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ABSTRACT

This first chapter in "The Challenge of Counseling in Middle Schools" contains four articles that describe strategies for counselors to use in helping middle school students move toward self-understanding. "A Dialogue with Self: The Journal as an Educational Tool," by Dalva Hedlund, Tanis Furst, and Kathryn Foley, describes journal writing as a valuable educational tool for middle school students. "The Effects Two Methods of Affective Education on Self-Concept in Seventh-Grade Students," by Darryl Lee Bayer, discusses research on affective education and self-concept. Examples of affective education experiences are given and implications for school counselors are offered. "Facilitating the Not-So-Trivial Pursuit of Identity in Adolescence," by Christina Mitchell, describes the identity pursuit concept, a game developed to encourage adolescents to become active in discovering themselves. "Twenty Adolescent Novels (and More) That Counselors Should Know About," by Theodore Hipple, Jane Yarbrough, and Jeffrey Kaplan, provides a list of novels (some annotated) about adolescence, categorized according to problems. Problems addressed include alienation and identity, athletics, close friend or sibling rivalry, death and dying, divorce, drugs and alcohol, ethical dilemmas, handicapped youth, homosexuality, mental illness, parents, prejudice, rape, religious pressures, school, sex, social responsibility, suicide, teenage crime, and teenage pregnancy. (NB)

Chapter 1

The Challenge of Self-Discovery in Early Adolescence

In her poem, "A Fence Rider," published in *The School Counselor*, Burnette (1986) wrote this about early adolescence:

> A transescent is too old . . . too young,
> childish . . . adult,
> dependent . . . self-reliant,
> a groupie . . . a loner,
> sexy . . . sexless,
> frustrated . . . excited,
> rebellious . . . conforming,
> free . . . imprisoned.
>
> A transescent is a fence rider who can dismount on either side at any given moment. (p. 177)

Early adolescence is difficult for most youngsters, a time for challenging one's self and the ideas brought from childhood. It is the beginning of physical, emotional, social, and intellectual growth which brings excitement, delight, anxiety, and misunderstanding. The child, who in elementary school was obedient and academically motivated, may seem disrespectful and lazy in middle school. Early adolescence begins the transition from acceptance of adult direction to challenging

authority and moving toward self direction. The goal of educators who work with young adolescents is to provide a blend of challenge and support that will promote identity development.

Middle school students need the guidance and direction of effective counselors to begin the major developmental task of adolescence which is to achieve a clear sense of self. The confusion that reigns in early adolescence creates a challenging climate for the young person and for those trying to help the youngster manage the difficulties associated with leaving childhood for a new stage of life. This chapter brings together articles that describe some practical strategies for counselors to use in helping middle school students move toward self understanding. These strategies include activities (e.g., maintaining daily journals and reading novels about adolescence) that counselors can implement in conjunction with classroom teachers. The most effective middle school counseling programs offer young people many planned opportunities for self exploration.

A Dialogue With Self: The Journal as an Educational Tool

Dalva E. Hedlund
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The act of "talking to oneself" is an important component of learning, and of seeking balance, direction, and meaning in life.

We all talk to ourselves. Who has not? Children speak aloud freely until they are taught that it is peculiar behavior; then they learn silent, mental speech, which denies others access and opportunity to ridicule or eavesdrop. Haven't we all been challenged in the midst of such a "conversation," and felt foolish in responding, "I was just talking to myself—thinking aloud—just thinking"? This common human behavior embarrasses us when we are "caught" at it, and amuses or concerns others. Why do we talk to ourselves, especially once we have learned to communicate with others? Internal dialogue may be necessary because we seek meaning in our world, a place for ourselves, perspective, balance, and direction. The journal is a written dialogue with self, a very personal document and a valuable learning tool.

What Is a Journal

The terms "journal," "diary," and "log" are often used interchangeably, but in our understanding the forms differ. A *diary* typically is continuous, spontaneous, and intimate in nature—generally not for the public's eye. A *log* is an objective record of specific events (i.e., ship's log, or experimental record in a laboratory). As a literary form, the journal falls roughly between the diary and the log (Berman, 1986): it consists of regular, though not necessarily daily, entries by which the writer focuses and reflects upon a given theme, or a series of events and experiences. The organizing theme may be spontaneous, or predetermined (Hettich, 1976; Ramshaw, 1983).

Personal content is essential in a journal. The journal has been defined as "a topical autobiography, a short, discontinuous personal document [that] represents the excerpting from an individual's life of a special class of events." (Hettich, 1976, p. 60). "Journal" and "topical autobiography" are similar labels. Sometimes a distinction between the two is made with regard to focus: an autobiography—topical or comprehensive, guided or spontaneous—tends to emphasize external events in the writer's life, whereas a journal—whatever its specific form and rationale—may be centered more upon ideas, or internal events (Kotzbauer & Ramshaw, 1987). The authors shall use the term "journal" to refer to a personal document primarily focusing upon ideas.

The Journal and Learning

A journal is an interactive instrument (Progoff, 1975). "Interactive" implies interaction with one's self: a metacognitive activity of reflecting upon one's own thoughts. Journal keeping engages the writer in a dialogue with the self (Kelsey, 1980; Progoff, 1975; Ramshaw, 1983). As in any true discourse, this dialogue requires active participation. In choosing to write a journal, one chooses to transcend passivity. Active involvement profoundly affects memory and learning. If individuals become conscious of their personal histories and past experiences, they can better integrate and assimilate new information, more actively weave past memories into a new fabric of the present, and more confidently call upon experiences to validate and make sense of the past, present, and future (Birren, 1987; Linton, 1982; Neisser, 1982). Put another way, journal keeping enriches for each of us the process of creating a personal and accessible "landscape"—the ground against which we make our choices, live, and learn (Greene, 1978). The journal records our purposeful journey through this landscape.

Inherent in the process of human learning are shifts in emotions, changes in goals, and new ideas (Birren & Hedlund, 1987). People write journals, and journal writers (and sometimes others) read and react to what has been written, noting patterns of growth, development and change (Lowry, 1959; Ramshaw, 1987). These patterns have been represented in a variety of ways, but three metaphors recur frequently in the literature: stepping-stones (Crow, 1983; Progoff, 1975), the branching tree (Birren, 1987; Linton, 1982), and the forked road (Grumet, 1980; Progoff, 1975). All of these metaphors image choice: reflection upon

choices made or not made, and personal interaction with this reflection. Options not chosen, or omissions in the telling—should writers and readers of journals become conscious of them—may reveal as much as what has been done, or reported (Allport, 1942). "There in the interstices, the spaces where the pieces don't quite meet, is where the light comes through" (Grumet, 1980, p. 12).

A journal can develop spontaneously or be predetermined in its form and purpose, or be guided (Hettich, 1976; Ramshaw, 1983). In an educational setting a student may be asked to write a guided journal related to course content (Birren, 1987). A guided journal helps the writer focus upon facts, themes and concepts that are learned in depth as they become incorporated into personal experience.

A Cognitive View of Learning From a Class Journal

The purpose of any course of instruction involves learning, remembering, and being able to use productively some identified subject matter. Our assertion is that keeping a class journal will improve those learning, remembering, and using processes. How might journal keeping help?

Remembering. New material being learned must be encoded in order for it to be retained in long-term memory. There are various ways of conceptualizing the information storage and retrieval process. A model developed by Anderson (1985) demonstrates that one's declarative knowledge—things one knows, including facts, theories, generalizations, personal experiences, and one's likes and dislikes—is stored in a propositional network. Propositions are, roughly, ideas, each consisting of the smallest unit of information about which it is possible to make a true or false judgement. Declarative knowledge is stored in long-term memory in networks of propositions.

Encoding new information involves incorporating it into propositional networks that store our knowledge in organized ways. Interrelated information is more closely linked than information that is unrelated. Propositions already in memory are activated and new information is connected to them when learners acquire new knowledge. Moreover, as new information is encoded, this encoding may stimulate the generation of new propositions (ideas), which then connect the incoming information to other areas of a person's existing network of ideas. This generative process is called elaboration because it adds new information to the

incoming idea (Gagné, 1985). The more completely any new information is elaborated, the more easily that new information will be remembered, retrieved, and used.

One studying method that fosters elaboration involves the deliberate organization of new declarative knowledge (Brown & Day, 1983). We clarify propositions by relating elements of the new material to propositions already in long-term memory when we intentionally organize new information. For example, students implementing Novak's (1977) notion of concept-mapping will organize new knowledge and improve their learning.

Higher-achieving students on standardized achievement tests apparently have more effective strategies for encoding new information (Wang, 1983; Weinstein, 1978). These students seem to elaborate upon new material more efficiently by finding novel ways to connect new ideas with other ideas already in memory (Schmeck & Grove, 1979).

Hettich (1976) postulates that journal writing is a way for students to improve the elaboration of new information. By using their own words, students can relate new concepts to their own current knowledge. A journal entry provides the opportunity to connect new knowledge and previously learned knowledge in unconventional ways. Likewise, journal writing provides an avenue for students' exploration of personal experiences. Connecting new knowledge and memories of personal experiences, likes and dislikes, is an excellent way to elaborate upon material and build propositional networks, or schemata, or facts, or concepts and themes that are personally meaningful.

Hettich (1976) also analyzed the use of journals in teaching psychology. He observed that journal keeping provides a way for instructors to individualize lecture-based courses:

> Consequently, students enhance their understanding of many abstract psychological concepts and forge their thoughts on broader issues, using their own words and experiences as tools. Thus, psychological concepts become anchored to the student's cognitive framework, not just to examples provided by the textbook and the teacher. (p. 61)

Skills. Teachers are not only concerned with having students memorize material, but also with teaching them how to think about a subject matter and to do things with it (McKeachie, 1986). Certainly, writing about what one is learning provides practice in how to think about and use the material being learned. Particular assignments in a

class journal can be used to enrich the development of procedural knowledge, which is the knowledge of how to do something. Gagné (1985) has demonstrated that practice with declarative knowledge, such as in class journal writing, leads to the development of procedural knowledge.

Using knowledge. A good teacher hopes that students will develop strategic, or conditional knowledge. Conditional knowledge tells us when and where we may appropriately use our declarative and procedural knowledge. When an individual makes a journal entry, he or she assumes the metacognitive stance of an observer: "This is what I know, and this is how and when I can use what I know."

A "Depth Psychology" View

A Jungian (Jung, 1965), or depth psychology (Progoff, 1975) perspective suggests that individuals each have within themselves sources of wisdom or "knowing" that are accessible primarily through unconscious processes. Progoff (1985) and Kelsey (1980), among others, argued that journal writing is one way to tap these sources of wisdom. Most advocates of journal writing as a tool for personal growth and creativity argue from this point of view. They assert that successful classroom learning is not an entirely cognitive activity, but involves development of the whole person. The journal becomes an arena—a crucible—wherein new learning encounters sources of meaning deep within each individual, and new life meaning is created.

Applications in the Classroom

Journals have been implemented in a variety of classroom settings. Drawing upon the idea that the journal is a focusing tool for themes and concepts, which the writer then learns in greater depth and incorporates into personal experience, an instructor or curriculum designer might elect to include some form of the journal within the total schema of classwork.

Some instructors have required students to keep journals documenting learning activities outside the classroom. In one exercise, a group of teachers taking a professional development course on the process of learning were asked by their instructor to make regular observations of a "familiar" phenomenon—the moon in the sky—and record

in journals their own observations of the moon's apparent behavior (Duckworth, 1986). The journalists, who were neither astronomers nor trained observers, developed in their journals a variety of personal theories and intuitive insights about why the moon changes its shape from night to night. During the course of the moon-watching exercise, they shared with one another their preconceptions about the moon, and their thoughts about how these notions came to change. Dilemmas arose and were addressed, observations and comparisons accumulated, and the teachers-cum-students applied *metalearning* (learning about how they learn) to readjust their conceptions of themselves as teachers.

Journals can be used within the classroom structure to broaden students' in-class experiences. Kuhn and Aguirre (1986) implemented a constructivist teaching method in a 10th-grade science classroom, incorporating structured journal entries into the course as a component of conventional laboratory notebooks. In these journals students entered "pre-questions" and "preconceptions"—answers to specific questions already formulated from personal experience, untested, and unverified as empirically "correct"—and then followed their experiments with "assessments" containing the following questions to be answered in the journals:

1. What were some things that you already knew about what you observed?
2. What result(s), if any, surprised you?
3. State some questions that you have that are about what you observed or are related to it.
4. State any everyday examples or applications of what you observed. (p. 5)

This method was also used to explore radiation and nuclear energy from the standpoint of individual students' experiences and conceptions, which were used to interpret the experimental results and construct theoretical explanations. A structured journal is a useful device for ensuring that individual perspective plays a central, rather than ancillary, role in the classroom process.

This process contrasts dramatically with the picture of traditional education painted by Grumet:

> Years of banking education and of survival in educational institutions have taught the student to figure out what is expected and to deliver the order as neatly, quickly, and obsequiously as possible. (1980, p. 14)

In Kuhn and Aguirre's case study, students were interviewed to assess their receptivity to learning via the use of journals. When asked about differences between science classes and other classes, or between Grade 9 and 10 science, one student reported the following:

> I think this is better, because in the years before, we used textbooks, and you did the labs right out of the textbook. If you do your experiment wrong or you don't understand it, all you do is turn ahead and find out what was supposed to happen or what you are supposed to have learned. In this one you don't have much [of an] idea, and you sort of figure it out for yourself. By the time he gets around to the debriefing, you end up with a pretty good idea. (Kuhn & Aguirre, 1986, p. 15)

Sometimes a student's personal experience is the basis for problem solving or even the basis for a curriculum. One example of this is programs that have the development of self-discovery and personal change as the educational goals. Instructors in these programs may use journals because they recognize that ideas and understanding can come from "nowhere," given an atmosphere in which to thrive and develop.

One such example may be found in the Outward Bound programs, in which journals are a private place for dialogues and impressions. The act of writing an experience down is in itself an act of reflection (Progoff, 1975). Students may share entries if they choose, or simply reflect upon their interactions with a new world. Past, present, and future are rewoven into the fabric of their lives as they discover new or forgotten aspects of themselves.

Some writing teachers have used the journal as a form of a doodle-pad. One creative writing program teacher for high school students asked instructors to begin every class with 10 minutes of journal writing. This exercise corresponds to what Progoff (1975) described as a sifting of the compacted soil of the mind, to allow seeds of future creativity to sprout.

Other classrooms-outside-classrooms use journals to help people process discoveries within the unfamiliar context of other people's lives. An instructor who favors a holistic approach to education may present factual course material while simultaneously facilitating students' understanding of the impact of their personal backgrounds and insights upon this material (Brown, 1971). These elements, taken together, create a whole learning experience. One college anthropology teacher (Ramshaw, 1987) used the journal as a form of record keeping and

review of students' visits to impoverished neighborhoods. Students began their coursework by writing a short educational autobiography. Students recorded settings and occurrences during their field visits, as well as their reactions to spending time in different neighborhoods. This course was designed to help students to reflect upon poverty in the United States by asking them to compare their own life experiences with those of the people they visited. An important course goal was to illuminate the students' impact upon host families, as well as illuminate the visits' impact upon students. Gagné's (1985) idea of elaboration is at work here, as students connect what they see in their visits to what they already know about their own lives.

Published journals can also serve as a reading resource for students, providing the insights of others to similar material or experiences. The reflections of Frederick Douglass (1845), and works such as *Memoir of Old Elizabeth, a coloured woman* (1866) comprise a collection of slave narratives that provide personal accounts of antebellum southern life in the same way as The *Diary of Anne Frank* (Cadrain, 1979) relates the experiences of Jews in hiding during World War II. Reading a published journal may also illuminate responses that are held in common: May Sarton (1980) and Florida Scott-Maxwell (1968) reaffirm the commonalities within the human experiences of loneliness and aging. Students in a women's studies course have learned to understand a feminist perspective on Afro-American women, reproduction, and disease from a uniquely personal viewpoint by examining Audre Lorde's battle with cancer by reading her published journal (1980). Journals may tell stories that no textbook chapters could adequately recount, and students' understanding of subjects can be powerfully stimulated by studying other individuals' personal reflections.

Conclusion

In summary, journals are valuable educational tools that help students make sense of their personal histories, assimilate and integrate new information, learn to think about their knowledge, and learn to use new knowledge. Class journals may be more or less structured depending upon the teacher's intent. Journal writing has proved to be a valuable adjunct to almost any classroom subject, from the sciences to the humanities. The adoption of the journal as a teaching strategy validates a student's personal contribution to his or her own learning achievements.

Finally, reading and reflecting upon others' published journals provides a wealth of uniquely human insights into a wide range of academic topics.

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The Effects of Two Methods of Affective Education on Self-Concept in Seventh-Grade Students

Darryl Lee Bayer

Positive self-concept in students has long been a concern of psychologists and educators. Psychologists such as Carl Rogers and Clark Moustakas have asserted that positive self-concept is the most crucial factor for the success of the learning person (Moustakas, 1966; Moustakas & Perry, 1973; Rogers, 1969). Educators have pointed out that enhancement of student self-concept is important both as an educational outcome and for the effects it has on academic achievement (Shavelson, Gubner, & Stanton, 1976).

There is considerable empirical evidence that self-concept predicts and influences achievement in school, from the primary grades through undergraduate education (Wylie, 1961, 1974, 1979). Early research demonstrated a substantial association between self-concept and academic achievement (Brookover, Thomas, & Paterson, 1964; Joe, 1971; Morse, 1964) and revealed that self-concept measures could be used to predict school performance as early as kindergarten (Wattenberg & Clifford, 1964). More recent research continues to confirm the strong relationship between self-concept and scholastic achievement (Primavera, Simon, & Primavera, 1974; Scheirer & Kraut, 1979; Simon & Simon, 1975; Stenner & Katzenmeyer, 1976) and the validity of self-concept measures as predictors of academic performance (Bridgeman & Shipman, 1978; Chang, 1976; Cole, 1974; Ellerman, 1980; Shavelson et al., 1976).

Self-concept also has been found to remain stable over time in the absence of enhancing (or deleterious) experiences (Brookover et al,, 1964; Prawat, 1976), but to change as a function of various experiences and influences. For example, previous success is a major contributor to positive self-concept (Kifer, 1975; Peterson, Burton, & Baker, 1983). Factors with strong experiential components include school variables, such as teacher perceptions of student ability or worth (Covington & Beery, 1976; Eato & Lerner, 1981; Purkey, 1978; Schofield, 1981;

Simpson, 1978; Wolf & Wenzl, 1982), family variables, such as degree of harmony in the home and amount of encouragement to perform well academically (Bowman, 1965; Kifer, 1975; McClelland, 1955; McClelland, Baldwin, Bronfenbrenner, & Strodtbeck, 1958; Parish & Nunn, 1981; Pierce & Bowman, 1960), and peer variables such as acceptance within groups (Bilby, Brookover, & Erickson, 1972; Eato & Lerner, 1981; Hamachek, 1977; Slavin, 1980; Wolf & Wenzl, 1982).

Because variables in relationships and interpersonal interaction occurring in the school environment have been identified as influencing student self-concept, these variables (or the lack of them) can help develop (or undermine) scholastic potential in students (Shaha & Wittrock, 1983). Also, because educational and psychological growth seem to be interdependent (Leamon, 1982; Scheirer & Kraut, 1979), it becomes important to determine and promote the change-producing variables involved in affective experiences that enhance student self-concept.

To date, research on school-initiated affective education experiences reveals mainly that some programs achieve gains in self-concept or academic performance and some do not (Baskin & Hess, 1980; Medway & Smith, 1978). Does the activity or specific curriculum make the difference, for instance, or is it caused by variables in the experience itself that are related to the form or style of promoting learning or experiencing?

This research was an investigation of what kind of affective education experience would lead to maximum gain in self-concept. It was hypothesized that the form of affective education opportunity would influence the degree of self-concept change. The contrast in form was between the facilitated condition and the directed condition, defined in the Procedures section and exemplified in Appendix A. The primary research hypothesis was that the facilitated group would show significantly greater self-concept gain than the directed group. A second hypothesis was that the form of affective education experience would influence how interesting and valuable the student perceived the experience to be. Academic achievement was not a focus in this study.

Method

Participants

The 30 students from a California seventh-grade health class were randomly assigned to two experimental groups. Male and female students

were equally distributed so that each group contained 6 boys and 9 girls. The control group consisted of 30 other seventh-grade health students (17 boys and 13 girls) who did not participate in either affective education condition. Almost all (95%) of the students were Caucasian.

Design and Analysis

This study was a matched pretest-posttest control group experiment designed to examine effects on self-concept of two forms of affective education— directed and facilitated—holding constant the classroom topics under discussion and the relationship variables of general warmth, empathic understanding, unconditional positive regard, and genuineness. In both experimental groups the primary goal of the experimenters was to provide an atmosphere in which the students would be aware of the opportunity for affective experience and would be interested in using it. The primary difference between the two groups was whether the person directing the individual's affective experiencing was the experimenter or each student.

The independent variable was the form of affective experience: One form was experimenter-directed; the other, experimenter-facilitated. Affective experience was operationally defined as interpersonal interaction, exploration of personal feelings and conflict, and expression of feelings and attitudes among peers about school, family, peers, or themselves.

The dependent variable was the score on the Self-Appraisal Inventory measure of self-concept (Instructional Objectives Exchange, 1972), an instrument based on research and evaluation by Coopersmith (1967) and Wylie (1961). Test-retest reliability of this measure ranges from .75 to .88; construct validity ranges from .70 to .87 (Instructional Objectives Exchange, 1972).

Two experimenters conducted the research: a Caucasian female and a Mexican-American male. Both were graduate students in psychology with 2 years of experience in client-centered facilitation of groups and in working with adults and children in either teaching or therapeutic settings. To determine whether or not the experimenters were able to convey adequately an interpersonal atmosphere that encouraged affective exploration, students rated the experiments on the relationship variables of warmth, empathic understanding, unconditional positive regard, and genuineness. This was done at the midpoint and end of the project.

To control for potential experimenter bias, differences in relationship ability, or other experimenter effects, the experimenters changed groups at midpoint, after being rated as indicated above. The form of affective education opportunity was thus maintained for each group; the experimenters were required to work with both groups and therefore to change modes (i.e., direct the experience in one group and facilitate it in the other). Each group experienced and rated each of the two experimenters but remained within a single experimental condition, either directed or facilitated.

The three groups (two experimental and one control) were statistically equated for small, initial self-concept pretreatment differences by an analysis of covariance.

Procedures

Each of the two experimental groups met for one 50-minute class period daily for 12 school days over a 3-week period, as half of a 6-week unit in health. The control group studied the standard health curriculum in the traditional way during this time.

In the directed condition, the experimenter led the group in planned activities, directed group discussions, and occasionally taught in the traditional (teacher talking and students listening) manner on affective concerns related to school, family, peers, or self in general. Most discussions took place in an intact group rather than in separate units. Although direction by the experimenter and the degree of structure in the activities resembled that of a traditional classroom, the experimenter avoided judgment and criticism of student expressions.

In the facilitated condition, no class activities were planned. Students were encouraged to interact with one another in ways that were personally meaningful on topics concerning school, family, peers, or self. Verbal exchange and social interaction were high. Students were encouraged to talk in general about their own concerns, interests, and conflicts.

In Appendix A, examples of discussions occurring in each group form illustrate the procedures. Procedural differences also are indicated in the Implications section.

Results

Analysis of covariance revealed that the primary research hypothesis was supported: The facilitated experimental group showed significantly

greater self-concept gain than did the directed group ($F = 8.85$, $df = 1, 42$, $p < .01$). Neither the directed group nor the control group showed significant self-concept change (positive or negative) from pretest levels (see Table 1).

The mean student ratings of interest in the affective education experience were 9.0 for the facilitated group and 8.2 for the directed group (on a scale of 0 to 12); mean ratings of value of the experience were 8.0 and 6.3, respectively. These group differences were not statistically significant, indicating that the students in both groups perceived the affective experiences as fairly interesting and valuable, although self-concept increased significantly only for the facilitated group. This finding is consistent with research in psychology that shows similar client ratings of degree of liking for therapists, whether or not therapeutic outcomes differ (Gomes-Schwartz, 1978).

Student-group mean ratings for both experimenters on the four relationship variables ranged from 9.27 to 11.18 on a scale of 0 to 12, with no significant differences in ratings of experimenters on any of the four variables. This finding indicates that the experimenters were able to create adequately and equally an interpersonal atmosphere conducive to affective exploration.

There were no significant differences for either group in the amount of self-concept change that occurred between pretest and midpoint and that which occurred between midpoint and posttreatment. This finding indicates that each experimenter was successful in presenting each affective experience mode (directed and facilitated).

Table 1
Pretest, Unadjusted Posttest, and Adjusted Posttest Means

Groups	*n*	Pretest *M*	Posttest *M*	
			Unadjusted	Adjusted
Facilitated	15	56.73	62.73	62.96
Directed	15	52.40	53.60	56.79
Control	30	58.80	60.80	60.72

Each group experienced both experimenters, but only one group demonstrated significant positive change. Sex and race of experimenters apparently made no difference in the amount of self-concept gain, in student ratings of relationship variables within the experiences, or in judgments of interest and value.

Discussion

This research supports and is supported by psychological research demonstrating that behavior change or task completion may occur for several reasons, but psychological growth occurs only through self-involved, personally meaningful experience (Gomes-Schwartz, 1978). It is also consistent with recent findings that, when parents become responsive to their children's feelings, the youngsters' self-esteem increases much more than it does through parent counseling that focuses more on parent and child behaviors (Esters & Levant, 1983).

The major difference between the two experimental conditions in this research was that, in the directed form, someone other than the experiencing individual provided alternatives, made suggestions, or directed activity or feeling toward an affective goal. In this research, however, self-concept improved significantly only through affective experiences that the students themselves chose, developed, and explored. In the facilitated form of affective education, gains seem to have occurred in both affective exploration and self-concept as a result of the open nondirective facilitation style that allowed for self-direction by the individual.

Three basic conclusions emerged from the research:

1. Student self-concept is positively influenced in the classroom through certain affective education experiences.
2. Affective education experiences that are structured and directed by the teacher as facilitator will not significantly increase student self-concept, although students and teacher may enjoy the experiences and believe they are valuable.
3. Affective education experiences that significantly increase student self-concept are those that enhance self-direction through facilitator and student trust in themselves, one another, and the situation—trust that they, the participants, will choose to participate in affective experiences that will be personally meaningful.

Implications for School Counselors

The important implication for teachers and school counselors is that, if self-concept is to be influenced positively by affective education programs, students' focus on their own feelings and attitudes in four areas important to self-concept (school, family, peers, and self) must be self-directed. The findings of this research suggest that school counselors pursue three goals in affective education programs:

1. Foster in teachers trust in their own spontaneity and responsiveness, trust that the affective education situation will be a constructive and productive one, and trust in the motivation and ability of students to grow within the opportunity.
2. Foster in students trust in their own spontaneity and responsiveness, trust that the affective education opportunity will be a constructive and productive one, and trust in the motivation and growth potential of the teacher and their classmates.
3. Foster autonomy and reciprocity in the classroom affective education experiences.

Dimensions of trust and differences in facilitated versus directed experiences that produce these optimal conditions can be examined.

Dimensions of Teacher-as-Facilitator, Trust

These dimensions include trust in the constructive nature of the experience, in one's own immediate and potential contribution to and meaning within the experience, and in the willingness and ability of students to use the experience meaningfully.

Self-trust. The teacher experiences and demonstrates self-trust when she or he interacts with the students spontaneously, rather than with predetermined goals, preplanned activities, and superimposed structure, or with a delayed reaction in which potential responses are first evaluated. The teacher's own positive self-concept is reflected through willingness to be a participant, to be natural and genuine, and to respond spontaneously and honestly to students. The authenticity in this interaction, and possibly the example of self-trust, foster similar self-trust and positive self-concept in students, trust in the teacher, and trust that the affective education opportunity will be meaningful.

Trust in the situation. In a facilitated affective experience, the teacher as facilitator allows a situation to occur that differs from the

traditional classroom experience. Interaction between students and teacher is more egalitarian than in the traditional classroom. In this context the teacher does not use roles of expert, authority, or leader, does not feel inclined to "correct" students or to change them or the situation, and permits considerable peer interaction. These ways of showing trust create an atmosphere that is more rewarding, less threatening, and less stifling for participants than is a directed experience. This trust is enhanced by student response (e.g., increased responsiveness to the opportunity). The teacher's trust in this different form of interaction—specifically, trust in this form of affective education—reflects ability to tolerate ambiguity, confusion, tension, expression of strong feelings, and talk about difficult subjects. It implies self-confidence and a willingness to take risks—qualities that are perceived, respected, and responded to by students.

Trust in students. The research reviewed earlier suggests that the trust in students that the teacher shows in a facilitated affective experience may be one of the most significant variables in increasing student self-concept. This trust stems basically from the teacher's belief that human beings are interested in exploring, mastering, and creating their worlds and, therefore, want to use constructive learning and experiencing opportunities. The teacher, therefore, trusts students to be or become in contact with the relevant issues and feelings and to choose to attend to them, rather than trying to direct students or choose for them. Teacher trust that students will competently organize and use their own knowledge and experience significantly restores their sense of autonomy. This trust enables students to perceive the affective education offering as an authentic experiential opportunity and leads to greater participation, risk, and effort. Acceptance by the teacher also increases the students' self-acceptance and fosters greater acceptance of the other participants.

Dimensions of Student Trust

These dimensions include trust in the constructive nature of the experience, in one's own immediate and potential contribution to and meaning within the experience, and in the intent and ability of the teacher and classmates to participate meaningfully in the experience.

Self-trust. An interpersonal learning context, in which the teacher facilitator neither approves nor disapproves of students' words, feelings, or actions and simply accepts the students as they are in the moment, increases their willingness to experience, as well as their creativity,

flexibility, and openness to concepts, perceptions, and personal meaning. A student can think, feel, and be what is real within himself or herself rather than try to anticipate and produce responses he or she believes are expected by others. Increasing investment in this authenticity, and the accompanying feelings of validation, lead to increasing self-acceptance and self-trust.

Trust in the situation. The teacher's trust in herself or himself, the situation, and the students is one factor that fosters student trust in the affective education opportunity. An interpersonal learning context of reciprocity and autonomy (see below) is another factor; increasing use of the affective education experience by other students is a third. Increased sensitivity, acceptance, genuineness, and empathy develop among the participants, enhancing and reflecting positive feelings and closeness as well as behavioral and verbal content changes. Increased acceptance by others and increased self-trust through more participation lead to more trust in the situation and, therefore, involvement in the experience. The personal meaningfulness (e.g., increased understanding, validation, resolution, and interaction) that results from greater involvement in the situation further enhances trust in self, others, and the situation, making this pattern cyclical and continuous and of maximum benefit.

Trust in the teacher and in classmates. In a facilitated rather than directed experience, students do not mistakenly believe that the teacher as facilitator is unaware of what could productively be done or talked about. They perceive that she or he is sufficiently aware, secure, and self-controlled to provide an affective education opportunity in which they can attend to their own thoughts and feelings, and that she or he believes this will happen. Student trust in the teacher increases with this recognition of the teacher's attitude, genuineness, and trust in self, situation, and students. The new relationship possibilities in the changed classroom atmosphere encourage increased trust in others. New ways of understanding and relating to others in the affective education experience also affect the students' expectations and priorities and increase their interpersonal and affective abilities. Consequences of these changes increase trust in the other participants as well.

Facilitated Versus Directed Experiencing

Research reviewed earlier has shown that the interpersonal context of learning is a variable of influence on the learner. A difference in interpersonal context—whether something is learned through listening to

a teacher, through doing it, or through interaction with peers or others—often makes a difference in the consequences of learning. The major finding of this research is that affective experiencing that is self-selected and self-directed significantly increases self-concept. Self-direction of affective education opportunities is a different process in the interpersonal learning context from the process typical in the traditional, teacher-directed classroom experience.

This process change in the interpersonal context (from teacher-direction to self-direction with teacher facilitation) makes possible, and is made possible by, the trust students and teacher feel in themselves, one another, and the situation. The process change is not merely a change from lecturing-listening to experiencing and interacting with one another. Significant improvement of student self-concept occurs when the affective education experiences are self-directed by the students and facilitated, not directed, by the teacher. The affective experiences the students have in this mode of affective education increasingly stimulate, and are stimulated by, trust of the teacher in herself or himself, in the situation, and in the students, and by student trust in the situation, themselves, and the teacher.

The way in which the growth in self-concept takes place as a function of this interaction between self-direction of experiencing and trust in self, others, and the situation, and not simply as a function of changing the classroom interpersonal context to one of involving students in teacher-directed experiences, seems to relate to two central variables: reciprocity between and among individuals in the situation and autonomy in the individual.

Interactional reciprocity. One difference between learning by listening to a teacher and learning through experience or interaction is the considerable difference in reciprocity. Student responses influence the experience and interaction much more than they influence a lecturing teacher (because students are not permitted to respond much while a teacher is lecturing), or a teacher directing the learning situation, even if she or he is requesting student response (because she or he is not allowing student response to alter the learning situation). In contrast, both the learning situation and the classroom interaction are constantly changing in reaction to feedback from the students when the participants feel trust in themselves, others, and the situation. These changes occur because this reciprocal influence is both sought and allowed.

Presumably, through constant adaptation in response to student input, both the experience and interaction in a facilitated experience become

increasingly relevant to and usable by each student. Experiencing the deep, personal meaningfulness and relevance of this facilitated affective education experience precedes the increase in positive self-concept. The experiences make sense cognitively, they feel accurate affectively, and they enable self-expression behaviorally. Student participation in the affective education experience also improves self-concept through increased validation brought about by the development or enhancement of psychological and interpersonal competencies, such as increased willingness to take affective risks, better understanding of self and others, sharing oneself more fully or openly, and more skilled articulation.

Autonomy. The teacher as facilitator creates an atmosphere fostering individual autonomy by not initiating, directing, or structuring content or behaviors; by accepting silences or what seems to be chaotic content or irrelevancies; by listening in order to understand (and not mentally preparing a response instead of listening); by attending nonverbally as well as listening; by reflecting emphatically when possible; by facilitating sharing and exploring by others as appropriate; and by checking the accuracy of what she or he thinks others are expressing or feeling, and amending perceptions as necessary to reflect what students are actually feeling and saying.

This greater responsiveness of the teacher to the students' actual words and feelings, the consequences of the interactional reciprocity, and the nurturance of feelings and self-expression are perceived by students as a release from traditional role behaviors and expectations and as support for individual autonomy and responsibility.

The greater acceptance the students experience increases their comfort in the student-teacher relationship, which encourages investment in the affective education experience. The absence of external evaluation decreases anxiety, resentment, and defensiveness, which further encourages affective risking.

Under these conditions, students perceive the teacher as available to but not directing them. The teacher is the source of special experience and knowledge, a person with a particular way of thinking and organizing knowledge and experience that may sometimes be relevant and useful. This availability without imposition implies a trust in the student to choose constructive use of what the teacher offers as relevant to the student's affective concerns and self-direction. The students recognize that this trust supports their individual autonomy.

The more students believe themselves to be participating in classroom experiences in a meaningful way, the better able they are to use the learning and exploring opportunities within the experience. They have more desire to do so and take more responsibility to do so.

Perhaps a sequence exists or becomes possible: The interpersonal context change allowing self-direction leads to student perception of the new situational opportunity (a personal context change) and of the greater acceptance by the teacher (a relationship or interpersonal context change). These changes lead to a greater trust in self, others, and situation, which leads to greater openness to, recognition and acceptance of, and behavior congruent with authentic thoughts and feelings. These changes lead to a more fully functioning person and a more positive self-concept.

Summary

Affective experiences have been shown to influence student self-concept as well as to influence and predict academic achievement. In this research, two groups of seventh-grade boys and girls participated in either a facilitated or a directed affective education experience in which they explored personal feelings and attitudes toward school, family, peers, and themselves. A control group did not participate in an affective education experience. The facilitated group demonstrated significantly more positive self-concept change than did the directed group or the control group. Descriptions and examples of the forms of affective education experiences are given and implications for school counselors are offered and explained.

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Appendix A

Experimental Condition Examples

Example of Directed Discussion Regarding Schools

Question: What's so bad about school? (Response: numerous immediate complaints.) Which of these can you do anything about? (Numerous reasons why nothing can be done about anything.) What if you requested _____ from a teacher or suggested _____? (Stories of disastrous

attempts to participate in school decision making.) How can any of this be changed? (Replies like parental intervention and other authoritarian solutions.) Do the teachers and principal care about the students at all? (Many negatives; a few stories about "nice" teachers.) Would those teachers be interested in your ideas? (Discussion of the possible teachers and possible ideas.) What do you think might happen? (Discussion of the "maybes.") Which of these possibilities we've discussed would you like to try out, just to see? (Heightened discussion.)

Example of Facilitated Discussion Regarding School

A tough homework assignment being completed during this period attracts student attention. Students ask questions about it and make animated complaints about homework, teachers, and school in general. The experimenter occasionally reflects how a student seems to be feeling about what she or he is relating. This brings up others' feelings—mainly of resentment, pressure, frustration, and giving up. A "what's the use" attitude is explained by one student, who believes "you can't win" because of the many requirements, the constant assignments, and the common practice of deducting points from grades for nonconforming behavior. Someone asks what sense it all makes if a student already knows what she or he wants to be and it does not involve college. The traditional reasons for a good academic preparation are brought up by some but not given much credibility. Someone mentions what competition and pressure for grades can do to friendships; another mentions no time for fun; another brings up pressure to cheat for higher grades. The experimenter reflects the feelings of individuals and the group and encourages continuing discussion.

Example of Directed Discussion Regarding Family

Question: What do you do when you're angry with someone or something at home but you can't do very much about it? (Responses: Yell, scream, kick the dog, slam doors, turn on a record player really loud.) Those are some alternatives. How do they make you feel better? (Discussion.) What are other alternatives that might give you more choice in the resolution of the situation? (Responses: When you both cool down, you can talk about it. . . . Sometimes you can talk your way out of whatever trouble you're in. . . . You can sometimes get a different punishment traded for the one you got. . . . You can tell your best friend;

that makes you feel better. . . . You can try to understand, if it's someone like your little sister, that she doesn't know any better—but it's hard to understand sometimes. . . .

Example of Facilitated Discussion Regarding Family

A girl is upset with her mother for "screaming" at her for leaving her sweater in the kitchen. Question: How do you feel about that? (Downcast silence for a moment.) Another student breaks in: What does your mother do about it? (Reply: She says she's going to give it to Goodwill.) Some understanding responses and some irritation are expressed: I know how that feels if you like your sweater. . . . I'd just let her give the sweater to them; she'll just have to buy you another one. . . . I'd leave something I didn't want in the kitchen so she'd have to give that to Goodwill and I wouldn't even care. . . [laughter] I'd leave my mother [more laughter] Similar "suggestions" are made by other students. The girl is laughing with the other students at all the comments. The experimenter makes no attempt to suggest possible responses or solutions or to summarize alternatives.

Facilitating the Not-So-Trivial Pursuit of Identity in Adolescence

Christina E. Mitchell

If there is ever a time when individuals can be expected to undergo change or to experience a major transition it is during adolescence. This is a phase of discontinuity from the latency period with the stability of being a well-established child to the series of stages of becoming an increasingly mature adult (Marcia, 1980). Periods of transition are recognized for their lack of comfort, and this discomfort may provide not only the motivation to conquer the discomfort but the drive to overcome weaknesses and improve the self.

The Importance of Personal Identity

Erikson (Engler, 1979) proposed that humans meet crises in development at predictable points in the life span and that during adolescence the crisis is either to establish a clear self-identity or to experience role diffusion. Marcia calls this identity a "self-structure—an internal, self-constructed, dynamic organization of drives, abilities, beliefs, and individual history" (Marcia, 1980, p. 159). He stated that the "better developed this structure is, the more aware individuals appear to be of their own uniqueness and similarity to others and of their own strengths and weaknesses in making their way in the world" (p. 159). He suggested that a poorly developed self-structure results in lack of awareness of uniqueness and a greater reliance on external influence.

The self-structure is continuously under revision and refinement. Although the self-structuring identity process is a greater issue during adolescence, it begins in infancy with self-object delineation and ends in old age when the individual either recognizes the integrity of his or her life experiences or feels despair over them.

Adolescence: The Time to Search

Through physical development, cognitive skills, and social expectations, the adolescent period provides the elements for transforming oneself as a child into oneself as an adult who will undergo transitions throughout life. Structuring the self is a dynamic process. Some issues during adolescence for this structuring include sexual orientation, ideological position, and vocational development and choice. Adolescence is a time for sorting out what one likes and does not like, what one already has, and what is desired for the future.

Because adolescence is a time of at least periodic discomfort, counselors expect to have students coming to them with a wide range of concerns, all which directly or indirectly serve to work toward resolution of the sense of self (personal identity) and what he or she will "be" in adult life.

Rationale

Conformity and concern for what is "in" is a hallmark of adolescence (Marcia, 1980, p. 408). Currently, the game Trivial Pursuit (1981) is popular among people of all ages and especially young people. The game is built around the players answering blocks of questions in a given content area—history, geography, entertainment, sports and leisure, art and literature, and science and nature. It requires answering all of the questions in each segment or wedge (e.g., history) with the goal of earning the entire "pie" (winning the game).

Making use of a format similar to the trivia game can provide the adolescent with an attractive vehicle for getting a clearer picture of who he or she was as a child, who he or she is now, and who he or she will become as an adult.

Procedure

The counselor will introduce during regularly scheduled group guidance or homeroom time the rationale for and concept of the "trivial" type identity game. The students may need to be instructed or reminded of the value of gaining a current sense of self—one's personal history, abilities,

interests, "style" (personality), values, goals—all related to what one becomes in adult life (Feather, 1980). They should be told that self-esteem is dependent on a stable sense of self or self-consistency, which are of great importance as motives for guiding human behavior (Rosenberg, 1979). Thus, to facilitate this sense of self-consistency, a survey of each student's developmental history (past) and current status on various contributors to awareness of self (present) as well as the establishment of goals (future) should provide them with objective data for use with their own subjective material concerning self in establishing a sense of identity.

Students should be asked to collaborate in establishing specific rules and in individualizing various components of the "game." This will aid in increasing their interest and personal involvement in playing the game.

Game Components

The following categories could serve as wedges of the adolescent's identity pie:

1. The individual's past: history
2. Present: abilities and interests
3. Present: achievements
4. Present: social style and personality
5. Present: beliefs and values
6. Future: goals

Each counselor or other facilitator may, however, feel free to design a specific plan based on a particular setting or on individual need.

Game Plan

A general game plan includes the following tasks: Each of the six categories will be introduced in a scheduled weekly group session. A second session should be scheduled for guided sharing and discussion of information the students have gained about themselves in session one as well as before the second session, and how that information affects their beliefs and feelings about themselves. A total of 13 sessions will be

scheduled with an introduction and at least partial completion of the assignment in the first session and a discussion and sharing in the following session. A total of 12 weekly sessions will be scheduled with two sessions to be spent on each of the six categories. A final wrap-up session will follow for sharing self-awareness gains make during the period the game was played.

For example, the first session, which deals with personal history, will be spent with the counselor introducing the questionnaire, the group revising it if necessary, and each student completing his or her questionnaire. If the student is unable to provide information, he or she will gather it before the second session.

The second session will be spent on history. Divided into groups of three, the students will be asked to share their findings and insights about their personal history (i.e., who they have been.) At the end of this session, the counselor will guide a brief discussion in large group(s) of 10 to 15 students. The primary focus of these discussions will be on developing students' awareness of strengths and attributes of their early lives of which they have been unaware. Sharing of course would be voluntary.

The third and fourth sessions would be spent on abilities and interests, the second category of identity pursuit, and so on. No board, dice, or other paraphernalia will be used; however, each student will receive a colored paper wedge (labeled by category) to be affixed to a blank Identity Pursuit game sheet.

Wedges are given at the second session of each segment (e.g., history) to each student who has completed the tasks involved in the category and who has attended the two group sessions allotted for that category. A "pie rim" outlining the six wedges is given to each student who has earned all six wedges and to all students on completion of the 13th (final) session. This session is set aside for students to share in groups of three and in a large group summaries of their identity pursuits. They may want to discuss the degree of success each had in gathering information, self-discoveries each has made, how they are using their self-awareness, and additional goal setting or other areas needing further exploration.

The accrual of all six wedges and the outer rim of the pie form a complete identity pie, thus the game is won. Each student who completes the game wins; that is, every player can win.

No attempt is made to establish a specific scoring procedure because the scoring may have an encumbering effect on the students. If students

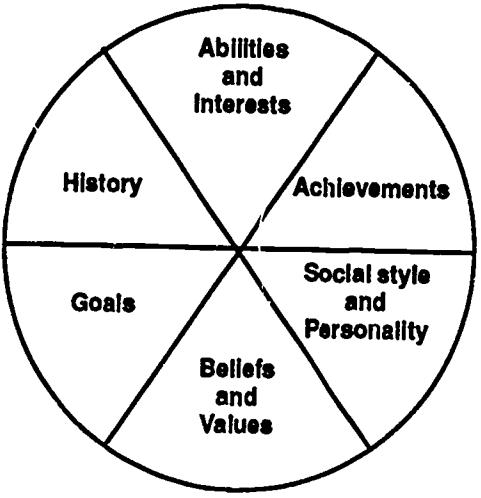

Figure 1
Adolescent's Identity Pie

prefer to use actual scoring, however, one method is to allow one point per item requested in each segment. A tally of the student's completed items then would be made and when it equals the possible points (items) requested in that segment, that wedge has been earned.

For students who are delayed in completing a wedge, a paler colored wedge may be provided. Because the purpose of the game is to encourage the students to have a greater sense of self, a penalty (no wedge) for delay in completion would defeat the purpose.

Besides increased self-awareness and self-regard, an additional incentive for winning the game could be the members' eligibility for counselor-led "identity groups" (or other group names such as "Pursuit" and the "ID" group). In these groups, the students are privileged to meet for guidance-related discussions during a period in the school day in which they otherwise would not be allowed to leave study hall. Other possibilities would be that such a group would be allowed to take a guidance-related field trip or serve as an advisory body to the administration.

Identity Categories

History

This requires the student to gather the type of information that is compiled on a pediatrician's data sheet (i.e., birth place, birth weight, condition at birth) by consulting with his or her parents or other primary caregivers (grandparent, foster parent, elder sibling). Other requirements include a collection of early childhood photos and a listing of milestone events such as age of walking, first words, early temperament, and what they did or said that was smart, cute, or funny. At this group session, the counselor will distribute to each student a blank personal data sheet with extra space for additional early childhood information. The student must complete this assignment with help from relatives to win the history wedge of the identity pie.

Standardized Measures of Abilities and Interests

Included in this segment are standardized ability, aptitude, and achievement tests, interest inventories, and computer-assisted career exploration; that is, any of the tests or inventories that are routinely used in the individual school and that are already available to the student. Group interpretation or review of the results of these measures may be indicated. Examples of some of the tests used include intelligence tests such as the Cognitive Abilities Test (Thorndike, Hagan, & Lorge, 1974), achievement tests such as the Science Research Associates (SRA) Achievement Test (Thorpe, LeFever, & Naslund, 1969), aptitude tests such as the Differential Aptitude Test (Bennett, Seashore, & Wesman, 1972), interest inventories such as the Kuder General Interest Survey (Kuder, 1970), and computer-based career exploration programs such as Discover (American College Testing Program, 1983) or the System of Integrative Guidance Information (Educational Testing Service, 1983).

Personal Achievements

Students will be required to compile a list of their academic achievements, such as completion of required subjects, grades earned, honor roll or other recognition, and school and community activities (e.g., sports and clubs) in which they have participated. A partial checklist, with additional space for other achievements, might consist of the following:

honor roll, scholarships, athletics (participation, team member, awards), club member or officer (4H, Future Farmers of America, Future Homemakers of America, Girl Scouts or Boy Scouts, Campfire Girls, Young Republicans or Young Democrats), church (member, regular attender, special group involvement, leadership role), and jobs held (duration, raises, promotions).

Social Style and Personality

Inventories of personality (such as the Rotter [1950] Incomplete Sentence Blank), self-concept (such as Offer [1974] Self-Image Questionnaire for Adolescents), self-esteem (such as Coopersmith [1981] Self-Esteem Inventory), and type (Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, Myers & Briggs, 1976) could be used. If personality tests are not routinely administered, an exercise designed to focus on one's personality and social style could be used instead. One such exercise requires each individual to write a six-line personal ad including positive but accurate self-descriptive characteristics, as if for a classified section of a magazine for teenagers (Atwater, 1983).

Beliefs and Values

This segment can be achieved through use of such instruments as the Rokeach (1967) Value Survey; Allport, Vernon, and Lindsey's (1970) Study of Values; or even a simple rank ordering of the student's 10 major beliefs or values. The use of typical social situations in which behavior is determined by one's values with discussion between counselor and student alone or in groups is recommended.

Goals

Establishment of goals that are measurable, realistic, achievable, observable, and suitable to breaking into subgoals or units of progress is mandatory. Goals may be set in a variety of areas, such as career, marriage or singleness, one's contribution to society, or any other socially acceptable achievement. By establishing goals based on individual values, the student is aided in developing a clear-cut, positive plan for his or her adult life. Thus, the student is given assistance not only in preparing for individual life satisfaction but in achieving a better awareness of his or her own personal identity.

One exercise for goal setting is to have the students identify what they want to achieve in areas such as education, career, income, and family, in the next 5 and 10 years, and to list yearly markers designating how much progress should have been made at each point. Additional ideas for this segment can be found in career and life planning books such as *Where Do I Go from Here with My Life* (Crystal & Bolles, 1974).

Evaluation

After the game has been played, the counselor will need to evaluate it for its general worth and for possible revisions. Any of a number of evaluations could be used. A few examples are:

1. A Likert scale evaluation sheet of the game made by the counselor and administered at the final session. Examples of this are (a) I enjoyed playing the identity game; (b) I would recommend it to other students; (c) I know more about myself now than I did before playing the game.
2. Student self-report on pre-post questions created by the counselor. The students respond by filling in the blank in the statements with one of the following: *very well, well, somewhat, not well, not at all.* The statements might include (a) I am _____ informed about my early childhood (history), (b) I am _____ aware of my present intellectual ability (abilities and interests), (c) I am _____ aware of my present occupational interest (abilities and interests).
3. Equal or greater numbers of students participating the following year (by those who had not participated) might be interpreted to mean positive word-of-mouth reports by former players. The counselor may ask students for assistance in improving it for future players.

Conclusion

The identity pursuit concept was developed to encourage adolescents to become active in discovering themselves. If playing the game facilitates a greater sense of adolescents' self-continuity, from past to present to future, thus helping them to gain a positive direction toward an integrated adult life during this transitional period, that purpose will have been served.

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Twenty Adolescent Novels (and More) That Counselors Should Know About

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Although bibliotherapy may not have been the panacea that its staunchest advocates boisterously proclaimed it would be, few practitioners in the helping professions deny that reading problem-centered fiction has considerable value for some people in some settings. One such setting is the secondary school, where severely troubled or merely anxious youth have more questions than answers and more problems than solutions. Fortunately for these youth, there exists a substantial body of literature—adolescent novels—that explores answers and solutions and that gives teenagers vicarious opportunities to examine the lives of other teens who may be confronting troubles similar to their own.

Adolescent novels have dramatically changed in the last 10–15 years. Today, they are written specifically for adolescent audiences and usually feature teenaged characters who encounter significant and realistic contemporary problems. These novels are a useful source of help for junior and senior high school students. But these youth must know these novels exist and know of the issues they illuminate. Counselors can help convey this knowledge if they themselves are familiar with the books.

To this end, this article provides what amounts to a list of novels. They are categorized according to problems, one novel for each problem is annotated, and others are mentioned simply by title. Because some of these novels are helpful for a variety of problems, they have been mentioned more than once. It is hoped that counselors will read these books (at least skim them) and, when appropriate, suggest them to their students. Whenever possible, paperback publishers are included in the reference list because teenagers are more apt to read paperbacks than hardbacks.

Alienation and Identity

The Chocolate War (Cormier, 1980). Jerry Renault, a freshman at a parochial high school, has a poster in his locker that reads: "Do I dare disturb the universe?" For Jerry, the question is much more than a stimulus for philosophical musing; he has, in fact, disturbed the social core of his school—a secret society called the Vigils. As a pawn in a Vigils' prank, Jerry is supposed to refuse to participate in Father Leon's fund-raising chocolate sale; for reasons of his own, he continues to refuse past the prescribed 10 days. The leader of the Vigils, Archie Costello, is outraged and brings his full power to bear on squashing the rebel who dares to act on his own—an act of defiance to Archie and to the system.

Adolescents who find themselves pressured by peers, confused about their own beliefs, and lacking confidence in their power to affect events will cheer for Jerry's impact on the school. A caveat is in order, however; Jerry does indeed disturb the universe, but he loses the war and possibly his spirit. Also: *Catcher in the Rye* (Salinger, 1977); *Home Before Dark* (Bridgers, 1977); *One Fat Summer* (Lipsyte, 1977); *Breaktime* (Chambers, 1979).

Athletics

Winning (Brancato, 1978). Gary Madden, the star of the high school football team, suffers a near fatal blow when he is paralyzed from the shoulders down by a simple tackle. Angered and depressed, Gary lashes out at his parents, relatives, and friends until he is sincerely helped by a young, understanding English teacher, Mrs. Treer, who is also recovering from her own personal tragedy. Brancato has written an honest and compelling novel about the importance of winning and surviving in our daily lives. Also: *Zanbanger* (Knudson, 1979); *Vision Quest* (Davis, 1981).

Close Friend or Sibling Rivalry

A Separate Peace (Knowles, 1962). This powerful novel presents a reflective look at an adolescent's feelings of rivalry against the background of the global rivalry of World War II. It is Gene's story of his love for and envy of his best friend Phineas, for whom success in athletics, friendship, and adventure seems so effortless.

Phineas, always seeking to enliven events in the prep school, forms the Super Suicide Society. Gene, constantly looking for signs of competitive feelings in his friend, chooses to view the frequent meetings of the secret club as his friend's attempt to wreck his (Gene's) grades. But he cannot be certain, and in fact he comes to doubt that Phineas ever acts on such motives. Phineas remains a hero; Gene remains the thinker who never quite accepts his own feelings of rivalry. Also: *Jacob Have I Loved* (Paterson, 1981); *The Outsiders* (Hinton, 1980a).

Death and Dying

Bridge to Terabithia (Paterson, 1979). Ten-year-old Leslie creates Terabithia, a secret place in a nearby woods where she and her friend Jess will reign as King and Queen. Here, these two lonely fifth graders build an imaginary and secluded world where they can lock out their worst fears and nightmares. All goes well in their loving friendship until an unexpected tragedy shatters their lives. This is a perceptive, beautifully crafted novel about the anger, frustration, and loneliness that accompany any death. Also: *Hold Fast* (Major, 1981); *Tiger Eyes* (Blume, 1981); *A Day No Pigs Would Die* (Peck, 1972); *A Summer To Die* (Lowry, 1979).

Divorce

Breaking Up (Klein, 1982). Ali Rose's parents are divorced and now fighting bitterly over who should raise Ali. To complicate matters, Ali's father upsets his daughter by implying that her mother's friendship with a woman is more than a friendship. Ali is torn emotionally between her parents as she tries to decide on her own what to do. This is a realistic and provocative portrayal of the tensions felt by any teenager whose parents divorce. Also: *It's Not the End of the World* (Blume, 1982b); *Like Mother, Like Me* (Schwartz, 1978); *Mom, the Wolf Man, and Me* (Klein, 1977b).

Drugs and Alcohol

Go Ask Alice (Anonymous, 1982). Thousands of teenagers die from drug overdoses each year, while parents, teachers, and fellow students wring

their hands and wonder what they can do. A possible step for arriving at a solution is to read this powerful account of a 15-year-old girl who turns to drugs in a desperate search to find a better world, and, perhaps, herself. Harsh language and shocking episodes complete this honest portrayal, which is based on the actual diary kept by "Alice." Also: *The Late Great Me* (Scoppettone, 1980); *The Peter Pan Bag* (Kingman, 1971); *Angel Dust Blues* (Strasser, 1979); *That Was Then, This Is Now* (Hinton, 1980b).

Ethical Dilemmas

Justice Lion (Peck, 1981). Set in rural Vermont during the Prohibition, this novel is the story of a young man torn between his love for a girl and her family and his love for his father. Muncie Bolt and his father Jesse have been friends with the Lions, good country folk who make fine moonshine, for many years. Then Justice Lion, the head of the family, is arrested by federal agents, and Jesse Bolt is appointed prosecuting attorney. Muncie is deeply hurt by his father's acceptance of the appointment and leaves home. The ending, though violent, brings about a reconciliation of Muncie's conflicting loyalties. Also: *Ellen Grae* (Cleaver & Cleaver, 1978); *The Kissimmee Kid* (Cleaver & Cleaver, 1981); *Gentlehands* (Kerr, 1981a).

Handicapped Youth

Deenie (Blume, 1974). Deenie was born beautiful. Her mother took her to modeling auditions. She tried out for the junior high school cheerleading squad. But she failed at both; something was wrong with her posture. Suddenly, she learns that she has adolescent idiopathic scoliosis and must wear a brace for the next four years.

Other physically handicapped teenagers, especially those who become handicapped suddenly and unexpectedly, may see, through Deenie's eyes, that friends can be tremendously supportive. They may also, after reading this novel, better understand their parents' sometimes confusing reactions to the new circumstances. Also: *Winning* (Brancato, 1978); *Me Too* (Cleaver & Cleaver, 1975); *Lester's Turn* (Slepian, 1981); *Little Little* (Kerr, 1981b).

Homosexuality

Happy Endings Are All Alike (Scoppettone, 1979). Jaret Taylor and Peggy Danziger are both high school seniors, both good students from good solid homes, both bound for good colleges, and both in love—with each other. Lesbianism in a small town like the setting for this novel is dangerous; others may inevitably find out, which would create problems for all. In addition, and worse, a deranged friend of Jaret's younger brother learns the girls' secret, brutally rapes Jaret "to teach her a lesson," then tries to blackmail her into keeping the rape silent, or he will divulge the love affair to the entire town. Also: *Trying Hard to Hear You* (Scoppettone, 1981); *The Man Without a Face* (Holland, 1980).

Mental Illness

Lisa, Bright and Dark (Neufeld, 1970). Lisa is 16-years old, and she knows she has a problem. She is losing her mind. What makes matters worse is that nobody believes her. Her parents think she is faking, and her friends regard her as weird. Gradually, a few perceptive friends realize that Lisa might be schizophrenic, and they struggle valiantly to find her help. This book shows how adolescents can become terribly isolated through mental illness. Also: *I Never Promised You a Rose Garden* (Green, 1964); *All Together Now* (Bridgers, 1980); *I Am the Cheese* (Cormier, 1977).

Parents

Ordinary People (Guest, 1977). As this novel opens, Conrad Jarrett has returned to his home in the wealthiest suburb of Chicago after four months in a mental institution, where he was sent after a suicide attempt. The suicide try came as a result of his remorse over his supposed role in his older brother's accidental drowning and the subsequent changed relationship with his parents, especially his socialite mother who, Conrad thinks, loved the dead older brother far more than him.

This story is of a troubled adolescent in a troubled family—just "ordinary people" despite all their material advantages. Among its useful features is a sensitive portrayal of a most effective adolescent

psychologist. Also: *Summer of My German Soldier* (Greene, 1974); *The Pigman* (Zindel, 1980); *Dinky Hocker Shoots Smack* (Kerr, 1978); *The Cat Ate My Gymsuit* (Danziger, 1974).

Prejudice

The House on Prague Street (Demetz, 1980). This autobiographical novel is a story of a young woman's experiences growing up amid the ravages of outrageous prejudice. It also presents an unusual and moving perspective on the Holocaust. Helene Richter is a "mongrel"—the daughter of a gentile-German father and a Jewish-Czech mother—who witnesses the gradual but relentless accumulation of horrors heaped on her mother's people and yet falls in love with a young Nazi soldier. The stunning ending clearly brings out the terrible truth: prejudice is a two-sided sword. When victims become victors, reversals in the recipients of horrors occur, but the horrors seem to go on. Also: *Chernowitz* (Arrick, 1981); *Durango Street* (Bonham, 1972).

Rape

Are You in the House Alone? (Peck, 1977). High schooler Gail is raped. The rape is an aftermath to obscene notes, filthy telephone calls, suggestive messages, and leers—all from the boyfriend of Gail's best friend. Then that boyfriend rapes her. Because he is from the wealthiest and most powerful family in town, he escapes a trial, leaving Gail, like so many contemporary rape victims, friendless among the punished innocents even as the guilty go free. Also: *Happy Endings Are All Alike* (Scoppettone, 1979).

Religious Pressures

God's Radar (Arrick, 1983). Sixteen-year-old Roxie and her family move from Syracuse to small-town Georgia, where a huge, fundamentalist Baptist Church is in power. They live in a house next door to a family active in this church, who immediately take it as their challenge to bring Roxie and her family to Stafford Hills Baptist Church and its charismatic minister, Dr. Caraman.

Having grown up in Syracuse with dating, rock and roll, movies, and even an occasional beer or cigarette, Roxie finds the taboos on her behavior unacceptable and the pressures intolerable. Although Roxie begins in the public schools, soon all are persuaded that, for her soul's sake, she should transfer to the Stafford Hills School. Is a mindless devotion to the church her next step? Also: *Blinded by the Light* (Brancato, 1979).

School

The Cat Ate My Gymsuit (Danziger, 1974). Marcy Lewis, or "the blimp" as she calls herself, hated school and hated herself—until Ms. Finney came along. Finney, an innovative ninth-grade teacher, brings adventure and excitement to her classes; more significantly, she helps the students—especially Marcy—understand and feel good about themselves. Because her methods and beliefs are unusual and controversial, she is suspended. Marcy, during the process of organizing a protest with her friends against the firing of Finney, grows in confidence, and her growth triggers a corresponding growth in her mother. Also: *The Chocolate War* (Cormier, 1980); *Catcher in the Rye* (Salinger, 1977).

Sex

Forever (Blume, 1982a). "Sybil Davisson has a genius I.Q. and has been laid by at least six different guys." So begins this novel—one that is enormously popular with teen and preteen girls who are wondering about their past, present, or future first sexual relationship.

The protagonist Kathy, a high school senior, a virgin although not terribly hung up about remaining one, meets Michael at a party at Sybil's house. Michael is also a senior, is not a virgin, and terribly hung up about Kathy's not remaining one. The novel treats in graphic detail their developing sexual relationship that is part of a love that will last forever—or at least until summer comes. Also: *It's OK If You Don't Love Me* (Klein, 1977a); *Up in Seth's Room (Mazer, 1981); Steffie Can't Come Out to Play* (Arrick, 1978).

Social Responsibility

Bless the Beasts and Children (Swarthout, 1971). The "Bedwetters," six boys who are ages 12 to 16 and rejected by parents and peers alike, set out from their summer camp—a rustic but expensive dude ranch—in a stolen jeep to save the buffalo. They want to liberate the beasts from the annual buffalo kill—an event in which penned buffalo are released three at a time and shot in cold blood.

The boys sympathize—in fact, identify—with the plight of the innocent beasts. The ending, although not a happy one, nevertheless transcends the harsh facts because for the Bedwetters, "It was the finest moment of their lives. They awed themselves." Also: *Lord of the Flies* (Golding, 1959); *I Am the Cheese* (Cormier, 1977); *All Together Now* (Bridgers, 1980).

Suicide

Tunnel Vision (Arrick, 1980). Anthony Hamil died at the tender age of 15. Why? He committed suicide. So begins this novel about a problem that has reached epidemic proportions in American life: teenagers who take their own life. Because he leaves behind no visible clues as to the reason for his death, Anthony's parents and friends must piece together their own solution and come to grips with their own personal grief. Also: *Ordinary People* (Guest, 1977).

Teenage Crime

Killing Mr. Griffin (Duncan, 1978). "That Griffin's the sort of guy you like to kill," Jeff mumbled. Mark replied, "Why don't we then?" Mr. Griffin is Mark and Jeff's strict and autocratic high school English teacher, and what starts out as a prank by them to frighten him turns into a nightmare of unparalleled dimensions. This novel deals carefully and thoughtfully with some of the hidden reasons why some teenagers commit murder and turn to a life of crime. Also: *I Know What You Did Last Summer* (Duncan, 1975); *The Magician* (Stein, 1975).

Teenage Pregnancy

Mr. and Mrs. Bo Jo Jones (Head, 1971). Although a bit dated by now—things were a little different in 1967—this novel still appeals to students who are pregnant or worried about pregnancy and its consequences. July is from the right side of the tracks, a cheerleader type. Bo Jo is a high school football hero, and one night after the big game, they have sex. Just this once causes them remorse, guilt, and pregnancy.

Abortion is not even thought of, nor is giving the baby up for adoption. Instead, they get married and in a somewhat romanticized but nonetheless fairly realistic treatment of their troubles, try to adjust as a couple of high school kids who are married—and not always too happy about it. Also: *Phoebe* (Dizenzo, 1979); *He's My Baby Now* (Eyerly, 1977); *Sharelle* (Neufeld, 1983); *My Darling, My Hamburger* (Zindel, 1971); *Don't Look and It Won't Hurt* (Peck, 1973).

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