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**THE EFFECTS OF RATIONAL-EMOTIVE EDUCATION ON ACADEMIC
PERFORMANCE AND CAREER PERSPECTIVES OF
AT-RISK ELEMENTARY STUDENTS**

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Karen Ranique Streeter
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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my father, mother, and sister

Mr. Randolph Streeter

and

Mrs. Kathryn Patton Streeter

and

Miss Randa Karmen Streeter

who have unconditionally given me love.

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Abstract

The study investigated the effects of Rational-Emotive Education (REE) on work-related beliefs and actions of 124 at-risk elementary students from a rural county in East Tennessee. During a six-week program (three days a week in 30 minute sessions) students focused on career-based REE concepts and activities. The sessions involved watching video taped interviews with local role-models and discussing the role-models' career paths. The following REE concepts provided the framework for these career discussions: Feelings; Challenging Irrational Beliefs; Challenging Feelings of Inferiority; Learning and Mistake-making; Demanding and Catastrophizing; and Roles, Rules and Responsibility (Knaus, 1974). The effect of this treatment on academic achievement, perceived linkage between school and adult career opportunities, and rational beliefs was investigated by comparing differences in the adjusted posttest means of the treatment group and the control group on these dimensions. Statistical analyses involved computation of a MANCOVA for the dependent variables combined, ANCOVAs for the individual dependent variables, and Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients to determine relationships between the dependent variables. No significant difference was found between adjusted posttest means of the treatment and control groups ($p=.42$). Significant correlations were found between rational beliefs and the perceived linkage between school and careers in both the experimental ($r=.39$, $p=.05$) and control group ($r=.48$, $p=.05$). A significant correlation was also found between rational beliefs and academic achievement in the experimental group ($r=.37$, $p=.05$).

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Chapter I

Introduction

Conceptual Framework

As the United States approaches the 21st century, it faces the challenge of dealing with families who have been welfare recipients across three generations. This tradition is creating a new type of student at-risk for academic failure--the student who does not view work as a high probability adult option. Students with this perspective may have the cognitive potential to succeed in school but are at-risk for dropping out due to environmental factors such as low-socioeconomic status, minority status, or unstable home environment. These at-risk students are often times hard to motivate because unlike children in the 50s, 60s, and even 70s, today's children do not expect to fare better than, or even as well as, their parents on the job market. These students do not assume a good paying job will be available when they complete high school or even college (Hoyt, Pinson, Laramore, & Mangum, 1973).

As mentioned earlier, some of the major determining factors for being at-risk include low-socioeconomic status, home environment, and minority status (Block, 1977; Hoyt et al., 1973; Laconte, Shaw, & Dunn, 1993; Ogbu, 1983). Low-socioeconomic status is often a direct result of unemployment or under-employment of the primary caregiver and provider in the home. Children from a low-socioeconomic background may not understand the purpose of work and careers or the relationship between school and career opportunities. Their perceptions and beliefs regarding school, careers, and

educational opportunities are largely a reflection of the life status of significant persons in their lives, who may not be consistently or traditionally employed.

Children's home environment and exposure to illuminating information regarding the nature of work and career choices greatly affect their personal belief systems or attitudes toward career choices (Hoyt et al., 1973). According to Ogbu (1983) students who are at-risk, especially those of minority status, often hold the fundamental belief that their future as an employable individual is very limited due to their socioeconomic or ethnic status. Students at-risk then place more emphasis on non-academic endeavors as they see their potential for mainstream employment dwindling (Ogbu, 1983). Due to the discouraging picture painted by socioeconomic status, home environment, and minority status, these children's belief system regarding the relationship of school to work opportunities and future quality of life is often replete with limiting and erroneous assumptions.

Purpose of the Study

Rational-Emotive Education (REE) strongly suggests that because beliefs are learned, schools can alter the maladaptive beliefs of students (Knaus, 1974). Because the major goal of career education is to help students develop work values that maximize their career opportunities (Hoyt et al., 1973), the development of an appropriate career belief system appears to be an excellent topic to consider within a REE framework. Therefore, the goal of this study was to determine if strengthening rational thinking skills would increase understanding of the relationship of school to work and careers and future

quality of life, as well as improve everyday school achievement (average weekly grades on homework, in-class assignments, and examinations).

Students were expected to learn to discriminate between rational and irrational beliefs through reeducation activities, which included learning the foundations of Rational Emotive Theory, watching videos of local role-models who earn money through a career or occupation, and participating in class discussions dealing with the type of rational thinking necessary to acquire a career or occupation. The career-based REE program was intended to help students see that education, even their current performance in school, could fundamentally affect what would happen to them in the future. The results from this study were intended to help educators determine if more career education and REE should be used at the elementary level as a means of increasing student motivation to achieve academically.

Chapter II

Review of the Literature

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine the effectiveness of a career-based Rational-Emotive Education program on students' ability to understand the relationship between school and work and achieve academically. This chapter presents a review of the literature and research related to this study. The first section describes Rational-Emotive Therapy (RET) and the evolution of Rational-Emotive Education (REE) from RET. The second section describes previous uses of RET and REE with children and adolescents. The third section provides a brief history of career education with elementary students. The final section of the chapter is a statement of the hypotheses tested in this study.

Development of RET

Rational-Emotive Therapy (RET), developed by Albert Ellis in 1955, has been described by Dryden and DiGuiseppe (1990) in the following fashion:

. . . a structured approach to emotional problem solving in which the therapist adopts an active-directive approach to helping clients solve their own problems. RET is multimodal in nature in that the therapists use and encourage their clients to use a variety of cognitive, imaginal, behavioral, and emotive-evocative techniques to facilitate therapeutic change. (p.10)

Rational-Emotive Therapy asserts that a wide spectrum of reactions can be prompted by a particular event. Children and adolescents can exhibit differing degrees of adaptive or maladaptive behavior and emotions to essentially the same event (Bernard, 1990). These diverse reactions increase when children enter Piaget's concrete operational period of thinking and begin to cognitively manipulate their environment (Bernard, 1990, 1991; Lang, 1980). At this point, children are less influenced by events in their immediate environment and begin to think more about events in the past and in the future (Bernard, 1990). Consequently, their belief systems increasingly determine how they react to external stimuli (Bernard, 1990). RET theory purports that children and adolescents cause distress to themselves by thinking, feeling, and acting irrationally.

In the early development of RET, Ellis (1962) compiled 11 basic irrational beliefs that cause distress for people holding those beliefs:

1. It is necessary to be loved or approved by everybody in my life.
2. I must be fully competent, adequate, and striving in all possible respects to be considered a worthwhile person.
3. Some people are evil and should be punished for their wrongdoing.
4. It is awful and disastrous when things don't go my way.
5. I have no control over my unhappiness.
6. If something is or could be dangerous or frightening, I should constantly worry about it.
7. It is easier to avoid my responsibilities and life's difficulties rather than face them.

8. I should be dependent on other people and rely on someone stronger for my needs.
9. My past history totally controls my current behavior; because something once strongly affected my life, it should always have the same effect.
10. I should be considerably upset over other people's problems.
11. There is always a perfect answer to human problems and it is devastating if this perfect answer is not found.

Present RET theory condenses these 11 irrational beliefs to three categories, each with many derivatives:

- (a) I must do well and win approval, or else I rate as a rotten person.
- (b) Others must treat me considerately and kindly in precisely the way I want them to treat me; if they don't society and the universe should severely blame, damn, and punish them for their inconsiderateness; and
- (c) Conditions under which I live must be arranged so that I get practically all that I want comfortably, quickly, and easily and get virtually nothing I don't want. (DiGiuseppe & Bernard, 1990, p. 271)

In addition to the three categories of irrational beliefs, RET proposes four other common forms of thoughts that come from the core of irrational beliefs:

1. awfulizing-- It is awful that this is happening to me.
2. I can't stand it itis-- I can't stand these things that are happening to me.
3. worthlessness-- I am a worthless person if I don't do well and win approval.

4. allness or unrealistic over-generalization-- Because I failed at this important thing, I will always fail (DiGiuseppe & Bernard, 1990).

RET seeks to eliminate irrational belief systems through two major means. The first is called the "A-B-C" method or theory of emotions (Walen, DiGiuseppe, & Dryden, 1992, p. 24). The A-B-C theory purports the quality and intensity of emotional arousal is contingent not upon an event but upon one's belief regarding that event (Walen et al., 1992). The "A" denotes an activating event, such as a person looks at you. The "B" means belief or the meaning one attaches to the event, such as that person dislikes me. The "C" is the emotional consequence or response one has to the event, such as being upset. RET teaches clients to see how their emotional disturbances do not stem from outside stimuli but from the irrational belief systems they hold (Walen et al., 1992). The challenge of RET is to replace irrational responses to activating events with beliefs that lead to more positive emotional consequences.

The second means for eliminating irrational beliefs is called "disputation" (Walen et al., 1992). The therapist questions a client's irrational belief system and encourages the client to gather empirical data to support his or her irrational belief. An example would be the following scenario:

client: Everyone at school calls me Fatty. (everyone is an irrational over-generalization)

counselor: Is it true that every single person in school calls you Fatty?

client: Well I don't know if everyone does, but I hate it.

counselor: Let's make a list of your class to begin with. I want you to mark an X next to all of the people who call you Fatty.

The client will make an X next to those who tease him or her and discover not all students in school call him or her Fatty (Walen et al., 1992).

Because RET universally applies the basic tenets described above, it can be used in different settings with different types of people. RET has been used as therapy for diverse problems such as anxiety (Baither & Godsey, 1979; Elko & Ostrow, 1991; Wu, 1987), chemical and alcohol dependency (DiGiuseppe & McInerney, 1990), headaches (Finn & DiGiuseppe, 1991), sexual problems (DiGiuseppe & Zee, 1986), personality disorders (Leaf, Ellis, DiGiuseppe, & Mass 1990, 1991), phobias (Dryden & Hill, 1993), and difficulty in adjusting to traumatic events (1993).

In 1974, Albert Ellis recognized William Knaus for having extended RET into an educational setting. Rational-Emotive Education is an educational extension of RET that can be integrated into the regular curriculum of schools. "Dr. William Knaus has almost certainly done more work in REE than any other person in the world," states Ellis in his foreword for Knaus's Rational Emotive Education: A Manual for Elementary School Teachers (Knaus, 1974, p. xii). In its early stages of development, REE was a separate school program that operated as a preventive measure for students. It included three major components: (a) Basic RET training including the A-B-C method and disputations, (b) reinforcement of REE through activities, role-playing, and games, and (c) integration of REE into the regular activities or curriculum of the students.

The following example indicates how REE might be integrated into everyday activities: child A in the class begins a fight with child B because child B was looking at child A. The teacher would remind the students about the lesson on irrational beliefs and how they cause people to respond in irrational ways. She could then stage a role-play of the situation with the entire class or a sub-group of students and ask them for suggestions on how child A could have responded to child B (Knaus, 1974, 1977; Knaus & McKeever, 1977). REE may be integrated into the curriculum by serving as an extension of the current curriculum, such as using a social studies unit on Greek mythology to spur a conversation on the creation of myths and how they affect the behavior of those who believe in them. The class could identify self-defeating myths and pose alternatives to such beliefs (Knaus, 1974, 1977; Knaus & McKeever, 1977).

In her books Thinking, Feeling, Behaving: an Emotional Education Curriculum for Children and Thinking, Feeling, Behaving: an Emotional Education Curriculum for Adolescents, Ann Vernon (1989) goes a step beyond Knaus's work to provide school psychologists, teachers, social workers, counselors, and others operating in educational settings with an extensive curriculum based on REE that assists students in learning mental health strategies. This system is consistent with the notion of integrating preventive mental health programs into the general curriculum of a school or school system. Each volume of Vernon's books consists of developmentally appropriate activities related to the topics of Self-Acceptance, Feelings, Beliefs and Behavior, Problem Solving/Decision Making and Interpersonal Relationships. Each lesson has an

objective, a stimulus activity, and a discussion designed for use in the classroom or small group settings.

RET and REE with Children and Adolescents

Practitioners and clinicians who work with children usually must modify and simplify RET assessment and treatments for their clientele (DiGiuseppe & Bernard, 1990). RET therapists or educators working with children age 2 to 7 in Piaget's preoperational stage should attempt to promote "rational self-statements," silent verbal expressions that cue children how to react to external stimuli (Bernard, 1990, p. 297). These expressions are used in case the disputations are being quickly and superficially accepted without an understanding of their underlying implications (Bernard, 1990). These statements, such as "It's not so bad to be called Fatty. I can stand it," essentially help children learn what to think (Bernard, 1990). Children can practice writing, saying, and then using these statements in role-play (Bernard, 1990).

Disputation of irrational beliefs in specific situations, rational self-statements, and empirical analysis comprise the therapy used with children (age 7 to 11) who have entered Piaget's concrete operational period (DiGiuseppe & Bernard, 1990; Lang, 1980; Miller, 1989). As stated earlier, this is the stage where children begin to mentally manipulate their environment (Bernard, 1990, 1991; Lang, 1980). This stage is when the belief systems of children determine how they react to stimuli from the environment (Bernard, 1990). Before this time, children cannot readily, systematically, or consistently use and apply logic to situations. Children at this age usually lack a broad enough

vocabulary to discuss and identify their feelings and must taught correct words to describe what they are feeling. In essence, students must be taught an emotional vocabulary (DiGiuseppe, 1990).

For example, children may be taught to describe their feelings through the use of an array of "smiley faces" displaying various emotions. Children may point to the picture of the emotion they are having and then recite the word under the corresponding smiley face.

RET teachers are also encouraged to be enthusiastic (Rossi, 1975), a characteristic best conveyed through preparedness and attitude. Therapists should create this attitude by having many concrete or visual educational teaching aids that help explain RET, such as "thought clouds" or "self-concept drawings" (Bernard, 1990; Rossi, 1975). The therapist should attempt to use systematic positive reinforcement for rational thinking (Rossi, 1975). Both verbal praise and appropriate physical contact can be used to maximize the gains of therapy (Rossi, 1975). Adolescents (age 12 to 17) should have entered what Piaget called the formal operational period where they are capable of experiencing logical, abstract, and hypothetical thought (Lang, 1980; Miller, 1989). This abstractness in thinking allows for "elegant" RET methods (DiGiuseppe & Bernard, 1990). Elegant methods bring general and sustainable changes in people's belief systems, while "inelegant" methods bring more situationally specific changes (DiGiuseppe & Bernard, 1990). Children in the concrete stages are typically treated with inelegant methods, whereas adolescents are more likely to be treated with elegant methods (DiGiuseppe & Bernard, 1990).

Though differences exist between children and adolescents in the sophistication of thoughts, many of the same RET pointers and suggestions can be applied to both groups. Other RET approaches that have been employed with children at both the concrete and formal operations levels of thinking include the following:

1. illustrating the relationship among activating events, thoughts, feelings, and behavior;
2. assessing the student's thinking to identify errors in knowledge about inferences or situations;
3. allowing the student the first opportunity to dispute cognitive errors;
4. tying the dispute to a specific situation or event of concern;
5. making sure the student explains the relationship between changes in thinking and changes in feelings;
6. repeating the same disputation if the student does not fully understand it at first;
7. projecting the specific situation into the future;
8. using role-plays where the student first thinks aloud and then quietly;
9. assigning homework that requires the student to use some RET or other skill presented in the session (Bernard, 1990).

Though RET began as a therapeutic practice with non-psychotic adults, it is gaining popularity as a treatment and mental health prevention program with children and adolescents at different levels of development and adjustment (Gossette & O'Brien, 1993). Laconte, Shaw, and Dunn (1993) used REE for middle school students who were

high-risk for dropping out of school, learning disabled, or emotionally disturbed. Over a 15-week period, researchers sought to increase self-concept and grades using a weekly 45-minute session. Twenty-three sixth, seventh, and eighth grade students from varied socioeconomic levels and ethnic backgrounds were used. Though no significant differences in self-concept or grades were found between the experimental and control group, a significant increase in self-concept was found in females. The authors suggested several possible reasons for the lack of difference between control and experimental participants. For example, one limitation of the study was that pre-test measures were not taken, precluding assessment of within group increases in self-esteem and grades. The authors also suggested the REE technique may not have been administered properly and the time frame may not have been adequate to show significant changes between groups.

Block (1977) used REE with 40 eleventh and twelfth grade African-American and Latino students who were disruptive and high-risk (for dropping out of school). In a semester's worth of five weekly sessions, REE groups showed greater improvements in grade point average, disruptive behavior, and class attendance than did either human relations training or control groups.

A review of REE outcome studies by Hajzler and Bernard (1991) examined 21 studies focusing on therapy with various populations of school-aged children including nonclinical, learning disabled, high-risk, low self-esteem, anxious, and a mixed group of single participant studies. They found REE effective in increasing rationality in over 88% of the studies that used a measure of rationality, increasing scores on internal locus of

control in 71% of studies measuring this dimension, and decreasing anxiety scores in 80% of studies measuring anxiety. REE was also successful in over 50% of the studies targeting self-esteem and behavioral problems.

Gossette and O'Brien's (1993) review of 33 unpublished dissertations and 4 published reports produced less promising results than did Hajzler and Bernard's review. Gossette and O'Brien found RET more effective at reducing maladaptive behavior and increasing adaptive behavior than wait-list, placebo and other treatments only 25% of the time in the unpublished reports. Published studies reported a much higher success rate (54%). An examination of the published studies of RET uses with children and adolescents indicated that RET has been used with all types of children at differing levels of intelligence, development, maturity, ethnic background, and age.

Career Education

Current career education theories are grounded in the early vocational guidance movement (Bailey & Stadt, 1973). In 1909, Frank Parsons, director of the first vocational guidance center in the United States, outlined a three-phase approach to vocational counseling: "study and understanding of self, study of requirements of occupations, and true reasoning about the facts obtained" (Bailey & Stadt 1973, p. 59). This outline went on to become the framework for educating students about the world of work at all levels.

At the elementary level, the focus of career education is on helping students to see a relationship between school and the world of work and to see themselves as working and productive members of their community in the future (Hoyt et al., 1973). Learning

about and choosing a career is viewed as a natural part of a child's development into adulthood (Hoyt et al., 1973).

There are five components of career education that deepen and change as a child progresses through a career education program. They are listed here according to the level of school responsibility for those components.

1. Creation of classrooms where the curriculum is fully integrated, with career information used for both understanding and motivation;
2. Provision of vocational job skills learned on the job, in a structured classroom situation, or in general life experiences;
3. Creation of career development programs for exposure to occupational alternatives and for derivation of a work ethic and set of work values, allowing the individual to visualize himself [herself] in various work settings and to make career decisions that appear to promise the preferred life-styles;
4. Encouragement of interaction among training institutions, employing institutions, and labor organizations to provide more fertile learning environments than the schoolroom;
5. Concern for the home and family from which the individual develops initial attitudes and concepts (Hoyt et al., 1973, p.19).

Because career education seeks to help students see some relationship between their current studies and the possible careers they may choose, it can represent a form of educational motivation (Hoyt et al., 1973). Career education may not only motivate

students to perform better academically--but can also motivate students to take charge of their lives by deepening their understanding of themselves (Hoyt et al., 1973). In short, career education attempts to do the following:

... emphasize and make meaningful the inherent right of each individual to lead his [her] own life, to control to the maximum extent of his [her] own destiny, and to see him [her]self as the worthy and worthwhile person he [she] is (Hoyt et al., 1973, p.22).

When looking at career education and children who are poor, one must focus on behaviors necessary for these children to become successful individuals. A pilot study conducted for the U.S. Department of Labor differentiated the behavior of vocationally successful adults from impoverished backgrounds from vocationally unsuccessful ones (Bailey & Stadt, 1973). Some of the behaviors are those emphasized in Rational-Emotive Therapy and Rational-Emotive Education such as having a strong sense of self, eliminating illusions about life, periodically taking risks, receiving positive reinforcement for productive behavior, and taking responsibility for actions and discovering alternatives (Bailey & Stadt 1973). Though the literature has not shown RET or REE to have been used historically for career education, one might logically assume the two could be combined. The combination may be especially effective for use with populations at-risk, because the behaviors of successful at-risk individuals and the behaviors taught through REE are so similar.

Hypotheses

The primary purpose of this study was to determine the effects of REE training on students' achievement, endorsement of rational thinking, and perceived linkage between school and careers. A secondary purpose was to assess the relationships among dependent variables at the outset of the study, when no group differences would have been expected in the pattern of relationships between the dependent variables.

REE was chosen as the theoretical framework for the treatment package in this study because it is a very practical and systematic method of replacing irrational beliefs with more salient ones. The career education emphasis in the treatment package was presented in the context of REE. The career education literature suggests that children develop a belief system about careers through exposure to accurate information. Therefore, this study is based on the assumption that a productive career belief system can be taught to at-risk children through the combination of REE and accurate career information. Specifically, it was assumed that a treatment of this nature could modify the irrational belief that the quest to do well in school is useless because the chances of acquiring a career are totally out of the students' control. These assumptions led to the following hypotheses:

H1 A: Overall adjusted posttest score means of students who participate in career-based REE classes (experimental group) will be significantly higher than overall adjusted posttest means of students who receive regular instruction in the classroom (control group).

H1 B: The Achievement adjusted posttest score mean of students who participate in career-based REE classes will be significantly higher than the Achievement adjusted posttest score mean of students who receive regular instruction in the classroom.

H1 C: The School-Career Scale adjusted posttest score mean (perceived linkage between school and adult work opportunities) of students who participate in career-based REE classes will be significantly higher than the School to Career adjusted posttest score mean of students who receive regular instruction.

H1 D: The Rational Beliefs adjusted posttest score mean of students who participate in career-based REE classes will be significantly higher than the Rational Beliefs adjusted posttest score mean of students who receive regular instruction.

H1 E: Pretest Rational Beliefs scores will be significantly correlated with pretest Achievement scores for students who participate in career-based REE classes.

H1 F: Pretest Rational Beliefs scores will be significantly correlated with pretest School to Career scores for students who participate in career-based REE classes.

H1 G: Pretest School to Career scores will be significantly correlated with pretest Achievement scores for students who participate in career-based REE classes.

H1 H: Pretest Rational Beliefs scores will be significantly correlated with pretest Achievement scores for students who receive regular instruction.

H1 I: Pretest Rational Beliefs scores will be significantly correlated with pretest School to Career scores for students who receive regular instruction.

H1 J: Pretest School to Career scores will be significantly correlated with pretest Achievement scores for students who receive regular instruction

Chapter III

Method

Subjects

Participants included 124 fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students attending public schools in a rural and severely economically depressed county in East Tennessee. Students were Caucasian and largely came from families working on farms, doing unskilled labor, or receiving government assistance due to unemployment. Students were considered at-risk for academic failure due to socioeconomic barriers, cultural differences (e.g., being in a community where work is seldom perceived as a viable option for adult income), or previous academic or behavior problems.

Four fourth grade, two fifth grade, and two sixth grade classes taught by different teachers from two different schools participated in the study. In the first school, three intact fourth grade classes were randomly assigned to treatment conditions. One class of 14 students was assigned to the control group while the other classes of 14 and 13 students were assigned to the experimental group.

In the second school, intact fourth, fifth, and sixth grade classes were also randomly assigned to treatment conditions. Classes assigned to the control group included a fifth grade class of 29 students and a sixth grade class of 25 students. Classes assigned to the experimental group included one fourth and one fifth grade class, both with 29 students. Also assigned to the experimental group was one sixth grade class of 23 students.

Dependent Measures

The Children's Survey of Rational Beliefs-Form B is an instrument used in REE to assess children's understanding of the difference between rational and irrational beliefs (see Appendix A). The survey is included as an appendix in Rational Emotive Education: A Manual for Elementary School Teachers (Knaus, 1974). This survey uses a multiple choice format for 18 questions with three answer options. One point is awarded for each correct answer. The test is typically used in classroom settings and was developed for teachers using REE to gauge their students' understanding of REE concepts. Raw scores were calculated by using the dichotomous scoring rubric. Possible scores ranged from 0 indicating little or no rational thinking to 18 indicating high rational thinking. No data regarding the validity and reliability of this instrument have been published to this date; however, information regarding these areas was ascertained from the publisher via personal communication.

Knaus reports successful use of the test in hundreds of classrooms for over twenty years. Reliability and validity studies were conducted, but records have been lost due to the numerous requests made for them over the twenty years of the tests' use. According to the publisher's report, the test was developed in 1973 using the suggestions of students in a special education program. Participants were African-American, Hispanic, and newly immigrated European, fifth and sixth grade students in the lowest 2% in reading of the New York City Public School System population. The section entitled "Bullies, Victims, and Bystanders" was especially effective and led to students dismantling a local gang.

Reliability and validity studies were conducted with a naive group of students from the same population. Each ethnic group composed one third of the participant group. Test-retest reliability coefficients (for retained knowledge) were in the .80s. Concurrent validity was established using the Cooper-Smith (.42) and the Sarrison Anxiety Scale for Children (.86) (W.J. Knaus, personal communication, January 21, 1996). No internal consistency coefficients have been reported for the Children's Survey of Rational Beliefs-Form B. However, in the current study, the pretest internal consistency for the instrument was .68 and the posttest internal consistency was .78.

A research group within the Psychoeducational Studies Unit at the University of Tennessee is developing the School to Career Scale , a locus of control indicator measuring the perceived linkage between school performance and adult career opportunities. Students indicate their degree of agreement with 15 items by choosing one for total agreement through four for total disagreement. Raw scores are calculated based on the Likert scale of 0 to 3 points depending on the level of agreement or disagreement with the correct statements. Total scores range from 0 (no perceived linkage between school and careers) to 45 (strongly perceived linkage between school and careers). Responses for negatively worded questions are reverse scored so in all cases the numerical value represents the strength of perceived value of school experiences. The scale was used in this study to assess whether children's perceived linkage between school and adult quality of life changed as a result of REE (see Appendix B). In prior research with this instrument, the test-retest reliability has been reported as .67 over a two-week

period and the internal consistency reliability has been reported as .82 (Williams, 1996). In the current study, the pretest internal consistency for this instrument was .81 and the posttest internal consistency was .83.

Academic achievement data on students were gathered from naturally occurring sources such as grade books and report cards. Pre and post-intervention student tests, classroom assignments, and homework grades were copied from teacher-kept records. Test, classroom assignment, and homework grade averages were tabulated and compiled into one general achievement score for the week preceding the treatment and the week following the treatment.

Treatment

The treatment involved two major components: Rational Thinking and Career Planning. Both were delivered in a classroom setting. The first two weeks were spent in teaching the basic tenets of Rational-Emotive Education. The last four weeks were devoted to reeducating the students about the relationship between current school functioning and future career opportunities. This was done in two ways. First, video taped interviews with role-models from the community, representing various occupations including college student, blue collar worker, professional, and entrepreneur, were shown to students. After presentation of the role-model video, the career education instructor tied together concepts of REE and career education by using REE activities in Rational

Emotive Education: A Manual for Elementary School Teachers to help students think about careers in a rational fashion. The following materials were used during the intervention:

1. Rational Emotive Education: A Manual for Elementary School Teachers, William Knaus, 1978- This manual was used as a source of activities to teach basic concepts of REE to the participants. Lessons from the manual covered the following REE concepts: Feelings; Challenging Irrational Beliefs; Challenging Feelings of Inferiority; Learning and Mistake-making; Demanding and Catastrophizing; and Roles, Rules and Responsibility (Knaus, 1974). The exact lessons used as well as the adaptations made are delineated in Appendix C.

2. Video tapes of local role-models- People from the local area at various levels of career achievement (e.g., blue collar worker, college student, graduate student, young professional, established professional) were asked to participate in a video interview about their career. Participants were concrete examples of educational and career success. To begin role-model identification, teachers at participating schools were asked to provide lists of high school graduates who had subsequently been successful in careers or college-level programs. From this list, prospective role-models were contacted and interviewed by phone. The informal interview included queries surrounding the prospective role-model's availability, willingness to participate, and success in school. Available participants with positive and rational attitudes toward their schooling and current career choice were scheduled for one hour videotaping sessions.

During the sessions participants were shown the scripted interview and given time to consider their answers (see Appendix D for a copy of the scripted interviews). A list of interview questions was used to structure the way role-models talked about their career choices and the steps they took to achieve their current career status. The list was created by the researcher to ensure important points were mentioned during each interview. Participants were allowed to ask relevant questions before the taping.

During the taping sessions, a video technician was used to ensure the quality and length of each video. Participants were given a 15-minute time limit to respond to all of the questions. In all, nine videos were made. Four video tapes were chosen for use as video taped role-models. The selected role-models represented a diversity of ages (between 18 and 55), ethnic backgrounds, and career choices. The role-models included a Caucasian male college student and video store worker in his early twenties, an African-American female assistant principal in her mid-forties, a Caucasian female hair salon owner in her late thirties, and an African-American male government counselor and graduate student in his late twenties.

Procedure

Pre-intervention data were gathered from teacher records and two student inventories. Academic achievement data on student behavior (test, classroom, and homework grades) were gathered from teacher records. Students were administered the School to Career Scale and Children's Survey of Rational Beliefs: Form B in one 30-minute group administration per class.

The intervention consisted of 30 minute career planning sessions three times a week for six weeks. Intact classes were used, but randomly assigned to treatment conditions. The first component of the intervention included reeducation, which took two forms. First, video taped role-models were shown to students. After each video, the instructor lead a class discussion on the steps, preparation, and obstacles the role-model may have encountered on his or her road to a career. Discussion of the steps, decisions, and self-talk of video taped role-models was extremely important to demystify the process of career or vocation acquisition.

The second component of the intervention involved teaching students to discriminate between rational and irrational beliefs. The Socratic method of questioning and disputing irrational beliefs was used. In this method, the adult takes a verbally active part by identifying and explaining the child's irrational thought or behavior and then persuading the child to give up the old assumption and replace it with a more salient one. This is done by pointing out the negative consequences of the irrational thought. Writing rational beliefs on a board and verbally reinforcing those rational verbal expressions through repetition and praise was another Rational-Emotive Education technique used.

Post-intervention data were gathered on the self-report variables in one 30-minute group administered pencil and paper testing session per school. In the interest of time, classes had to be combined in each school for the post-intervention testing. Weekly achievement data were collected during the post intervention phase. During the intervention, the control group participated in the regular curriculum. The control group

received the treatment after the experimental portion was completed. The original sample for this study consisted of 152 elementary students. Of this sample, 124 students (17% attrition rate), including 57 fourth graders, 35 fifth graders, and 32 sixth graders, provided both pretest and posttest data. Seventy eight of the students participated in the career-based REE classes and 46 participated in the regular curriculum.

Chapter IV

Results

Introduction

In this chapter, descriptive data on the experimental and control groups and data related to the hypotheses are presented. The hypotheses of the study were tested by using a MANCOVA for the dependent variables combined, separate ANCOVAs for the individual dependent variables, and Pearson product moment correlations for the dependent variable relationships. The results of the study are presented in the following order:

1. Descriptive statistics of pretest and posttest scores for the Children's Survey of Rational Beliefs, the School to Career scale, and achievement data
2. Hypotheses-related findings.

Descriptive Statistics

Means and standard deviations were computed for the Children's Survey of Rational Beliefs, the School to Career Scale, and academic achievement. Means and standard deviations were computed separately on each dependent variable for the control and experimental groups (see Table 1). Means were also computed by grade level (see Table 2). The mean on each variable for both treatment and control groups decreased from pretest to posttest. The achievement scores were variable, with standard deviations ranging from 18.45 to 28.95. By grade scores showed an increase from pretest to posttest

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics by Treatment Group and Dependent Variable

Group	<u>Pretest</u>			<u>Posttest</u>		
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>n</u>
Rational Beliefs						
Control	9.96	2.91	46	9.11	3.38	46
Experiment	10.45	3.29	78	9.90	4.03	78
School to Career						
Control	46.59	9.01	46	38.76	4.21	46
Experiment	46.59	8.57	78	37.85	6.91	78
Achievement						
Control	86.30	18.45	43	84.47	24.32	43
Experiment	77.10	20.91	77	74.76	28.95	77

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for Dependent Variables by Grade and Treatment Group

Group	<u>Test Score Means</u>					
	Rational Beliefs		School to Career		Achievement	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
4 th Grade						
Control						
<u>M</u>	10.43	10.07	49.29	45.79	78.42	82.33
<u>SD</u>	02.41	02.87	04.68	09.07	18.59	12.55
<u>n</u>	14	14	14	14	14	12
Experiment						
<u>M</u>	09.44	09.86	44.51	46.23	69.45	64.78
<u>SD</u>	03.25	04.17	08.50	08.74	24.67	35.26
<u>n</u>	43	43	43	43	42	42
5 th Grade						
Control						
<u>M</u>	10.13	10.13	48.53	48.13	97.50	85.71
<u>SD</u>	03.16	02.03	07.31	06.84	04.01	30.55
<u>n</u>	15	15	15	15	14	14

(table continues)

Test Score Means						
Group	Rational Beliefs		School to Career		Achievement	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Experiment						
<u>M</u>	12.45	12.20	49.50	50.90	88.25	89.40
<u>SD</u>	02.82	03.02	06.29	05.68	08.18	09.46
<u>n</u>	20	20	20	20	20	20
6 th Grade						
Control						
<u>M</u>	09.41	07.41	42.65	38.41	82.65	84.94
<u>SD</u>	03.12	04.11	11.72	11.44	21.72	26.10
<u>n</u>	17	17	17	17	17	17
Experiment						
<u>M</u>	10.67	06.93	48.67	36.07	83.67	82.53
<u>SD</u>	02.82	02.74	10.20	14.64	10.05	12.39
<u>n</u>	15	15	15	15	15	5

on experimental fourth grade Rational Beliefs and School to Career measures.

Experimental fifth grade School to Career and Achievement means also increased from pre to post.

Hypothesis-Related Findings

A Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA) including follow up Analyses of Covariance (ANCOVAs) was computed by using the SAS PROC General Linear Model (GLM). Then Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed by using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS). In this study Rational Beliefs, School to Career, and Achievement pretest scores were used as covariates to generate Rational Beliefs, School to Career, and Achievement adjusted posttest scores. This procedure increases precision and removes pre-treatment differences among intact groups that are randomly assigned to treatment levels (Wildt & Ahtola, 1978).

Two assumptions underlying the covariance model are (a) a linear relationship exists between the dependent variables and the covariates, and (b) the slope of the covariates is the same for each treatment group (Wildt & Ahtola, 1978). A test for homogeneity of slopes was done to ensure satisfaction of each assumption using a .10 level of significance (Wildt & Ahtola, 1978). Though the first assumption was met, the second one was not. "SAS does not have any commands in Proc GLM that are robust to heterogenous variances.... This again is one of the trade-offs--GLM is indeed general, and because it is so general it cannot handle some problems as well as more specialized programs"(Games, 1990, p.119). In Analysis of Covariance the effect of violating this assumption is addressed with P. D. Peckman's finding from 1968 Monte Carlo simulations (Wildt & Ahtola, 1978). "His work indicates that, as the situation departs from homogeneous slopes, the analysis becomes more conservative with respect to

making a type I error" (Wildt & Ahtola, 1978, p. 91). The adjusted means were therefore calculated with a formula using homogenous slopes.

In hypothesis A, overall adjusted posttest score means of students who participated in career-based REE classes (experimental group) were expected to be significantly higher than overall adjusted posttest means of students who received regular instruction in the classroom (control group). Rational Beliefs, School to Career, and Achievement posttest scores were calculated with a covariance model using pretest scores on all three variables as covariates. MANCOVA ($\alpha=.05$) was calculated to compare the Rational Beliefs, School to Career, and Achievement adjusted posttest score means. The calculated $F(3, 112)$ of .95 was not significant at the .05 level. The experimental posttest Rational Beliefs, School to Career, and Achievement scores were not significantly higher than the control group adjusted posttest Rational Beliefs, School to Career, and Achievement scores; therefore, hypothesis A was not supported (see Table 3).

In hypothesis B, the Achievement adjusted posttest score mean of students who participated in career-based REE classes was expected to be significantly higher than the Achievement adjusted posttest score mean of students who received regular instruction in the classroom. ANCOVA ($\alpha=.05$) was calculated to compare the Achievement adjusted posttest score means. The calculated $F(1, 112)$ of .56 was not significant at the .05 level; therefore, hypothesis B was not supported (see Table 3).

In hypothesis C, the School-Career Scale adjusted posttest score mean of students who participated in career-based REE classes was expected to be significantly higher than the School to Career adjusted posttest score mean of students who received regular instruction in the classroom. ANCOVA ($\alpha=.05$) was calculated to compare the School to

Table 3

MANCOVA and ANCOVA Results using Rational Beliefs, School to Career, and Achievement Pretest Scores as Covariates

Group	<u>Adjusted Score Means</u>		
	Rational Beliefs	School to Career	Achievement
Control	9.05	43.26	80.43
Experimental	9.92	45.76	77.04

ANCOVA for the hypothesis of no Rational Beliefs Effect

Wilks' Lambda=.79 F (1,112)= 2.01 p=.16

ANCOVA for the hypothesis of no School to Career Effect

Wilks' Lambda=.78 F (1,112)= 1.86 p=.18

ANCOVA for the hypothesis of no Achievement Effect

Wilks' Lambda=.69 F (1,112)= 0.56 p=.46

MANCOVA for the hypothesis of no Overall Effect

Wilks' Lambda =.98 F (3,112)= 0.95 p=.42

Career adjusted posttest score means. The calculated $F(1, 112)$ of 1.86 was not significant at the .05 level; therefore, hypothesis C was not supported (see Table 3).

In hypothesis D, the Rational Beliefs adjusted posttest score mean of students who participated in career-based REE classes was expected to be significantly higher than the adjusted posttest Rational Beliefs score mean of students who received regular instruction. ANCOVA ($\alpha=.05$) was calculated to compare the Rational Beliefs adjusted posttest score means. The calculated $F(1, 112)$ of 2.01 was not significant at the .05 level; therefore, hypothesis D was not supported (see Table 3).

In hypothesis E, Rational Beliefs pretest scores were expected to be significantly correlated with pretest Achievement scores for students who participated in career-based REE classes. A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient ($\alpha=.05$) was calculated to determine any significant relationship between Rational Beliefs pretest scores and Achievement pretest scores. The calculated $r=.37$ was significant at the .05 level; therefore, hypothesis E was supported (see Table 4).

In hypothesis F, Rational Beliefs pretest scores were expected to be significantly correlated with pretest School to Career scores for students who participated in career-based REE classes. A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient ($\alpha=.05$) was calculated to determine any significant relationship between Rational Beliefs pretest scores and School to Career pretest scores. The calculated $r=.39$ was significant at the .05 level; therefore, hypothesis F was supported (see Table 4).

In hypothesis G, School to Career pretest scores were expected to be significantly correlated with pretest Achievement scores for students who participated in career-based REE classes. A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient ($\alpha=.05$) was calculated to determine any significant relationship between School to Career pretest scores and

Table 4

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Matrix*= $p < .05$

	<u>Correlation Coefficients</u>		
	Rational Beliefs	School to Career	Achievement
Experimental Group			
Rational Beliefs		.39*	.37*
School to Career			.19
Achievement			
Control Group			
Rational Beliefs		.48*	-.01
School to Career			-.05
Achievement			

Achievement pretest scores. The calculated $r = .19$ was not significant at the .05 level; therefore, hypothesis G was not supported (see Table 4).

In hypothesis H, Rational Beliefs pretest scores were expected to be significantly correlated with Achievement pretest scores for students who received regular instruction. A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient ($\alpha = .05$) was calculated to determine any significant relationship between Rational Beliefs pretest scores and Achievement pretest scores. The calculated $r = -.01$ was not significant at the .05 level; therefore, hypothesis H was not supported (see Table 4).

In hypothesis I, Rational Beliefs pretest scores were expected to be significantly correlated with School to Career pretest scores for students who received regular instruction. A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient ($\alpha = .05$) was calculated to determine any significant relationship between Rational Beliefs pretest scores and School to Career pretest scores. The calculated $r = .48$ was significant at the .05 level; therefore, hypothesis I was supported (see Table 4).

In hypothesis J, School to Career pretest scores were expected to be significantly correlated with Achievement pretest scores for students who received regular instruction. A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient ($\alpha = .05$) was calculated to determine pretest scores. The calculated $r = -.05$ was not significant at the .05 level; therefore, hypothesis J was not supported (see Table 4).

Chapter V

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to assess the possibility of improving academic achievement (average weekly homework, in-class assignments, and tests), the perceived linkage between school and careers, and the endorsement of rational beliefs of students at-risk for academic failure by using an REE program targeting career education. The REE program emphasized the relationship between current school functioning and future work and career potential. To achieve this purpose, the author selected two instruments measuring rational thinking and perceived linkage between school and careers to be administered on a group basis. Achievement data collected from teachers' grade books were also used to determine the presence of any significant differences.

Data were collected from eight classes in two East Tennessee schools. Classes were intact, but randomly assigned to treatment groups. From these eight classes, 154 students participated in either pre or posttest data collection. Of the original sample, 124 students, including 57 fourth graders, 35 fifth graders and 32 sixth graders provided both pretest and posttest data. Seventy-eight of the students participated in the career-based REE classes and 46 participated in the regular curriculum. One hundred twenty-four participants responded on scan-tron sheets using number two pencils. These data were then electronically scanned, scored, and stored on diskette. The achievement data were stored electronically with the Rational Beliefs scale and School to Career scale data. A MANCOVA for combined dependent variables and ANCOVAs for individual dependent variables with a .05 level of significance were calculated with the SAS PROC GLM Procedure of SAS to determine differences in adjusted posttest means. Homogeneity of slopes was also calculated using SAS.

To accomplish the purpose of the study, the experimenter tested ten hypotheses. The 33 pretest and posttest items on the two scales and the pretest and posttest achievement data were compared between the two groups. The correlational analysis was used to determine any significant relatedness between (a) the perceived linkage between school and careers and achievement, (b) rational thinking and achievement, and (c) the perceived linkage between school and careers and rational thinking. The independent variable in this study was the type of classroom curriculum (career-based REE or regular). Data were obtained on the following dependent variables: rational thinking, perceived linkage between school and careers, and academic achievement.

The findings of this study point to the following conclusions. The majority of students did not perform better academically, think more rationally, or have a clearer perception of the linkage between school and careers as a result of the career-based REE curriculum. Rational beliefs and the perceived linkage between school and careers were correlated in both the control and experimental groups. Rational beliefs and academic achievement were correlated in the experimental group. The perceived linkage between school and careers and achievement were not significantly correlated in either group.

There are two possible interpretations of the nonsignificant differences between treatment groups. First, these results may indicate that REE is simply ineffective in changing dependent variables of the type included in this study. This may be especially true for academic achievement. Some studies have shown REE and RET to have no significant impact on academic performance. Brawner (1987) found no significant difference between treatment and control groups on academic performance when 79 adolescents in rural Mississippi were tested on this variable. Casper's (1981) study, which included 80 sixth-grade students in an elementary school in Ohio, also showed no

significant difference in academic achievement between treatment groups. A study investigating the effects of REE on individual academic achievement in 99 sixth grade students in a public elementary school also found no significant change on this dependent variable (Greenwald, 1984).

Furthermore, the underlying process of REE may be called to question by the findings of this study. REE's abstract and indirect nature may be ineffective in producing changes in beliefs. One study showed significant results in increasing rational thinking when REE was combined with a more concrete and visual technique, rational-emotive imagery (Greenwald, 1984). Following this lead, the current treatment might have been more effective with a greater diversity of video taped role-models. The modeling literature (Bandura, 1977) suggests that a visual video taped role-model technique might have been a more concrete way of promoting the belief that what you do in school affects career opportunities than was the more abstract analysis of beliefs. If younger children are indeed functioning at the concrete operational level, the video taped role-model analysis might have been more understandable and engaging for them than the A-B-C technique of REE. Nonetheless, one REE study done with children grades two through eight found greater effects at the lower grade levels (Buckley, 1983).

A second way to account for the nonsignificant differences in this study is to assume that limitations of the study undermined an adequate assessment of REE's effectiveness. The treatment may not have been implemented as extensively or effectively as it could have been. Perhaps the classes were not exposed to the material long enough for it to have a generalized effect on any of the dependent variables. Though each class began with a brief review of the previous lesson, students may not have been able to clearly grasp all of the concepts and their relatedness due to the inconsistency of

scheduling in some weeks of the study. Because the treatment occurred in the winter, weather conditions often undermined the treatment schedule for classes. Though the sessions were taught in order, there were some weeks when school was dismissed, causing the six weeks of classes to be spread over an eight week time frame.

Problems in implementing the treatment were especially apparent at the sixth grade level. The sixth grade group was disruptive during the REE classes as well as in the pretest and posttest data collection. Thus, the students in the class may not have been able to understand the lessons as thoroughly as fourth and fifth graders due to extraneous comments from classmates and the distraction of necessary discipline from the instructor. Fourth and fifth graders were often very well behaved and appeared to be more attentive than the sixth graders.

Behavioral problems with sixth graders leads one to believe these students did not pay close attention in the treatment sessions. This could partially be related to the instructional level of lessons and activities used in the treatment program. To control for lesson content, the experimenter chose activities at the 4th grade instructional level for all of the grades. The interests of a nine year-old are at times very different from those of a 12 year-old. The material may have been too rudimentary for the 11 to 13 year old age group. The fourth grade was the only group that yielded a significant increase on the rational belief variable. The material may have been more instructionally engaging for this group. The Children's Survey for Rational Beliefs: Form B was also developed for this instructional level and may have been challenging enough to elicit a genuine response from the fourth graders on the pretest and posttest.

Problems in the assessment of dependent variables may have also reduced the likelihood of significant findings. The lack of increase in achievement may be attributed

to several factors. For example, data were collected from teacher kept records that included grades from teacher-made test, homework, classwork, and quizzes. Some of the work may have been subjectively rather than objectively graded, which could cause the achievement scores to reflect factors other than achievement, such as effort, neatness or even conduct in class. The posttest achievement data were gathered on the last grades collected for the year. Fatigue near the end of the school year and excitement over the summer break may have affected the students' motivation to achieve academically.

The fifth and sixth grade groups' achievement scores basically stayed the same from pretest to posttest; however, fourth grade experimental group achievement scores decreased. This may be because fourth grade experimental students missed core-curriculum instructional time while engaging in the treatment program. Fourth grade students did not change classes as often as the fifth and sixth graders. The fifth and sixth grade schedules were adjusted so that the REE classes replaced non-core subject instructional periods. Fourth grade schedules did not allow for such adjustments.

Lack of consistent significant relationships across the dependent variables may be attributable in part to the nonstandardized nature of the instruments and to differences in scoring procedures for the dependent measures. Although the best available for this study, the two instruments employed had not been extensively developed from a psychometric perspective. Standard or scaled scoring for all the dependent variables would have also made the scoring on the variables more comparable and uniform. The findings of this study and resulting conclusions lead to several recommendations for future studies.

1. Studies should be conducted to examine the effect of career-based REE classes on rational thinking, the perceived linkage between schools and careers, and academic achievement one grade level at a time.

2. The materials in the classes should be appropriate for the developmental level of the students to decrease chances of disruptive behavior and increase chances of rational thinking's generalizing to academic achievement.

3. Alternate tests of each dependent measure should be used to maintain the interest level of the participants.

4. If this study is replicated, the career-based REE classes should be scheduled at times that will not undermine core subject instructional time.

5. Longitudinal studies should be conducted to investigate long-term effects of increased rational thinking on not only academic achievement and perceived linkage between school and careers, but actual attainment of employment.

6. Further studies should increase the length of the classes either in minutes or in sessions to see if a treatment effect would emerge.

7. Studies should be implemented to examine the effects of integrating career-based REE into the regular curriculum or the vocational/career education portion of a regular curriculum.

8. Studies should be implemented to determine if a career-based REE program is effective with students younger than 4th grade and older than 6th grade.

9. Studies should be conducted with larger samples to strengthen the external validity of the findings.

10. Further use of video taped role-models should be investigated by first assessing the effects of role-models as a sole REE reeducation activity. General dimensions of the role-model treatment should also be examined: local vs. non-local, same sex vs. opposite sex, cross vs. same generation, and cross vs. same ethnic group.

11. This study should be replicated near the beginning of school year while the motivation level of students is high.

12. Scores on assessment instruments should be converted to standard scores to make means more comparable.

13. A standardized measure for assessing achievement should be used to ensure that achievement is being measured accurately in all groups.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

CHILDREN'S SURVEY OF RATIONAL BELIEFS: FORM B

Directions: Next to each question there are three possible answers. Pick out the answer you think is best for you. Write the letter on the answer sheet beside the number of the question.

1. When somebody calls your best friend or mother a bad name:
 - a. you have to fight
 - b. you have to tell him off
 - c. you can think before you act
2. If you can't answer the teacher's question:
 - a. you'll get a bad report card
 - b. you may be able to answer the next one
 - c. it shows you that you can't learn
3. When you get mad at somebody:
 - a. it is because of what that person did
 - b. you think yourself into getting angry
 - c. it is because the person is no good
4. A child who throws a temper tantrum:
 - a. is a spoiled kid
 - b. always gets his own way
 - c. is acting immaturely
5. You feel upset because you believe the world should be perfect. You can handle this problem by:
 - a. trying to figure out why the world should be any different than it is
 - b. trying to force the world to be your way
 - c. telling yourself it doesn't matter how the world is
6. When you feel anxious (nervous) it is because:
 - a. somebody is going to punish you
 - b. you are thinking thoughts like "some awful thing is going to happen"
 - c. you are a bad person

APPENDIX A (cont.)

7. If you can't learn your school lessons right away:
 - a. you'd better give up because you'll never learn right
 - b. the work is too hard to do
 - c. you'll need more time to practice
8. When somebody teases you, you:
 - a. can wonder what his problem is
 - b. think that people don't like you
 - c. think that he is stupid and no good
9. If a person is not acting his age, the first thing to do is try to:
 - a. show him he is acting silly
 - b. understand that not everybody acts their age at all times
 - c. pretend he doesn't exist
10. When you feel worried (anxious) you:
 - a. can't stand feeling that way
 - b. think there is nothing you can do about feeling that way
 - c. can ask what you are getting yourself anxious over
11. If you have trouble learning to read that means:
 - a. you must be pretty stupid
 - b. you won't learn anything well
 - c. you have to spend more time practicing
12. The best way to get over your worries and troubles is:
 - a. try to forget them
 - b. complain to your friends
 - c. question your troubling thoughts
13. When you do well in school:
 - a. you are a good person
 - b. you knew the subject
 - c. you were lucky
14. Some people who easily become angry:
 - a. have a hard time liking themselves
 - b. have many bad things happen to them
 - c. can never stop being touchy people

APPENDIX A (cont.)

15. A person who doesn't like himself
a. doesn't think much of his positive qualities
b. is not a very smart person
c. is never liked by other people
16. If a person thought "it's too bad I didn't get what I wanted" he would likely feel:
a. angry (mad)
b. disappointed
c. nervous (anxious)
17. Your feelings come from:
a. how people behave towards you
b. how you think about things which happen
c. your heart and your stomach
18. A person who is angry or "mad":
a. has been treated unfairly
b. sees only one side of the story
c. is a bad person

Scoring Key:

1.c	10.c
2.b	11.c
3.b	12.c
4.c	13.b
5.a	14.a
6.b	15.a
7.c	16.b
8.a	17.b
9.b	18.b

APPENDIX B

School to Career Scale

Students have different opinions about what happens at school. We would like to have your opinions about the importance of different things that occur at school. This is not a test. There are no right or wrong answers to the questions that follow. Simply indicate on the answer sheet how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement by using the following scale:

1 = Totally agree

3 = Kind of disagree

2 = Kind of agree

4 = Totally disagree

-
1. Most things that are taught at school will not have much effect on my success as an adult.
 2. Learning to get along with my classmates will help me know how to get along with others when I become an adult.
 3. Paying attention to my teachers will increase my chances for having a good job as an adult.
 4. Getting in trouble at school has nothing to do with what kind of life I am likely to have as an adult.
 5. Much of what I learn at school should make my life better as an adult.
 6. Pestering other students has nothing to do with how successful I am likely to be as an adult.
 7. Doing my homework is a good way to develop skills that will help me as an adult.
 8. Missing school will hurt my chances of getting what I want as an adult.
 9. When I don't do my assignments at school, I am hurting my chances of being successful as an adult.
 10. How well I learn to read and write will not have much effect on how far I will go as an adult.
 11. Sleeping in class has nothing to do with what I will accomplish as an adult.

APPENDIX B (cont.)

12. Getting in fights at school will hurt my chances of having a good life as an adult.
13. Quitting school as soon as I can is the best thing for me to do.
14. Doing well in school will greatly increase my chances for success as an adult.
15. Talking to classmates instead of doing my schoolwork will decrease my opportunities as an adult.

Scoring Key:

Items 2,3,5,7,8,9,12,14, and 15 were scored as follows:

1=Totally agree- 3pts.

2=Kind of agree- 2pts.

3=Kind of disagree- 1pt.

4=Totally disagree- 0pt.

Items 1,4,6,10,11, and 13 were scored as follows:

1=Totally agree- 0pt.

2=Kind of agree- 1pt.

3=Kind of disagree- 2pts.

4=Totally disagree- 3pts.

APPENDIX C

Weekly Lesson Plans Replicated and Adapted from Rational Emotive Education: A Manual for Elementary School Teachers (Knaus, 1974)

Week 1: Chapter III- Feelings: The Basics in Rational-Emotive Education (Knaus, 1974, pp. 17-22)

Day 1- Background for the Teacher and Student Activity 1: Feelings

Day 2- Student Activity 3: Where Feelings Come From and Homework Assignment

Day 3- Student Activity 4: The Happening-Thought-Feeling-Reaction Diagram

*Adaptation- The word "happening" was replaced with the word "event" for a clearer understanding and a closer parallel to the "A-B-C" method, which includes an activating event, behavior, and then consequence.

Week 2: Chapter IV: The Art of Challenging Irrational Beliefs through Self-Questioning and Action (pp. 23-27)

Day 1- Background for the Teacher and Student Activity 1: The First Step in Challenging

Day 2- Student Activity 3: "Mr. Head"

Day 3- Student Activity 4: Using Challenging Techniques

*Adaptation- only sections 1 and 2 of the procedure were used in activity 1

APPENDIX C (cont.)

Week 3: Chapter V: Challenging Feelings of Inferiority (pp. 28-30)

Day 1- A role-model video of a local hair salon owner was shown for 15 minutes. The last half of the class was discussion. In the discussion the instructor questioned the class regarding the steps necessary in order to become an entrepreneur. The steps were written on the board. The answers were solicited by using the questioning format "What was the first step Mrs. X needed to take in order to become a salon owner?" This type of questioning leads to answers parallel to responses to the Interview Script given by the role-model during the video taped interview (see Appendix D). Typical responses to the questions included statements such as "First she had to do well in the 4th, 5th, and 6th grades," "Next, she had to do well in junior high school," and so on until all of the role model's career steps had been named. After all of the career steps were written on the board, students were asked to think of obstacles that may have faced the role-model along his or her career path such as poverty, difficulty with schoolwork, and difficulty in rural environments. The class was asked to think of irrational beliefs the role-model may experienced that could have kept him or her from succeeding. Typical responses included statements such as "I'm poor, I'll never get to college," " I will never understand math," and "Nobody from around here ever goes to college and neither will I." Students were asked to replace those irrational beliefs and statements with rational statements. Next similarities between the students and the role-model were pointed out by the instructor (such as the role-model was in 4th, 5th, and 6th grade, was not perfect, did not have a lot of money, and grew up in this area).

APPENDIX C (cont.)

Day 2- Recap of the video taped role- model's career steps, Background for the Teacher, and Student Activity 1: Simple and Complex combined with Student Activity 2: The Self-Concept Pin-Wheel. During each recap of the video taped role-model's career steps, students were asked to share what was covered in the last session. Students were asked to give the occupation of the role model and the first step the role model took in order to get to his or her current career. The instructor wrote these on the board as the students listed each step.

* Adaptation- Only steps 1 and 2 of the Student Activity 1 were used. Steps 3, 5 and 6 were omitted for activity 2. Before the students completed pin wheel activities on themselves, they were asked to first complete the pin-wheel activities on the role model, using the information they gathered from the video taped interview. This was used to show the similarity between the role-model and the students.

Day 3- Recap of the video taped role-model's career steps, and an adapted activity. The activity involved students writing the letter "R" for rational on one side of an index card and "I" for irrational on the other side. The class was divided into two groups and challenged to identify the most statements correctly by raising up the correct side of their index card. The instructor then prompted the students with rational and irrational statements similar to ones generated in the video taped role-model discussion.

APPENDIX C (cont.)

Week 4: Learning, Mistake-making, and Imperfection (pp.34-36, 45,46).

Day 1: A role-model video of a local counselor for a government agency was shown for 15 minutes. The last half of the class was discussion as outlined in Week 3.

Day 2: Recap of the role-model's career steps, Background for the Teacher, and Student Activity 1: How People Learn

*Adaptation- between step 8 and step 9 of the procedure students were asked to think of some situations that may have been frustrating for the role-model. Students were then asked to describe some irrational beliefs the role-model may have held that would cause anger. The students were then asked to replace those irrational beliefs with rational beliefs. Students were also asked to replace the negative feelings that resulted from the irrational beliefs with more positive ones. Students were then asked to come up with some irrational statements they make to themselves everyday. Students were asked to share these with the class and to talk about the negative feelings that were a result of the irrational beliefs. The instructor wrote them on the board. The students were then asked to replace the irrational beliefs and negative feelings with rational statements and more positive feelings.

Day 3: Recap of the role-models's career steps and Student Activity 6: Why People make Mistakes.

APPENDIX C (cont.)

*Adaptation- before beginning activity 6 students were asked to think whether the role-model made mistakes. Then students were asked to share some of the thoughts the role-model may have had when making these mistakes. Students were then asked to identify the statements as rational or irrational. Students were also asked to share the feelings that would accompany these rational or irrational statements. For activity 6, students were not asked to complete the previous homework assignment, but were asked to share aloud some mistakes they made, the thoughts they had regarding them, and the feelings that followed. Then steps 2 through 4 and 8 were followed. Students were then reminded that the role-model made mistakes just as they have and the role-model was able to overcome them and continue on to a career because he/she overcame the mistakes by thinking rationally.

Week 5: Demanding Castastrophizing and Challenging (pp 47-52)

Day 1: A role-model video of a local middle school assistant principal was shown for 15 minutes. The last half of the class was discussion as outlined in Week 3.

Day 2 : Recap of the role-model's career steps, Background for the Teacher, and Student Activity 1: Demands and Desires

* Adaptation- in step 3 students were given an explanation of the words assume and assumption. Students were also asked to share some demands and desires the role-model may have had as a child growing up in the 4th, 5th, and 6th grades. Step 5 was omitted.

APPENDIX C (cont.)

Day 3: Recap of the role-model's career steps and Student Activity 3: Touchy Joe.

*Adaptation- Students were asked at the end of the activity if they thought the role-model was a "Touchy Joe" in the 4th, 5th, and 6th grades. Students were also asked if they thought a "Touchy Joe" could be successful in school and go on to a career as an adult.

Week 6: Chapter VIII: Special Topics (p. 55)

Day 1: A role-model video of a local college student was shown for 15 minutes. The last half of the class was discussion as outlined in Week 3.

Day 2: Recap of the role-model's career steps and Student Activity 1: Responsibility, Roles, and Rules.

*Adaptation- steps 1 through 4 were used.

Day 3: Students were asked to recap all of the role-models' careers and the first steps they all took in order to get to their careers (doing well in the 4th, 5th, and 6th grades, etc.). They were also asked to give examples of rational and irrational beliefs as well as the feelings that accompanied them. Students were thanked for their participation in the activities.

APPENDIX C (cont.)

RATIONAL EMOTIVE EDUCATION

A MANUAL FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

William J. Knaus, Ed.D.

Institute for Rational Living, Inc.
45 East 65th Street, New York, N.Y. 10021

Note. From Rational Emotive Education: A Manual for Elementary School Teachers (pp. 17, 18, 20-24, 26-28, 30-32, 35, 36, 45-48, 51, 52, 55), by W.J. Knaus, 1974, New York: Institute for Rational Living, Inc. Copyright 1974 Institute for Rational Living, Inc. Reprinted with permission.

APPENDIX C (cont.)

CHAPTER III

Feelings: The Basics in Rational-Emotive Education

Background for the Teacher

Few would deny that pleasant positive feelings such as enthusiasm, warmth, serenity, and curiosity are preferable to the nagging negative feelings of depression, despair, and intense anxiety. If we accept the premise that one can choose to eliminate the latter, then the logical questions arise. To what degree? By what process? Is RET that process? Probably no emotional education system can eliminate all negative effects, but understanding and application of RET principles can clearly reduce them and, in addition, create the possibility for more positive emotional experiences.

Both pleasant and unpleasant feelings normally have one or more activating ideas or beliefs behind them. For example, feelings of happiness are normal appropriate responses of a child at his own birthday party. The child is telling himself statements like: "This is a very nice day. It's fun getting all these presents I wanted." Feelings of sadness, on the other hand, are also normal appropriate responses to unpleasant situations. A child who is saddened by the disappearance of his favorite pet can have a normal appropriate response when his feelings of sadness

dog. We were so close. It's sad that he's lost." What one tells oneself about a situation is rational insofar as the sadness does not turn to anguish or despair. If the child with the lost pet started to say to himself that he knew something awful happened to the dog or that he's never going to be able to have another dog, his irrational beliefs (IB) would clearly lead to despair, an inappropriate response to an unpleasant situation.

It should be kept in mind that negative responses such as not reaching a goal, mild irritation towards someone who is behaving in an annoying manner, or dissatisfaction with a task are all appropriate responses. It is only when the frustration, mild annoyance, and dissatisfaction are further considered to be awful, terrible, and unending that the normal negative responses become nagging negative responses: depression and intense anxiety. Once the inappropriate activating beliefs (IB and IB) have been identified and understood, it is then possible to deal more effectively with feelings.

Student Activity 1: Feelings

Purpose: to help the children define and identify their common feel-

APPENDIX C (cont.)

ways; and that feelings are generated by thoughts and beliefs.

1. Show the class some magazine photos of people who are obviously expressing certain feelings: happiness, sorrow, anger, fear. (If you cannot find appropriate pictures, you might want to try demonstrating some silent movie gestures which illustrate the character's feelings and ask the children what they think you are feeling for the different gestures.)

2. Ask the class for examples of feelings they have experienced and list them on the board. Some children may interpret feelings as tactile sensations as evidenced by words like "hot" and "cold" or "itchy." Accept these words as responses, but list them separately.

3. If the class has contributed what amounts to two lists, one physical feelings and the other psychological feelings, ask them why they think you made two different lists. Elicit and emphasize the distinction between psychological and physical feelings. Erase the list of physical feelings and ask the children how they feel when they are happy, sad, angry. To illustrate and emphasize that psychological feelings have certain "feelings" or physical manifestations and reactions, you may want to give an example: "When I'm excited about some good news, my head feels very light, I have so much energy that I feel like jumping or clapping. When I'm sad because I've received some very bad news, the inside of my chest feels very heavy, I feel like there are weights on my body; sometimes I cry and sometimes I don't have much energy." Go through the psychological feelings list and have the children contribute some of the ways they feel when they are happy, sad, angry, etc., and let them list their responses next to the psychological

feeling on the board.

4. You may want to add to the list of psychological feelings. (It is advisable to limit the list to 8-10 because a large list can become unwieldy.) If the student list needs to be expanded, some additional possibilities are the irrational nagging feelings of anger, hate, depression, inferiority, worthlessness; the rational unpleasant feelings of frustration, annoyance, disappointment, sadness, unhappiness, perplexity; and the rational pleasant feelings of joy, enthusiasm, calmness, curiosity, contentment, and excitement. (At this point it is not necessary to distinguish the rational from irrational feelings.)

5. Ask the class to go over the psychological feelings list and think about which feelings they consider pleasant or nice and which they consider unpleasant. Label these - or - according to the appropriate responses.

6. Ask the children to briefly tell about a real or imagined circumstance in which each of these feelings was experienced. Erase the physical response list; make a happening or circumstances column next to the psychological feelings lists.

7. List the circumstances given by the children in a manner similar to the diagram on the following page.

8. Ask the class if they can think of a meaning for the word "feeling." Does a feeling just come automatically or is it a response or result of anything? At this point it is only necessary to establish the idea of a relationship between happenings and feelings.

Student Activity 2: The Expression Guessing Game

Purpose: to demonstrate that dif-

APPENDIX C (cont.)

Scales (see page 25) here to demonstrate that people feel differently about the same events.

2. Have the students try to guess what another student is feeling at a given time and then check out his guesses.

Student Activity 3: Where Feelings Come From

Purpose: to demonstrate that feelings are generated by thoughts and beliefs.

Procedure:

1. Have the children take out paper and pencils. Explain that you are going to give them certain situations and that you want them to write down their reactions—how they would feel if the situations happened to them. (Teacher may use one or all of these examples.):

a) suppose you were walking down the hall in school one day and you overheard me telling another teacher: "I hear that _____ is going to be kept back. He (she) failed the reading test." Write down the feeling you would have if this happened to you. Now suppose that as you walked further down the hall you heard the other teacher say: "It's too bad. I tried by hardest to help him read when he was in my class." Write how you now feel.

b) suppose your mother bought you a new coat and told you to be careful not to get the coat dirty. As you are walking down the street, a car swerves near the curb and mud is splashed all over your coat. Write down how you would feel. Suppose you saw that the driver was your mother's friend and that she had swerved to avoid hitting a child. She stopped and offered you a ride home and said that she would explain what happened to your mother. Write down how you would now feel.

c) suppose you are carrying a cardboard model of a toy you made for a class project through the park. You

see a dime near one of the park benches so you put the toy down and another child sits on it. How would you feel? Now suppose you found out that the other child was blind and he couldn't see your cardboard model; how would you feel in this situation?

2. Have some of the responses read aloud or written on the board.

3. Ask the class, "Why did your reaction or feeling change with the additional information? Is the coat still dirty regardless of the driver's motive? Isn't the cardboard model broken even if the boy was sat on it is blind? Whether one teacher tried hard and was concerned about your learning to read, you'll still be left behind."

4. Using examples read or written on board, ask "Why doesn't everybody feel the same way about the situations? Where do you think feelings come from?" Accept all reasonable answers (head, brain), but emphasize that feelings come from thoughts.

5. Review key points from previous student activity: that people have different feelings about things, different moods and experiences, that they express their feelings differently.

6. Tell the class that their homework assignment will help them see that feelings come from thoughts or that they "feel the way they think."

Homework Assignment:

Have the class write down the thoughts they have when they are angry, sad, afraid, or frustrated. Ask them to describe the situation, their feeling, and what they did.

Student Activity 4: The Happenings-Thoughts-Feeling Reaction Diagram (HTF)

Purpose: to help the children visualize how they react to situations

APPENDIX C (cont.)

and to further demonstrate that feelings come from thoughts.

Procedures:

1. Begin the lesson by drawing an HTEFR diagram on the board, using an example from your own experience or the one below:

<u>Happening</u>	=	<u>Thought</u>	=	<u>Feeling</u>	=	<u>Reaction</u>
Late for school because of heavy traffic.		Hope someone is covering the class. It bothers me that I have to be delayed this way.		Frustration, Mild tension		Tried to hurry to class once I parked the car.

2. Ask the class to take out the last homework assignment (writing down their thoughts when they were angry, frustrated, etc.) Ask if any of the children wrote about fear experiences and have them read aloud. (If none were fear experiences, ask about other emotions so that it is possible to get several points of view on one emotion.)

3. Discuss the examples read aloud by asking questions such as the following: Why do you think (child's name) and (another child's name) were afraid (angry, frustrated)? What was each of them thinking that made them feel that way? What did each of them do?

4. Have volunteers with the same emotion add their data to the charts. Following are more examples:

<u>Happening</u>	=	<u>Thought</u>	=	<u>Feeling</u>	=	<u>Reaction</u>
Lost father's car keys. (George)		He's going to be angry and he will punish me. That would be awful.		Fear and anxiety		Didn't tell him.
Opportunity to talk in front of class (Mary)		I would make a mistake, be laughed at, be a fool.		Anxious Frightened		Avoided speaking in front of class.
Nearly hit by car. (Donald)		Danger! Later thought, "That was close. I nearly got hit by a car."		Fear, then relief		Thought I would try to be more careful.

If children have difficulty sorting the data for the diagram, offer assistance or ask volunteers to help.

APPENDIX C (cont.)

CHAPTER IV

The Art of Challenging Irrational Beliefs through Self-questioning and Action

Background for the Teacher

Unlike the emotional education systems that mainly concern themselves with helping individuals identify and express their feelings, rational-emotive education teaches not only the identification and expression techniques, but also the way irrational ideas and feelings are generated. Thus it becomes possible with REE to challenge or dispute irrational beliefs once the source of these feelings and beliefs is known. As a problem-solving technique, this system can provide children and adults with the necessary skills for facing emotional difficulties as they arise.

One of the chief means of challenging irrational assumptions is self-questioning. For example, a child who believes he is not a good person because he has low grades in school can be led to understand, as Ellis has shown, that humans are not definable as good or evil--that people's worth is not determined by their performances. The child can also learn that all of his traits, characteristics, and performances cannot be judged by one characteristic, such as poor grades. Of course, philosophical self-questioning is only the first step; since behavioral change also requires that one take

some kind of action. Thus the child who fears public speaking, for example, is encouraged first to question the irrational assumption, and then to take action directed at overcoming the fear--namely, speaking in front of groups. The practice and experience afford opportunities for acquiring new growth-promoting skills and increasing self-acceptance.

Purpose of chapter: to teach children to identify their irrational and rational beliefs, to help them examine the effects and the degree of their irrational and rational beliefs, and to help them begin to challenge their self-defeating assumptions so that they can begin to act on them.

Student Activity 1: The First Step in Challenging

Purpose: to help students identify rational beliefs (rb) and irrational beliefs (ib).

Procedure:

1. Begin the lesson by asking for volunteers to define the word "challenge." Write all reasonable definitions on the board. Explain to the class that they are going to question and challenge some of their thinking by using the RET diagram (their last REE homework assignment).

APPENDIX C (cont.)

and -10 means very negative feelings like anger, depression, anxiety.

5. Ask the students to rate their feelings on the appropriate scales for the following thoughts:

- a) it would be awful if I didn't get all A's on my report card. (13)
- b) I can't stand it when that pest, Mary, asks me to copy my homework. (13)
- c) I'm glad that my parents and I get along so well. (r3)
- d) I think I would be a good choice for the team's captain, but it would be a disappointment if the team didn't choose me. (r3)
- e) it is unfair for me to have so much homework; I'm so angry I could scream. (13)

6. If there is time, scales can be made for curiosity, anger, contentment, and other feelings the children may wish to chart in response to a list of thoughts.

Student Activity 3: "Mr. Head" (Brody, 1973)

Purpose: to enhance children's awareness of how their thoughts influence their feelings.

Procedure:

1. Draw a face on a paper bag or plastic bowl and place cards with thoughts written on them into the bag or bowl. Explain to the class that the Thought Cards represent some of the ideas that might be going on in anybody's head: some are irrational, some are rational and lead to either appropriate or inappropriate emotional reactions.
2. Have the children take turns picking cards from Mr. Head, identifying the thought as rational or irrational and explaining their answers. The following are sample card statements: I don't like to make mistakes (r3). All humans are mistake-makers (r3). Mary makes me angry (13). It is awful to have to sit next to Sam (13).

If my parents don't buy the games I asked for, they don't love me (13).

Reinforcement:

1. Have students put Mr. Head thoughts on RTFA charts by asking them to describe the feelings and potential reactions they might have to the thought cards.
2. Have the students make up new thought cards with rational and irrational ideas that Mr. Head might have.
3. Have the students guess the effects of Mr. Head's thoughts in precipitating feelings and then place them on the Emotional Experience scale.

Student Activity 4: Using Challenging Techniques

Purpose: to give children practice in questioning irrational ideas through the presentation of hypothetical situations. Through the challenging, the children will also learn to reduce neurotic behavior.

Procedure:

1. Tell the class that the brief story they are about to hear is about a boy's fears. Ask them to think about helping him overcome his fear as it is told.
"A boy named Sam enjoys boating, especially on lakes. He believes that the world is flat, that there are monsters at the edge where the world ends, so he's afraid of the ocean because he thinks he'll fall off the earth if he goes too far out into the ocean."
2. Encourage the class to help Sam question his thinking. One method of getting the questioning started is by having the teacher take Sam's role.
3. Have a volunteer put Sam's feelings on an RTFA diagram. What are his rational beliefs? Irrational beliefs? What feelings do his irrational beliefs cause? As a result,

APPENDIX C (cont.)

2. Have the students take out the assignment (a diagram on their feelings about speaking in front of the class) and ask a few students to read their diagrams so that you can gauge the extremes of their beliefs and find good examples of r3 and i3. Here are two good examples:

3. Choose two students to write their extreme examples on the board.

<u>Happening</u>	<u>Thought</u>	<u>Feeling</u>	<u>Reaction</u>
Talking in front of class and making a mistake.	I wouldn't like making a mistake and getting laughed at.	Unhappy Frightened Anxious	Won't talk in front of class.
	If that happened it would make me a fool and that would be awful.	Feels inferior	
Talking in front of class.	I'll try to do my best, and if I make a mistake, it's too bad. It's no big deal.	Mild displeasure at the thought of making a mistake.	Get up in front of class and try to say what you want to.

4. Ask the rest of the class to identify statements on the board which would result in self-downing and anxiety and have them explain why. As the students are examining the statements you may want to ask how many of them agree or disagree with the individual statements on the board.

5. Explain that an unreasonable or absurd idea is called an irrational belief or an i3. Give as an example: "Nobody in the world will ever be my friend." Explain that a rational belief (or r3) is a sensible logical statement that seems to fit reality. For example: "Humans are capable of making mistakes" or "Mistake-making tendencies do not make us worthless human beings."

6. Ask the class to look at the

examples on the board and decide which contain rational beliefs, irrational beliefs, or both, and label the diagrams accordingly.

7. Draw attention to the example which has two ideas: an r3 and an i3. You can paraphrase or use the following explanation with appropriate names and examples:

"___ has two different ideas: one is that he wouldn't like to make a mistake in front of the class. If he only had that thought, he would feel sad or unhappy if he did make a mistake and others laughed. But ___ also believes something else: that he would be a fool if he made a mistake, and with that idea he would feel nervous and frightened and he would put himself down. The first idea, 'I wouldn't like to make a mis-

APPENDIX C (cont.)

and -10 means very negative feelings like anger, depression, anxiety.

5. Ask the students to rate their feelings on the appropriate scales for the following thoughts:

- a) it would be awful if I didn't get all A's on my report card. (iB)
- b) I can't stand it when that pest, Mary, ask me to copy my homework. (iB)
- c) I'm glad that my parents and I get along so well. (rB)
- d) I think I would be a good choice for the team's captain, but it would be a disappointment if the team didn't choose me. (rB)
- e) it is unfair for me to have so much homework; I'm so angry I could scream. (iB)

6. If there is time, scales can be made for curiosity, anger, contentment, and other feelings the children may wish to chart in response to a list of thoughts.

Student Activity 3: "Mr. Head" (Brody, 1973)

Purpose: to enhance children's awareness of how their thoughts influence their feelings.

Procedure:

1. Draw a face on a paper bag or plastic bowl and place cards with thoughts written on them into the bag or bowl. Explain to the class that the Thought Cards represent some of the ideas that might be going on in anybody's head: some are irrational, some are rational and lead to either appropriate or inappropriate emotional reactions.
2. Have the children take turns picking cards from Mr. Head, identifying the thought as rational or irrational and explaining their answers. The following are sample card statements: I don't like to make mistakes (rB). All humans are mistake-makers (rB). Mary makes me angry (iB). It is awful to have to sit next to Sam (iB).

If my parents don't buy the games I asked for, they don't love me (iB).

Reinforcement:

1. Have students put Mr. Head thoughts on RTFR charts by asking them to describe the feelings and potential reactions they might have to the thought cards.
2. Have the students make up new thought cards with rational and irrational ideas that Mr. Head might have.
3. Have the students guess the effects of Mr. Head's thoughts in precipitating feelings and then place them on the Emotional Experience scale.

Student Activity 4: Using Challenging Techniques

Purpose: to give children practice in questioning irrational ideas through the presentation of hypothetical situations. Through the challenging, the children will also learn to reduce neurotic behavior.

Procedure:

1. Tell the class that the brief story they are about to hear is about a boy's fears. Ask them to think about helping him overcome his fear as it is told.
"A boy named Sam enjoys boating, especially on lakes. He believes that the world is flat, that there are monsters at the edge where the world ends, so he's afraid of the ocean because he thinks he'll fall off the earth if he goes too far out into the ocean."
2. Encourage the class to help Sam question his thinking. One method of getting the questioning started is by having the teacher take Sam's role.
3. Have a volunteer put Sam's feelings on an RTFR diagram. What are his rational beliefs? Irrational beliefs? What feelings do his irrational beliefs cause? As a result,

APPENDIX C (cont.)

What is his behavior like?

<u>Happening</u>	-	<u>Thought</u>	=	<u>Feeling</u>	-	<u>Reaction</u>
Being at the ocean and wanting to go boating.		The world is flat. I will fall off the earth if I go out too far. Monsters will devour me.		Fear		Avoid ocean and enjoyment

Tell the following story to the class:

"Once upon a time, there lived an ancient tribe of cave people. Their caves were at the edge of a very large river, but nobody ever went over to the other side. The people believed that if any one crossed the river and returned, that person would bring destruction to the tribe. One year, all the animals and food supplies disappeared from the cave region side of the river. The tribe faced starvation, yet none of the elders would allow anyone to cross to the other side of the river where food seemed to be plentiful. Anyone who defied the tradition faced the death penalty."

Homework Assignment:

Have children think of specific examples of irrationalities in everyday living (movies, TV, music, comics, songs) and list several of them on paper.

5. Have the class pretend they were members of the tribe and members of a group within the tribe who would rather fight tradition than starve. What can you do? Ask what one of man's basic rights is? (To survive). Why do you think it would be a good idea to go against the tradition? (It will benefit society at large). How can you challenge the belief that destruction will follow if someone ventures across the river? (The best way is by going something, by taking a risk).

6. If one or both stories have been used, the conclusion to be emphasized is that risk-taking and positive action are ways to challenge irrational beliefs.

APPENDIX C (cont.)

CHAPTER V

Challenging Feelings of Inferiority

Background for the Teacher

Feelings of inadequacy and inferiority are among the most pervasive and destructive human emotions. Very often, children and adults fail to view themselves as complex creatures with thousands of traits and characteristics--neither all good or all bad. Rather, they tend to discount their many good qualities and consider themselves inadequate or worthless as they overfocus on one or several shortcomings which may, at times, be more imaginary than real. A child who occasionally gets into trouble, for example, may suffer needless anguish as he denigrates himself for one aspect of his behavior which only rears its unpleasant head on rare occasions.

Indeed, many people have clearly visible annoying traits, such as chronic complaining and angry outbursts, which can easily mask the more subtle good qualities. A child's disruptive behavior in the classroom usually becomes more noticeable to his teacher than his kindness or his sense of humor because of her desire to avoid a chaotic classroom. It must be kept in mind that shy as well as more verbal and perhaps disruptive individuals suffer feelings of inadequacy. The overt behavior is merely a manifestation

of the problems within.

Purpose of chapter: to help all children develop the skills to challenge and change thoughts and feelings of inferiority. As children learn that they are complex rather than simple creatures, they can then challenge the irrational assumption that a person is all good or all bad because of some of his actions. By better accepting themselves, the children can thus learn to behave in ways that are more conducive to self-development.

Student Activity 1: Simple and Complex

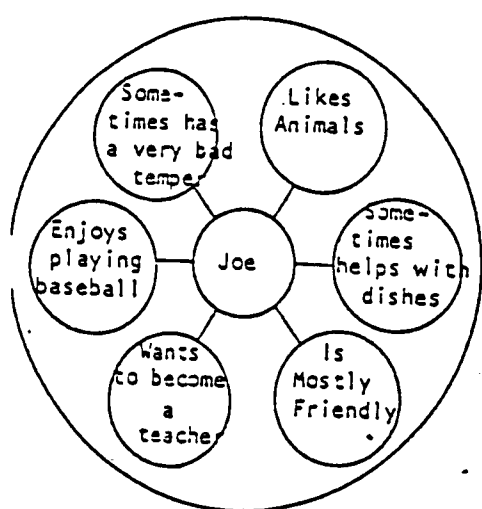
Purpose: to show that people are complex rather than simple, i.e., of the thousands of traits and characteristics a person is capable of expressing, people share some similar basic traits but differ in others. No two people can be alike in all their talents and inner qualities. Also, to highlight individual differences and show that each person is capable of feeling and acting in many different ways so that children can then question the tendency to define themselves as worthless based on a few traits or actions.

Procedure:

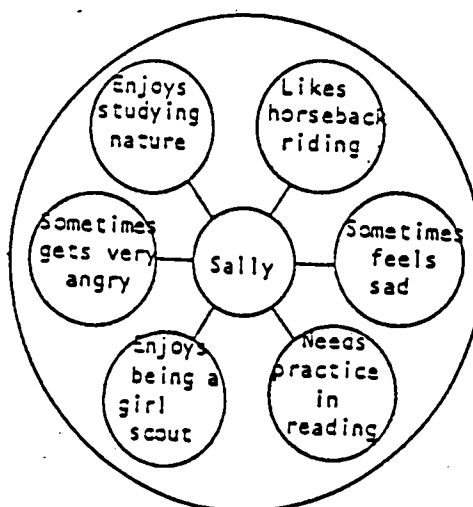
1. Ask volunteers to try to define

APPENDIX C (cont.)

2. Have the students write their names in the center of their circles, and take out the last homework assignment. Then have them fill in the outer circle with 'doing, personal, and feeling' things. See examples below and make sure that each child has a reasonable number of positive qualities on his pin-wheel.



3. Depending on the materials being used, have the children cut and mount pin-wheels on a large oaktag circle. Fasten the oaktag circle to a stick in such a manner that it can spin freely. Paint a red dot below the circle.



4. Let each child practice challenging the irrational idea that he is only one thing by using the pin-wheel. When one of the characteristics stops at the red dot, questions like the following can be asked: 'What kind of person am I if I dislike doing the dishes?' 'What kind of person am I if I am friendly some of the time?' 'Am I only this one thing that I do?'

5. Have some volunteers write name-calling statements ('You are trash... stinky... a fool.') on separate pieces of paper and place the individual statements in a bowl or bag.

6. Have children take turns picking a name-calling paper and challenging the statement. Self-questions like

'If someone calls me a name, does it make me one or does it mean that the rest of things about me don't count?' should be encouraged. The use of the words 'sometimes,' 'rarely,' 'occasionally,' 'most of the time' to describe some of their individual qualities is a very useful challenging instrument and should be emphasized. Key questions to be kept in mind as the children challenge the name-calling are:

- a) How can I be just a fool or a dumb-bell if I am all of these other things?
 - b) Does one person's opinion of me mean that I am just what they think of me?
 - c) Don't the other things on the pin-wheel count?
- Draw attention to the negative qua-

APPENDIX C (cont.)

CHAPTER VI

Learning, Mistake-making, and Imperfection

Background for the Teacher

Children often consider themselves lesser human beings eagerly awaiting childhood's end as if childhood—especially school or any formalized learning—were a fixed time period to be gotten through as quickly as possible, rather than a time for growing self-awareness, a time for learning how to learn, and a time for getting a more realistic picture of our imperfect world peopled with imperfect creatures. Quite frequently, many of these children have been victimized by well-meaning but overanxious or domineering parents who want the child to achieve more than they did, and faster, or who treat the child as a kind of small savage to be domesticated and "perfected" as he grows (as if human perfection were an attainable goal).

Perfectionism is a sad treadmill which can only lead to intense anxiety, fear, catastrophizing, and predictably unpleasant experiences. People who pressure themselves or are pressured by outside sources to be perfect give themselves a hard time when reasonable or unreasonable goals are not achieved and mistakes are made. Failure to view learning and the human experience as ongoing processes which necessarily involve mistake-making and imperfection are

at the root of the problem. Of course, a society which places greater value on success or getting ahead than on enlightened self-hood can exacerbate the problem.

In recent years, there has been a growing trend among humanistic educators and childhood experts who are concerned about the quality of child life to direct attention not only to the dehumanizing aspects of American education and the so-called American Dream, but also to the kinds of childrearing that engender these irrational and perfectionistic goals. It should be kept in mind that achievement and self-understanding are not antithetical concepts. Rather, an understanding of human flexibility, fallibility, and the human learning process can serve to enhance achievement and the pleasure in the process of trying, while at the same time exploding the myth that one's worth is determined by one's achievements.

Purpose of chapter: to make children aware that humans are mistake-makers who often learn by making mistakes; that language affords the opportunity to learn and challenge and change; that the world—like people—is complex, imperfect and viewed differently by different people; and that a person's worth is not determined by his actions.

APPENDIX C (cont.)

Student Activity 1: How People Learn

Purpose: to help children explore some of the ways humans learn and the function of human language in communicating, learning, and self-questioning.

Procedure:

1. Have volunteers describe the way they would "paper-train" a puppy. The major points to emphasize are:
 - a) letting the dog know what is wanted—"going" on the paper rather than the rug; b) rewarding the animal for good behavior and punishing him mildly for bad behavior; c) being patient. As students are discussing this, ask if they think the puppy automatically knows that going on the rug is annoying to adults before the training has begun. (If there is time, you may wish to emphasize the importance of the tone of voice rather than the words used.)
2. Explain that training is only one form of teaching and learning. It is used when the learner does not decide what he wants to learn and when he cannot understand why it would be advisable to learn what is being taught. Use a baby's toilet training as a human example of this kind of learning. Ask if a baby knows automatically that his parents want him to use the toilet.
3. Ask those children who have cats or dogs if the animal knew how to walk when it was born. Did it have to be taught to bark or meow? How long did it take for the animal to be fully grown? Ask the class if they think humans or animals take longer to develop. Emphasize that animals take a relatively short time to be fully grown and developed; humans, on the other hand, take a very long time to develop physically, mentally and emotionally.
4. Make sure that the children

understand what appears to be a very obvious point: that humans have more potential for learning and developing physical, mental, and emotional skills. Ask if a newborn baby can stack blocks? Why not? What are some of the skills a baby has to learn? As his mind and body develop, how does he learn to walk, stack blocks, avoid hot stoves, etc.? (Elicit: How we learn by trial-and-error, making mistakes, practicing, imitation.)

5. Ask the students if they think that a little baby reaching for his rattle or trying to put his toe in his mouth is thinking with words: "If I could only get that rattle..." or "I wonder if that toe has a taste?" Explain that newborns and infants don't think using a language because they don't know a language. Ask how a young baby's learning is similar to or different from their own. (Both learn by trial and error, experimentation, mistake-making, imitation, practice, etc. Only older humans or children of a certain age can use language to work things out in their heads--talk to themselves--or talk to other people.)
6. If any of the children have younger siblings about three years old, ask them if they have ever heard the child talking out loud to himself while playing. You may wish to give as an example that children of that age often say aloud exactly what they are doing. While building a structure out of different size blocks, you may hear them say, "I put this here, and the big one on top. Aw, it fell down." Emphasize that they are practicing using language while they are improving a skill. If you chose to build a structure with this child and his blocks, and he asked you which block to use for the base, how is he using language? (To learn, to communicate.)

APPENDIX C (cont.)

7. Ask the class some of the ways they learn in school through the use of language. (Elicit: The teacher tells them things, they read books which contain words, they discuss, they write, they think, they look at films with spoken words.) Emphasize that once language has been mastered, people learn through the use of language by listening to what others say and by talking to themselves, or thinking.

8. Ask for a definition of frustration and examples of frustrating situations. Write some of them on the board. (Some examples might include: doing a puzzle and finding that some of the pieces are missing; not being able to figure out the meaning of a word when there is no dictionary or no person available to consult; not getting what you want; a kind of tension; not getting what you want.) Remind the class of the example of the newborn reaching for its rattle or its toe. Is the baby blaming anyone or saying to himself: "It's my fault, or his fault" and getting angry? Or is he just frustrated? Do you think anger and frustration are the same? Why not? Emphasize that anger comes from blaming or talking to oneself in sentences about how terrible things are and whose fault it is.

9. Explore helpful ways of dealing with frustration:

- a. accepting frustration as an "all-right" feeling to have
- b. trying to be patient and calm since learning and finding solutions takes time
- c. realizing that problems can't always be solved the way you want and when you want
- d. trying not to add sentences about "how terrible the situation is" so that you won't blame and get angry.

Homework Assignment:

Have students decide by majority vote which situation comedy they would like to use as part of their assignment; or, you may wish to assign All in the Family. Once the show has been chosen, ask students to write down what they liked or disliked about the show, and describe briefly the events of that particular episode.

Student Activity 2: Facts and Opinions

Purpose: to establish the difference between facts and opinions.

Procedure:

1. Begin the lesson by asking students to take out their last homework assignment. Ask who liked or disliked the show and for what reasons. You may want to write some of their responses in a list on the board, but do not use the word "opinion" yet.

2. Ask the students some of the following questions and put the responses in another column on the board. What time was the show on? How long was it? What happened in that episode and what did some of the characters say or do?

3. Point out the two lists and ask which are facts and which are opinions. Establish the difference between the two. A fact is a statement which is verifiable and observable. An opinion is someone's idea about something. It is neither true nor false.

4. Have the class add more facts and opinions about the show in the appropriate columns. What were some of the opinions of the various characters? What are some of the facts about the characters? (Were they short, tall, old, young? Did some of them have certain strong characteristics--loving, generous,

APPENDIX C (cont.)

Ask if a person is the same as his grades. Does an F in spelling mean that you are an "F" person? Is a person the same as the words he uses? Is a person the same as his batting performance?

10. Once the children understand that it is not possible to be perfect in every undertaking, ask them some of the irrational things they think when they do things imperfectly. (It's awful, it's terrible, I'm awful, I'm not a good person, etc.) When you have these irrational opinions about yourself or someone else, how can you challenge them? (a. By reminding yourself that people are not perfect) (b. By reminding yourself that a person is not the same as his performance) (c. By thinking about the many reasons for making mistakes)

Homework Assignment:

Ask the children to write down some mistakes they have made and seen other people make; the reason why they think the mistake was made; how the mistake-maker acted when he made the mistake; and what their thoughts were about the mistake.

Student Activity 6: Why People Make Mistakes

Purpose: to review and emphasize the fact that people are mistake-makers and that mistakes are usually part of the learning process; that because the world is a complex place, people react to the same things differently; and that people often make mistakes by acting on unsound assumptions.

Procedure:

1. Before going over the homework assignment, it is advisable to have a brief discussion on the relative importance of different kinds of mistakes. Write the following examples on the board or read them

aloud:

- a) In learning how to walk, the baby reaches for stable objects to maintain his balance. He reaches for a wobbly table and as he falls, the table collapses on top of him, giving him a serious cut on his head.
- b) While trying to walk, the baby grabs onto an expensive standing lamp, and the lamp falls and breaks.
- c) Mr. Jones is driving up Main Street and doesn't see the stop sign. He goes through the street and is seen by a policeman. He gets a ticket.
- d) Mr. Smith is driving up the same street and he goes through a red light, crashes into a car making a turn. Both drivers are seriously injured.
- e) John gets a failing mark on his weekly English test.
- f) Jane, a high school senior, fails the college entrance exam.
- g) A young boy takes money from his mother's wallet, gets caught, and is punished for a week.
- h) A teenager steals the same amount from a stranger, is caught, and taken to juvenile court.
- i) Mary thought John was an interesting boy. She went out on a date with him and spent a very boring evening.
- j) John assumed that Jan had a car. He invited her to drive to the race-track in the country. Jan didn't like horseracing, nor did she have a car.

2. Do all these incidents have something in common? What is it? (All involve mistakes.) In what ways are they different? (Causes and consequences, varying degrees of importance).

3. Have volunteers compare related examples a & b, c & d, e & f, etc. After examples have been discussed, emphasize the fact that some mistakes have worse consequences than others, the greatest being serious injury or death.

APPENDIX C (cont.)

4. Ask what the causes of mistakes in the examples were? (Lack of skill, trial and error in the learning process as in a and b; carelessness or poor judgment as in c and d; not studying, not understanding information, tired, ill or poor students as in e and f; unacceptable social values, unsound assumptions, as in g and h; and opinions and assumptions as in i and j.)

5. Have the students take out their homework assignments on mistakes they have made or observed. Have a few students read examples and have volunteers write one each on board after first labelling the following columns:

<u>Mistake</u>	<u>Cause</u>	<u>Result</u>	<u>Thoughts about mistake-maker</u>
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(If you have the time, you may wish to allow students several minutes to review their summaries of lessons or assignments from Chapter VI.) After a few minutes, ask the students to look at examples on the board to see if they agree with the cause. In some cases, the students will find that there may be more causes than they were first aware of. Allow time for corrections on board and assignment sheets.

6. Before discussing the thoughts about mistake-makers, ask the class if they can think of cartoon characters who are big mistake-makers (Wile E. Coyote in the Road Runner strip is a good example, as is the weatherman!). Should these characters (and people) be punished for their mistakes? Why do some of them make mistakes?

7. Have the class examine the examples on the board. Do any of the examples show that the person who wrote them is blaming the mistake-maker? If so, draw attention to the language of blame. If none of the examples indicate self-blame or

blaming others, ask the students what people say to themselves when they blame themselves or others. (Elicit: "I'm awful. He's awful. He's a bad person. I'm a fool, etc.")

8. Ask the students to put their examples on an HTPR diagram to further illustrate that we feel the way we think. Ask the students how they feel when they blame themselves or others, and how they can change the way they feel.

Supplementary Activity

Since it is important not only for children to realize that all humans are mistake-makers, but that we needn't just resign ourselves to things as they are, ask each child to write down four areas of their lives they would like to improve. The list can include school activities, personal qualities, or anything the children wish. Ask them how they can learn from their mistakes. (They provide information about areas for improvement.) Suggest that they record at regular intervals what they have done to improve, the results of the efforts, and the way they use their subsequent mistakes as information in the improvement process.

APPENDIX C (cont.)

CHAPTER VII

Demanding, Catastrophizing, and Challenging

Background for the Teacher

With the exception of the essentials for survival--food, shelter, clothing, and stimulation--people truly need little else. There are, however, many desirable and worthwhile goals in life such as achievement, approval, comfort, happiness, and being able to predict how certain things will turn out. Although an individual may not be happy if he does not achieve some of his desired goals, few people are capable of coping with severe setbacks, and still others are totally incapable of dealing with practically any setbacks.

Anger, depression, anxiety, complaining, brooding, and blaming are but a few of the unhealthy responses of those who demand that they get exactly what they want in life. People who think in terms of "must have," "should have," "need," and "demand" are not simply saddened or disappointed in the face of unfulfilled goals (as are those emotionally healthy individuals who may have "aspired to," "wanted," or "desired" those same legitimate goals). Clearly, emotional troubles do not stem from thwarted desires, but rather from the irrational standards and demands one has for oneself.

Perfectionistic demanding is usually associated with a series of irrational assumptions and conclusions

about situations. Since the perfectionist associates his worth with his performance, failure to achieve a goal is for him evidence of his worthlessness. His blame and anger may be turned inward in the form of self-pity and feelings of helplessness, or outward at the people who have not cooperated in the achievement of his goal. Inconveniences of varying degrees are inevitably converted into disasters and catastrophes. Ellis has described the human tendency to magnify out of all proportion as catastrophizing or "lawfulizing."

Mass destructions of civilian populations are truly catastrophes, but for the most part, life is not an ever-constant series of disasters unless one is irrationally assuming that he "cannot stand" situations which do not work out perfectly. If an individual defines unpleasant occurrences in his life as awful and terrible, he will undoubtedly feel helpless and panicked in the face of difficult new situations, and depressed about old ones. By learning to identify and challenge irrational demands and assumptions, it is possible for adults and children to view their world with a more realistic eye and to face everyday problems as the things they are--difficult challenges perhaps, but clearly not catastrophes.

APPENDIX C (cont.)

Purpose of chapter: to teach children the nature of irrational demands and assumptions versus rational desires, and to help them apply this knowledge by challenging their catastrophizing tendencies and taking positive action against it.

Student Activity 1: Demands and Desires

Purpose: to help the children define and differentiate desires and irrational demands.

Procedure:

1. Begin the lesson by writing the following statements on the board:

- a) I want a new dress.
- b) I must have that bicycle I saw in the department store.
- c) I need to win this game of checkers.
- d) It would be nice if my parents took me to the movies.
- e) I would like to get an A in math.
- f) I hope our team wins.
- g) I should be everybody's friend.
- h) I wish I had more friends.
- i) I demand that everyone be honest.
- j) I prefer peace and quiet when I do my homework.

Explain to the class that some of these statements contain desire words and some have demand words. Before defining demand and desire, ask the children if they can identify which statements are desires (a,d,e,f,h,j) and which are demands (b,c,g,i). If the children are clearly having difficulty distinguishing the two, you may want to define demands and desires at this

point. (A demand is a belief that you must have what you want, whereas a desire expresses a preference or a wish for something.)

2. Once the demand and desire words have been labeled and identified, you may want to have a brief discussion of man's basic needs. Point out that people who are demanding think they need more things than they actually do. Give the following example:

You and some others have gone to a desert island. What are the things you need in order to survive? (You will probably get a long list of non-necessities.)

3. Remind the class of the lesson they had on assumptions in the previous chapter. (If you have time, you may want to go through the activity again or have students summarize key points.) What is an assumption? What is an unsound assumption and what is a sound assumption? Point out that some people have different opinions about what is desirable. Ask the class again what man's basic needs are. (Food, clothing, shelter, and stimulation). What does the demanding person assume about his needs? (He assumes that he needs more things than he actually does. He mistakes assumptions for facts.)

4. Give the following examples to the class:

- a) If I don't get the gifts I want, I will be disappointed.
- b) I must get an A. If I do I'll feel great; if not, I'll be furious.
- c) Everybody should be honest; liars are worthless people.
- d) I'd like to be a better tennis player, but if I play a lousy match, I'll try harder the next time.

APPENDIX C (cont.)

successful when he finds out that he can't predict perfectly).

d) Once Troubles realizes that his assumptions are not only irrational but also impossible, what can he do? (He can look for evidence to question his viewpoint and challenge his beliefs with action.)

e) What are some of the challenging statements he can make about his assumptions or things he can learn by the challenging?

Having his way. He could try to accept that while it is desirable to have his way, it is not essential that it be that way.

Success. He can appreciate what he does have and try to work at doing the best he can rather than being the best there is. He can learn that his worth is not determined by any one of his actions. He can learn that people and the world are complex and that you can't succeed in everything.

Liked by all. He can learn that people have different opinions and values, that people are complex creatures with many different qualities. You can't please everyone and if people don't like you, it doesn't make you worthless.

Demand for comfort. He can learn that he causes his own unhappiness by the view he takes of events. He can learn that if he doesn't get some of the reasonable things he works for, his lack of achievement isn't the cause of unhappiness or discomfort. Because no one can control all events and all people and the world and people are not perfect, no one can be perfectly happy, all the time.

7. Draw attention to Troubles' attitudes toward others. It has been clearly established that Troubles

demands perfection of himself. Ask the children, what do you think is his attitude toward other people? Do you think he demands the same perfection of them? When people are not perfect, what do you think are some of his thoughts about their worth? Do you think he blames them for their mistakes? Why?

8. If there is time, allow children a few minutes to review their notes on the preceding chapter (Learning, Mistake-making, and Imperfection). Then have a volunteer tell the class what he would tell Troubles about the reasons why people make mistakes.

Student Activity 3: Touchy Joe
(Note: The following is an example of a discussion approach used by Ms. Salma Babor in a sixth-grade class in a school located in an economically deprived area. The school is considered a special school with the average reading level at the 20th percentile, i.e., 80% of the nation's children read better than this group. You may wish to adapt or modify this discussion-type activity to suit the age, maturity, and vocabulary level of your class.)

Purpose: to have the children recognize and challenge irrational demandingness and its emotional and behavioral consequences.

Procedure: Discussion

Ms. B: Do you know someone who gets angry very easily?

Class: Yes.

Ms. B: What do we know about people who get angry very easily?

Child: They're touchy.

Class: They steal, cheat, start trouble, bother people, think people bother them, argue a lot,

start fights.

Ms. B: What do you think of a person--let's call him Touchy Joe--who fights a lot, starts trouble, argues, blames others. What happens to him?

Child: He has no friends.

Ms. B: Do you think he's a happy person?

Class: No.

Ms. B: Do you think he sees it? Do you think he says to himself, 'Oh, I always start trouble, I always act unfairly'? Or do you think he says, 'Everybody is picking on me...she put the chair in my way on purpose. I'm him; it's everybody's fault that I'm in trouble'?

Class: He thinks everybody is picking on him.

Ms. B: Can Joe do anything about this problem and be a happier person?

Child: Stop being touchy.

Ms. B: How can he do that? For example, what does he have to realize first?

Child: I'm touchy.

Ms. B: That's right. That's a good first step.

The teacher continued the discussion and pointed out that everybody, including herself, was a Touchy Joe at times and she suggested that whenever anyone in class was being touchy, he was to be questioned: "Are you being a Touchy Joe?--because sometimes it is helpful to be resigned."

Homework Assignment:

Ask students to question Touchy

Joe's in class and write down whenever they are going Touchy Joe's themselves. Whenever someone gets angry, have them question, "Is there another side to the story?" and write an answer to this question whenever they are angry themselves.

Student Activity 4: Catastrophizing or "Awfulizing"

Purpose: to have children explore the nature of catastrophizing or "awfulizing" and to help them challenge the irrational ideas and assumptions.

Procedure:

1. Ask the children to describe briefly situations which they consider unpleasant. Have each child draw up a list of ten unpleasant things and list them in order from most unpleasant to least unpleasant. (The lists might include statements such as: going to the dentist, not being able to own a dog, not passing the fifth grade, sleeping in the dark, being punished by Dad, being allowed to ride my bike, having to stay in on Saturdays, not having enough food packed in my lunch, having to stay in class while everyone is in the schoolyard, taking a test.)

2. To emphasize the fact that people have different opinions about what is unpleasant and how differently some people rate the same situations, you may want to have students exchange papers a few times to read each other's lists, or you may call on a few students and have lists read aloud. After a reasonable sample has been read, ask the children if any of them had identical lists in the same order. Why do you think your lists were not the same?

3. Choose a few items which may appear on several students' lists and have the students expand on their

APPENDIX C (cont.)

CHAPTER VIII

Special Topics

RESPONSIBILITY, ROLES AND RULES

Student Activity 1: Responsibility, Roles and Rules

Purpose: to have the children explore the nature of responsible and irresponsible behavior; to explore the idea that people have many roles at a time and that roles imply rules.

Procedure:

1. Give children the following examples and ask them if the person in the example behaved responsibly or irresponsibly. Have them explain answers:

a) Sally, a ten-year-old girl, was asked to watch her year-old brother while their parents went shopping. The baby brother fell asleep on the floor in the living room, and Sally decided to go outside to play.

b) John is having an English test today in school but he has had a bad case of the flu for several days and he still has a high fever and chills. He decides to stay in bed.

c) (Same situation as b). He decides to go to school.

d) A two-year-old is alone in the kitchen. He touches a hot stove and burns his hand.

e) The children are late for school, so Mom drives through a red light at a busy intersection in order to make the trip shorter.

(The students will probably agree that examples a and e are irresponsible. Examples b and c will likely produce much discussion and disagreement, with some students concluding that a test is more important than one's health, and others realizing that it may be possible to make up the test. Some children may consider example d as irresponsible behavior, not realizing that two-year-olds are not always fully aware of what could hurt them.)

2. You may wish to have the children give further examples of responsible and irresponsible behavior from situations they have witnessed or experienced. If additional examples are discussed, ask if any children disagree with the labeling of the example and if so, have them explain their differences of opinion. Ask if any child can explain what a responsible person is. Help the children develop a working definition such as: "A responsible person is one who tries to think and act rationally."

APPENDIX D

Interview Script

1. Tell us what you do in your occupation (career).
2. Tell us about your hometown and your family as a kid growing up.
3. Tell us about your days in elementary (middle) school.
4. Why did(n't) you do well in school? (if did, go to #7)
5. Why do you think you were unmotivated to do well in school?
6. Obviously, there was a turning point for you because you are a successful citizen now. What was the turning point?
7. Doing your work in school is very important, but I bet you had to do other things too, like staying out of trouble. Did you come to school everyday, and try to be a good citizen to your other classmates?
8. Did you realize that what you learned in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades would help you become a successful adult?
9. So, first you made it through fourth, fifth, and sixth grades by doing your work, coming to school, and staying out of trouble. Where did you go next?
10. Do you think the work you did in the fourth, fifth and sixth grades was important when it came to knowing the skills you needed to get through middle school and then high school?
11. So basically you had to do well in fourth, fifth, and sixth grades in order to go to high school and do well. Tell us what you did after you finished high school.
12. How did you eventually get into the occupation (career) you are in currently?
13. What did you learn in school that you use currently in your occupation (career)?
14. Tell us about your life now.
15. Do you think you would be where you are today if you had not done well in school?

APPENDIX E

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Matrix*= $p < .05$

<u>4th Grade Control Group</u>			
	Rational Beliefs	School to Career	Achievement
Rational Beliefs		.37	.68*
School to Career			.60*
Achievement			
<u>5th Grade Control Group</u>			
	Rational Beliefs	School to Career	Achievement
Rational Beliefs		.61*	.00
School to Career			.17
Achievement			

(table continues)

<u>6th Grade Control Group</u>		
Rational Beliefs	School to Career	Achievement

Rational Beliefs	.44*	-.33
School to Career		-.32
Achievement		

<u>4th Grade Experimental Group</u>		
Rational Beliefs	School to Career	Achievement

Rational Beliefs	.34*	.27
School to Career		.02
Achievement		

<u>5th Grade Experimental Group</u>		
Rational Beliefs	School to Career	Achievement

Rational Beliefs	.27	.43*
School to Career		.32
Achievement		

<u>6th Grade Experimental Group</u>		
Rational Beliefs	School to Career	Achievement

Rational Beliefs	.37	.25
School to Career		.42
Achievement		

VITA

Karen Ranique Streeter was born in Memphis, Tennessee. She attended schools in the Memphis City Schools public system, where she graduated from Memphis Central High School in 1986. She graduated cum laude from the University of Tennessee at Martin with a Bachelor of Arts. in Psychology in 1990. In 1990 she entered the Doctoral program in School Psychology at the University of Tennessee at Knoxville. After her second year in the program she earned a Master's degree in Educational Psychology and went to work for the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards in Washington, D.C.. While there she helped to create a standards and assessment system to certify highly accomplished teachers nationwide. Before returning to complete her Doctoral program in 1994, she pursued graduate work at George Washington University and the University of North Carolina in educational psychology and educational assessment and research. In December of 1997 she received a Doctorate of Education in School Psychology. Currently she is working as a school psychologist at the Milton Hershey School in Hershey, Pennsylvania, a private school for needy children from ages 4 to 18.