major portion of the research data was from ten to twenty years old.

A further limitation was the variety of terms used to describe this population of deprived, disadvantaged people. Indeed, there was a shortage of high quality, well documented information on the topic. In short, few empirical studies addressed the results of counseling the disadvantaged student.

Definition of Terms

A plethora of terms have evolved in the public sector to define people who are recipients of social service, social welfare, and special needs educational services. Some of the relevant and related terms are:

Disadvantaged - The term disadvantaged, for the purposes of this paper, refers to the social, cultural and educational factors which are the result of economic deprivation as defined by the Community Service Agency guidelines. Being poor dictates one's housing and therefore one's social and physical environment. These conditions influence one's community and self-identity, physiological growth and attitudes.

The definition is not specifically inclusive regarding racial or ethnic factors, but does relate to these minorities when they are members of the economically disadvantaged class.

Economically Disadvantaged - The economically disadvantaged person is one whose existence knows severe material deprivation or poverty, resulting in many unfilled physiological needs.

Educationally Disadvantaged - The educationally disadvantaged person is one who has been deprived of the rudiments of basic education. He or she is unable to read, write, speak and compute in a manner required to effectively function in school or society.

Deprived - The dictionary definition of deprive is to take something from, withhold. The deprived person has had withheld from him/her the benefits of housing, safety, education that are held by the middle class.

Self-concept - The system of attitudes and beliefs one has formed regarding himself due to experience with, and feedback from, others.

Self-esteem - The level of regard or value one has for himself/herself.

Chapter Two

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

It is the purpose of this study to identify areas in which a disadvantaged student may need special assistance for growth enhancement. In order for the school counselor to assist the disadvantaged student toward educational growth, it is important for the counselor to be aware of the unique problems faced by many disadvantaged students.

This chapter concerns itself with delineation of specific problems associated with being disadvantaged. It looks at some successful programs for the disadvantaged student.

Traits Associated With Poverty

There is consensus that conditions of poverty accompany other factors. According to Amos and Grambs (1968) these are: weakness of the capacity to defer gratification; difficulty in orientation to the future; apathy; hostility; suspiciousness; inability to cope with changing circumstances.

Remmers, Horton and Lysgaard (1956) added to this list: extremely high or low levels of aspiration. Karnes, Zehrbach & Jones (1971) pointed out that the disadvantaged, as well as having all the preceding traits, differ from the middle class in some of the following areas: self-concept, motivation, social behavior, language, interest and physical fitness. These experts agreed that these areas - in which the disadvantaged differ from the middle class - tended to serve as barriers

to their entrance into a meaningful place in school (Haller and Davis, 1981; Sexton, 1961); or in the work force (Krantz, 1965; Karnes, et al, 1971; Amos and Grambs, 1968).

Weakness in the power to defer gratification and difficulty in orientation to the future referred to by Amos and Grambs (1968), may be caused by the failure to have the most basic physiological and safety needs met (Maslow, 1954; Bloom and Davis, 1971). Robertson and Slosser (1982) and Maltz (1960) regard them as "spiritual" problems.

The Freeman Report

The most recent study regarding disadvantaged youth and the means of bringing about change appeared in 1983, and was published by Harvard Professor Richard Freeman (1983) in conjunction with the National Bureau of Economic Research (NBER). This study looked at how the disadvantaged youth allocated his/her time. Data from the 1979-1981 National Longitudinal Survey of Young Men (N.L.S.), sample size 2,358, and from the 1979-80 National Bureau of Economic Research-Mathematics survey of inner-city youth, sample size 4,961, pointed strongly toward similar conclusions - that positive behavior correlated strongly with church attendance. Freeman's empirical analysis arrived at four conclusions: first, the pattern of statistical results suggested that at least some part of the church-going effect is the result of an actual causal impact that cannot be attributed to good attitudes held by church-going youth, nor to those youths having better market opportunities than others. Second, the diverse background factors examined did not appear to have comparable effects on various outcomes. Third, other background factors that influence

who escaped the poverty cycle were whether other members of the family work and whether the family was on welfare. Fourth, perceptions of market opportunities (real or imagined) had an effect on behavior. Those persons who believed that if they looked for a job they would find one, were involved in more socially productive activities.

Consistent with other current population data (Freeman and Medoff, 1980) the NBER data revealed that the low employment rate of the disadvantaged is due as much to low labor participation as to high unemployment. One's outlook seems to be related to one's productivity.

Might outlook or attitude be linked to church attendance? A closer look at Freeman's (1983) data analysis might be wise here. Freeman, to determine whether or not background factors are important determinants as to which of the inner city deprived youths escape from "the potential pathologies" of inner city slums, estimated least squares regressions linking the outcome variables to the background variables. Second, he transformed the categorical variables into Z-scores on the assumption that they reflect an underlying normal distribution. Freeman's calculations seemed to reveal statistically significant impacts of both church attendance and welfare dependence. In Freeman's sample, church going invariably raised the amount of time a youth spends on productive activity, while living in a welfare home invariably increased time spent on non-productive activities. One of the most impressive factors in this study done by Mr. Freeman (1983) was that the analysis revealed that the major effect of church going is to influence or reinforce the individual's decision to allot his time to activities with a future payoff (and less in improving his immediate employment opportunities).

Furthermore, Freeman's (1983) specific statistics regarding church attendance revealed that, among disadvantaged youth, illegal activities were reduced by 20%, drug use by 23%, alcohol use by 15%. School attendance was increased 9% over that of non churchgoers. For out-of-school youths, churchgoers revealed a 6% advantage in employment, a 25% increase in wages, and an annual income rate 47% higher than non church attendees.

Freeman (1983) observed that various factors of background have differential effects on different variables. For example, gang membership in the above study was found to have a strong correlation with deviant activity. One can see the cause-effect relationship in this instance in that gangs promote deviant activities. On the other hand, the impact of the proportion of working adults in a household produced mixed effects. This factor seemed to increase deviant behavior but still improved the labor market position of the youth. Various background factors, then, seemed to operate in distinct and reasonable ways.

Freeman's(1983) data supported the idea that one may be able to isolate factors having a positive influence on youths' behavior from factors having a negative impact. The home environment, as seen in this study, is a most influential factor in a person's life. Within that environment appear a number of independent factors such as working mother, number of persons in family, welfare status all relating each in their own way to influence a young person's behavior.

Experimental Programs

A work of paramount importance to the education of the disadvantaged student is the Higher Horizons Project conducted in 1956. This experiment in the education of the disadvantaged student was cited in resource after resource, for example, Amos & Grambs (1968), and Sheetzer & Stone (1971). It took place at Junior High Number 43 in New York City, a school located in the slums of Manhattan. The average I.Q. of its student body was 80. Less than 40% of the students graduated from high school. The aim of the experiment was to convince the students that they could achieve. The program incorporated remedial classes, intensive counseling, parent involvement and extensive after school and cultural involvement. The results of the experiment were impressive. They included: increased attendance, significant I.Q. gains and graduation from high school and college by many more of its students. The impact of this project produced a ripple effect in much of the literature in education and sociology.

As Riessman (1962) pointed out in his evaluation of the Higher Horizon Project, disadvantaged students have been neglected by our school systems and this neglect has been a decisive one in regard to their performance (Reissman, 1962). Haller and Davis (1981), Bloom, et al (1965) agreed and further blamed the system for compounding the problem.

From studies previously mentioned, and subsequent follow-up studies and analyses, as the "Youth Project" of Champaign, Ill. (Karnes, Zehrbach, Jones and McGregor, 1966), it was found that

schools, to be successful in working with the disadvantaged, needed to change their method of operation. Growth occurred when the individual's unique interests were used to motivate learning, when parents were involved in the process; when work was done to improve self-esteem; and when positive attention resulted in the "Hawthorne effect".

Family Environment and Influence

If we are going to involve the parents of the disadvantaged student in the educational process, we need to look seriously at the problems facing the hard-core disadvantaged family. The Higher Horizon Project results suggest it unwise to ignore the family unit and counsel only individuals.

Concerning the importance of parental role in forming the child's psychological development Mia Pringle (1975), in The Needs of Children, writes:

> The quality of family relationships exerts a profound
> and lasting influence on children's psychological
> development. The family which is able and equipped to
> carry out its parental tasks consistently and
> successfully gives a sense of security, of companionship,
> and belonging to each of its members; it also
> bestows a sense of purpose and direction, of achievement
> and of personal worth. For the child it is of unique
> importance because it mediates between him and the world
> at large, providing a buffer, a filter, a bridge. It thus
> fulfils the irreplaceable function of laying the basis
> for the adjustment of the individual within society.
> The capacity for integration, cooperation and
> creativity has its roots in family living. (p. 60)

The question to be considered is: how does the family of the disadvantaged function and does it fulfill its tasks as Pringle (1975)

stated? Let us look at the hard-core deprived family first. David

Burgest (1982) describes it as follows:

> Characteristic of the disadvantaged, deprived,
> hard-core families are passive acceptance and a
> sense of resignation in dealing with persons
> associated with power structures, that is, stores,
> schools, welfare, and so forth. Even when an
> active role is taken, the parent often feels that
> chance is the major factor. This is related to
> poor self-image and to expectations of criticism
> and punishment.
>
> In the disorganized homes, actions are inconsistent.
> Activities are very largely impulse-determined, so that,
> psychologically, there is an absence of internalization
> of both clear ideas and consistent, flexible controls.
> One day a mother may stay in bed until noon and
> insist her children do likewise, or permit the
> children to run around unsupervised. The next day
> the mother may be up at six o'clock, feed and
> dress the children, and have the house in order by
> 8:30. Children and adults are never sure what
> to expect. (p. 154)

As Burgest (1982) pointed out, some of the problems facing the

hard-core disadvantaged child are feelings of resignation and

powerlessness, poor self-image and inconsistent rules, schedules and

expectations. This description is hardly one that would offer the

"buffer from the world at large" or the consistent, quality family

relationships needed for healthy psychological and social development.

Pringle (1973), too, deals with this subject regarding low-income

parents' skills in parenting and their relationship to family conditions.

She said that it is much more difficult to meet children's psychological

needs in circumstances of severe socio-economic strain. Pringle went

on to say that many of these parents were themselves rejected in

childhood. She believed that the security needs of these children

suffer because parental behavior is unpredictable and contradictory.

Furthermore, punishment may be an outlet for frustration and anger.

She further asserted that the very circumstances causing these children
to need an outpouring of reassuring love keep their parents in a state
of anxiety and helplessness rendering them unable to offer that love.
Social and psychological development due to frequent parental failure to
meet the child's needs are the beginning of many other problems that
compound almost exponentially. (Maslow, 1954; Pringle, 1973. Pringle
stated:

> The disadvantages of belonging to a large, low
> income family are further magnified by the
> consequences of suffering from other associated
> short comings. The parents' education, parental
> interest shown in the child's scholastic progress,
> housing, play space, household amenities such as
> indoor sanitation or running hot water. All these
> and many other circumstances are more frequently
> unfavorable in such homes. Furthermore, a whole
> range of adverse factors is often found together
> so that the resulting consequences on the child's
> development are in most cases both multiple and
> interrelated. (Pringle, 1973, p. 110)

The psychological stresses and physical hardships faced by the
young disadvantaged child's parents cause them to be unable to give
the child the love and emotional support needed. Thus the young child
in the disadvantaged home suffers psychologically and socially from the
unreliable and unpredictable environment offered to him by his
over-burdened parents causing what Roeber (1968) called an "incubator
of psychopathology".

Since parents tend to discipline their children in the same way
they were disciplined as children (Gordon, 1976; and Gilmartin, 1979) it
is necessary to break the cycle of negative discipline found in many
low-income homes from generation to generation. Warmth and
acceptance-democratic treatment is most growth facilitating according to
Baldwin, (1954). Proper discipline is needed in order for children to

develop internal self-control and efficiency (Gilmartin, 1979). This is supported by Dodson (1970) who also believes proper discipline is necessary for future independence.

In contrast to this warm, democratic atmosphere, the low-income disadvantaged child has likely suffered from extremes of corporal punishment. Authorities on the subject of discipline view corporal punishment as negative in its effects (Dreikurs, 1964; Langdon, Stout, 1952; Gordon, 1976; Gilmartin, 1979; Dodson, 1974).

In counseling the young child, parents need to be included in the counseling process. Programs such as Parent Effectiveness Training (P.E.T.) can offer help to parents who are having problems with discipline.

The child who is the product of a disadvantaged low-income home has a number of problems that must be recognized and dealt with if success in social and educational settings is to be realized. Some of these problems are physiological and stem from improper nutrition and diseases affecting growth and development (Davie, 1972, Wedge and Prosser, 1973). Educational and psychological development are hampered as well.

The importance of proper nutrition for the birth and growth of a healthy baby are impossible to overstate. The child born into a low income home often suffers from the effects of poor nutrition and sanitation.(Pringle, 1973). The handicapping effects (of large low-income family membership) begin before birth and affect subsequent physical, psychological and educational development (Davie, 1972; National Children's Bureau (Great Britain), 1972; Prosser, 1972; Wedge and Prosser, 1973).

Pringle (1973) pointed out that there is universal agreement in the medical community that poor maternal health and nutrition retard proper fetal development. Chronic malnutrition in early childhood has been linked to mental retardation. Studies note high correlation of mental retardation to neighborhoods comprised of economically deprived persons. In some low-income neighborhoods up to 40% of school aged children were diagnosed as retarded. (Onontoga Study, New York, 1955).

An abundance of statistical evidence indicates that children in low income families have many physiological needs that are far from being satisfied in their home life (Bloom, Davis, Hess, 1965). From these unfilled needs emerge a greater incidence of the physical conditions, illnesses and diseases that are usual concomitants of poverty. Among these debilitating conditions are malnutrition, impaired hearing, defective vision, dental problems, parasitic invasions, fatigue - and a host of others (Bloom, et al, 1965).

Few would disagree with the contention that the prior satisfaction of these basic physiological needs is necessary before any child can become interested in, or even able, to carry out the higher mental functions of human learning (Bloom, Davis, Hess, 1965; Maslow, 1954).

The physical issues previously pointed out: illness, disease, malnutrition, impaired hearing, defective vision, dental problems, parasitic invasions, fatigue, and mental retardation all due to inadequate nutrition are, as stated by Bloom, et al (1965), factors which impede learning. Abraham Maslow (1954) states in his interesting and well-known published work Motivation and Personality:

> Undoubtedly these physiological needs are the most
> preportent of all needs. What this means specifically
> is that in the human being who is missing everything
> in life in an extreme fashion, it is most likely that
> the major motivation would be the physiological needs
> rather than any others. A person who is lacking food,
> safety, love and esteem would most probably hunger for
> food more strongly than for anything else. (Maslow, 1954, p.
> 105)

As counselors we must be aware of these implications for learning
and for counseling. Here, Maslow (1954), as Isaiah and Jesus before
him, drew a link between the purely physical repercussions of hunger
to the areas of education, values and social interaction, all are
influenced by this need. More will be said concerning Maslow later;
but for now, let us center attention on concerns that regard learning.

The government run preschool education program, Head Start, was
begun to help eliminate the gap faced by children of the disadvantaged
as they entered school. This program sought to help in all areas of
the child's development - meals, educational experiences, physical care
involving exercise, innoculation, vision and hearing tests, physicals,
parental involvement and counseling were all provided to help the child
compete on the level of the middle class child. From its inception,
Head Start aimed at dealing with all the problems that handicap the
low-income child. It is not the purpose of this paper to do a detailed
analysis or critique of Head Start, its existence is noted here to
illuminate the fact that low-income and poor educational achievement run
hand in hand. Although one can debate the reason for this, the
acknowledgement of this as truth is almost universal. (Maslow, 1954;
Bloom, et al, 1965; Davie, 1973; Kennedy, Van DeRiet, White, 1961).

To continue, there are at least four basic areas that have an
impact on the educational problems of the disadvantaged. First, there is

little motivation to learn when dominated by hunger or safety needs, or when ill (Maslow, 1954; Bloom, et al, 1965). Second, hearing and visual impairment are barriers to communication and learning (Martin Deutsch, 1963). Third, parental role models have deficiencies regarding speech and language development and educational achievement (Havinghurst, 1967). Fourth, teacher bias impedes the disadvantaged child's progress (Davis and Haller, 1981).

The parental role model in education is either an important asset or a handicap. The child from a low income family, is often faced with the latter. As Robert Havinghurst (1967) stated in Education and Social Crisis (Keach, Fulton and Gardner, Ed.):

> The family of the disadvantaged offer few opportunities
> for language development at a highly developed level
> of speech, vocabulary and sentence structure and poor
> educational example or opportunities. (p. 25)

Martin Duetsch's studies found that "these families' children tend to have inferior auditory discrimination, visual discrimination, and judgment concerning time, numbers and other basic concepts." He found this not to be due to physical characteristics - eyes, brain, ears - but to inferior habits of hearing, seeing and thinking (Deutsch, 1963).

In Britain, a government study, The National Child Development Study, found that seven year olds from working class homes (social class IV) were fifteen times as likely to be unable to read as children from social class I - a professional home. The same study revealed that teacher recommendation for the benefits of special education were forty-five times greater than for children from upper class homes. Reading attainment of students from lower class homes was found by

Davie (1973) to be four years behind their upper class counter parts by age seven. By age eleven the gap had widened to eight years (Davie, 1973; National Children's Bureau, 1972).

This last statistic seems to put the finger on a large part of the problem. The parents of the child from a disadvantaged home have experienced their own educational failures and though they would like their children to do better than they, the poor example they set causes a further disadvantage for their child and they are helpless to remedy the problem. Their feelings of failure and helplessness cause them further anger which is often vented on the child (Karnes, Zehlerbach & Jones, 1971).

Obviously, when a child has auditory and visual discrimination problems, unmet physical needs and a poor educational example in the home, he/she enters school with some serious problems. How does the school respond to help solve the problems?

Emil Haller and Sharon Davis (1981) wrote about their study findings concerning parental social status and teaching perceptions. They found that status-linked perceptions were important determinants of curriculum placement decisions. In 40% of the cases studied, teachers commented on family background. Haller and Davis (1981) determined that when teacher judgment was used as the determining factor in reading group placement, there was a 20% increase in correlation of group placement to economic status.

Warner, Havinghurst and Loeb (1944) also investigated school tracking and social economic status. While their findings clearly found a correlation, the causes and its meaning remain in dispute. Further studies by Bowles and Gentis (1976) attribute a relationship to class

bias that exists within the educational setting, while Alexander, Cook and McDill (1978) concluded that poor school performance arises because of the home's influence on other variables such as achievement and aspiration.

The Role of Self-Esteem

The preceding pages indicate that the child from a low socio-economic family has many negative experiences. This negative input received by the disadvantaged child certainly has strong implications for the development of his or her self-concept.

The disadvantaged child then is often growing up in an environment in which his most basic needs in life are not being dependably met. What results is a person with a great, gaping need. As Bloom, et al (1965) observed:

> This general attitudinal orientation can do much to give
> the child a self-fulfilling prophecy in which he
> expects to be frustrated in meeting his basic needs
> and in turn his expectations determine his views
> about himself and his environment. This prophecy
> which is repeatedly verified, has basic consequences
> on personality and character. (Bloom, et al 1965, p. 172)

Self-esteem and self-actualization can take place only when the physiological, safety and love needs are met. If we look again to Maslow (1954), it seems that Shertzer and Stone's (1971) monograph is correct in the placement of the disadvantaged on the lower three levels of the hierarchy. Maslow (1954) says this about the esteem needs:

> All people in our society (with a few pathological exceptions)
> have a need or desire for a stable, firmly based, usually high
> evaluation of themselves, for self-respect, or self-esteem, and
> for the esteem of others. These needs may therefore be
> classified into two subsidiary sets. These are, first, the
> desire for strength for achievement, for adequacy, for mastery
> and competence, for confidence in the face of the world, and
> for the desire for reputation or prestige (defining it as

respect or esteem from other people), status, dominance, recognition, attention, importance, or appreciation....

Satisfaction of the self-esteem need leads to feelings of self-confidence, worth, strength, capability, and adequacy of being useful and necessary in the world. But thwarting of these needs produces feelings of inferiority, of weakness, and of helplessness. (Maslow, 1954, p. 90)

It cannot be denied that these needs are extremely important to psychological development. Where does the disadvantaged student usually find him or herself? Pringle says some rather pertinent things.

Unfortunately, praise and recognition are almost invariably given for achievement and not for effort. In consequence this need is most readily and often satisfied in the case of the intelligent, healthy, adjusted and attractive children (who are even praised merely for their pleasing appearance).

In contrast, the intellectually slow, the culturally disadvantaged, the emotionally neglected or disturbed get far less, if any, praise and recognition. Yet their need is very much greater.

Of course, no environment guarantees high achievement or consigns children irrevocably to low achievement. But a much higher proportion with unrealized potential will be found among certain sectors, social classes, ethnic groups and geographic... (Pringle, 1973, p. 153)

For those with these self-esteem needs unmet at home, in school, and among peers, there is a tendency to slump into a mire of low self-esteem with fear of failure leading to low aspirations and apathy. Certainly this is not the picture of a person capable of becoming self-actualized. How can this man strive to become all of which he is capable?

Maxwell Maltz (1960) in his book Psycho-Cybernetics explains the self-image in these terms:

The new science of "Cybernetics" has furnished us with convincing proof that the so-called "subconscious mind" is not a "mind" at all but a goal-striving "servo-mechanism" consisting of the brain and nervous system, which is used by

and directed by mind. (Maltz, 1960, p. 12)

He goes on to say that if this servo-mechanism pictures success goals it serves as a success mechanism and if presented with negative goals it operates as a failure mechanism. If Maltz (1960), and Pringle (1973) are correct, then for the most part, the disadvantaged have been programmed to expect failure, which, they therefore experience.

This popular theory of Maltz's (1960) would seem to be consistent with Adlerian belief that all behavior is directed to some goal and that furthermore, even though these goals may be erroneous, all individuals strive to reach their goals. This is very important in light of the fact that many disadvantaged individuals may drop-out of the school system as the final result of their negative expectations.

There are some predictable companions of the negative self-concept, according to the Guidance Monograph: The Culturally Disadvantaged Student and Guidance (1971). These are: extremely high or low levels of aspiration, fear of failure, external locus of control, low academic motivation and withdrawal. To conclude, it appears that work with the self-concept of the disadvantaged is central to opening them up to attaining their full potential.

Social class as a determiner of self-concept, and thus of aspiration levels, has been the topic of several studies. Remmers, Horton and Lysgaard (1956) hypothesized that high school students would show differences associated with social class in: deferred gratification patterns, levels of aspiration and ideology. Their study of a 2,500 pupils sample (taken from 15,000 high school students), supported the hypothesis. They concluded that declining levels of aspiration among the lower socio-economic group were in large part due to a conflict with

the middle class and business oriented values of the school system. It was one reason, they felt, that the schools were less palatable to students from homes of lower socio-economic level. This would seem to support the earlier stated belief that the schools become part of the problem for the disadvantaged as opposed to part of the solution.

Behavioral psychologist, Eden Ryl (1972) ran a repetition of a two hundred year old study in which a minnow-eating pike was placed in a tank filled with minnows separated from the pike by a glass belljar. After repeated attempts to eat these minnows without success, the fish gave up its quest. At that point the experimenter removed the glass jar and allowed the minnows to swim in easy access of the pike. The pike no longer tried to eat the fish even though they were in easy grasp. The end result was death for the pike. Children from disadvantaged homes may be experiencing these same frustrations:

> ...the majority of youngsters from severely disadvantaged homes are not angry and militant but apathetic and unassertive.

> Far from challenging the world around them, they seem personally and socially incarcerated; their talents are consistently under-rated, their vision constricted, their most personal modes of expression stifled. Each self-image they have created for themselves has been repeatedly deflated, all futures prematurely and permanently foreclosed (Davies, 1969, p. 10)

> Since the disadvantaged as a population have more physical defects, are more malnourished, and receive poorer medical care than the rest of the population, they are more subject to rejection by others and to the damage which such rejection inflicts upon the self-concept.

> His self-concept affects his behavior and in turn is affected by his behavior. (Karnes, Zellerbach, Jones, 1971, p. 78)

The lack of success experiences and lack of self-esteem are reflected in studies of risk-taking behavior. Atkinson and Litivin (1960)

and Atkinson, et al, (1960) found that Ss low in n achievement often took extreme risks (chose tasks or bets in which the probability of success was very low or very high). On the other hand, both found that Ss high in n achievement preferred intermediate risks.

Atkinson (1957) found Ss low in n achievement to be more highly motivated to avoid the arousal of anxiety about failure. This anxiety can best be avoided, according to Atkinson's model, by choosing a task which has a very low or very high probability of success. If the probability of success is very high, failure is unlikely; if the probability of success is very low, failure is to be expected and, therefore, not humiliating.

Julian B. Rotter did extensive study in the social learning theory area. His work on external vs. internal control as related to social class and ethnic groups is one of particular interest to educators. In one of his studies an eighty-children sample was taken from five metropolitan schools. A significant F ratio was found between social classes and locus of control. The lower class, by a large margin, were influenced by external control while the middle class tended to be strongly internally controlled. In other words, the middle class children tended to feel in control of their life circumstances and felt a responsibility for their accomplishments whether good or bad. The lower class children, on the other hand, saw themselves as victims of fate, chance, luck, etc. The greatest contrast was shown between middle class whites and lower class blacks. Though some argument could be made as to the balance of race vs. class influence, an analysis within each racial group showed that economic factors were significant of themselves. One criticism this writer had of the study is that,

first, it included a relatively small number of students and second, that parental occupation listed on school records was the sole determiner of economic status.

James (1957) found externals (people controlled by others rather than self) to have a greater increment in expectation for success in a 75 per cent reinforced sequence. This tends to substantiate the hypothesis that when one feels he is in control of what happens, positive reinforcement leads to an increasing certainty of future success. This is almost the exact opposite of the course on which the external – negative self-concept individual is traveling.

Seeman (1959) looked into powerlessness and alienation and their relationships to the individual's social circumstances. There is some evidence to substantiate his belief that an alienated person would expect that his own behavior could not determine the outcome he desires. This leads well into a transition to phase four – the low academic motivation found in persons having a negative self-concept.

Certainly, one does not find it hard to draw a relationship between the negative self-concept and low academic motivation. Why would one want to expend any effort if assured of failure? From the point-of-view of the disadvantaged student, expending the effort is an exercise in futility. With so many strikes against them, why try only to face humiliation? Rotter (1966) suggested that individuals who feel controlled by their environment are less alert, more passive, and less sensitive to subtle attempts to control them than are those who feel in a position of self-determination. Waller (1969) found that disadvantaged males often view academic achievement as a feminine accomplishment and may deliberately resist achievement in order to maintain masculine

identity and win acceptance by peers. A study by Green and Farquhar (1965) showed the significance of motivation; though they found no relationship between aptitude and achievement in a group of Negro males, a significant correlation did exist between achievement and motivation to achieve academically.

Pringle (1973) pointed to the effects of repeated failure on the not only disadvantaged student but all students who experience frustration in academic endeavors:

> If a goal is felt to be unattainable, effort diminishes, partly because the cumulative effect of failure leads to a sense of hopelessness and partly because feeling rejected as being "no good" arouses anxiety which further inhibits learning. Under-achievement, like envy, seems to feed on itself. A poor start in school snowballs into chronic failure and the teacher's understandable disappointment with poor progress only serves to lead to further discouragement in the pupil. And so both are caught in the vicious circle of discouragement, disapproval and unresponsiveness and further failure. (Pringle, 1973, p. 99)

If a negative self-concept is the cause and companion of so many problems (low aspiration level, fear of failure, believing others to be in control, low academic motivation and withdrawal), then bringing about a change in self-concept is crucial to the counseling of the disadvantaged student. That will be part of the concern of Chapter Three: The Role of Counselor.

Maslow's Hierarchy

Maslow's (1954) work, mentioned earlier, should be given further consideration. Much has been written about Maslow in the thirty years following his influential work, Motivation and Personality. Maslow categorized man's needs into a hierarchy or ladder theory in which satisfaction of the lowest level of need - physiological - freed the

individual to progress to the next step on the ladder. A thwarting of a specific needs gratification, he believed, caused the individual to be dominated by that need possibly to the exclusion of awareness of all other needs. Maslow's theory provided an important vehicle for understanding the deprived individual. It can give the counselor or social worker a basis for insight and understanding that will pave the way for true empathic understanding. Maslow identified four needs: physiological needs, safety needs, love and belongingness needs and the need for self-actualization. No one summarizing Maslow states as well as Maslow what he observed. For that reason, the writer will be quoted at length on the lowest needs-the physiological needs. Hunger, thirst and sleep:

> If all the needs are unsatisfied, and the organism is then dominated by the physiological needs, all other needs may become simply nonexistent or be pushed into the background. It is then fair to characterize the whole organism by saying simply that it is hungry, for consciousness is almost completely preempted by hunger. All capacities are put into the service of hunger-satisfaction, and the organization of these capacities is almost entirely determined by the one purpose of satisfying hunger. The receptors and effectors, the intelligence, memory, habits, all may now be defined simply as hunger-gratifying tools. Capacities that are not useful for this purpose lie dormant, or are pushed into the background.

> Another peculiar characteristic of the human organism when it is dominated by a certain need is that the whole philosophy of the future tends to change. For our chronically and extremely hungry man, Utopia can be defined simply as a place where there is plenty of food. He tends to think that, if only he is guaranteed food for the rest of his life, he will be perfectly happy and will never want anything more. (Maslow, 1954, p. 82)

If Maslow is correct, and this writer believes he is, then what great importance this theory has for educators working with the disadvantaged. All other needs become nonexistent or pushed to the background. Capacities not useful for this purpose lie dormant. No

other interests exist but food. The whole philosophy of the future

tends also to change.

If the physiological needs are fairly well gratified, then a new set

of needs emerges, which Maslow (1954) calls the safety needs, and they

can dominate the capacities as strongly as can the first needs.

> Again, as in the hungry man we find that the dominating goal
> is a strong determinant not only of his current world outlook
> and philosophy but also of his philosophy of the future.
> Practically everything looks less important than safety (even
> sometimes the physiological needs.) (Maslow, 1954, p. 84)

The child, Maslow (1954) continued, prefers a "routine,

predictable, orderly world." Injustice, unfairness or inconsistency

make a child feel anxious and unsafe. Strange, unmanagable situations

often result in a terror reaction. The child clings to parents for

protection, not love needs.

Maslow (1954) made the following observation which is important to

this paper even more specifically:

> The healthy, normal, fortunate adult in our culture is largely
> satisfied in his safety needs. ...If we wish to see these needs
> directly and clearly we must turn to neurotic or near-neurotic
> individuals, and to the economic and social underdogs.
> (Maslow, 1954, p. 87)

Maslow pointed out the economic/social underdogs as having unmet

safety needs. Their reactions to life are colored by these needs.

If the safety needs are met, the love and belongingness needs

next emerge . Now the person will feel a need for friends, sweetheart,

or wife and family.

> He will hunger for affectionate relationships with people in
> general, namely, for a place in his group, and he will strive
> with great intensity to achieve this goal. He will want to
> attain such a place more than anything else in the world and
> may even forget that once, when he was hungry, he sneered
> at love as unreal or unnecessary or unimportant.

In our society the thwarting of these needs is the most commonly found core in the class of maladjustment and more severe psychopathology. Love and affection, as well as their possible expression in sexuality, are generally looked upon with ambivalence and are customarily hedged about with many restrictions and inhibitions. Practically all theorists of psychopathology have stressed thwarting of the love needs as basic in the picture of maladjustment. (Maslow, 1954, p. 89)

When the love and belonging needs are met, then the individual is free to become self-actualized, or to become all that he can be. This becomes the goal of each person who has had his other needs met.

Maslow's (1954) work seems to relate to each and every problem concerning the disadvantaged mentioned in the literature. And in this writer's opinion is of extreme importance to the understanding of our disadvantaged student.

Chapter Three

IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELORS

The concern of this study is the assessment of the problems of the disadvantaged student with the goal of providing assistance in overcoming disadvantages associated with poverty. The previous chapter concerned itself mainly with the problems the disadvantaged student experiences. As the literature revealed, the disadvantaged student often has problems that influence his or her psychological, social, and educational development. In order to assist the disadvantaged student to overcome developmental problems, counseling should be provided.

This chapter will focus on issues that are relevant to the school counselor of the disadvantaged. In order to be successful in counseling the disadvantaged student, one would do well not only to have an understanding of the characteristic problems of many disadvantaged students, but also to have an understanding of successful techniques and theories used, a knowledge of self, and a knowledge of the various roles the conselor must fill. This chapter will address these issues.

If a counselor truly desires to assist the disadvantaged student to move toward self-actualization, then he or she must be willing to assume a variety of roles, develop a personal style that encourages student trust and growth, and adapt to group as well as individual counseling settings. It may also be necessary for the counselor to consider

theories and programs that are different than those that he or she is now using.

Characteristics of the Successful Counselor

The kind of person called for to fulfill this role successfully is one with great personal, psychological strength. The first area in the counseling responsibility to be considered is that of the personal style and characteristics possessed by the successful counselor.

What qualities does an effective counselor have? Carl Rogers (1961) offered this:

> A careful study of parent-child relationships made some years ago by Baldwin and others at the Fels Institute contains interesting evidence. Of the various clusters of parental attitudes toward children, the "acceptant democratic" seemed most growth facilitating. Children of these parents with their warm and equalitarian attitudes showed an accelerated intellectual development (an increasing I.Q.), more originality, more emotional security and control, less excitability than children from other types of homes. Though somewhat slow initially in social development, they were, by the time they reached school age, popular, friendly, non-aggressive leaders.
>
> Where parents' attitudes are classed as "actively rejectant" the children show a slightly decelerated intellectual development, relatively poor use of the abilities they do possess, and some lack of originality. They are emotionally unstable, rebellious, aggressive, and quarrelsome. The children of parents with other attitude syndromes tend in various respects to fall in between these extremes.
>
> I am sure that these findings do not surprise us as related to child development. I would like to suggest that they probably apply to other relationships as well and that the counselor or physician or administrator who is warmly emotional and expressive, respectful of other, and who exhibits a nonpossessive caring attitude, probably facilitates self-realization much as does a parent with these attitudes. (Rogers, 1961, p. 40)

Rogers then discussed another study. This study done by Whitehorn and Betz (1956) investigated the degree of success fourteen young resident physicians had with schizophrenic patients on a

psychiatric ward. Seven were considered "outstandingly helpful" and seven had patients who showed little improvement. The A group was the success group, the B group the unsuccessful group.

In their research on techniques in schizophrenia, Whitehorn and Betz (1956) discovered that successful therapists treated the patient as an individual as opposed to treatment as a case. They perceived patient behavior as having personal meaning. Goals were oriented toward the personality of the individual, not to symptom treating or disease curing. They found that the helpful therapist had a personal relationship with the patient which carried over into all their daily encounters with patients. The result of this behavior by the therapist was patient trust and confidence.

In contrast to the helpful therapist, the unsuccessful physician used more passive permissive procedures, less interpretation, and less instruction or advice. The result of this behavior was that the patient failed to develop trust and failed to improve. Rogers states that although Whitehorn and Betz (1956) point out that the findings relate only to schizophrenics, Rogers saw a broad implication for all helping relationships.

Another study referred to by Rogers (1961) was done by R. W. Heine (1950). Heine studied individuals who sought psychotherapeudic help from psychoanalytic, client-centered, and Adlerian therapists. The clients reported similar changes in themselves regardless of the orientation of the therapist; they identified attitudinal elements as accounting for the change. These helpful elements were: trust, being understood, and feeling that they had independence in making choices.

To summarize, the helpful counselor in these studies is trustful, understanding, one who sees the counselee as an individual, one who takes an active role in the life of the client (student), and one who works toward goals relevant to the individual's personality. If the Heine (1950) study is correct, as Rogers (1961) believes, the orientation of the counselor is much less important than the above mentioned qualities such as trust, understanding, and seeing the individual as a person.

Common Theories in Use

Much of the work done with the disadvantaged, unmotivated learner seems to use one of two theoretical approaches, the Adlerian approach or the Reality Therapy approach. Each will be looked at in the following paragraphs.

The Adlerian approach, summarized by Nelson (1967), is based on the tenet that all behavior is directed toward some goal. Furthermore, even though these goals may in some way be erroneous, all individuals strive to reach their goals. Learning is viewed as a natural tendency. We learn from life experiences and tend to move from an unsuccessful endeavor to a successful one. As a result of the influence of one's successes and failures he/she develops a characteristic mode of functioning called a life style. Attitudes, beliefs and behaviors in the academic area reflect the life style.

Adler (1922) believed that one must study the social context and cannot adequately study the individual in isolation. If one goes on further to look at Adler's heritage in the Family Education Centers and child guidance area, and the work done by Rudolph Dreikers (1959,

1961) in the U.S., some important principles emerge: the importance of encouragement, class discussion - focus on problems, the use of democratic principles, and the individual's responsibility for self and for others as he relates to them.

There seems to be great compatability with the growth producing factors pointed out by Rogers (1961), Baldwin (1945), Betz & Whitehorn (1956), and Heine (1950). And although Adler's theory is based in the psychoanalytic school of his contemporary, Freud, there are some striking similarities with principles of Glasser's Reality Therapy (1965), which is behavioral. Glasser (1965) focuses on the problem-behavior, using democratic principles, and the responsibility of self for behavior and relationships with others. The one large area of disagreement between Adler and Glasser is certainly not unimportant. Glasser said: to change the behavior first and eventually the feelings will follow. Adler says feelings are important. However, Adler also said that man is a creative, self-determining decision maker, which appears to be compatable with Glasser. It also seems that asking one to conceptualize his life style is much the same as asking one to look at his own behavior, though Glasser may put much more emphasis on the specific, and Adlerian theory more emphasis on the general. Since Adler and Glasser both hold the view that man is basically good, and both value democratic principles, they each would seem to provide the acceptance-democratic atmosphere that Baldwin (1945) found to be most growth facilitating.

Glasser (1965) suggested that the counseling process is based on the belief that we have freedom of choice regarding our behavior and that change can come about by first becoming aware of the areas in

which our behavior is causing negative results and then by making realistic, specific plans for change. At all phases, except step one, the client has the ball in his court. Glasser's process is detailed as follows:

Step One - Make Friends. The premise here is that we each need others. No one can make it alone; and we need to love and be loved, to be important to someone. To show a student that you care enough just to talk with him/her and to take the time to know him/her in a warm, genuine, non-judgmental way will facilitate your progress. Rogers (1961) and Maslow (1954) have stated much the same thing.

Step Two - Ask: What are you doing now? Look at specific behavior with the student. Have him/her identify it and describe it in detail.

Step Three - Ask: Is it helping? If the student can discover for himself/herself that his/her behavior has consequences that aren't helping, he/she can identify specific behavior to change.

Step Four - Make a plan to do better. In this step the student draws up a plan of new behavior to be engaged in that says what will happen, how, and when it will happen.

This, in this writer's opinion, is a stage in which the locus of control changes. The student can now reason: "If I can choose new behavior and if the results are positive, then I must assume that I have some power over my life".

Step Five - Get a committment. The counselor must get the student to commit to carrying out the plan.

Step Six - Don't accept excuses. If after the plans are made, the student offers excuses, don't accept them. Keep him/her thinking

about how he/she can assure success of their plan. The importance of this step appears to be reinforcement of personal control and the change in expectations from failure to success.

Step Seven - Don't punish, but don't interfere with reasonable consequences. If the student fails to carry out the plan, do not punish or judge, make them rework the plan and renew committment.

Step Eight - Never give up. This step is the counselor's responsibility. The student may give up for a time but the counselor must keep the door open.

This, in brief form, is Glasser's method for helping the individual change his/her behavior.

It is important to note that many schools experiencing success with Reality Therapy techniques train all of the staff in the use of these techniques. An accepting-democratic classroom teacher could fill a desperate need in the disadvantaged student's life. In turn the child is expected to begin to accelerate intellectually, use more abilities, gain more control emotionally and not feel the need to be rebellious, aggressive or quarrelsome. By giving the student freedom, and the power to look at and determine his own behavior, he/she can begin to see a change in his sense of control: now he is in control and responsible for the outcome of his/her behavior.

The methods used in Reality Therapy put a great deal of power in the hands of the counselor. The power is subtle and caution should be used in order to avoid too great a manipulation of the student. The counselor might do well to keep in mind the characteristics Rogers (1961) pointed out in his, "Characteristics of the Helping Relationship."

Counseling Roles and Responsibilities

The counselor of the disadvantaged student can provide a pivot or access point at the core of the students' educational process. There are several responsibilities the counselor must prepare to assume. First, educational and vocational guidance need to be provided to the student (Karnes, Zehrbach, Jones, 1971). Second, personal and social counseling should be available to the student (Karnes, et al, 1971). Third, encourage parental involvement in the student's educational planning and daily studies Karnes, et al, 1971). Fourth, provide consultation and coordination with the educational staff in order to assure that student/teacher relationships and course content are conducive to experiencing success.

The first role is that of guidance counselor and purveyor of guidance materials is important to the short-range and long-range goal planning for an individual student. Knowledge of the student's vocational interests and/or hobbies may hold some vital clues for motivation. One successful project, the Youth Project, (1966) Champaign, Ill. used this approach with great success. They made the curriculum meaningful to the students by tailoring it to their interests and thus gaining and holding their interest.

It is important for the counselor to keep in mind that research has revealed that many disadvantaged people tend to set unrealistically high or low goals (Atkinson, 1957; Karnes, et al, 1971). Goals set by the student should be evaluated carefully in light of aptitude and basic skills as well as interests and values.

The second responsibility is personal social counselor to the disadvantaged is important. Research indicates that students from

lower-class social economic status homes appear not to tend to seek out the counselor (Tseng and Thompson, 1968). Reaching out to build or establish a relationship will be part of the role of the counselor (Glasser, 1968).

While the examining of a student's specific behavior and its consequences requires a one-to-one counseling role, yet the application of its principles in the classroom requires the role of consultant. The role of consultant to the classroom teacher is somewhat of a two-edged sword. The teacher's behavior might also need analysis, since Davidson and Lang (1960) found that teachers were less favorably inclined toward deprived children even when their school achievements were good. Furthermore, they observed that underprivileged children accurately perceived the teacher's rejection of them. They also found the negative image of the deprived child is reflected in a lowering of the child's self-perception or self-image, consequently affecting his or her academic achievement and classroom behavior.

By allowing the teacher to discover his/her own negative producing behavior, the counselor goes a long way toward helping the child. The classroom teacher may need to be educated to the deprived child's negative self-image problem and his/her own role in self-concept formation.

In addition, the classroom teacher, as Fantini (1971) pointed out, often sets cognitive goals that are out of step with the realities of the world of the disadvantaged. It may do well to point out that cognitive needs are not basic and become needs only when they can be utilized to satisfy basic ones (Fantini, 1971; Maslow, 1954).

The role of parent-involvement coordinator is very important (Bloom, Davis and Hess, 1965), but probably most important in the earliest years of education, although it still holds importance to the teen-aged student. Goal setting, mutual understanding, reinforcement and the development of positive rather than negative attitudes are all areas where parental and educational staff can help each other help the student (Karnes, et al, 1971).

The counselor of the disadvantaged will need to become skilled not only at one-to-one counseling, but also at group facilitation. In the public schools, social and personal counseling belongs in a one-to-one setting for the most part. Counselor training programs and practicum experience provide an emphasis on this counseling modality. Group facilitation skills are, however, also important to the counselor of the disdavantaged. Karnes, Zehrback and Jones (1971) suggest that group guidance and counseling is most effective because of the importance of the peer group. Certainly of relevance is the research of Kogan & Wallach (1967); Teger & Pruitt (1967); Wallach & Kogan (1959); Wallach and Kogan (1965); Wallach, Kogan & Behm (1962) and Wallach, Kogan and Behm (1964) on the influence of group interaction on risk-taking behavior. First shown by Stoner (1961) was the finding that group interaction leads to increase in risk taking. Work by Wallach (1964), and Marquis (1962) purported that increased risk-taking in groups was due to diffusion of responsibility among the Ss that even altered the group leader's behavior.

Brown (1965), Nordhoy (1962), Wallach & Kogan (1965, 1967) and Teger & Pruitt (1967) all examined the influence of information exchange and discussion. There is some evidence that when information exchange

and discussion on risk taking take place, risk taking increases. Gilson (1968) found that both low achievers (LA) and high achievers (HA) took higher risks when they were tested in groups than when they were tested individually.

From the previous studies cited, it would seem that statistical studies validate the concept that risk-taking increases in people who are taking part in a group. If fear of failure or fear of ridicule are factors influencing the disadvantaged person's response to education, then being in a group of persons who share their fears could be expected to help to (a) alleviate their fear of ridicule and (b) increase their risk-taking behavior.

Bloom, Davis and Hess (1965) in their work have reported the strength of peer groups among the disadvantaged population. Peer groups might be a basis for group counseling efforts. If one's friends are part of the problem, then finding a motive for each in the group to change might have a compound effect on individual changes. Values clarification and discussion of non-academic interests might provide a wealth of information relevant to motivating the disadvantaged learner. Here it might be profitable to briefly define a variety of group types.

The guidance group is a Socio-Process group and as such is in the company of human relations group, human potential groups, social group work, discussion groups and guided interaction groups. According to R. L. Betz (1974), the primary purpose of this group is to examine attitudes, values, and beliefs through a combination of information and discussion. Betz also stated that a group size of 12 to 15 is considered to be most conducive to success in group guidance.

The counseling group would be defined as a psycho-process group. And the stated objective of the psycho-process group is to change the behavior of the group or, as per Betz (1974), to eliminate behavior that causes the individual to be less than what he/she could become if the behavior were not present. Group size needs to be smaller for the counseling group than the socio-process group. A total group size of six to eight persons is more conducive to success (Betz).

Group counseling is, in this writer's opinion, much more difficult to do effectively, and has some potential for harm. Therefore, it would be important for the counselor to carefully assess his/her own skills as a group leader, and the psychological or personality make-up of prospective group members.

An alternative to conducting group counseling might be for the counselor to provide group-psychological education. Values clarification and self-awareness activities can be done in a positive, growth producing and non-threatening way. Many important issues of concern to the individual can be dealt with just as effectively here as in one-to-one counseling.

The counselor in the role of group leader must facilitate the group discussion, help members see that they share common concerns, and examine attitudes. It is not, however, helpful to the group process to be judgmental, pedantic and overbearing. One important role is that of seeing that all group members have a chance to speak and are not dominated by one or two "talkers" (Betz, 1974). Another responsibility of this role is to see that reasonable ground rules are set up and followed by the group (Betz, 1974). And the last responsibility to be mentioned here is that the counselor needs to see that each group

member understands and sees value in the goal of the group (Betz 1974).

In summary, the role of the counselor is seen as one requiring the wearing of many hats. Effectiveness requires warmth, acceptance, democratic respect for the individual, and a healthy self-actualized level of functioning. It requires working with students, teachers, peers and parents in individual and group settings.

Successful counselors for the disadvantaged student strive to reach these goals: to bring about a change in self-concept based on realistic appraisal; to help the client change the locus of control from external to internal; to aid the client to find motivations for learning and to raise too-low levels of aspiration; and to help teachers, parents and students set realistic goals.

Chapter Four

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The focus of this study has been on the problems of the disadvantaged student and the resulting implications for the school counselor. The review of the literature focused on the following subjects: common traits that tend to be found in persons from the disadvantaged population, time alottment behavior of students as related to the factors of church attendance and welfare dependence, commonalities found in programs judged to have been successful with the disadvantaged student, factors related to the parental/family influence on the child, phsysiological and educational factors, the role of self-esteem, the effect of group involvement on risk-taking behavior as related to past achievement, and the influence of need deprivation on the individual.

In general the traits that have been identified as associated with poverty tend to set the disadvantaged student apart from his/her middle class counterparts. These traits were further found to be negatively influential on the teacher's evaluation of and relationship to the pupil. In the most recent study of teens from disadvantaged homes, most deviant behavior was found to be strongly correlated with welfare dependence.

The study of several successful educational programs for the disadvantaged were compared as to common factors indicating a modality standard for success assurance. The common factors identified were the use of extensive counseling, group guidance, special course designs

which motivated the student by utilizing their own special interests, and parent involvement. Other literature related to these topics was reviewed. Listed below are some of the major findings from this pursuit.

Many of the problems of the poor seem to relate to attitudinal orientation. Poor self-concepts, feelings of powerlessness, fear of failure, inability to see the need for long-range goal planning, those problems along with the hostility and apathy that sociologists note are areas of concern for the counselor.

Children from disadvantaged homes need to be given aid in developing self-esteem by having success experiences that result in positive feedback. Parental support and growth appears to be an important factor to consider in this process. The Hawthorne effect noted in Reissman's comments as to the success of the "Higher Horizons" may be an invaluable tool to use in building self-esteem.

Group involvement appears to help the low self-esteem person to take risks. Without risking the trying of a new task, one has difficulty in building self-esteem.

Reality therapy seems to offer a style of counseling that helps the individual assume responsibility for his own behavior. This tends to put the sense of control back in the student. Adlerian practices were found to be successful.

The analysis of data from the National Bureau of Economic Research done by Freeman (1983) is impressive. There is much more to be studied in this area as to the causes for positive behavior in the young churchgoer. Perhaps self-esteem is enhanced, perhaps apathy

and hostility are decreased. At any rate, the results of church-going were found in this study to be positive.

Conclusions

1. The literature revealed that the disadvantaged student faces a host of problems that a middle class child most likely does not encounter. Living in poverty touches one's health, physical/physiological development and psychological development.

2. The home environment of the disadvantaged student appears to cause his/her values to be more concerned with the here and now and less oriented toward deferring gratifications. Since most education is geared toward future application this seems to often cause conflict between the disadvantaged student and his/her educators.

3. The deprived parent seems to be unable to offer the growing child the stability and consistency needed in order to develop his or her own sense of self-worth. Therefore, it seems a poor self-image is the usual lot of the disadvantaged student.

4. The poor self-image seems to be reinforced in the educational system where it was found that teachers tended to consider in their evaluation and group placement the socio-economic status of the student. The school, then, tends to further handicap the disadvantaged student.

5. The risk-taking behavior of persons with a history of low achievement it also to be effected. The low achiever either tended to take extreme risks where failure could be blamed on circumstances, or not take any risks at all.

6. Social class and low-level placement by teachers were found to be positvely correlated.

7. The cognitive processes appear to be hampered by such factors as inferior auditory and visual discrimination and by concept impairment concerning time and numbers.

8. The person reared in poverty is often in the grip of negative emotions. These negative factors are further barriers to growth.

9. The person most likely to break out of the poverty cycle is apparently one whose religious faith and church attendance influence him in a positive direction.

10. The programs that seem to offer hope of bringing about change in the disadvantaged student are programs that seek to meet all the needs previously mentioned. Family involvement, extra attention, remedial help, and specially designed curriculum and group guidance all seem to need to be included in order to insure success.

Recommendations

1. It appears most beneficial for the school counselor to involve the parents of the deprived child in the counseling process. Group and individual sessions may be best combined. Since some parents may be easily manipulated while others are hostile to an outsider, it will be necessary to first gain the parents' trust and cooperation. Home visits, when possible, might be most successful. Parent Effectiveness Training, group discussions of common goals for their children, and introduction to community adult education services might be offered.

2. The counselor may need to act as an advocate for the disadvantaged student within the school system. Teachers and other

staff would benefit from inservice programs educating them to the problems of the deprived child. In a nonthreatening manner the counselor may be required to point out the possible prejudice held within the teacher. Sharing studies done on the topic of teacher bias toward the deprived would seem advisable.

3. Remedial help would be beneficial for the student as a means of learning basic skills. Volunteers could be a means of augmenting the remedial effort. The volunteer one-to-one relationship could provide role modeling, education and thereby help to improve the child's self-worth. Careful selection and pairing of volunteers and students would be necessary to insure optimum benefit. Volunteer training would need to include ideas as to how the individual's personal interests should be used as a means of making the curriculum material relevant.

4. Church attendance could be encouraged as a means of bringing one's self-image and personal outlook to a more productive and positive posture. The Freeman report points out that church attendance in some way accounts for the more productive use of time.

5. Group guidance activities that seek to aid in building self-esteem could be made available to the disadvantaged student. The grouping effect and peer pressure can thus be used in a positive manner.

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