July 30, 1976

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DREIKURS' GOALS OF MISBEHAVIOR THEORY: CHILD AND TEACHER GENERATION OF A NEO-ADLERIAN CONSTRUCT

A Dissertation

Presented for the

Doctor of Education

Degree

The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Elizabeth Mattice

August 1976

1288340

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation has been both joy and nightmare. For increasing the former and dispelling the latter, for adding friendship to wise advice and high standards, I would like to thank the members of my committee: Dr. William Calhoun, Dr. Lawrence DeRidder, Dr. Thomas George, Dr. Schyler Huck, Dr. Bernard Lyons. Dr. Robert Williams chaired this committee and his help is doubly appreciated. In a spirit of true scholarship he willingly supervised, and improved, research which had a perspective philosophically different from his own.

For accomplishing the next to impossible, many thanks are due Ms. Liz Denton, who ran the children's and teachers' groups with resourcefulness, dedication and a serene competence on which I gratefully leaned.

The cheerful good will of the psychologists who took part in this study, despite a difficult task and already full schedules, did much to make my work a pleasure. The teachers and children who gave time and effort are also greatly appreciated.

For introducing me to Adler, helping me formulate a researchable topic, and endlessly reviewing, suggesting and interpreting the material herein, I wish to thank Dr. Bernard Lyons. Throughout my graduate studies he has been, for me, the model of Gemeinschaftsgefuhl. No acknowledgement can express the warmth of admiration and gratitude I feel.

Most of all I wish to acknowledge the years of help and encouragement given me by my husband, Dr. Jack Mattice. He has shouldered household burdens with equanimity and has been the wisest and most patient of tutors, advisors and editors.

ABSTRACT

Adler's theory of personality was forwarded by Dreikurs who, in attempting to develop specific Adlerian techniques, modified some of Adler's concepts. Dreikurs' four goals of misbehavior theory were discussed in this context. Child and teacher ability to generate goals of misbehavior (via nominal group technique), teacher methods of classifying the statements teachers generated, and teacher and school psychologist ability to classify goals in a Dreikurs format plus an Other category were assessed. The intrarater consistency and interrater agreement of classification judgements was tested. In addition, three psychologists knowledgeable in the area of Individual Psychology classified child and teacher generated statements as to their interpersonal quality and goal orientation. In all, 36 children (6 each from grades 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 12), 24 elementary school teachers, 6 school psychologists, and 3 psychologists familiar with Adler and Dreikurs took part in this study.

Children generated 52 different statements and teachers 62. Results indicated that although children and teachers are able to formulate interpersonal goal statements, the task is a difficult one, particularly for teachers. Teachers seemed to feel that setting events and instincts were major factors controlling children's misbehavior. Teacher agreement as to classification of teacher generated statements within Dreikurs' categories varied widely. The majority of school psychologists placed the majority of statements into categories

with intrarater consistency and interrater agreement. The three psychologists familiar with Adler and Dreikurs were in perfect agreement on approximately half of the statements--slightly higher agreement was found on goal status judgements than on judgements of interpersonal quality. Two new goals are suggested and a justification for further research on, and increased use of, Adlerian premises and Dreikursian methodology is offered.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Newspaper columns, books, and the conversations of classroom teachers are too replete with discussions of children's misbehavior in general and classroom discipline problems in particular for documentation to be necessary. One needs but small acquaintance with schools to know that the practical reality of a school day requires teachers to deal with behavior problems as well as math problems, with socialization as well as social studies. Every teacher, sooner or later, finds some method, attitude, or overall philosophy for dealing with the routine of squabbles, upsets, and defiances found in the primary grades. But the disparate, and possibly desperate, approaches to classroom discipline produce a wide range of results for both the student and the teacher. At one extreme, teachers run classrooms which are models of order at the expense of the wellbeing of individual children. At the other extreme are teachers who have given up and in whose chaotic classrooms learning is difficult and teaching almost impossible. Few teachers feel that they have a good system--whether "good system" means one beneficial to children or one efficient for the teacher. Many teachers, frustrated with the constant struggle, seek outside help.

Those teachers who look to the findings and theories of psychology for help encounter a bewildering profusion of texts and popular literature. From Freud on, psychologists have stressed the importance of early childhood experiences and have forwarded views on the problems

of children in school. Classroom teachers were unable to participate in many of the earlier intervention techniques because of their complexity or need for special training. Today, however, a number of theorists write for the classroom teacher. Each theory offers a particular view of children and provides, with varying degrees of clarity and stringency, a particular set of procedures for dealing with them.

But considering the exigencies of the normal school day, it is little wonder that few teachers peruse the available literature with enough thoroughness to discover a personally appealing theory, let alone to master its arguments and follow through with its methods. Too often, theories are misunderstood and methods misapplied, or applied for too short a time to permit success before being abandoned. Discouraged teachers, exasperated teachers, and teachers more concerned with specific children than with psychology in general are often more eager for the help and support of a counselor or school psychologist than for a return to their college texts or the offerings of the local book store.

Thus, the school psychologist who consults with teachers on a regular basis is inevitably required to aid the teachers to come to some conclusions about children, misbehavior, and methods for dealing with future situations. The implied responsibility for the school psychologist is great. Pains-taking efforts must be made to choose a personal philosophy which embodies validity, integrity, and usefulness. But beyond this, not all methods are equally acceptable to teachers. Theories which dwell extensively on causes relieve the teacher of some responsibility but are not sufficiently helpful in answering questions about what to do now in the classroom. Theories requiring extensive

documentation of behaviors are often seen by teachers as too complicated or time consuming. And theories requiring treatments alien to the teacher's normal mode of reacting are sometimes distastefully dismissed as "artificial" or "phony" or "robot-like."

One methodology, attractive because it seems to avoid the above pitfalls, is that advanced by Rudolf Dreikurs. Dreikurs, alone and in collaboration, has written a number of books for teachers and parents. He stresses the present and future rather than the past; his approach requires little documentation other than that which regularly occurs in the classroom; his methods encourage teachers to use, rather than surpress, their feelings in helping the child. Certainly Dreikurs and his followers have used his methods successfully. The integrity of these methods requires a personal judgement based on a considered reading of his books. What still remain as questions are whether his theories are amenable to validation and, if they are, whether they can be easily learned by classroom teachers.

Before Dreikurs' theory can be discussed, however, it is necessary to explore the framework from which his ideas arose. For although the techniques he advocates are his own, the theoretical bases for these techniques are the work of his mentor, Alfred Adler. This paper then is a prolegomena with a three-fold intent: first, to provide a summarization of Adler's Individual Psychology; second, to discuss Dreikurs' theory in terms of Adlerian thought; and third, to provide empirical data, generated by children, teachers, and school psychologists, with which the accuracy of Dreikurs' perceptions may

better be judged and the chances for successfully imparting his methods to teachers be more accurately assessed.

I. ALFRED ADLER'S INDIVIDUAL PSYCHOLOGY

Adler stated that every person creates a "unity and self-consistency of the personality" (1937/1964, p. 24). From this postulate comes the name Individual Psychology which not only presented Adler's view, but also emphasized his disagreement with psychologies which looked at "isolated phenomena" (1927/1954, p. 142), in attempting to understand the person. Although many of Adler's views changed over time, this holistic stand was always central, appearing in his earliest important writings (1907/1967) as well as in his last (1944/1967).

A natural corollary to Adler's perception of the holistic nature of the individual was his belief that every human being is unique. This uniqueness comes from a perception of self and the environment in combination with a perception of the meaning of success in life. From these bases arises each child's unique style of life, fashioned by the age of three or four from the child's own creative power.

A third basic tenet of Adlerian thought is that all human life is goal oriented, making all behavior purposive. The over-riding, or final, goal is success; what constitutes success is an individual decision. Every act of the individual is an attempt to further close the gap between felt status and the final goal.

> Individual Psychology insists absolutely on the indispensibility of finalism for the understanding of all psychological phenomena. Causes, powers, instincts . . . cannot serve as explanatory principles. The final goal alone can. Experiences, traumata, sexual development mechanisms cannot yield an explanation, but

> the perspective in which these are regarded, the individual way of seeing them, which subordinates all life to the final goal, can do so (Adler, 1930/1967, p. 92).

The concept of striving in Adler's later works includes a quantitative (degree of activity), as well as a qualitative (the social interest factor yet to be discussed), aspect. Although Adler did not present degree of activity with the same frequency with which he advanced his view of social interest, he did believe it was, systemically, on the same level. Degree of activity, as part of the life style, is consistent over time. People with a low degree of activity do not do less striving for success; they just see their final goal in more passive terms. One of Adler's more pungent examples concerns criminals, who show high activity and low social interest. The murderer, according to Adler, is at the top of the (criminal) activity scale and the pickpocket is at the bottom (Adler, 1933a/1964, p. 63).

Adler's explanation of motivation changed over time from his earliest hypothesis of an aggressive drive (1908/1967), to "masculine protest" (1910/1964, pp. 44-52), to striving for power and superiority (Ansbacher and Ansbacher, 1967, pp. 113-14), to the final terms "striving for perfection" (Adler, 1933b/1964, pp. 30-34) and "striving for success" (Adler, 1937/1964, p. 24). The earlier terms were not dropped, but became Adler's idea of socially useless behavior. Thus the striving is universal, but on the socially useful side it is for success and has a problem-solving orientation which in some way furthers society. On the socially useless side, the striving is for personal power or superiority which requires society to give to the individual. Adler postulated the cause of this striving as something inherent in the

human condition, a result of the helplessness of the human infant.

> This is the driving force, the point from which originate and develop all the child's efforts to posit a goal for himself from which he expects all comfort and safeguarding of his life for the future, and which causes him to enter a course which appears suitable for the achievement of this goal (1927/1967, pp. 115-16).

Inextricable from his ideas of unique perception and goal orientation is Adler's belief that human life is synonymous with social life: "The communal life of man antedates the individual life of man. . . . No human being ever appeared except in a community of human beings. . . . The community is the best guarantee of the continued existence of human beings" (1927/1954, pp. 35-36). It is a perception of the environment and one's place within the community that is unique. One's goal orientation is not arrived at in isolation but learned by viewing one's self in relation to society. "This emphasis upon the social determinants of behavior . . . is probably Adler's greatest contribution to psychological theory" (Hall and Lindzey, 1957, p. 117). Adler saw all problems of life as social problems and divided these into the three areas of neighborly love, work, and sexual love. Without community feeling, or social interest, or sense of fellowship in the community, as Gemeinschaftsgefuhl has been variously translated, the crucial problems which characterize humanity cannot be solved. Social interest is "rooted in the germ cell. But it is rooted as a potentiality, not as an actual ability" (Adler, 1937/1964, p. 25).

Adler, then, presented a view of human beings as consistent, unique, self-creative, and purposive individuals embedded in society. All people feel inferior to a greater or lesser degree due to the realities of childhood. To the extent that social interest guides the striving

for perfection, the individual's final goal is socially useful and consistent with a solution to life's problems.

These various factors, to an Adlerian, are embodied by the life style of the individual. Because each person lives a coherent, goal-directed existence, the Adlerian psychologist can assess the life-style attitude of his client through knowledge of the client's recollections of early childhood, sibling relationships, dream themes, current patterns of behavior, and so forth. Because the goal was chosen by the client and the life style learned, Adlerians view their job as one of re-educating the client.

II. DREIKURS' THEORY OF THE FOUR GOALS OF MISBEHAVIOR

The setting from which Dreikurs' theory arose has been briefly stated above. There are numerous textual illustrations of Dreikurs' faithfulness to these basic Adlerian postulates and in some of his books he even explains Adlerian concepts before discussing his own theory. The following quotes are taken from The Challenge of Parenthood (Dreikurs, 1948) because it is the earliest book in which the four goals theory appears. Each child, says Dreikurs, has a "unified personality" (p. 29), a "distinctive life style" (p. 29), and "purposiveness . . . of conduct" (p. 25). "Each human being brings into the world a sense of social participation . . . a necessary basis for his own individual existence" (p. 33). "The child's difficulties can be traced to a sense of inferiority and to a particular drive to make up for real or imagined social deficiencies and weaknesses" (p. 36). Quoting Dreikurs yet again to complete the parallelism with the penultimate paragraph above

regarding Adler: "The child's social interest determines whether or not he behaves correctly. . . . The educator must, therefore, recognize the factors that advance the growth of social interest and avoid those that impede its development" (p. 34).

The core of Dreikurs' theory, repeated over and over, almost word for word, in publications ranging from 1947 to 1972, is best expressed by himself:

> All disturbing behavior of the child is directed toward one of four possible goals. They represent his ideas about his relationship to others in the group. He tries to: (1) gain attention; (2) demonstrate his power; (3) punish or get even; (4) demonstrate his inadequacy (1972, p. 5).

> Maladjusted children may be either active or passive and in either case they may use constructive or destructive methods. . . . Active or passive behavior indicates the amount of courage the child possesses. Passivity is always based on personal discouragement (1972, p. 8).

Combining the factors, we have active-constructive, active-destructive, passive-constructive and passive-destructive methods for goal achievement through misbehavior. According to Dreikurs, any of the four patterns can be used to gain attention; active- or passive-destructive methods can be used to achieve power and revenge goals, but only passive-destructive methods apply to the display of inadequacy. Although Dreikurs does not stress the point, attention getting behavior is considered the mildest goal of misbehavior and the display of inadequacy the most severe. Attention getting is the most common form of misbehavior because most children start misbehaving mildly, only going further if the original misbehavior doesn't receive satisfactory results. Figure 1 makes the structure clearer and gives examples of types of behavior in each category. The arrows within the figure

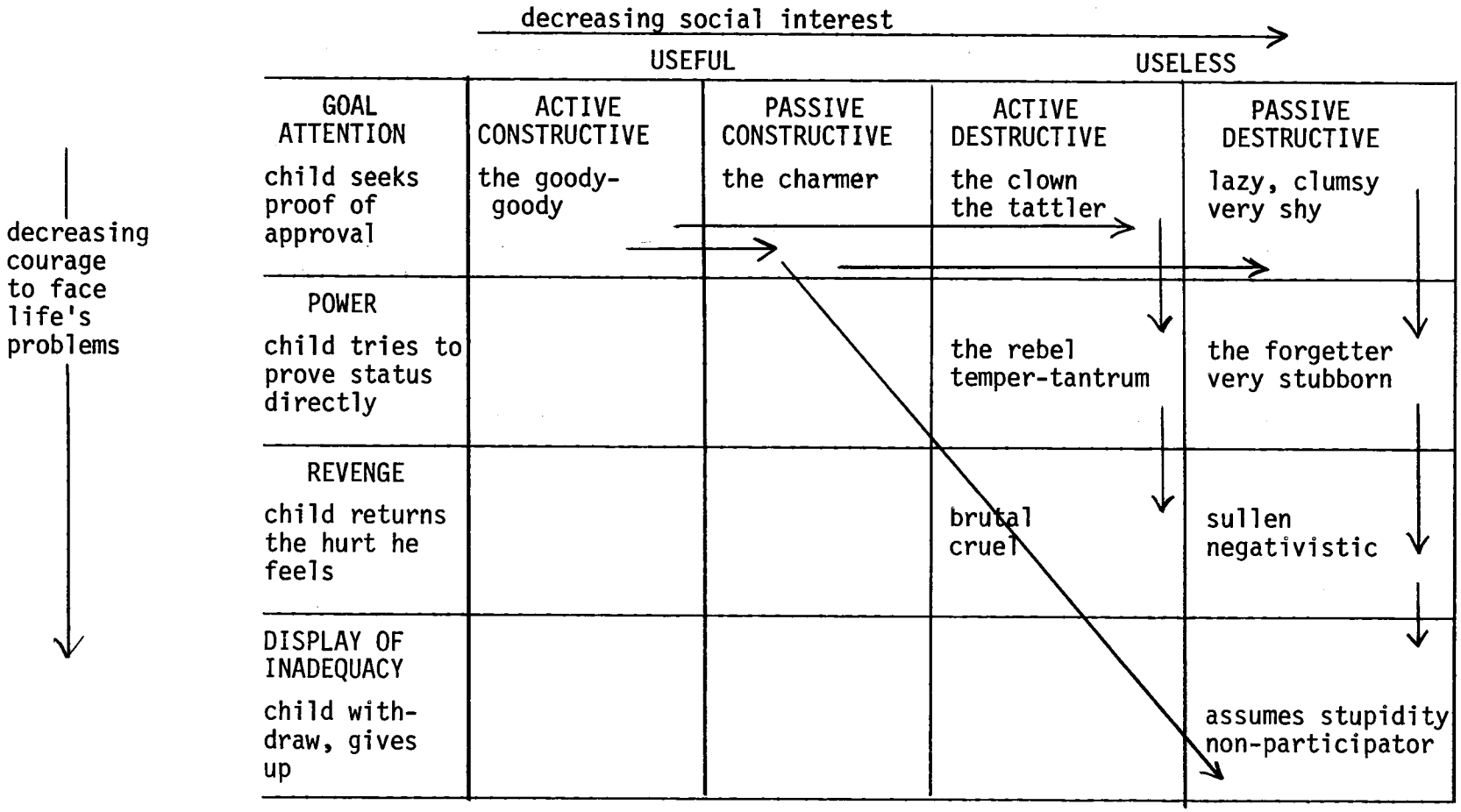


FIGURE 1. Schematic representation of Dreikurs' four goals of misbehavior theory.

SOURCE: Adapted from Dreikurs, Grunwald and Pepper (1971).

indicate the usual order of change of goal when the earlier goal remains unrealized too long. The arrows further indicate that the degree of activity remains fairly constant even when the goals change. All of Dreikurs' definitional and descriptive phrases within the table exhibit the interpersonal quality of the four goals. Dreikurs as well as Adler, saw all behavior as purposeful with regard to other human beings.

Although a discussion of the techniques of Dreikursian re-education are beyond the scope of this paper, it is necessary to state that a knowledge of which goal the child is seeking is crucial to effective remediation. This is true because it is the child's goal which determines which remediation technique is applied and because the initial approach to the misbehaving child is to confront him with his goal. This last is done in order to obtain the "recognition reflex"--"a peculiar smile and glint in the eyes indicating that the child has suddenly become aware of his goal, and is beginning to understand why he is acting in a certain way" (Dreikurs et al., 1971, p. 34). If the "recognition reflex" is forthcoming, the intervenor may be sure the goal has been correctly guessed. The "recognition reflex" is thus important for both the intervenor (I have guessed correctly), and the child (It's true, that is what I was doing, I recognize it now).

One of the concerns which eventually led to the research in this paper is a contradiction regarding goals between two of Dreikurs' books. In Maintaining Sanity in the Classroom (1971), Dreikurs, Grunwald and Pepper say that "these four goals of disturbing behavior can be observed in young children up to the age of ten" (p. 17). Although

these goals remain and can be detected in people of all ages, children "may develop different goals to gain social significance" (p. 18) with classroom peers and later in the adult world. The four goals of misbehavior then, are not all-inclusive. In Discipline Without Tears (1972), Dreikurs and Cassel write ". . . the senior author has identified the following as being the four goals of children's misbehavior. . . . Many attempts to discover more than these four goals have, to date, proved unsuccessful" (p. 34). Although both books provide cases, neither refers to specific research nor presents a general bibliography.

III. DREIKURS AS A DISCIPLE OF ADLER

Rudolf Dreikurs met Adler in 1923. Their relationship lasted until Adler's death in 1937. Dreikurs was first Adler's student; later he became "perhaps the most prolific of Alfred Adler's collaborators" (Allen, 1971, p. 49). In many of his books and articles Dreikurs simplified and organized Adler's rather jumbled thoughts. "Adler was like a fountain of ideas . . . but it was against his nature . . . to sit down and patiently collect, order and group these ideas so as to construct a system. In consequence, if we want to present an Adlerian philosophy, we will have to construct it ourselves" (Bruck, 1947). Dreikurs did so admirably. If some of the depth and complexity of Adlerian thinking is missing, Dreikurs replaced it with a clarity and simplicity more likely to hold the attention of all but the most serious student.

In an article published five months after his death, Dreikurs stated: "I am an Adlerian in theory and in practice" (1972b, p. 35). The excerpts from The Challenge of Parenthood given above support his claim. Beyond his paraphrasing of Adler, much of the flavor of Adlerian thought is also present in Dreikurs' work.

Certainly Adlerian is the general idea of creating a typology. Alfred Adler, despite his warnings as to the dangers of typing personalities, had a penchant for so doing. His classification systems, however, are either incomplete (as in the case of his social interest/degree of activity system, 1935/1964, discussed in detail below), or too general to stand on their own as diagnostic categories, although they may provide useful insights (e.g., optimist/pessimist, assailant/defendant, influence of difficulties on social interest, birth order, 1927/1954). A number of Adler's followers besides Dreikurs also attempted classification systems (Angers, 1965; Brooks, 1971; Bruck, 1947; Mosak, 1972; Shulman and Mosak, 1967). Although all of these systems are derived from Adler, only Dreikurs' has gained widespread support in the Individual Psychology literature.

That Dreikurs began to theorize from an Adlerian point of view is obvious. Social embeddedness, purposiveness, degree of activity and the pro- or anti-social nature of all behavior are major themes in both theories. Even beyond the identical use of these broad themes, similarities remain. For example, the four-fold grid, obtained by crossing degree of activity with degree of social interest, so basic to Dreikurs' theory, was first presented by Adler, albeit in far sketchier a fashion.

Adler's typology began strongly with the identification of four life style attitudes: ruling, getting, avoiding, and an unnamed socially useful type. This fourth type has a sufficient degree of both activity and social interest. The ruling type has activity but low social interest. Adler divided the ruling type into those who attack other directly, expressing greater amounts of activity (delinquents, sadists, tyrants) and those who attack themselves in order to hurt others, thereby expressing a lesser amount of activity (suicides, drug addicts, alcoholics). At this point Adler seemed to lose interest in his classification scheme. He finished it rather quickly by saying, "The second and third types show even less activity and not much social interest" (1935/1964, p. 70).

Dreikurs' typology is all his own, although he claimed that "when I formulated the four goals of misbehaving children I did so because I found all of them in Adler's writing" (1972b, p. 36). In saying this, however, Dreikurs was referring to the individual goals and not to the theory. Unlike Adler, who was describing separate situations (see Ansbacher, 1967, pp. 386-92), Dreikurs raised some of these descriptions to the level of types, subsuming some, and ignoring others. Moreover, while maintaining the Adlerian premise that degree of activity and degree of social interest are basic and consistent factors of personality, Dreikurs introduced a new use for the word goal.

Adler saw only two types of goals--socially useful and socially useless. Both goals can be expressed in an infinite variety of ways because each individual is unique, but the striving of all individuals is either a socially constructive, problem-solving approach, or a striving

for personal power and superiority (1933b/1964). Thus ruling, getting, and avoiding are not goals in themselves, but modes of living, life-style attitudes, by which the individual perceives himself to be obtaining the final goal of superiority.

Dreikurs did not exclude the Adlerian meaning of the word "goal," but he changed the context so that unless the reader knows Adlerian writings a different idea altogether is inferred from the explanation. For example:

> The development of personality, of a life style, is based on the opinions which the child forms about himself and others and of the goals which he sets for himself (Dreikurs et al., 1971, p. 5).
>
> Within the framework of the life style, based on long-range goals in life, are the immediate movements, the short-range goals as they may be called (Dreikurs et al., 1971, p. 15).

In these two quotes, goals seem to be things like education or occupation. Sometimes Dreikurs seems to imply that the immediate and final goal are synonymous (1948, pp. 25-28); at other times he states that the basic goal is to belong and the immediate goal is the chosen method of achieving belonging (Dreikurs and Soltz, 1964, p. 14). Dreikurs appears most divergent from Adler when he attributes to Adler a definition of life style as "the sum total of the attitudes, goals, and beliefs the child developed" (Dreikurs and Grey, 1968, p. 30). The life style for Adler was the attitude toward life, the method of facing life, creatively arrived at in order to forward the individual's striving toward the final, fictional goal (Ansbacher et al., 1967, p. 174).

The basic difference between Dreikurs and Adler centers on this point. Adler believed attention, numerous mental disorder categories,

revenge, and assumed disabilities to be subsumed under, and to be aspects of, the over-riding, long-range, socially useless goal of power (in Ansbacher et al., 1967, pp. 366-71 and p. 384). Dreikurs saw power as one of only four distinct immediate goals of misbehavior.

Minor differences also exist. Adler saw high activity and high social interest as the necessary combination for a socially useful individual. Dreikurs' active-constructive category is still descriptive of misbehavior because the goal is attention, rather than social usefulness, even though the product is useful. Adler felt that the individual's goal, formed as it was in earliest childhood, was both hazy and unreachable, a child's vision of security and perfection. Dreikurs implies the four goals to be neither unclear nor unreachable--children know when they want attention and know when they have obtained it.

A final minor difference in theoretical approach creates a large difference in the writings each psychologist produced to help others work with children. Adler's typologies are always presented with a warning that each individual is unique, that behavior falls along continua and cannot be placed in boxes, and that his classifications are temporary and only to "illuminate the broad field" (1935/1964, p. 68). Dreikurs also believed in the uniqueness of the individual, but he added, "The immediate responses in dealing with concrete life situations (are) peculiarly similar" (Dreikurs et al., 1971, p. 15). Thus strict Adlerians would avoid using the most central aspect of Dreikurs' theory. There are some indications in the literature to confirm this hypothesis (Bullard, 1968; Dreikurs, 1972b).

IV. THE IMPORTANCE OF DREIKURS

Dreikurs' theory is becoming more widely known due to a number of factors. His original importance in Individual Psychology was due to his being an early collaborator of Adler's. He achieved more personal prominance as the founder of the Alfred Adler Institute in Chicago. As the founder of Individual Psychology News, which eventually became the Journal of Individual Psychology in 1944, Dreikurs created a forum for his theories. His many articles, books and speeches helped keep his ideas freshly in mind and brought him a number of students. Some of these students (e.g., Pearl Cassel, Don Dinkmeyer, Loren Grey, Vicki Soltz) helped widen the audience for his four goals theory by writing books and articles either with him or on their own.

The typology he introduced has become so much a part of Adlerian psychology that a report on the first workshop on training Adlerian counselors included "the counselor looks for the four goals of misbehavior" (R. R. Ansbacher, 1971, p. 43) as one of the 27 principles an Adlerian counselor holds. Even more striking, when answering in their own journal the question "What positive contributions made since Adler's death do you feel most valuable to Individual Psychology?" (DiSanto, 1974, p. 24), five of the six editors of the Journal of Individual Psychology, a publication of the American Society of Adlerian Psychologists, mentioned Dreikurs' concept of the four goals of misbehavior.

Wider acceptance of Dreikurs' theory is intimated by the inclusion of chapters devoted to its explication in such texts as Gottsegan and Gottsegan's Professional School Psychology (Dreikurs, 1960) and Maddi's

Perspectives on Personality (Dreikurs, 1971). The fact that the NEA Journal has a pamphlet by Dreikurs and Soltz (Your Child and Discipline, undated) and an accompanying film strip available for bulk sale and use is another indication of Dreikurs' influence in the broader field of psychology in the schools.

In sum, one reason for the importance of Dreikurs is simply the place he holds in Individual Psychology. There are signs that, due to the exertions of his followers, his theory will come to occupy an increasingly important role outside the circle of Individual Psychologists. The areas of application include parent effectiveness training (Dinkmeyer, 1976), school psychology (Scarth, 1969), and counseling (R. R. Ansbacher, 1971).

Dreikurs is also important because of what he tried to do. In his own words, "The need for well-defined techniques is evident when we try to train practitioners" (1972b, p. 37). Adler lectured and wrote with huge energy, tailoring his works to the audience of the moment. He is thus repetitious to read, very general in defining his major constructs, and almost always vague on details. Rotter (1962) made similar observations when he discussed the difficulty of doing research on Adlerian principles. The Viennese child guidance clinics Adler instituted were highly successful (Rychlak, 1973, p. 93), but Adler was there to teach, model, and answer questions. We may surmise that Adlerian psychology without any contacts with Adler himself was difficult to practice by the decline Individual Psychology experienced immediately after his death. It was Dreikurs who revitalized the movement, and he did so, in part, by developing techniques which were

relatively simple to learn and apply. Dreikurs is nowhere more Adlerian than in his concern to disseminate the principles of Individual Psychology to everyone who came into contact with children. Though he simplified, and perhaps even distorted, Adlerian thought, he attempted a Herculean task: to codify and systematize the basic theory into situational approaches which non-clinicians could use in recognizable instances covering the broad range of children's misbehaviors.

V. RATIONALE FOR CURRENT RESEARCH

How much improvement over other methods of dealing with children these approaches possess is difficult to assess. The case method of presenting research, so prevalent in the area of personality, leaves few traces of failure in the literature. Considering the place Dreikurs' typology holds, and the nearly 30 years which have passed since its introduction, it is difficult to understand the paucity of critical comment and the lack of attempts at empirical validation a search of the literature reveals.

In any case, the approaches Dreikurs advocated (encouragement, natural and logical consequences, etc.) seem to have a large amount of appeal for the present day American way of life, making Dreikurs' tools a welcome part of the adult armamentarium whether or not the constructs for which he popularized them are reality based. However, not all approaches are to be used with all children; different goals require different treatments. Two questions emerge: are the four goals of misbehaving children, the antecedents which determine the approaches to be used, a reasonably true explanation for children's misbehavior?

If the goals do explain misbehavior, can teachers be taught to recognize them in misbehaving children without long and careful training?

Since Dreikurs' purpose was to increase the ability of adults to apply Adlerian principles, his categories ought to be fairly clear descriptors of interpersonal activity (as opposed to etiological systems, for example). If children respond with a "recognition reflex" to the explanation of their goal, then the division into goals must make some inherent sense, even to children. Otherwise, the child has been programmed, in effect, by the directiveness and authoritarian power of the therapist. Programming children may be a most effective method of changing behavior, but it was not therapists for whom Dreikurs was attempting to simply Adler (Bullard, 1968, p. 65), nor therapists who most lack tools for dealing with children. And on the other side, it cannot be expected that teachers and parents have command of the skills necessary to be effectively directive.

If Dreikurs is correct that there are four goals of misbehavior, and that children, as well as parents, teachers, counselors, and therapists can recognize them, empirical data ought to support his theory. Failure of the data reported here to support Dreikurs may be due to a number of factors alone or in combination. The hypotheses which follow may be too distantly or poorly related to the theory. There may be a misunderstanding of the theory's premises. Methodological deficiencies may have obscured or caused to be neglected data which would have been obtainable from the subjects used. The methods employed required using children old enough to understand the task and skilled

enough to print their ideas on paper. This restricted the range of possible subjects, forcing exclusion of children up to the age of seven--children who, according to Dreikurs, fit the theory at least as well, and possibly better, than the children who actually served as subjects. Finally, failure of the data to support Dreikurs' theory may mean that there are theoretical flaws. Dreikurs could have failed to generate the proper number or types of categories; the purposes of misbehavior may be unique to each child; one of the basic Adlerian premises may be incorrect. (That is, it is possible that individual personalities are not unified, and/or that not all behavior is purposeful, and/or that not all behavior has an interpersonal aim.)

Ignoring all the possible limitations of the current study and accepting Dreikurs' four goals of misbehavior theory as fact, it is expected that:

1. Children will be able to make statements about the goals of misbehavior. (Ethical and time considerations do not permit these statements to be elicited from self-produced behaviors.)

2. Teachers will be able to make statements about the goals of children's misbehaviors.

3. Teachers will be able to categorize the group of statements generated by all the teachers according to a personally meaningful structure. Each teacher will be able to label the categories he or she creates.

4. The teachers will be able to rename their own categories with Dreikurs' terminology without a major reordering of the statements.

5. School psychologists, given definitions of the four goals of misbehavior, will be able to sort the goal statements made by the children and teachers into the four categories with high inter-rater agreement. (See Appendix A for the definitions of the four goals of misbehavior as they were given to both teachers and school psychologists.)

6. The school psychologists, given the teachers' statements for a second time after a one week interval, will be able to closely approximate their original sorting (intra-rater consistency).

7. Psychologists considering themselves familiar with Adlerian terminology will be able to agree on the interpersonal goal quality of the statements made by children and teachers.

If Adlerian counselors and school psychologists are going to continue to urge the use of the four goal system on parents, teachers, and each other as the confrontative first step necessary for altering children's misbehavior, then some objectively arrived at indications should exist that the system is more or less related to observable phenomena. Currently, failures in this type of diagnosis and remediation can as easily be blamed on the child's failure to fit Dreikurs' system as on the applier's failure to correctly use the confrontative questions or the remediation techniques.

CHAPTER II

METHODS

I. SUBJECTS

Thirty-six children were used in this study--six each from the third, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, and twelfth grades. The schools from which the children came were--with two exceptions--randomly chosen from the appropriate population of schools available in the Knox County School System. The third graders were a late inclusion in the study and the school was chosen because of the close working relationship of the author with the principal and teachers. The author ran this group. All other children and teacher groups were led by an experimenter unaware of the purpose of the experiment and unfamiliar with Adler and Dreikurs. The twelfth graders were from a suburban city school because a relationship between the actual experimenter and a student teacher at that school obviated the scheduling difficulties which were experienced by the author with the randomly chosen county school.

The pairing of school and grade was random. Where more than one class per grade existed, the class or classes used was chosen by the school principal. Permission slips were then given the teacher and sent home via the children. Six children were then chosen by the teacher from among those who returned signed permission slips and who offered their services. Teachers were told nothing about the experiment

except that the children would probably enjoy it. They were asked to choose the six children randomly.

Twenty-four elementary school teachers volunteered their services for this study--six each from the four elementary schools randomly chosen from the twenty-nine within the Knox County School System. Due to the possibility that children over the age of ten seek other goals, only teachers working with young children (grades K-5) were asked to volunteer. One teacher was unable to complete the tasks requested due to other commitments. Her data were totally omitted from the study.

Six school psychologists were asked to participate. They were chosen from among those working for either the Knoxville or Knox County school systems. Two criteria were used in their selection. First, they needed to be unaware of the purposes of the current research. Second, they needed to have roughly similar Adlerian and Dreikursian backgrounds. Those chosen had no formal background in Individual Psychology and professed themselves unknowledgeable in this area of psychology.

Three practicing psychologists (two school psychologists and one clinician) were picked to take part in this study. They were chosen on the basis of two criteria: (1) they consider themselves familiar with Adlerian and Dreikursian materials, and (2) they were unaware of the current study. For purposes of brevity they will be referred to as Adlerians throughout this paper although only one of the three actually refers to himself by that title.

II. APPARATUS

Normal classroom or school library tables and chairs were used. Each child and teacher was given a half sheet of ditto paper and a pencil for the initial task. The experimenter used a magic marker and a 12 x 18 inch art pad (flip-chart). For the second and third tasks, scotch tape, full sheets of blank ditto paper and 60 letter size envelopes were needed.

III. PROCEDURE

Generation of Statements

The children, grouped separately by grade within school, and the teachers, grouped by school, were asked to generate statements about children's misbehavior. They responded to the paragraph below, read by the experimenter, in the manner prescribed by the nominal group technique (n.g.t.) described by Delbecq, Van de Ven and Gustafson (1975). This technique requires individually written responses to the experimenter's statement of the task. The privately written ideas are then verbalized one at a time in round-robin fashion and placed on a flip-chart by the experimenter. The round-robin continues until all statements, minus replications, are on the flip-chart. A short discussion follows to make sure all participants understand each statement. The subjects are then asked to consider all the responses on the flip-chart list and to number order on their own papers, adding items from the chart if necessary some number of statements according to the experimenter's purpose. In this case, the children and teachers were asked to rank the statements according to how frequently the subject

thought each occurred as the goal of misbehavior in the classroom. It was suggested that they only rate those they considered in the top five, using one (1) as the most frequently occurring goal and five (5) as the least frequent. (For the background of n.g.t. and the rationale for its use here, see Appendix B.) The paragraph to which children and teachers responded was:

> All people--at times--do things they really shouldn't. In classrooms, all of us observe actions of students which teachers might not like or approve of. "What is the purpose of that? Why did (or didn't) you do this?" are questions teachers sometimes ask. I want you to write down on this piece of paper all the reasons you can think of for the purposes of students' misbehavior. Think about what the students may want parents or teachers or friends to think or feel about them. There aren't any "right" answers to this question. I just want to know what YOU think about why (FOR CHILDREN: you, or a classmate, or maybe a sister or brother) (FOR TEACHERS: your students) would do something naughty in school. What might (you) (your students) want? What is the purpose or goal of the misbehavior? Don't write down THINGS students want, write what the students want others to know or think about them from seeing their behavior.

Five to ten minutes was ample time to finish the task. The round-robin and discussion followed. The subjects were told that they might add statements to their list during the round-robin if a new one occurred to them. When the discussion was over the subjects were told:

> Now I want you to put a large number 1 on your own piece of paper next to the statement you feel represents the most common reason for misbehavior. Put a number 2 next to the second most common reason, and so on. You needn't go beyond 5. Make sure you consider all the statements on the flip-chart. If one you consider to be in the first five isn't on your own paper, add it at the bottom so that you can number it along with the others.

The individual papers were then collected. This completed the children's task and the first session for the teachers. Although a random order would have been preferable, when the groups met was dependent upon the mutual convenience of the school personnel and the

experimenter. The actual order of meeting was: sixth graders, teacher groups B and D, eighth graders, fifth graders, teacher group A, seventh graders, teacher group C, twelfth graders, and third graders.

Classification of Statements

After all the teacher groups had generated statments, a combined list of their statements was compiled and all exact duplicates discarded. Sixty-two statements remained. These were typed and dittoed so that there were two complete sets for each teacher and school psychologist in the study. The typed statements were placed on separate strips of paper so that they could be presented in random order. Each set of 62 statements was then put into a separate envelope.

The teacher groups were then reconvened between one and two weeks later and each teacher given an envelope. The following statement was read by the experimenter:

> The statements given you are all the goal statements about misbehavior made by all the teachers who have taken part in this study, including yourselves. Some of the statements have been joined together to shorten your task.
>
> Please arrange, sort, order, group--whatever--the statements into categories according to any method which makes sense to you. You may set up as few or as many categories as you wish. Just remember that your original task was to write down as many reasons as you could think of for why children misbehave. Your categories now should be reasons for or goals of misbehavior.
>
> When the piles of statements are ordered to your satisfaction, think up a label or title for each category. Write this label on a blank piece of paper. You will need as many pieces of blank paper as you have piles of statements. Attach all the statements belonging with the label you have created to the now labeled sheet of paper.

Each teacher was given a number by the experimenter so that the results of this task could be compared with the results of the task to follow.

The teacher's number, plus the initial of the school, was placed on every piece of paper used by the teacher. The teachers were then asked to fold all their materials and place them in the envelopes they were originally given. These envelopes were collected and a fresh set of envelopes distributed.

The new set of envelopes contained the same statements as before plus descriptions of three of Dreikurs' four categories plus blank sheets entitled "Other." The descriptions were excerpted from Dreikurs' own writing (1972a) and included the child's supposed feelings, the types of children fitting the category and the general adult feeling when observing the misbehavior fitting the category. (The complete statements may be found in Appendix A.)

A different category was omitted from the envelopes given each group of teachers. That is, group A received the categories Power, Revenge, and Display of Inadequacy (which will be referred to as "Withdrawal" hereafter); group B received Attention, Revenge, and Withdrawal explanations; group C received dittoes on Attention, Power, and Withdrawal; group D received descriptions of Attention, Power, and Revenge. All teachers had the option of using a blank sheet entitled "Other." This procedure was followed in order to assess the clarity and exclusiveness of the categories. The perfect situation would have found all 18 teachers in the three groups having a particular Dreikursian category placing the same items in that category while the 6 teachers without that category placed the items in Other.

When the group of teachers received their second set of envelopes they were told:

> This time, the statements in your envelope are to be categorized according to the labels I have given you. You may feel that some statements do not fit into any of the three categories. Any statements which you do not wish to put into a category--either because the statement is not a goal or because, although a goal it won't fit a category--is to be put on the blank piece of paper entitled "Other." Thus, the Other pile may end up with more than one type of statement in it. Don't worry about that, you will not have to label the Other category in any fashion.
>
> When you are finished putting your statements into piles, you should have three piles fitting the dittoed categories and possibly a fourth pile on the blank page labeled Other. Put the same number and letter you used before on the top right hand corner of each label sheet. Attach your statements to the category sheets the way you did before and put all your folded papers into the envelope from which they came.

After finishing the tasks described, the teachers were told by the experimenter that the theory being tested was Dreikurs' and that four categories existed.

The six school psychologists were given their envelopes by the author. They received all four of Dreikurs' categories plus Other in addition to the 62 statements. They were told to sort the statements according to the labels provided, placing items that didn't fit into the Other category. They followed this procedure twice, with a week intervening, in order to check the consistency of the school psychologists on statement placement over time.

The children's statements were sorted by the school psychologists after they had sorted the teachers' statements for the first time and had had a 15-minute break. The school psychologists were given Dreikurs' definitions again and sheets of paper on which the children's statements had been typed in random order. The school psychologists were asked to letter each statement A, P, R, W, or O to correspond with the categories: Attention, Power, Revenge, Withdrawal and Other.

The three Adlerians were seen separately by the author. Their task was to classify all the statements made by the children and the teachers as described below. The statements were given to all three Adlerians, in the same random order, on typed sheets of paper with the following heading:

> Dreikurs believed that every action of a child has a purpose which is in line with his efforts toward social integration. Thus all disturbing behavior is goal directed. Below is a list of statements concerning children's misbehavior. Please identify each statement as either a goal (G), a setting event (S), or something else (O for Other). Do not limit goal statements to just those mentioned by Dreikurs. A statement which defines any goal--even if that goal seems implausible from an Adlerian point of view--should be given a "G."
>
> When you are finished, please run through the statements again and put a check next to those which are interpersonal (again, from an Adlerian point of view) and an X next to those which are not interpersonal in character.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

I. GENERATION AND CATEGORIZATION OF CHILDREN'S STATEMENTS

Adler and Dreikurs agreed that all behavior is purposeful. Dreikurs further believed that a child confronted with his goal would recognize it instantly and without explanation. If this is so, it would seem that children should be aware of misbehavior as goal-oriented, and possibly capable of stating goals of misbehavior in the abstract (i.e., without themselves currently misbehaving or observing misbehavior).

Eliminating exact duplications, the 36 children generated 52 statements. Of these, at least two of the three Adlerians judged 28 to be goal statements. Third grade students made 13 different statements. Of these, 6 were judged to be goal statements by the Adlerians. Fifth graders made 22 statements, 12 of which were considered goals. Sixth graders generated 7 statements, 6 of them goals. Seventh graders listed 16 items, 8 of them goal statements. Eighth graders had 13 of 17 statements judged to be goals. Twelfth graders had 10 of 19 statements classified as goal statements. Listing them in grade order from third to twelfth, 46, 55, 86, 50, 76, and 53 percent of the children's statements were categorized as goal oriented by at least two of the three Adlerians.

Adler and Dreikurs believed all activity to be embedded in a social context. Dreikurs thus believed the goals of misbehaving children to be

interpersonal (as opposed to object oriented). Disregarding whether the statements were goals, the Adlerians were asked to check all statements made by the children which showed a comprehension of this interpersonal quality of misbehavior. From third to twelfth grade, 10, 15, 7, 11, 17 and 12 items were judged interpersonal (77, 68, 100, 69, 100 and 63 percent, respectively). Omitting duplicate statements, 37 of the 52 statements fit this criterion. Overlapping the number of statements judged to be goals with the number judged to be interpersonal, at least two of the three Adlerians included 23 of the 52 statements (44 percent) as interpersonal goal statements.

Table 1 shows the number of statements made by each grade group and the portion of that number judged by the Adlerians to be goals, interpersonal statements, and both (interpersonal goal statements). This last was not a third judgement made by the Adlerians but a combining of the data done by the author. In all cases, the agreement of two of the three Adlerians determined placement of an item. The ability of children to generate interpersonal goal statements about the purposes of misbehavior does not appear to change in any orderly fashion due to age. As can be seen in Table 1, sixth grade children had the highest percent of interpersonal goal statements and the seventh graders the lowest. Eighth graders generated the largest number of interpersonal goal statements and seventh graders the fewest. Ignoring the goal and interpersonal criteria set by the experimenter (see page 25 for the statement read to the children), fifth graders made the most statements and sixth graders the fewest.

TABLE 1. Children's Statements by Grade as Judged by Adlerians to Be Interpersonal Goals.

Grade	No. of Statements Generated	No. of Statements 2/3 Adlerians Classed: GOALS	INTERPERSONAL	INTERP. GOALS	Percent Classed Interp. Goals
3	13	6	10	6	46
5	22	12	15	10	45
6	7	6	7	6	86
7	16	8	11	5	31
8	17	13	17	13	76
12	19	9	12	7	37

Table 2 provides the same material as Table 1 broken down by statement and grade source(s) of the statement. Each item was given a number in somewhat arbitrary fashion. Items receiving the highest ratings for both "goal" and "interpersonal" were numbered first, items rated goals but not interpersonal received numbers after all the interpersonal goal statements were accommodated, items rated interpersonal but not goals were numbered next, and finally, items rated neither goals nor interpersonal were numbered. Thus, whenever item numbers appear in tables, the lower the number the closer the item is to fulfilling the interpersonal goal criteria. (The statements corresponding to the numbers are in Appendix C.) Some of the grade levels in Table 2 are in parentheses. This means that the corresponding item was not rated as one of the five most frequently occurring goals by any of the children at that grade level. It had been assumed that n.g.t. would encourage children and teachers to fill the page since the brainstorming idea of uncritical generation of items is extent. The author's purpose for having the items rated afterwards was to encourage a sense of judgement with regard to each item's fitness to the task given. It was supposed that asking the children to rate the most frequently occurring goals would cause them to critically evaluate each flip-chart item in terms of plausibility and interpersonal goal quality. Requesting goal frequency was simply a means of injecting some reality in what might otherwise have appeared to be just a new game situation. It had been believed that using just the rated items would improve the percent of interpersonal goal statements. The actual change was from 44 to 49 percent interpersonal goal statements. Two of the original

TABLE 2. Children's Statements Across Grade Sources as Judged by Adlerians to Be Interpersonal Goals.

Statement Source by Grade	Statement Number	No. of Adlerians Agreeing Item is: GOAL	INTERPERSONAL	2/3 Adlerians Agree Item is:
all	1	3	3	
8	2	3	3	
5, 6, 8, 12	3	3	3	
5, 6, 7	4	3	3	
(8)[a]	5	3	3	inter-
(8)	6	3	3	
6, 12	8	3	3	personal
3, 5, 7, 8, 12	9	3	3	
8, 12	10	3	3	
7	11	3	3	
5	12	2	3	goal
5	13	2	3	
8	14	2	3	
5	15	2	3	
8, 13	16	2	3	state-
3	17	2	3	
7, 8	18	3	2	
6	19	3	2	ments
8	20	2	2	
5, 6, 8, 12	21	2	2	
3, 8, (12)	22	2	2	
3, 5	23	2	2	
5	24	3	1	goals but
7	25	2	1	not
5	26	2	1	inter-
3, 7, 12	27	2	1	personal
7, 12	28	2	0	
8	29	0	3	
12	30	0	3	inter-
(12)	31	1	3	
5, 6, 7, 12	32	0	3	personal
5	33	0	3	
5, 7, 8	34	1	3	but
3	35	0	3	
3	36	0	3	not
3, 7, 8	37	1	2	
3, 5, 7, 8	38	1	2	goals
(5)	39	0	2	
3, (7)	40	0	2	

TABLE 2 (continued).

Statement Source by Grade	Statement Number	No. of Adlerians Agreeing Item is: GOAL	INTERPERSONAL	2/3 Adlerians Agree Item is:
7, 12	41	0	2	
3	42	0	2	
7	43	1	1	
(12)	44	1	1	neither
(5), 12	45	0	1	
3, 12	46	0	1	inter-
(5)	47	0	1	
(7, 12)	48	0	1	personal
5	49	0	1	
(5)	50	0	1	nor
(12)	51	0	0	
5	52	0	0	goals

[a]Parentheses around a grade level indicate the item was on the flip-chart but not rated as one of the top five most commonly occurring goals of misbehavior by any child in that grade level group.

interpersonal goal statements were omitted by the rating procedure as well as seven items which had not been judged goals.

The six school psychologists sorted all 52 of the statements made by the children into Dreikurs' four categories plus Other whether or not the items were judged interpersonal goals and whether or not they were items on the children's top five in frequency of occurrence lists. Cross-comparisons among school psychologists were then made on each item. On 23 of the 52 statements, fewer than four of the six school psychologists were in agreement as to placement. These statements were not considered as classifiable. (Possible causes for this amount of disagreement will be discussed later.) Of the 29 goal of misbehavior items which did have a placement agreed upon by four or more of the school psychologists, 10 were classified Attention, 7 Power, 4 Revenge, 4 Withdrawal and 4 Other. Table 3 gives this information by item number.

Table 4 presents the same data by grade levels. As will be remembered from Table 2, many items were generated by two or more grade level groups. Thus the breakdown of number of statements by grade necessitates numerous duplications and a grand total number of statements (94) far exceeding the number of statements claimed for the children above (52). Blank spaces in Table 4 indicate that no items were classified as belonging to that category. For example, the third grade children had no items classified Withdrawal or Other. A majority of their items were placed in Revenge. The percent of items classified (of the total number of items generated by each grade level) was lowest for third graders and highest for sixth graders who had all 7 of their

TABLE 3. School Psychologists' Agreement on Relatedness of Children's Statements to Dreikurs' Categories or "Other" Category.

Statement Number[a]	Attention	Power	Revenge	Withdrawal	Other
1	6/6				
2	4/6				
3	5/6				
4	5/6				
5					3/6
6				3/6	
7		6/6			
8		6/6			
9			6/6		
10	5/6				
11		4/6			
12	5/6				
13	3/6				
14					3/6
15		6/6			
16				5/6	
17		3/6			
18		3/6			
19		4/6			
20	5/6				
21	4/6				
22		3/6			
23	3/6				
24				5/6	
25	5/6				
26		5/6			
27					3/6
28	2/6				
29	4/6				
30					4/6
31		3/6	3/6		
32					5/6
33					3/6
34		3/6	3/6		
35		2/6			2/6
36			5/6		
37		5/6			
38			5/6		
39				2/6	2/6
40				2/6	2/6
41					4/6
42					3/6
43					3/6

TABLE 3 (continued).

Statement Number[a]	Attention	Power	Revenge	Withdrawal	Other
44				5/6	
45				3/6	
46			5/6		
47			2/6		
48				4/6	
49				3/6	
50				2/6	2/6
51					3/6
52					4/6

[a]The statements are numbered in same order as in Table 2. Thus, 1-23 were judged interpersonal goals by the Adlerians, etc.

TABLE 4. School Psychologists' Placement of Children's Statements Organized by Grade.

Grade	Number of Statements Classified	Number of Statements Generated	Percent Classified[a]	SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGISTS' PLACEMENT				
				Attention	Power	Revenge	Withdrawal	Other
3	6	13	46	1	1	4		
5	12	22	55	5	3	2	1	1
6	7	7	100	4	2			1
7	11	16	69	3	3	2	1	2
8	11	17	65	7	1	2	1	
12	13	19	68	4	1	2	3	3

[a]When fewer than four of the six school psychologists agreed on a category placement for an item, that item has been omitted.

items classified. Seventh, eighth, and twelfth graders had approximately two-thirds of their statements classified.

The data in Table 4 seem to indicate that attention goals are most often noticed by children--or perhaps, that more words concerning attention are in their vocabularies than words reflective of the other categories. A slight indication is given by the data that the task may have been more difficult for younger children to accomplish in that fewer of the third and fifth grade statements were classifiable.

II. GENERATION AND CLASSIFICATION OF STATEMENTS MADE BY TEACHERS

If the misbehavior of children has interpersonal goals, teachers should be able to generate interpersonal statements, based on their daily observation of children, about the purposes of children's misbehavior. Using n.g.t., 24 elementary school teachers from four randomly chosen Knox County schools generated 62 different statements. (Counting every item, disregarding the possibility of an item being a duplicate, the 24 teachers actually generated 93 statements.) Appendix D presents statements in item number order.

Adlerians' Classification of Teacher Generated Statements

The three Adlerians went through the list of 62 different teacher generated items twice. The first time they determined if the item was a goal, a setting event, or an unnamed alternative to be placed in the category "Other." The second time they judged the statements as interpersonal or not interpersonal. This same procedure was applied to the children's statements and is discussed earlier. In fact, all

the items, children's and teachers' statements, were given to the Adlerians at the same time. A statement was judged to be interpersonal or a goal if two of the three Adlerians agreed it was. To be considered an interpersonal goal, a statement had to be judged interpersonal by two of the judges and a goal by two of the judges.

Table 5 gives the result of the Adlerians' judgements by school group. As noted previously, breaking down items by group forces the inclusion of all duplicates, bringing the total number of statements to 93 instead of 62. The fact that so many more statements were judged interpersonal than were judged goals may be due to two rather extraneous factors. First, the Adlerians had only two categories available to them for "interpersonal" and three for "goal." A completely random sorting would thus place 50 percent of the items as interpersonal and only 33 percent as goals. The second factor is that Adlerians consider all behavior to have interpersonal implications. The three judges were probably biased in favor of finding an interpersonal quality in the statements. Dreikursians believe all behavior to be goal oriented, but are very aware that not all statements about behavior are goal oriented. Thus less bias is probably in their judgement of whether or not the items were goal statements. In no case did half the items generated meet the interpersonal goal criteria. The highest percent of interpersonal goal statements generated by any group was 43 percent by school group A.

Table 6 presents the same data (but without duplicated items) by item number and school source. Ten of the 62 statements (16 percent) were judged interpersonal goals. Two statements (3 percent) were

TABLE 5. Teachers' Statements by School as Judged by Adlerians to Be Interpersonal Goals.

School	No. of Statements	No. of Statements 2/3 Adlerians Classed: GOALS	INTERPERSONAL	INTERP. GOALS	Percent Classed Interp. Goals
A	21	9	15	9	43
B	20	8	16	7	35
C	21	5	17	4	19
D	31	4	20	4	13

TABLE 6. Teachers' Statements Across School Sources Judged by Adlerians.

School Source	Item Number	No. of Adlerians Agreeing Item is: GOAL	INTERPERSONAL	2/3 Adlerians Agree Item is:
All	1	3	3	
All	2	3	3	Inter-
A, B, C	3	3	3	
A	4	3	3	Personal
B	5	3	3	
A, B	6	3	2	Goal
A, B, D	7	3	2	
A, D	8	2	3	State-
A, B, C	9	2	2	
A	10	2	2	ments
B, C	11	3	0	Goals but not
B	12	2	1	Interpersonal
(C)[a]	13	1	3	
B	14	0	3	
B	15	0	3	
(B)	16	0	3	These
D	17	0	3	
(C, D)	18	0	3	Items
B, (C)	19	0	3	
D	20	0	3	are
(B), C	21	0	3	
A, D	22	0	3	Inter-
(D)	23	0	3	
D	24	0	3	Personal
B, C, (D)	25	0	3	
C, D	26	0	3	but
(D)	27	0	3	
B	28	1	2	not
(A), b, (D)	29	1	2	
C, D	30	0	2	Goal
(A)	31	0	2	
B	32	0	2	Statements
A, C, D	33	0	2	
D	34	0	2	
D	35	0	2	
(A, D)	36	0	2	
C, D	37	0	2	
A, C, D	38	0	2	
(A)	39	0	2	
C	40	0	2	
(C)	41	0	2	

TABLE 6 (continued).

School Source	Item Number	No. of Adlerians Agreeing Item is: GOAL	INTERPERSONAL	2/3 Adlerians
(A, D)	42	1	1	These
(A)	43	1	1	
(B), C, (D)	44	1	1	Items
(C)	45	1	1	
(B)	46	1	1	are
(A, B), D	47	0	1	
A, D	48	0	1	Neither
D	49	0	1	
(A)	50	0	1	Goals
A, D	51	0	1	
D	52	0	1	Nor
C	53	0	1	
(B)	54	0	1	Inter-
A, C, (D)	55	0	1	
(C, D)	56	0	0	Personal
D	57	0	0	
C	58	0	0	State-
C	59	0	0	
C, (D)	60	0	0	ments
D	61	0	0	
(D)	62	0	0	

[a]Schools in parentheses indicate item was on the school group's slip-chart but not ranked as one of the top five most frequently observed goals of misbehavior by any teacher in that school group.

judged goals but not interpersonal, 29 statements (57 percent) were judged interpersonal but not goals, and 21 statements (34 percent) were judged by two of the three Adlerians to be neither interpersonal nor goals. The statements have been numbered in the same fashion as were the children's statements--items judged with perfect agreement to be interpersonal goals were numbered first, items judged with perfect agreement to be non-interpersonal and not goals received numbers last. A school group whose letter is in parentheses noted the corresponding item on its flip-chart, but none of the teachers in the group placed the item as one of the five most frequently occurring goals of misbehavior. Again, the rating of items was done to see if the percent of items classified as interpersonal goals would increase. Seventeen of the 62 items were not on any teacher's top 5 in frequency of occurrence list. None of these items had been classified as goals. The change in percent of items judged interpersonal goals is thus from 16 percent (10/62) to 22 percent (10/45).

Teacher Categorization of Teacher Generated Statements

Teachers were asked to sort the 62 items into personally meaningful categories and then to label the categories in order to assess how closely their thinking paralleled Dreikurs'. The number of categories created by each teacher ranged from three to eight ($\overline{X}$ = 5, SD = 1.5). Together, the 23 teachers generated 117 categories. Many of these labels were very similar in wording, but about 43 were more or less distinct categories. The most common general labels were those referring to the child's home background (16 teachers used a category

label of this type), school related problems (15 teachers), peer relationships (12 teachers), and self-concept problems (10 teachers). All other labels occurred five times or less. Two teachers labeled one of their categories with a phrase pertaining to attention. No teacher used the words power, revenge, or display of inadequacy or withdrawal in their individually generated category labels.

Table 7 provides an illustration of the similarities and differences of item placement in categories with similar sounding labels. The general label used for the illustration is "references to the home background." This general label and the others on the previous page were created by the author in order to be able to group the teacher-generated labels. Due to space problems, the identifying school letter and teacher number have been omitted from Table 7. Three teachers who created similar sounding labels have also been omitted for the same reason. The thirteen teachers whose categories are included in the table come from all four of the schools and are presented in the following order: A-1, A-2, A-4, A-6, B-1, B-3, B-6, C-2, C-3, C-6, D-2, D-3, D-4. Words have been abbreviated in the category labels (envi. for environment, beh. for behavior, prob. for problems, h for home, fam. for family) but no words have been omitted or changed. The thirteen teachers placed 7, 14, 9, 21, 8, 9, 13, 4, 15, 7, 12, 17, and 4 items into their self-generated categories. The totals at the bottom of the table indicate the number of teachers, out of the thirteen listed, who felt the item belonged in his or her self-generated category, and by implication, in the general home background category. Ten teachers each placed an item in his or her own category which was not used by any of

TABLE 7. Illustration of Teachers' Organization of Statements into Self-Generated Categories.

Teacher Label for Self-Generated Category	Item Numbers Included in Self-Generated Categories with Similar Sounding, Self-Created Labels
Home envi. influenced beh.	20 26 30 32 41 57 62
Prob. from home background	8 26 30 33 35 41 45 47 49 51 54 57 59 62
Envi. influences (home)	26 30 36 37 41 47 54 57 62
Home controlled problems	7 12 20 26 30 33 34 35 36 40 41 47 49 51 52 54 56 57 58 59 61
Fam. background and relationships	26 30 41 46 47 54 57 62
Home background	24 26 27 30 35 41 47 57 62
H. envi. or uncontrolled beh.	26 27 28 38 40 41 46 47 50 51 56 57 62
Environmentally caused problems	26 41 57 62
Prob. caused by environment	10 20 26 30 36 41 47 49 52 54 56 57 59 60 62
Background	32 36 37 49 50 57 62
Training at home (or lack)	26 30 37 41 47 52 54 55 56 57 60 62
Effect of home life	26 41 55 57 62
Misbehavior due to family and home situation	12 20 26 28 30 32 34 37 40 41 43 44 49 57 59 62
TOTALS	1 1 1 2 4 1 12 2 2 9 3 2 2 3 4 4 1 3 12 1 1 1 2 8 5 2 3 3 6 2 4 13 1 4 2 1 12

the other twelve teachers (i.e., 10 items appear only once in the table). Nine items were placed in the self-generated but similar sounding categories by two teachers. Five items were each placed by three teachers in this category. Five items appear four times, one item appears five times and one item appears six times in the table. No items were used seven and only seven times. One item was used by eight teachers and one by nine. No items were used by exactly ten or eleven teachers. Three items were used by twelve teachers. One item, number 57 (poverty), was included by all thirteen teachers in their individually generated categories having to do with home background.

Table 7 is only an illustration and does not contain complete data on even the one general label shown. However, the results are clear enough to show that although their terminology is similar, the statements included in their categories are sufficiently different to suggest that teachers attach quite a variety of meanings to the same words. To be more specific, it would seem that these thirteen teachers agree that conditions in the home are reasons themselves, or create reasons, for misbehavior at school. By implication, these thirteen teachers also unanimously agree that 25 of the 62 teacher-generated statements they could have placed in this category do not belong. But of the 37 items which were included by one or more of the thirteen teachers, only 4 items were agreed upon by more than half the teachers. Thus, although agreeing that the home influences the child's behavior, they disagree a good deal as to what is a home condition or problems.

The underlying situation which may give rise to Adler's mistaken life styles and Dreikurs' four goals of misbehavior is the helplessness

and uselessness of the young child. From this may come an insecurity, the fear of not being found worthy to belong. This does not suggest causality: the child's perception of the difference between where he is and where he wants to be determines his striving; how that striving is dealt with is chosen by the child. Nevertheless, it would seem that teachers using labels referring to security, even in a causal sense, show thinking somewhat akin to Dreikurs'. Five of the 23 teachers used labels such as "need to belong," "need for acceptance," and "need for security." Appendix E presents all the teacher-generated labels by school and teacher number.

Teacher Classification of Statements Given Three of Dreikurs' Categories Plus Other

Teachers were also asked to reclassify the 62 statements they had generated according to definitions of Dreikurs' four goals. However they were given only three of the four categories plus an ambiguous Other category--each school group of six teachers lacked a different goal definition sheet. Two questions were involved. (1) How simple would the transition be from their own systems to Dreikurs'. That is, would statements that originally seemed similar in nature to them remain together when Dreikurs' system was imposed on their data? (2) Would statements that the three teacher groups and the school psychologists placed in a particular category be placed in Other by the teacher group lacking that category? These questions were an attempt to assess the ease with which Dreikurs' system could be taught and learned by testing the similarity of Dreikurs' thinking with that of

the teachers'. It should be noted that Dreikurs never suggested a given behavior would fit only one category. In fact, he believed that many different behaviors might have any one of the four goals--the context and the result of the misbehavior help the observer to judge which goal is sought. It was for this reason that teachers were asked to generate statements about the goals of misbehavior rather than statements about the misbehaviors themselves. While teachers might place statements about misbehaviors in any category with almost equal justification, it was expected that goal statements would be much more restricted. Thus, although a perfect clarity and mutual exclusiveness of the category definitions was not expected to be demonstrated by the teachers' placement of items, strong placement trends were expected.

To repeat, each teacher created between three and eight categories for the 62 items. Including all duplications, the 23 teachers created 117 categories. When they were asked to sort the same 62 items a second time, they were given four categories--three of Dreikurs' four goals of misbehavior categories plus Other. A count was made to determine the cohesion of the items. (See Table 8 for a tabular presentation of the data.) Items from 51 of the original 117 categories were dispersed across all four of the category options available in the second sorting. The items from 42 of the original categories were placed into three of the given categories. The items from 21 original categories were placed into two of the Dreikurs plus Other scheme. The items from three original categories remained together in the reclassification, being placed in only one of the given categories. These last three teacher-generated categories contained 5, 2, and 1 item each.

TABLE 8. Results of Teachers' Resorting Items from Self-Generated Categories to Three of Dreikurs' Four Categories Plus "Other."

School and Teacher	Category	Number of Items from Original Category Placed in: Att.	Power	Rev.	Withd.	Other	Number of Categories Used
A-1	1	X	5	9	2	0	3
	2	X	6	8	10	1	4
	3	X	1	3	3	0	3
	4	X	2	4	4	4	4
A-2	1	X	5	6	3	5	4
	2	X	2	12	1	0	3
	3	X	4	0	8	2	3
	4	X	1	2	9	2	4
A-3	1	X	6	1	10	1	4
	2	X	5	5	1	1	4
	3	X	10	3	0	3	3
	4	X	4	3	7	3	4
A-4	1	X	8	1	5	0	3
	2	X	1	3	3	1	4
	3	X	4	3	3	5	4
	4	X	3	4	3	0	3
	5	X	2	4	2	1	4
	6	X	0	4	2	1	3
A-5	1	X	6	0	10	2	3
	2	X	1	3	1	3	4
	3	X	0	5	0	2	2
	4	X	9	4	2	2	4
	5	X	1	0	9	0	2
A-6	1	X	3	1	1	8	4
	2	X	7	3	0	1	3
	3	X	2	3	8	10	4
	4	X	4	2	1	7	4
B-1	1	4	X	6	2	1	4
	2	9	X	12	2	0	3
	3	1	X	5	1	1	4
	4	2	X	2	7	0	3
	5	1	X	0	5	0	2

TABLE 8 (continued).

School and Teacher	Category	Number of Items from Original Category Placed in: Att.	Power	Rev.	Withd.	Other	Number of Categories Used
B-2	1	13	X	1	4	1	4
	2	3	X	10	1	0	4
	3	0	X	0	11	5	2
	4	0	X	10	2	1	3
B-3	1	1	X	9	0	2	3
	2	2	X	2	0	1	3
	3	1	X	0	3	0	2
	4	2	X	7	1	2	4
	5	2	X	2	2	2	4
	6	2	X	1	1	4	4
	7	0	X	0	5	0	1
	8	2	X	0	2	2	3
B-4	1	11	X	2	0	0	2
	2	3	X	16	2	6	4
	3	0	X	0	4	4	2
	4	1	X	1	9	0	3
	5	0	X	0	0	2	1
	6	0	X	0	0	1	1
B-5	1	9	X	3	1	2	4
	2	2	X	1	3	1	4
	3	7	X	2	0	2	3
	4	0	X	9	3	0	2
	5	1	X	1	14	0	3
B-6	1	3	X	14	6	0	3
	2	8	X	3	1	0	3
	3	6	X	0	6	3	3
	4	3	X	7	3	1	4
C-1	1	4	7	X	15	1	4
	2	0	0	X	1	9	2
	3	2	6	X	6	10	4
C-2	1	5	0	X	2	2	3
	2	4	4	X	10	2	4
	3	0	0	X	1	6	2
	4	0	2	X	0	4	2
	5	1	0	X	1	2	3
	6	0	1	X	1	2	3
	7	0	0	X	6	1	2
	8	0	1	X	1	2	3

TABLE 8 (continued).

School and Teacher	Category	Number of Items from Original Category Placed in: Att.	Power	Rev.	Withd.	Other	Number of Categories Used
C-3	1	15	5	X	6	7	4
	2	1	5	X	4	4	4
	3	1	2	X	8	4	4
C-5	1	13	4	X	4	1	4
	2	1	15	X	10	0	3
	3	0	8	X	1	0	2
C-6	1	7	5	X	1	0	3
	2	2	0	X	2	0	2
	3	2	1	X	1	4	4
	4	0	2	X	8	6	3
	5	0	1	X	3	3	3
	6	0	2	X	1	4	3
	7	1	0	X	3	2	3
D-1	1	4	1	10	X	1	4
	2	0	6	1	X	5	3
	3	4	3	1	X	3	4
	4	5	3	1	X	3	4
	5	0	0	2	X	8	2
D-2	1	6	2	5	X	3	4
	2	3	4	1	X	2	4
	3	7	2	8	X	7	4
	4	0	3	3	X	6	3
D-3	1	1	5	5	X	0	3
	2	3	5	1	X	2	4
	3	1	3	0	X	2	3
	4	0	2	4	X	7	3
	5	3	2	6	X	6	4
	6	0	0	3	X	1	2
D-4	1	5	0	1	X	3	3
	2	2	5	7	X	1	4
	3	3	3	2	X	3	4
	4	3	3	3	X	2	4
	5	4	0	3	X	2	3
	6	2	0	0	X	2	2
	7	1	0	0	X	1	2

TABLE 8 (continued).

School and Teacher	Category	Number of Items from Original Category Placed in: Att.	Power	Rev.	Withd.	Other	Number of Categories Used
D-5	1	5	5	3	X	1	4
	2	1	1	2	X	6	4
	3	0	1	3	X	4	3
	4	0	0	1	X	4	2
	5	2	2	3	X	3	4
	6	1	4	5	X	0	3
	7	0	0	1	X	5	2
D-6	1	3	4	4	X	2	4
	2	1	2	1	X	9	4
	3	5	4	3	X	3	4
	4	3	2	3	X	8	4
	5	1	0	4	X	0	2
TOTALS	117	238	253	324	305	303	

In Table 9, the above information is presented by teacher group. Effects of a specific missing category on the resorting can be seen. School A generated 27 categories. In the resorting, Attention was unavailable to this group. Items from 25 of the group's 27 categories were placed in Power. Items from 24 of the original categories were placed in Revenge. Twenty-four categories were represented by items in Withdrawal and 20 by items in Other. Group B generated 32 categories. Power was unavailable in the resorting task. Twenty-four of their original 32 categories were represented in Attention, 23 in Revenge, 26 in Withdrawal and 20 in Other. Group C generated 24 categories. This group had five teachers, all the others had six. These teachers were not given Revenge for the second sorting. They placed items from 14 of their original categories in Attention, from 16 in Power, from 23 in Withdrawal and from 20 in Other. Group D generated 34 categories. They lacked Withdrawal in the reclassification. Items from 25 of their original categories were placed in Attention, from 25 in Power, from 31 in Revenge and from 30 in Other.

The disparity between the teachers' thinking and Dreikurs' is more obvious if the results appearing in Table 9 are compared with what would have occurred had the teachers paralleled Dreikurs' scheme. Since each group had six teachers (except group C which had five), a perfect recreation of Dreikurs' scheme would show 24 categories (six teachers x 4 categories) generated by groups A, B, and D, and 20 categories generated by group C. Each of Dreikurs' categories available in the second sorting would have six (five for group C) of the original categories represented by items from the first sorting. Other would

TABLE 9. Number of Original Categories Represented by Items in Dreikurs' Categories Plus "Other" Broken Down by Teacher Group.

No. of Original Categories Generated	No. of Original Categories Containing Items Later Placed in Given Dreikurs Category or in "Other":				
	ATTENTION	POWER	REVENGE	WITHDRAWAL	OTHER
Group A = 27	X	25	24	24	20
Group B = 32	24	X	23	26	20
Group C = 24	14	16	X	23	20
Group D = 34	25	25	31	X	30
TOTAL = 117	63	66	78	73	90
Percent of Dispersion[a]	70	78	84	88	77

[a]For example, the 63 categories represented by items in Dreikurs' attention category came from 117 - 27 = 90 original categories. 63 ÷ 90 = .70. Thus 70 percent of the possible number of categories are represented in the attention category.

have 6 categories represented also since a perfect sorting would force teachers to use Other for the missing category. Continuing with what would have occurred had the teachers perfectly recreated Dreikurs' scheme, items from 25 percent of the original categories would have been used to place items into each of Dreikurs' categories and Other. The actual percent of original categories represented in Dreikurs' categories plus Other is 70 percent for Attention, 78 percent for Power, 84 percent for Revenge, 88 percent for Withdrawal, and 77 percent for Other.

It would seem that the transfer from personally generated categories to Dreikurs' four goal categories is not a simple transition. The data indicate that an almost total reordering of the teacher-created goal statements was deemed necessary in order for them to change from their own methods of classifying the statements about misbehavior to a method imposed by the Dreikurs' system.

The second question regarding the teachers' sorting of items using Dreikurs' scheme was: will teachers somehow sense or feel the lack of a category? Would the absence of a category (e.g., Attention) cause items to be placed in Other by teachers without Attention which teachers having the Attention category placed within it? In more concrete terms, do the statements which appear in Other correspond to the statements in the modal category chosen by teachers who actually had access to it?

The total possible number of teachers placing any one item in any one category differs because (1) three statements were either lost or discarded, (2) one teacher was unable to complete the task, and

(3) of the remaining 23 teachers all had Other available to them while 18 had Revenge and 17 the three remaining categories of Attention, Power and Withdrawal. Thus, although the numbers are small, percentages are given below for ease of comprehension. Rather than determining general agreement as to the category placement by an arbitrary percentage, which no matter how low would leave some items in an "unclassifiable" category, items were placed into categories by mode. Thus if even 6 of 17 teachers had placed an item in one category while fewer than 6 of the remaining 11 had agreed to any of the three remaining categories, the item would have been placed in the category chosen by the first 6. The actual lowest mode for one of Dreikurs' categories was 8 of 18 teacher placements. Despite using this method, one item's frequency was bimodal and has been omitted from the data given below. Dreikurs' categories received 48 of the 62 items.

Nine items were placed (by the three groups of teachers which had it available) into Attention with 88, 82, 82, 76, 59, 59, 59, 53, and 53 percent agreement. For the respective nine items, of the six teachers without Attention, the number who used Other was 1, 2, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 2, and 0. Power was the most common category used for these items when Attention was lacking, absorbing 33 of the 54 placement choices. Revenge was chosen 11 times and Withdrawal 4 in comparison with the 6 times Other was chosen.

Six items fell into the Power category with 88, 71, 65, 59, 47, and 47 percent agreement. The number, out of six, lacking this category and using Other instead was 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, and 2. Most of the teachers lacking Power used Attention (15 of the 35 possible choices) but by a

small margin. Thirteen of the possible choices were for Revenge. Withdrawal (4/35) and Other (3/35) were barely used.

Eighteen items were most frequently placed in Revenge (94, 89, 67, 67, 61, 61, 61, 56, 56, 56, 56, 53, 53, 50, 50, 50, 44, and 44 percent agreement). The five teachers without this category used Other 1, 2, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 3, 3, 0, 4, 1, 1, and 0 times. Fourteen of 90 possible times (18 items x 5 teachers) teachers placed these items in Attention, 31 times in Power, and 25 times in Withdrawal in comparison with the 20 votes for Other.

The display of inadequacy (Withdrawal) category was given 15 of the 62 teacher-generated statements. The percent of teacher agreement with this placement was 94, 94, 88, 88, 82, 82, 82, 82, 82, 76, 71, 59, 59, 53, and 53 percent. Six teachers did not have this category and placed those items in Other with the following frequency: 3, 1, 1, 1, 4, 3, 3, 1, 0, 0, 4, 3, 1, 3, 1. Twenty of the 90 items (15 items x 6 teachers) possible, these six teachers placed the 15 items in Attention, 14 times in Power and 27 times in Revenge as compared to the 29 times Other was used.

The above data can be reviewed to extract the percentage of agreement among teachers as to item placement within Dreikurs' scheme. Three items received the same placement from 90 percent or more of the teachers. Twelve items were placed in categories by 80 to 89 percent of the teachers. Four items were placed with 70 to 79 percent agreement.

Six items were placed with 60 to 69 percent agreement. Nineteen items were placed with 50 to 59 percent agreement. Four items were

placed with 40 to 49 percent agreement. Incorporating the data on the use of Other by teachers lacking the modal frequency category shows the relative strength of agreement on placement. One Revenge item (50 percent agreement) was placed in Other by four of the six teachers lacking the Withdrawal category. Five Withdrawal items (94, 82, 82, 59, 53 percent) and two Revenge items (53, 53 percent) were placed in Other by three of the teachers without those categories (6 and 5, respectively). Agreement as to placement into Other by teachers lacking the modal frequency category was less than 50 percent for the other 38 items which had a modal frequency within Dreikurs' four goal categories.

In Table 10 the data have been combined to show the overall results with greater clarity. The table presents more obviously the answer to the question regarding mutual exclusivity of Dreikurs' goal categories for the teacher-generated statements. Considering the 48 items placed in Dreikurs' categories by teachers, teachers without a given category did not, in general, use Other. While preferred categories emerged when a specific category was unavailable, Other was the preferred category only once of the four times possible and had the lowest percent of agreement of any of the preferred categories. The highest agreement was on the group consensus Attention items which received 61 percent power placement from the teachers without the attention category. The lowest agreement was on the 15 Withdrawal items which were placed in Other 32 percent of the time by the teachers lacking Withdrawal as an Option.

TABLE 10. Strength of Teacher Agreement on Goal Statement Categorization.

No. of Items Placed in Category	Max Possible No. of teachers Agreeing	Actual/Possible No. of Votes for Given Category	Average Inter-Teacher Placement Agreement[a]	Ratio of Actual/Possible Votes and Percent of Agreement of Teachers Without Category: ATTEN.	POWER	REVENGE	WITHDR.	OTHER
Attention 9 items	17	104/153	.68	X	$\frac{33}{54}$=.61	$\frac{11}{54}$=.20	$\frac{4}{54}$=.07	$\frac{6}{54}$=.11
Power 6 items	17	64/102	.63	$\frac{15}{35}$=.43	X	$\frac{13}{35}$=.37	$\frac{4}{35}$=.11	$\frac{3}{35}$=.09
Revenge 18 items	18	191/323[b]	.59	$\frac{14}{90}$=.16	$\frac{31}{90}$=.34	X	$\frac{25}{90}$=.28	$\frac{20}{90}$=.22
Withdrawal 15 items	17	195/255	.76	$\frac{20}{90}$=.22	$\frac{14}{90}$=.16	$\frac{27}{90}$=.30	X	$\frac{29}{90}$=.32

[a]While the highest possible agreement on placement is 1.00, the lowest strength of agreement possible is determined by the number of items in a category times the lowest possible mode, divided by the possible number of votes. The lowest mode possible is 5 for Attention, Power and Withdrawal, making the lowest agreement on placement .29. For Revenge, the lowest mode is 6, making the lowest possible amount of agreement .33. For the teachers without the specific category, agreement on placement can range from 0 to 1.00.

[b]One goal statement is missing making the possible number of votes 323 instead of 324. A similar situation created the denominator of 35, rather than 36, for the six teachers missing the Power category.

Agreement Between School Psychologists as a Group and Teachers as a Group on Item Placement

No hypotheses were made with regard to teacher-school psychologist agreement on item placement because the small number of school psychologists used makes a meaningful comparison difficult. The results may, however, indicate a trend, and may be useful in guiding future research. Table 11 presents the data on item placement into categories in detail.

Overall, teachers and school psychologists agreed on placement for 30 statements and disagreed on 14. The other 18 items could not be used in the agree-disagree calculations because of bi- or tri-modal frequencies--all but one from school psychologists. Two bi- or tri-modal items were also excluded because the mode method used to determine category placement created anomolies within the data from teachers. In both these cases the mode (9/23 and 7/23) was a lower percent of the total number who had a specific category available than was another frequency (8/17 = 47 percent instead of 39 percent and 6/18 = 33 percent instead of 30 percent). Since the items are numbered according to interpersonal goal criteria, it can be noted that of those items classified as interpersonal goals by the Adlerians (items 1 through 10), the modal frequency category is the same for teachers and school psychologists with the partial exception of one bi-modal item.

The results are easier to compare if the bi-modal frequency items are also subtracted from the modal category totals for the non-bi-modal frequency group. The 44 items which remain, after 1 item is subtracted from the school psychologists' Power category (the bi-modal

TABLE 11. School Psychologist-Teacher Agreement on Placement.

Statement Number	Teachers w/Cat. Only					School Psychologists					Modal Placement	
	A	P	R	W	O	A	P	R	W	O	Same	Different
1	14	3	1			6					X	
2	13	1		1	2	6					X	
3	14				3	6					X	
4	2	15					6				X	
5	9	4	1	2	1	6					X	
6	4	10	2	1		3	3					--[a]
7	2		16					6			X	
8	10	4	2	1		5		1			X	
9	15	2				6					X	
10		1	1	15		2			4		X	
11			11	2	5			2	4			X
12	1		1	4	17		2		3	1		X
13	4	11	2			2	4				X	
14	9	2			6	5	1				X	
15	10	1	4		2	5	1				X	
16	4	4	6	2	7[b]	1		2	1	2		--
17	1	3	10		4		2	3		1	X	
18	3	2	10	2	1	1	1	3		1	X	
19	1	5	10	1	1	2	2	2				--
20		1	12	1	4		3	3				--
21	1	8	1	4	3		2	2	1	1		--
22	2	3	9	1	3		2	2	1	1		--
23	4	3	10		1[b]	1	1	2		2		--
24	2	2	2	8	9[b]			2	2	2		--
25	1			16					3	3		--
26		4	4	5	10		1		1	4	X	
27	2	5	3	1	12		1	2		3	X	
28		3	11	1	3			5	1			X
29	1	3	3	5	11		1	1		4	X	
30	1		11	4	1[a]	2			3	1		X
31	8	8	1	2	4[a]	2	3			1		--
32	3	5	8	1	1		4	1		1		X
33		1		16					5	1	X	
34		1		15	1	1	1		4		X	
35	2		2	13		1			4	1	X	
36	1	3	9	1	4	1			1	4		X
37	3	4	8	2	1		2		1	3		X
38		1	6	9	1	1		2	2	1		--
39	1	2	5		15		1	2	1	2		--
40	10	3	1		3	5				1	X	

TABLE 11 (continued).

Statement Number	Teachers w/Cat. Only					School Psychologists					Modal	Placement
	A	P	R	W	O	A	P	R	W	O	Same	Different
41		3	8	1	11		1	3		2		X
42	2	8		1	6	1	4			1	X	
43		12	4		1		3	3				--
44	3		1	10	3		2		2	2		--
45		1	2	14					5	1	X	
46			9	5	4			4	1	1	X	
47	1			12	4				5	1	X	
48	1		17			1	1	4			X	
49		2	1	14					5	1	X	
50	1	3	5		14		3			3		--
51	6	1	9		2		2	2		2		--
52	1	1		14	1	3			1	2		X
53	6	2	1	5	9	2		1	1	2		--
54	1	2	12	3					2	4		X
55		1	2	9	5			2		4		X
56	1	1	2	10	3	1		1	1	3		X
57	1	2	4	6	10				2	4	X	
58	6	3	2		11	2	2			2		--
59				14	3	1			2	3		X
60				14	3				2	4		X
61		3	9	1	4		1	4		1	X	
62	3	1	2	3	14			1	1	4	X	
Total No. of Times Category Has Modal Frequency	9	6	18	15	11	10	5	8	10	12	30	14
Removing all Bi-Modal Items	9	3	13	12	7	10	4	8	10	12		

[a]Bi- or tri-modal items were not computed for cross agreement or totals (1 teacher, 16 SP such items).

[b]For items numbered 16 & 27 the modal frequency has a lower percent agreement than has another category. All data are given for these items but they are not included in the totals.

frequency item for teachers) and 15 items subtracted from the proper teacher categories, can then be compared directly. The greatest difference between the teacher and school psychologist groups seems to be the greater frequency with which teachers used Revenge for the items. Revenge was the category of greatest choice for teachers, of fourth choice for school psychologists. The point of strongest agreement between the two groups seems to be that Power is a rarely needed category for the goal statements generated by the teachers.

III. CONSISTENCY AND AGREEMENT OF SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGISTS

The six school psychologists were asked to sort the 62 goal statements generated by the teachers into Dreikurs' four categories plus Other twice, with a week intervening. It was predicted that if Dreikurs' categories were unambiguous and mutually exclusive, school psychologists would be reasonably consistent in their classification judgements despite their lack of specific training in and experience with Dreikurs' system. The most consistent school psychologist placed 50 of the 62 statements (81 percent) in the same category twice. In descending order, the others placed 47 (76 percent), 44 (71 percent), 38 (61 percent), 35 (56 percent), and 24 (39 percent) statements in the same category twice. All the school psychologists repeated their original category choice on the same 6 items, five were consistent on 10 items, and four were consistent on 24 items. On 14 items only three were consistent, on 7 items only two were consistent and 1 item no school psychologist placed in the same category twice. In other words, disregarding agreement among school psychologists as to placement and looking only at

intra-rater consistency, 6 of the items were perfectly stable, 34 more were fairly stable. The other 22 items showed stability of placement in three or fewer of the six cases. In sum, on the majority of statements (40 = 65 percent), the majority of school psychologists (4 = 67 percent) were consistent across the two sortings.

Again, if Dreikurs' categories are unambiguous and mutually exclusive, the school psychologists should show high agreement on item placement. Adding the 52 children's statements to the 62 teachers' statements and removing only exact duplications left 105 items for the school psychologists to classify. (The data which follow are from their first sorting of teacher statements.) The six school psychologists were in perfect agreement on 11 of the 105 items (10 percent), five of the six agreed on 26 items (25 percent), and four of the six agreed on 20 (19 percent) of the items. Thus on a majority of items (57 = 54 percent), a majority of school psychologists (4 = 67 percent) agreed as to placement. However, using just the 62 statements which were sorted twice, only 24 items (39 percent) were treated both consistently and concordantly by at least four of the six school psychologists. Table 3, page 37, presents the degree of agreement per item data on the children's statements.

Table 12 shows the consistency of the school psychologists on the left and their agreement with each other on both sortings of the items on the right hand side of the page. Other than Withdrawal, which gained 1 in the resorting tally, all the Dreikurs categories summed lower the second time with Other gaining 19 of the choices for item placements. More school psychologists chose Other both times (90 the first time

TABLE 12. Intra- and Inter-Rater Consistency of School Psychologists Sorting 62 Teacher-Generated Statements Twice with a Week Intervening.

Item Number	School Psychologist[a] 1	2	3	4	5	6	Group Item A	P	Placement R	First-Second Time W	O
1	+	+	+	+	+	-	6-5	-1			
2	+	+	+	+	+	+	6-6				
3	+	+	+	+	+	+	6-6				
4	+	+	+	+	+	+		6-6			
5	+	+	+	+	-	+	6-5	-1			
6	+	+	+	+	-	+	3-2	3-4			
7	+	+	+	+	+	+			6-6		
8	+	+	+	+	+	-	5-6		1-		
9	+	+	+	+	+	+	6-6				
10	+	+	+	-	-	+	2-			4-6	
11	+	-	+	+	-	+			2-	4-6	
12	+	+	-	+	+	+		2-1		3-4	1-1
13	+	+	+	+	-	-	2-4	4-2			
14	+	+	-	+	+	+	5-5	1-			-1
15	-	-	+	+	-	-	2-	-1	2-3	1-1	1-1
16	+	+	-	-	+	+	1-		2-2	1-2	2-2
17	+	+	+	+	+	-		2-1	3-3	-1	1-1
18	-	+	-	-	-	+	1-2	1-	3-3		1-1
19	-	-	-	-	-	-	2-1	2-1	2-2		-2
20	-	+	-	-	+	-	-1	3-3	3-2		
21	-	-	+	-	+	-	1-1	2-2		1-	2-3
22	-	-	+	+	-	-		2-	2-1	1-2	1-3
23	-	+	+	-	+	-	1-	1-	2-3	-1	2-2
24	-	+	+	-	+	-			2-2	2-1	2-3
25	+	+	+	+	-	-	-1			3-3	3-2
26	+	+	+	+	-	-	-1	1-	-1	1-	4-4
27	-	+	+	-	+	-		1-3	2-1		3-2
28	+	+	+	+	-	+		5-4	1-2		
29	-	-	+	-	+	+		1-	1-1	-1	4-4
30	-	+	+	+	-	+	2-4			3-2	1-
31	+	+	+	-	-	+	2-1	3-3			1-2
32	+	+	-	-	-	+		4-4	1-		1-2
33	+	+	+	+	+	-			-1	5-4	1-1
34	-	+	+	+	+	-	1-1	1-		4-4	-1
35	+	+	+	-	+	-	1-1			4-4	1-1
36	+	+	+	+	-	-	1-	-1	-1	1-	4-4
37	+	-	+	+	+	-		2-		1-2	3-4
38	+	+	+	-	-	-	1-		2-2	2-2	1-2
39	+	+	+	-	+	+		1-1	2-1	1-1	2-3
40	+	+	+	-	+	-	5-3	-1			1-2

TABLE 12 (continued).

Item Number	School Psychologist[a] 1	2	3	4	5	6	Group Item A	Placement P	R	First-Second Time W	O
41	+	-	+	+	-	-		1-1	3-1	-1	2-3
42	-	-	+	+	+	-	1-1	4-3	-1		1-1
43	-	+	+	-	+	+		3-3	3-3		
44	+	-	+	+	-	-	-2	2-1		2-1	2-2
45	+	+	-	+	+	-		-1		5-5	1-
46	+	+	-	+	-	-			4-2	1-4	1-
47	+	+	+	-	-	-			-1	5-2	1-3
48	+	-	-	+	+	+	1-	1-	4-5		-1
49	+	+	-	+	+	-		-1		5-5	1-
50	+	+	+	+	-	-		3-1	-1		3-4
51	+	+	+	-	+	-	-1	2-1			2-3
52	+	+	+	+	-	-	3-1		-1	1-2	2-2
53	-	-	+	+	-	-	2-1	-2	1-1	1-	2-2
54	+	+	+	-	+	-		-1		2-1	4-4
55	+	-	+	-	+	+	-1		2-1		4-4
56	-	-	+	+	+	+	1-		1-1	1-1	3-4
57	+	+	+	-	-	-			-1	2-	4-5
58	-	+	-	+	+	-	2-3	2-1	-1		2-1
59	+	+	+	-	-	-	1-			2-1	3-5
60	+	-	+	+	+	-			-1	2-2	4-3
61	-	+	+	-	-	-	-1	1-	4-1		1-4
62	+	+	+	+	+	+			1-1	1-1	4-4
No. of times consistent	44	47	50	38	35	24					

[a]The school psychologists have been numbered arbitrarily. The plus sign (+) indicates the corresponding psychologist was consistent (placed the item in the same category twice), a minus sign (-) indicates lack of consistency. The numbered columns indicate item stability only, not agreement among the psychologists as to item placement.

and 109 the second) than chose any of the alternative categories: Attention was chosen 78 and 73 times, Withdrawal 72 and 73 times, Power 67 and 56 times, and Revenge 65 and 61 times.

IV. ADLERIANS' AGREEMENT ON WHAT IS AN INTERPERSONAL GOAL

Dreikurs believed that a child's misbehavior made sense only in relation to the behavior of others since "every action of a child has a purpose which is in line with his effort toward social integration" (1972a, p. 4). Adler would have agreed. Thus Adlerians not only need to pick out the goal of a child's behavior, they must also be able to extricate its interpersonal purpose. To a Dreikursian, no child steals because of poverty or a lack of training (two of the teacher-generated items). Depending on the way the child steals, the goal may be to get attention, to show power, or to get revenge.

The Adlerians were asked to answer two questions. (It should be remembered that of the two school psychologists and one clinician who have been called Adlerians throughout this paper only one refers to himself in this fashion. The three simply agreed that they were familiar with the theories of Adler and Dreikurs and liked what they knew.) The first question asked how many of the 105 different statements could be classified as goal statements, setting events or a vague something else. The second question asked how many could be classified as interpersonal statements. The breakdown of the first question into three categories was to allow for greater disagreement. All Dreikurs' goals of misbehavior are perceived by him to be interpersonal. If the term "interpersonal

goal" is a clearly understood concept, Adlerians should be able to classify the statements made by children and teachers into the categories of goal and interpersonal with a high degree of agreement.

All three Adlerians agreed that 12 of the 105 statements were interpersonal goal items, 13 were interpersonal but setting events rather than goals, 1 was judged to be a non-interpersonal goal and 4 were considered neither interpersonal nor goals (all classed as setting events). Thus the Adlerians show perfect agreement on both questions for 30 of the 105 items. The 30 items reflect 29 percent of the data. Twenty-eight other items showed perfect accord as to goal status alone--24 were considered setting events, 4 were considered goals. On the goal question, then, 59 items (56 percent) were judged in the same fashion by the three Adlerians. The total number of perfect agreements on the interpersonal/non-interpersonal question was 50 (48 percent). Tables 2 and 6 (pages 34 and 43, respectively), present these data by item number for the children's and teachers' statements, respectively.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The two questions of original interest, from which the seven hypotheses were formulated, were: (1) are Dreikurs' theories about children's misbehavior amenable to validation, and (2) if there are goals of misbehavior, how easily can they be taught to teachers. Neither question has been fully resolved by the data, but tentative answers are possible. These two questions will be discussed first, followed by the hypotheses, before general conclusions are drawn.

Are Dreikurs' four goals of misbehavior concepts which children and teachers recognize so readily as to be able to generate them when asked for the interpersonal reasons for misbehavior? The answer is a much qualified yes. Among the 52 statements made by the children are: "to get attention," "to be the boss" (also "to be superior" and "to be a bully"), "to get revenge" and "to get pity" (also "to be left alone"). Among the 62 statements made by teachers are: "to get attention," "want to be authorities," "revenge," and "to get pity" (also "feels inadequate"). All of these statements (not all in parentheses) were judged to be interpersonal goals by the Adlerians and to respectively fit the Attention, Power, Revenge, and Withdrawal categories by the school psychologists. Dreikurs' most basic postulates thus do seem amenable to validation. Children and teachers, thinking about children's misbehavior, recognize an interpersonal goal quality to at least some behaviors and recognize Dreikurs' goals as at least some of the purposes

for which children misbehave. Admittedly, far more statements were not interpersonal goals than were, and teachers were far from consistent in seeing goals as the major reasons for misbehavior. However, children and teachers, unaware of Dreikurs' system, untutored in Adlerian Psychology, and not viewing misbehavior at the time, did indeed generate some statements which corresponded with each of the four goals of misbehavior.

How easily could teachers be taught Dreikurs' theory? This second question is more difficult to answer, being further from the data collected. It is easy enough to teach anyone four definitions. To teach teachers to use these definitions in observing children, and more, to have teachers believe that the theory is both relevant and helpful, is something else. Of the 23 teachers, 4 used "seeking," "getting," "wanting," or "trying" in at least one of their category labels. Three others strongly implied this general striving concept so basic to Dreikurs' theory. The word "need" or "needing," which has a possible Dreikursian flavor, was used by 6 teachers for at least one of their category labels. However, words such as "controlled," "caused," "influenced," "problems from . . .," and "sources" were used by 11 teachers and implied by 9 more. These phrases are antithetical to Dreikurs' reasoning. Since all of the 7 using or implying Dreikurs-type (i.e., goal-oriented) terminology also used some of the words in the last group of labels, it would seem that, in general, teachers see causes, at least as much and usually more than purposes, as the determinants of behavior. The results of negative transfer experiments (same stimulus requiring a new response) indicate that teaching teachers

to react to children's misbehavior (same stimulus) as strictly self-chosen, self-controlled, and goal-oriented (new response) will not be a quick and easy task.

I. DISCUSSION AND COMPARISON OF SPECIFIC RESULTS

The seven hypotheses were an attempt to pinpoint specific aspects of the basic validity-teachability questions. Discussing the data relevant to each hypothesis, comparing and contrasting when meaningful, may give greater clarity to the results.

Hypothesis 1 was: children will be able to make statements about the goals of misbehavior. Of the 52 statements children made, 44 percent were judged to be interpersonal goals. Hypothesis 2 was: teachers will be able to make statements about the goals of misbehavior. Of the 62 statements teachers made, 16 percent were judged interpersonal goals. A comparison of these student and teacher data suggests that children were better able to accomplish the task of formulating interpersonal goal statements about misbehavior than were teachers. Although children generated ten fewer different statements, they had thirteen (23 - 10) more statements judged to be interpersonal goals. This may mean that as people get older, more educated, and more experienced they grow away from children's perceptions of behavior. It may also mean that children are more willing to take the responsibility for their own behavior than teachers are willing to give them. Perhaps teachers feel that if the child, and not his background or instincts, determines his goals and behaviors, they themselves would be forced to accept a greater responsibility. Purposes and behaviors have a future orientation and can be

changed; causes, be they background problems or instincts, have a past orientation and are beyond the teacher's reach. Perhaps feeling that all one can do is "soften the blow" (as one teacher partially labeled a category) is less frustrating then feeling the child's goals are in error but one has neither the time nor the skill to help the child change them.

The results of these first two hypotheses can be compared with regard to the school psychologists' placements for the statements within Dreikurs' categories. Removing all the statements whose placements were bi- or tri-modal in frequency (whether teacher or school psychologist created) leaves 31 children's statements and 33 teacher-generated items placed within Dreikurs' schema by the school psychologists. Table 13 combines the category totals from Tables 3 and 11 (pages 37 and 62, respectively), removing bi-modal data. Subtracting the items per category for teachers (as classified by school psychologists) from the items per category for children yields differences which are small but revealing. The children had one more Attention statement and five more Power statements than did teachers. Teachers had five more Revenge and three more Withdrawal statements than did children, while having a total of two more statements, overall, placed within Dreikurs' four goals by the school psychologists. Figure 1, page 9, showed that Dreikurs believed the severity of misbehavior to follow an increasing trend from Attention, to Power, to Revenge, to Withdrawal. Using his reasoning, it appears that teachers see misbehaving children as more troubled than do children. Moreover, Revenge and Withdrawal imply more reaction than action, while conversely, Attention and Power imply more action than

TABLE 13. Differences Between Children and Teacher Groups on Number of Statements Placed Within Attention, Power, Revenge, and Withdrawal Categories.

Originator and Classifier	Category Placement				Total No. of Items Classified
	Attention	Power	Revenge	Withdrawal	
Children by Sch. Psych.	11	10	3	7	31
Teachers by Sch. Psych.	10	5	8	10	33
Teachers by Teachers	9	3	13	12	37
Difference Between Children-Teacher Placements (SP's Categorizing)	+1	+5	-5	-3	-2
Difference Between Children-Teacher Placements (T's Categorizing Own Statements)	+2	+7	-10	-5	-6

reaction. The teachers' categorizations of their own items (line 3 of Table 13) make the differences in classification even more striking. Teachers placed 37 of the teacher-generated statements into Dreikurs' four categories (ignoring school psychologist and teacher bi-modal frequency and Other items). Teachers had six more items categorized than did the children if their own categorizations are used. They placed two fewer items in Attention, seven less in Power, ten more in Revenge and five more in Withdrawal than did the children who had their items categorized only by the school psychologists. These data seem to add weight to the responsibility argument regarding causes versus goals. If teachers believe children are, and feel themselves to be, victims of their backgrounds and instincts, they would naturally believe children likely to be vengeful or to have given up in reaction to the victim role.

Hypothesis 3 was: teachers will be able to categorize the statements teachers generated into personally meaningful structures. All the teachers were able to do so. Some of the teachers even created syntactically parallel categories (e.g., peer group-, home-, teacher-, and self-controlled problems were the four categories created by one teacher). As previously discussed, no teacher created a categorization which resembled Dreikurs' in its entirety, although seven teachers created at least one category which resembled, or implied a resemblance to a goal. Two of these seven actually created an attention getting category.

Hypothesis 4 was: teachers will be able to rename their own categories with Dreikurs' terminology without a major reordering of the

statements. This simply did not occur. With the exception of three small categories--the largest number of items in any of the three was five--the rest of the 117 teacher-created categories each had a dispersal of items into at least two of Dreikurs' categories plus Other. The mean number of self-generated categories from which items were taken to be placed in any one of the given categories was 3.2 (see Table 8, page 51). The range of teacher-generated categories from which items came to make up the items in any one of Dreikurs' categories was from 70 to 88 percent. (This percentage is obtained after subtracting from 117 the number of teacher-generated categories from which items might have come to be placed in a Dreikurs' category but could not because the category was unavailable to the specific teacher group. See Table 9, page 55.) Thus a major reordering of the 62 statement slips was necessary for the teachers when going from their own methods of classifying statements about misbehavior to Dreikurs.

Combining the data gathered to test hypotheses 3 and 4 points to the conclusion that while teachers were able to group and classify statements about misbehavior, they did not tend to do so from a goal-oriented point of view. Further, although they created many similar-sounding labels for their categories, they did not place the same items in the same general groupings. It would seem, then, that general categorical statements about misbehaviors can be unintentionally misleading. As Table 7, page 47, illustrated, problems stemming from home backgrounds for one teacher are not home background problems at all to many others. Without discussing specifics it may well be that discussants are talking at cross-purposes, or to no purpose at all beyond

commiseration. Novice consultants in the schools may find avoiding generalizations a difficult procedure, but these data intimate the uselessness of offering advice or techniques based on vague information.

On the other hand, a formal operant view of consultation (Bergan and Tombari, 1974), emphasizing specific behaviors in specific situations, discourages teachers from using what they and the children agree exist: goals of misbehavior. Goals imply a unified perception of reality--the behavior may change while the goal may remain the same. Thus school psychologists and counselors who consult with teachers might do well to choose a careful course between specificity and generality. If goals exist, and the evidence seems to point in that direction, surely it is as useful to help children change goals as to encourage them to change behaviors. For to change a behavior and maintain the new one needs the rewards to continue--the removal of reward is, after all, termed an "extinction trial"--while a change in goals changes the fundamental perception of what a reward is.

Hypothesis 5 states: "school psychologists, given definitions of the four goals of misbehavior, will be able to sort the goal statements made by the children and teachers into the four categories plus Other with high interrater agreement." What constitutes "high" is, of course, moot. Tinsley and Weill claim "no measure of interrater agreement for nominal scales is available for situations . . . in which the same group of more than two judges rates each subject" (1975, p. 374). Thus an arbitrary decison has been made here that five of six school psychologists agreeing to any one item placement is high agreement. The rationale for this decision is that given six raters and five categories,

two raters must agree. But the probability of a third psychologist placing the item in the same category by chance is one in five. The probability of three raters matching by chance the placement chosen by the first two is $1/5^3$ or .008. Thus the probability of five school psychologists agreeing to the placement of any one item by chance is less than the lower commonly used alpha level of .01.

The school psychologists were in perfect agreement on five of the children's twenty-three interpersonal goal statements and on seven of the teachers' ten goal statements. Five of the six agreed to the placement of six more of the children's statements and one more of the teachers' interpersonal goal statements. The mean interrater agreement scores for the school psychologists was 4.3 for the children's statements and 5.4 for the teachers'. The degree of agreement decreased when the statements were not interpersonal goals. In comparison to the 48 percent of the children's interpersonal goal statements and 80 percent of the teachers' interpersonal goal statements that were categorized with high agreement by the school psychologists, only 31 percent of the children's and 15 percent of the teachers' statements judged not to be interpersonal goals were rated with similarly high agreement. Ignoring the interpersonal goal criteria, the school psychologists' mean interrater agreement scores were 3.9 for all the children's statements and 3.7 for the teachers'.

What accounts for such low means and percentages? First of all, the disparity in agreement between goal and non-goal items indicates that when the children and teachers didn't meet the criteria for their task, the school psychologists were unable to meet the criterion (high

interrater agreement) for theirs. Second, the large difference in interrater agreement percentages between children and teachers' interpersonal goal statements may indicate that school psychologists were in agreement less often when statements were less clear. It would be expected that the younger children would be more vague in their phrasing due to difficulties in expressing the concepts. There is some slight data support for this. Using Tables 2 and 3 (pages 34 and 37, respectively), the placement agreement per grade can be extracted. Summing by grade the agreement per item for those interpersonal goal statements appearing on the top five in frequency lists and dividing by the number of items per grade yields a mean agreement score per grade. In order, from third grade to twelfth, the means are 4.2, 4.8, 5.0, 4.5, and 5.4. Thus, in general, a higher grade tends to receive slightly higher interrater agreement scores for its items than a lower grade when the items are placed by school psychologists within Dreikurs' categories.

Another possible reason for the low percent of items classed with high interrater agreement is that the school psychologists didn't understand the category definitions and/or the categories were neither clearly defined nor mutually exclusive. If the categories were clearly defined, then all those items judged to be non-interpersonal and non-goals by the Adlerians should have been placed in Other by the school psychologists. This was not the case. The children made ten non-interpersonal, non-goal statements and the teachers twenty-one. None of these statements were placed in Other with high agreement. In fact, of the children's ten statements only two show even four school psychologists to be in agreement. Of the twenty-one teacher statements,

five were placed in Other by four school psychologists. For these last ten and twenty-one statements, the school psychologists' mean inter-rater agreement score was 3.4 and 3.5, respectively. (See Tables 2 and 3, pages 34 and 37, respectively, for more details of the children's data, Tables 6 and 11, pages 43 and 62, respectively, for the teachers'.) Perhaps the school psychologists were reluctant to use Other and force fit items into Dreikurs' categories whenever possible. If this is so, the school psychologists should have been less consistent on those items, as well as in less agreement with each other.

Hypothesis 6 addressed the consistency factor: "school psychologists, given the teachers' statements for the second time, after a one-week interval, will be able to closely approximate their original sortings." On the first ten (i.e., the interpersonal goal) statements there were only six, of a possible sixty, inconsistent placements. On the last twenty-one items (the non-interpersonal, non-goal statements) there were fifty-one inconsistent placements (of a possible one-hundred and twenty-six), or an average inconsistency of 40 percent for the six school psychologists; while it is possible that the last twenty-one items may have been more vague, and thus more difficult to place, it seems reasonable to suppose that the school psychologists were hesitant to use Other for so large a proportion of the statements and did try to extract from the actual statement a meaning which would fit a Dreikurs' category.

A final reason for the low percentage of items classified with high interrater agreement is that the school psychologists, as similarly the children and teachers, had no examples of misbehavior in front of

them. The task took on the aspect of a projective test when the items were not interpersonal goals. For example, "misunderstanding others" might be a purposeful behavior designed to gain attention from peers or revenge from authorities. It might also be a way of withdrawing, a display of inadequacy. Considering the item a goal in and of itself requires an extraordinary stretch of the imagination. Yet unless all such items were classed as Other--and this one was not--the classifier had to imagine a situation in which a child misunderstood others on purpose and then had to imagine the child's goal in that situation. Low agreement under such circumstances is hardly surprising.

Returning to hypothesis 6, the question remains: did the school psychologists closely approximate their original sorting? Again, what "closely approximate" means is a problem. The intrarater consistency of the school psychologists ranged from 24 to 50 of the 62 statements, or from 39 to 81 percent consistency. At first glance, the former figure appears to be terribly low. However, it must be remembered that five placements were possible for each statement. If the normal approximation with correction for continuity of the binomial test (Siegel, 1956) is used, where

$$z = \frac{(X - .5) - NP}{\sqrt{NPQ}} ,$$

the probability of repeating item placements by chance for 24 or more of 62 items is extremely small.

$$z = \frac{23.5 - (62 \times .2)}{\sqrt{62 \times .2 \times .8}} = 3.5$$

(The probability associated with a z as extreme as 3.5 is .00023.)

From this vantage point, 39 percent consistency does not look so low and 81 percent consistency seems excellent. Nevertheless, it cannot be claimed that the school psychologists in general (with a mean percent of consistency of 64 percent) closely approximated their original sortings.

Considering hypotheses 5 and 6 together, it would appear that neither high intrarater consistency nor high interrater agreement were achieved by the school psychologists although a majority of them did place the majority of items in categories with consistency and compatibility. Whether the problem was lack of exclusiveness of categories, poor quality of statements, poor definitions created for the categories, lack of examples, or some combination of these factors, is difficult to assess, and for the present purpose irrelevant. What is important is that school psychologists trained to observe children and deal with psychological theories found the classifying task a difficult one. That they were as successful as they were indicates either the strength of the theoretical structure or the perceptive qualities of the school psychologists; that they were as unsuccessful as they were indicates the need for specific training in Dreikursian analysis of misbehavior situations before attempting to put into practice even the categorization of goal-oriented behavior.

Hypothesis 7 presumed that psychologists familiar with Adler and Dreikurs would be able to agree on the interpersonal goal quality of the statements made by children and teachers. For the purpose of classifying statements, two-thirds agreement was considered sufficient. Judging the judges, however, requires a stricter criterion since there were only

two possible placements for the interpersonal categorization and three for the goal/setting event/other categorization.

There were 28 perfect agreements as to the interpersonal quality of the children's statements and 29 on the teacher-generated items (54 and 47 percent, respectively). In determining goals, there were 32 perfect agreements on the children's statements and 50 on the teachers' (62 and 81 percent, respectively). It would seem that despite the greater possible dispersion, determining goal versus setting event versus other was easier than determining the interpersonal quality of a statement. This may well be because Adlerians would tend to try and find an interpersonal quality to any behavioral statement since they believe that all behavior is interpersonally related. The greater disagreement on this task may simply reflect a difference in willingness to extrapolate from the data given them. Dreikurs' definitions of goals are far more rigorous than Adler's definition of interpersonal, and people conversant with Dreikursian techniques are aware of the general populace's disinclination to see all misbehavior as goal-directed. Thus a higher percent of perfect agreement for the goal categorization is not unexpected. Although the general percent of items on which perfect agreement was obtained was not high, it was high enough to indicate that reasonably clear criteria exist on which judgements can be based. The differences in the depth and type of training may well account for most of the disagreements among the three raters. Since these three chosen raters can hardly be said to accurately represent even the few Adlerians in the local area from which they come, and since the data they produced are not pointing strongly in any particular direction,

drawing further conclusions on the basis of their data seems more foolhardy than helpful. It would have been wiser to have either omitted Adlerians from the hypotheses or to have obtained Dreikurs-trained professionals for the task.

II. GENERAL CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

From the data it would appear that interpersonal goals do exist. However, the possibility of goals other than Dreikurs' four appears good. Remaining with the general Dreikursian schema, it seems that a goal of peer acceptance would be useful. "Acceptance," "to get friends," "to please and protect friends," and "because everyone else does" are all items mentioned by the children which would fit such a category. Another possibility would be a limits-testing category. Items such as "to test out others' opinions" and "to see if they can get by with it" were mentioned by the children. Both of these categories would require a good deal of research before their usefulness could be assessed, but theoretically the former seems to fit prior to Attention and limits-testing to fit immediately after Attention and prior to Power. Teacher items 2, 16, and 18 seem to indicate an awareness of meeting peer standards as a goal of misbehavior, item 21 and possibly 36 and 37 might fit a limits-testing category. One question which should be approached is whether the addition of these categories would improve the interrater agreement. The addition would certainly improve the correlation between given goals of misbehavior category labels and the teachers' since more than half the teachers created a category label referring to either peer relationships or acceptance.

The limits-testing goal is a theoretically difficult one to justify and would require extensive argument. The development of a goal of peer acceptance as a new category is simpler, based on both the data found here and on observation of children. The category would be more viable if its title were phrased negatively. "Invisability" would probably be suitable since the implication of the category is the desire for total immersion in, or absorption by, the group. As with Attention, there would be occasions when this goal would so fit the social requirements as to be unnoticeable. Just as being in the limelight is sometimes a positive position, so submerging one's individuality in the group is sometimes socially useful and productive. It is focusing on Attention, or Invisibility, as a semi-permanent goal of greater importance and value than social usefulness that is the problem, not necessarily sometimes behaving as if that were the goal. Invisibility would also have aspects similar to Withdrawal since the goal is to be unnoticed rather than singled out. Because Invisibility would have something in common with both Attention and Withdrawal a more accommodating model than that shown in Figure 1, page 9, would be a circular figure with the categories spaced as, for example, numbers are around a clock. The arrows for direction of goal change would remain as they are in Figure 1. However, the addition of Invisibility makes the return to social interest and courage (i.e., the healthy personality) from Withdrawal a more logically pleasing one to this author. Invisibility just seems a more plausible step in the goal change from Withdrawal to social interest than does the Dreikursian possibility of an immediate change from Withdrawal to Attention. Using a circular model, Invisibility could be the first step into goals of misbehavior or the last step before attaining

full courage to live with, as well as within, the society.

The problem of whether goals of misbehavior change with age remains. Although, for example, none of the third graders mentioned any of the items cited above for the tentative Invisibility category, fifth graders did. This would tend to show that young children did have goals other than Dreikurs' four. Five of the items were mentioned by both third and twelfth graders. This fact tends to indicate that the goals remain the same. However, fifth graders are at the borderline age after which more goals may occur, and twelfth graders may well keep earlier goals while acquiring new ones. Thus the question remains open. Surveying more children in early primary and late high school might provide data which could be usefully compared. A different methodology ought to be used also, since n.g.t. may simply be too sophisticated a process for young children. Having children from all grades generate items might indicate a progressive change in number of items per category. If some method could be found to correlate items, factor analysis might help to indicate goal clusters.

Reviewing both the goal statements and categories teachers generated, it seems teachers are not likely to look upon a strictly goal-oriented theory favorably or learn to use it easily. If patterns of thinking are as difficult to change as the prejudice literature suggests, it would seem that more than a book, or a few consultation sessions, are required. This could be more directly tested by having teachers sort the 62 items generated for this research before and after reading one of Dreikurs' texts.

One rather subtle support for Dreikurs came from teachers placing items without the modal category available. If Dreikurs is correct that the four goals are hierarchial, and if teachers preferred to use named categories rather than Other, the items which cannot be placed in the modal frequency category ought to be placed in the adjacent categories. Table 10 indicates that this did happen. When Attention was unavailable, Power received 61 percent of the Attention item placements. When Power was unavailable, Attention and Revenge together received 80 percent of the Power item placements. When Revenge was unavailable, Power and Withdrawal received 62 percent of the item placements. When Withdrawal was unavailable, 30 percent of the item placements went to Revenge and 32 percent to Other. Dreikurs' scheme, then, appears to have a logic for teachers. Even though it is not their own logic, it is cohesive enough in form to have its outline recreated through the teachers' categorization of their own statements.

Considering the resistance probable from teachers, the difficulty in categorizing probable for school psychologists, and the disagreements even among those who consider themselves knowledgeable in the area as to what an interpersonal goal is, is the theory worth researching, teaching, and applying? The answer, of course, is a personal one. Yet there are few theories available which are both humanistic and realistic, even fewer whose methods are simple enough to be applied outside of a counseling setting and straightforward enough to take little time and less apparatus.

Schools of education have a great deal to answer for if it is they who taught teachers to believe children the helpless victims of their

environments. Judging from their statements, this is not a view shared by children. But neither psychoanalytic nor operant theory do much to change the victim image once it is established since both easily lend themselves to a manipulative approach to children--especially if the perception of the adult is that, in the teachers' own words, the child is "ignorant of alternative behaviors" or possesses an "animal instinct to live wild and free." The ability to manipulate children lends credence to the idea that children are victims. Dreikurs is not Rogers, and unconditional positive regard for each person under elementary school classroom conditions will not become commonplace merely through the use of Dreikurs' system, but Dreikurs utterly rejects the manipulated victim, the helpless absorber of the environment approach to children. Dreikurs recognized in children what they seem to recognize in themselves: perception, cognition, conation and achievement. In doing so he offered teachers a way of giving children dignity as well as responsibility. Dreikurs did not believe in protecting children from the consequences of their own behavior, nor did he believe in punishment. He trusted children to be flexible enough to learn from their errors, logical enough to rework their perceptions and goals with a minimal amount of help. It is difficult to believe that children would not benefit from this approach.

School psychologists are of necessity boundary spanners. The community in general, the child aid resources, the school system's administration, the school personnel, and parents all make direct and indirect demands on them. Who or which the client really is can be a problem, and the answer sometimes offered, that school psychologists are "child advocates," is a troublesome position beset with legal, political

and ethical difficulties. The Adlerian view of individuals embedded in society and needing society--almost requiring responsible citizenship as a sign of mental health--is one that all segments of the school psychologist's professional world can accept. Dreikurs' addition to that view, the four goals of misbehavior, is one that children seem to accept. The research here indicates that learning to use Dreikurs' classification scheme, let alone his techniques, may not be as easy as his books seem to imply. But a psychological theory which does violence neither to the more obvious tenets of American social thought, nor to the child's view of himself as a thinking, acting, and responsible being, is surely worth the efforts needed to research it, teach it, and apply it.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

THE FOUR GOALS OF MISBEHAVING CHILDREN

--as presented to Teachers and School Psychologists for Statement Sorting.

Goal of Misbehavior: ATTENTION. Descriptors: I belong only when I am noticed or served.

This is the "model" child, the goody-goody, the clown, the clinging vine, the vain, dependent, tired or self-indulgent type child. This type may be over conscientious; charming--bright or cute remarks, sometimes embarrassing but clever; a chatterbox or walking question mark; a show-off--sometimes with wierd and varied tricks or behaviors which startle the observer; another group of children which fit into this category are the bashvul, easily embarrassed; the untidy, careless, late or flighty; the weak child lacking energy or concentration or with lots of anxieties or fears. Sometimes, attention getters are those with eating problems or speech impediments.

General Adult Feeling: annoyed or irritated; want to remind or coax.

Goal of Misbehavior: POWER. Descriptors: I belong only when I control or boss others. No one can boss me around.

This child is the type with irritating habits or the little Miss/Mr. Opposite. The child may be: the perfect brat, constantly disobedient or rebellious; willful or stubborn; given to temper tantrums, lying, swearing, dawdling or lingering; a constant nail-biter, nose-picker, thumb-sucker, etc.

General Adult Feeling: angry, provoked, authority threatened, want to fight to regain position but may sometimes feel like giving in.

Goal of Misbehavior: REVENGE. Descriptors: I am unloveable, I belong only when I hurt others as I have been hurt myself.

This is the destroyer type of child who may: steal--often giving away what is stolen; cheat; damage property--often by throwing things; be violent and brutal, often cruel to smaller children or animals; sometimes this is a bedwetting child.

General Adult Feeling: desire to retaliate, feels deeply hurt or shocked.

Goal of Misbehavior: DISPLAY OF INADEQUACY. Descriptors: I am unable, helpless. I belong only on sufferance, don't expect anything of me.

This is the withdrawn type of child who may be: extremely lazy or always daydreaming; pretending stupidity; incompetent to do almost anything for self or others.

General Adult Feeling: despair, hopelessness in dealing with child. Adult tends to agree with child that nothing can be done.

NOTE: The four goal statements were presented on separate sheets of paper so that the statement slips could be directly attached after sorting. The definitions were excerpted from various parts of Dreikurs' Coping with Children's Misbehavior (1972a).

APPENDIX B

A LITERATURE REVIEW AND DISCUSSION OF THE NOMINAL GROUP TECHNIQUE

The question of the relative superiority of group versus individual performance on a variety of tasks seems to have been subjected to research since Triplett's winding fishing reels experiments in 1898 (Hare, 1962; Shaw, 1971). Numerous more recent studies have been reported in a wide variety of journals without yet providing conclusive results.

At this point, it would seem that there is no one answer. The purpose of the group or individual has been shown to partially determine which will prove superior. But even within rather narrow areas, few clear results emerge. Motor speed and accuracy (as reported by Shaw, 1971), math computation (Deb, 1966), memorization (Hoppe, 1964), problem solving (Anderson, 1961; Milton, 1965), learning (Goldman, 1969), judgement (Davel, 1968; Clement, 1973), and brainstorming (Taylor, Berry and Block, 1958), as well as maze learning of animals (as reported by Keey and Thibaut, 1969) are all areas of study. Although it is possible that each area may eventually yield a distinct answer, personality variables (Bouchard, 1969; Chung and Ferris, 1971; Goldman, 1969), statistical differences in treating data (French, 1956; Huber and Delbecq, 1972), and situational variables such as compatibility, familiarity, type of leader, type of room, etc. (Shaw, 1971) further complicate the question of superiority by blurring the distinctions among types of problems and the best way to treat them.

The Nominal Group Technique (n.g.t.) was first tested in 1969 under the aegis of the Institute for Research in Poverty and later HEW's office of Comprehensive Health Planning (Delbecq, Van de Ven and Gustafson, 1975). NGT appears to be an attempt to reconcile the group versus individual controversy in the area of brainstorming initiated by Osborn in the 1950's (Etzel, 1974). It blends what its creators may have seen as the best features of both processes. Van de Ven and Delbecq's (1971) claim that n.g.t. is best for generating information and for fact finding while interacting groups are best for evaluation, elaboration and modification of ideas is supported by earlier writing in this area (Dunnette, 1964; Vroom and Maier, 1961), but there are few research studies available to either support or detract from this position.

"Nominal groups" are not original with the n.g.t. creators. However, Taylor and McNemar (1955) and other earlier users of the term were referring to a pooling of records or data generated by individuals working apart rather than a group of individuals working separately but in the same place at the same time on the same question or problem. Taylor seems to be the originator of the term. He devised the use of "nominal groups" as a statistical device to provide a type of baseline for the production rate or quality of individual efforts from which the group behavior of the same individuals ought to be predictable. By using the pooled results of individual efforts as a comparison, benefits accrued through the interaction of group members would be ascertainable by subtracting nominal group scores from real group scores. With some surprise then, Taylor, Berry and Block (1958) found their real groups to be lower than their nominal groups in number of ideas generated and the

number of unique ideas which emerged. This study is widely quoted (Bouchard, 1969; Belbecq, 1971; Gagne, 1959; Green, 1975; Rotter, 1969; Van de Ven and Delbecq, 1975; Vroom and Maier, 1971) and offers considerable support for n.g.t. Dunnette, Campbell, and Jaastad (1963), using Taylor et al. (1958) methodology with scientific and administrative personnel of a large company, came to similar conclusions and are similarly cited. Using the pooling method, if not the phrase "nominal group," Milton (1965), Campbell (1968), Bouchard (1969), Bouchard and Hare (1970), and Rotter and Portugal (1969) did research which agrees with the two more widely cited studies given above. Barnlund (1958), Hall, Moutin and Blake (1963), and others, cited by Shaw (1971; Cohen, 1960; Gurnee, 1937; Knight, 1921), found interacting groups better than pooled data from individual efforts. Anderson (1961) and Faucheux and Moscovici (1958, as cited by Kelly and Thibaut, 1963) found no differences between real and nominal groups.

Although pooling studies provide some indication of the value of n.g.t., far better would be studies using n.g.t. itself. Although a number of articles discuss n.g.t. (for example, Green and Pietri, 1974; Etzel, 1974; Delbecq and Van de Ven, 1971), few provide research data. Van de Ven and Delbecq (1974) found n.g.t. to produce more ideas than interacting groups and more unique ideas than either Delphi or interacting groups. Satisfaction of participants, they found, was highest in the n.g.t. groups. These men, however, are the creators of n.g.t. For their claims to be substantiated it would seem necessary for others to be able to replicate their results. Unfortunately, the only other n.g.t. research study found which was done by a researcher other than

the n.g.t. creators did not support the Van de Ven and Delbecq conclusions. Although a supporter of n.g.t. (Green and Pietri, 1974), Green found no differences between nominal and interacting groups in number, quality, or uniqueness of responses (1975).

Using the earlier research comparing brainstorming studies of individuals versus groups to judge the value of n.g.t. is not profitable since the two types of research are not congeneric. As proof, French (1956) cites an early study by Shaw (1932) showing groups superior to individuals and then cites Marquart's (1955) follow-up study which yielded identical results, but opposite conclusions, due to different manipulations of the data. Shaw calculated three-man group successes versus individual successes. Marquart pooled individual efforts so that one individual's success counted as a "nominal group" success for three individuals. Thus, to use the groups versus individuals studies to fill out the minimal work on n.g.t., replications such as that done by Marquart would be necessary. Other research which at first appears useful for the present purposes is that done on individuals working in a group setting or with an audience. Although this type of process is closer in kind to n.g.t. than individual versus group research, most of these studies, as reported by Shaw (1971), involve motor tasks rather than either brainstorming or problem solving.

Clearly, further research with n.g.t. will have to be done before its value can be ascertained. The claims made for it are attractive (greater flow of ideas, fuller participation, greater satisfaction, and easier to bring tasks to closure according to Parker, 1975; the leader needs little training to be effective according to Fortuna, 1975; n.g.t.

prevents premature evaluation of ideas, the need to defend one's own idea and prlonged task time since rhetoric is avoided according to Delbecq and Van de Ven, 1971). Its simplicity is equally attractive. But its superiority over group processes or pooled data from individuals is questionable even in the area of number of ideas generated, let alone areas for which the benefits are less often claimed (for example, more personal, as opposed to socially acceptable responses, Delbecq et al., 1975).

Despite the inconclusive research and the untried nature of its efficacy with children, n.g.t. is currently being used by this writer to elicit goals of misbehavior statements from 10 to 17-year-old children for a number of reasons. First, the leader of the groups had to be as naive as possible as to the desired outcomes. N.G.T. allows the facilitator to be totally unfamiliar with the products without in any way disrupting the process or appearing ignorant. Second, time was a serious consideration. N.G.T. is quickly taught to both the leader and the groups and seems to be quicker than interacting groups while in progress. Working individually with the 54 subjects in this part of the study was deemed impractical. Third, some structure was necessary in order to replicate as fully as possible group conditions for all groups. N.G.T. provides a structure particularly well-suited to the task. Fourth, the group leader was to be a stranger to the children. It was feared that 10-year-olds might be easily intimidated and older groups easily embarrassed. Since the leader would not know names or relationships, both control and encouragement could have been a serious problem. N.G.T. allows the leader an essentially permissive and positive role while the structure of the

process itself provides the control. Thus task stress is present without being overwhelming and neither dominant group members nor the leader can intimidate or sway participants. Fifth, a clear record of all generated ideas was necessary. N.G.T. facilitates and requires a flip chart compilation of all the individual ideas presented one at a time. This seemed far safer than trusting to the usual recording secretary method employed with interacting groups. Ideas called out during a typical brainstorming session are too easily overlooked when the caller is timid or the meeting hectic. Lastly, knowing the process would be new to the participants, it was felt that using it would stimulate interest and make the task more pleasant. Most of the above reasons apply equally well to the four groups of teachers who are also using n.g.t. to generate the same type of statements.

In short, although no research has so far proven conclusively the superiority of n.g.t. over other fact-gathering processes, no research has yet come to this writer's attention which suggests n.g.t. to be any less useful than interacting groups or individuals pooled or alone. Thus the above reasoning seems to provide adequate justification for using n.g.t. with school children and teachers with hopes for success similar to that reported by Green and Pietri (1974) for "General Motors, the U. S. Department of Agriculture, a bank, a medical center, state employment agencies and colleges and administrative offices of major universities."

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APPENDIX C

CHILDREN'S SELF-GENERATED STATEMENTS MADE IN RESPONSE TO REQUEST FOR GOALS OF MISBEHAVIOR PRESENTED BY ITEM NUMBER

1. to get attention
2. for popularity
3. for acceptance
4. to get friends
5. to make others think differently about them
6. to impel others to come closer
7. to be the boss
8. to be superior
9. to get revenge
10. to be different
11. desire to outwit others
12. to be big or funny
13. to please or protect their friends
14. to test out others' opinions
15. to be a bully
16. to get pity or sympathy
17. to be sassy
18. to prove himself
19. to be independent
20. to be a hot shot
21. to show off
22. to look brave
23. to be cool
24. to be left alone
25. to act smart
26. to see if they can get by with it
27. for fun
28. to release tension
29. because of dares
30. because everyone else does
31. rebellion
32. because of the teacher's attitude or treatment
33. trouble at home
34. likes to aggravate others
35. selfishness
36. because they hate each other
37. to be tough
38. to be mean
39. they can't do what they want at home
40. they don't know how to accomplish constructively

41. boredom
42. they get excited and start talking
43. pride
44. apathy
45. frustration
46. anger
47. jealousy
48. because they lack security
49. upset with self
50. because they're ashamed of something else and hide it by misbehaving
51. impulse
52. because they're upset about their grades

APPENDIX D

TEACHERS' SELF-GENERATED STATEMENTS MADE IN RESPONSE TO REQUEST FOR GOALS OF MISBEHAVIOR PRESENTED BY ITEM NUMBER

1. to get attention
2. peer group acceptance
3. to get teacher approval ("tattletale")
4. want to be "authorities"
5. wanting others to think highly of them
6. seeking feeling of importance
7. revenge
8. need to impress peers
9. to show off
10. to get pity
11. self-punishment
12. privacy
13. enjoy affecting others
14. enjoy talking
15. over-reaction to peers
16. separation from friends
17. peer conflict
18. show frustration at rejection from group
19. jealousy
20. desiring others' possessions
21. unsure of teacher's (authority) reaction
22. misunderstanding (others)
23. poor peer relations
24. being labeled
25. cannot perform to teacher's expectations
26. poor parental training
27. lack of supervision
28. I'm not a doormat
29. misunderstanding rules
30. needs love
31. competition
32. inability to share--selfishness
33. poor self-image
34. fear of failure
35. insecurity
36. ignorance of alternative behaviors
37. need to develop social skills for interaction
38. frustration
39. feeling "cooped up"
40. youthful self-centeredness
41. broken homes
42. pride

43. rebellion--stubbornness
44. lack of motivation
45. feels inadequate
46. alienation
47. tiredness--illness--handicaps
48. anger
49. lack of confidence
50. animal instinct to live wild and free
51. lack of self control
52. low attention span
53. obsessive interest in something else
54. emotional problems
55. lack of relevance of school work
56. lack of reasoning power
57. poverty
58. release of excess energy
59. lack of awareness
60. lack of academic skills
61. bad moods
62. differentiated backgrounds

APPENDIX E

TEACHERS' SELF-GENERATED CATEGORY LABELS FOR 62 STATEMENTS ON MISBEHAVIOR PRESENTED BY SCHOOL AND TEACHER

SCHOOL A

Teacher 1:
- peer relations
- home environment influenced behaviors
- poor teacher preparation or ability grouping
- self-concept

Teacher 2:
- problems re peer relationships
- problems from home background
- problems with school environment and teacher
- misc. feelings all children have at some time

Teacher 3:
- sociability
- teacher affective - effective
- emotional problems and sources
- instinctive - compulsive

Teacher 4:
- peer/teacher acceptance (pressure)
- environmental influences (home)
- teacher related influences
- self-image influences
- physical and individual influences
- normal feelings that can at a given time be influences of poor behavior

Teacher 5:
- to get attention
- peer group acceptance
- differentiated backgrounds
- frustration--work not appropriate
- emotional problems

Teacher 6:
- peer group controlled problems
- home controlled problems
- teacher controlled problems
- self-controlled problems

SCHOOL B

Teacher 1:
peer relationships
family background and relationships
school environment and relationship with teacher
self-concept
ability

Teacher 2:
seeking security or acceptance
emotional problems
outside physically or emotionally determined
inability to cope with reasonable alternatives

Teacher 3:
peer relationship
emotional problems
home background
inner feelings that need to be fulfilled
communication
ways of looking at self
education
personal maturing

Teacher 4:
needs attention--attention getters
placement at wrong ability level
situation beyond child's control--background environment
immature development of social skills and rules
loners
need to move?

Teacher 5:
peer related
teacher related
vibrant personality
achievement related
critical self-evaluation

Teacher 6:
social behaviors with peers
home environment or uncontrolled behaviors
teacher controlled behaviors
emotions

SCHOOL C

Teacher 1:
self-concept problems
problems that are truly unfair--i.e., teacher can only help soften the blow--child has no control over
teacher-solvable--with understanding, patience and knowledge of kids

Teacher 2:
self-concept caused behavior
peer pressure problems
teacher caused problems
academic caused problems
environmentally caused problems
physical reasons
natural reasons--lack of maturity leads to lack of control
dumb

Teacher 3:
problems caused by environment
problems associated with "growing up" and trying to find out "who" and "what" you are
problem caused by teacher's "failure"

Teacher 4:
did not complete this task

Teacher 5:
characteristics of overly-active child
characteristics of child with negative self-concept
characteristics of child with adequate self-concept

Teacher 6:
frustration
peer approval-interaction and teacher approval-reaction
other-minded
background
mental capacity
a need for love
misc.

SCHOOL D

Teacher 1:
need to belong
need for acceptance
lack of understanding
need for security
bad self-concept

Teacher 2:
peer group relations
training at home (or lack)
classroom situation
personal feelings

Teacher 3:
misbehavior due to lack of student-teacher communications
misbehavior due to problems within peer group
misbehavior due to family and home situation
misbehavior due to problems with self-concept
misbehavior due to educational reasons
medical or psychological reasons

Teacher 4: peer-student relations
teacher-student relations
effect of home life
lack of skills
interests
physical and emotional effects
emotional outlets

Teacher 5: common personal feelings and needs
common problems of "special" children
social-emotional problems
signs of poor self-image--inner self
terms describing active children
reasons given when children don't perform to "standard"
other

Teacher 6: need for love and acceptance
teacher related problems
bad self concept
emotional upsets
problems beyond child's control

VITA

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She taught for four years in Syracuse, New York, and entered the Graduate School of The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, in January, 1973. She received the Doctor of Education degree with a major in Educational Psychology and Guidance (as a student in the joint Psychology-Educational Psychology School Psychology program) in August, 1976.

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