CHAPTER : II

RELATED RESEARCH STUDIES

2.0 Introduction :

The present investigation is an intervention study in the
area of psychological education employing Reality Therapy. The
concepts and nature of psychological education as well as
Reality Therapy have been discussed in the previous chapter.
In this chapter a short report of some research attempts in
the area of psychological education and Reality Therapy in
particular are presented.

It may be mentioned in the beginning that Reality Therapy
is a very recent development in the field of education and
psychology. Researches in this area are yet to pick up. As
far as the investigator's knowledge goes she has not found
Research Studies on Reality Therapy in India.

Therefore in the first part of this chapter, the investi-
gator has reviewed research studies on a few related variables,
such as Assertiveness sense of responsibility, educational
aspiration, academic achievement, self-concept and attitude
toward school.

In the second part of the chapter she has reviewed resea-
rches on Reality Therapy which has been done abroad.

2.1 Assertiveness :

Assertive behaviour has been defined differently in various
studies to reflect particular deficits. Yet certain aspects
of assertiveness are fairly well agreed upon. For example
standing up for one's rights, refusing to comply with seemingly

unreasonable demands of others and generally expressing feel-
ings overtly to others(both positive and negative feelings)

Psychologists have pointed out that being assertive is a
skill that one can learn. In fact assertive behaviour probably
is learned early in one's family. It can be trained and
developed just as any other social behaviour.

Assertion Theory is based on the assumption that everyone
has basic human rights which should be respected and that
assertion skills could be developed. The theory of assertion
emphasises the basic rights that we all have and the responsi-
bilities which go with having these rights. Some important
research studies on assertiveness in the Indian field of
education are as follows :-

S.C. Saxena (1987) studied the leadership qualities of
students and found that middle school leaders, that is, those
who take leading roles in all school activities were asertive.

S.Khan (1983) in his study opposed the popular belief and
came to the conclusion that educationally backward students
are more assertive. Their lack of self confidence in the field
of education do not hinder them to become assertive.

S. Malik (1984) found that popular adolescent students are
more assertive than their unpopular counterparts.

P. Sukumaran (1982) also conducted research on adolescent
and found that they
boys are generally more assertive.
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M. Panda (1983) concluded that father's locus of control
was negatively related to son's assertiveness.

V. Datta (1981) made a study of assertiveness in Inter-
mediate students and found that higher intelligence made subjects
comprehend things and situation better resulting in greater
confidence and decreased submission.

K. Bose (1960) made research on the living pattern of the
adolescents and its effect on their character and came to the
conclusion that boys living in crowded houses without facilities
of a comfortable and peaceful life are self-assertive.

R.K. Mishra (1968) studied certain personality correlates
of Need for achievement and showed students who scored high on
N-Achievement also scored high on assertive scale.

R.S. Nair (1972) reported that N.C.C. training helps to
improve significantly self-assertiveness and responsibility.

U. Pathak (1983) found that highly creative and highly
intelligent students possess self-assertive tendency.

A.S. Dhaliwal (1971) conducted research on school going
children and adolescents and demonstrated that Academic under
achievers are generally assertive.

However S.P. Suri (1973) came to the opposite conclusion
that superior students are more assertive than average and
below average students.

In an experimental study by Kamalanabhans (1987) the
experimental group which was subjected to an asertive study
skill training showed a significant increase in achievement
when compared with a control group.

While nearly in all the individual studies attempts have been made to find out which type of persons are more assertive, the foreign studies help us to know whether Assertive Training Programmes are helpful to increase assertiveness in a person.

Both type of studies together help one to have insight on the total idea of assertiveness.

K. Fischer (1976) conducted research on the effect of a verbal response model of assertiveness to develop assertiveness behaviour with the delinquents and concluded that two forms of assertive behaviour, the ability to write assertive responses and the ability to verbally formulate an assertive response in a delinquent increased as a result of assertive training programme.

K. Alyce (1976) did research on Teacher training in the use of operant principles to reinforce assertive behaviour in elementary school children. It was concluded that teachers can learn and subsequently implement operant procedures to reinforce assertive behaviour in their students. As a result of this training students were able to increase the perception of the actual frequency of their assertive behaviour. Also the ego strength of the students increase as a viable outcome of that teacher Training programme.

Alesio (1977) wanted to find out whether a short asertive training programme, to facilitate assertive behaviour has any significant effect on self-esteem and found a positive and significant correlation among the two variables.

I. Ruth (1979) did comparisons of two measures of assertive-
ness and the modification of non-assertive behaviours. Result
indicated that overall treatment techniques were effective in
significantly increasing the level of positive assertion from
pretest to post test.

Ingram (1980) concluded that adolescents as well as adults
can increase assertiveness and self-concept in a well organized
assertive training programme.

Rudloph (1987) made research on the effects of assertion
training on severely disabled students/clients in a residential
treatment centre. The result of the study indicated that
group assertive training may be a viable technique for increa-
sing the severely disabled's level of assertiveness.

The data indicated that participants' scores are statisti-
cally and significantly higher on verbal measure of assertive-
ness than individuals who did not participate in the training
programme.

W. Thomas (1982) theme of research was "System wide imple-
mentation of an assertive discipline - based behaviour manage-
ment plan - a program evaluation" The result of the study
indicated :

a)   an increase in the number of disciplinary referrals.

b)   decrease in the number of referrals due to both minor and
      severe misbehaviours.

c)   a decrease in the use of corporal punishment.

d)   an increase in the number of parent contracts.

J. Lockwood (1988) found that a well-organised assertive training programme was effective in the case of individual treatment with incarcerated juvenile delinquents.

Evans (1984) suggested that the groups receiving assertion training have significant higher health related self-assertion than the groups not receiving training. Increases in health related self assertion were accompanied by increase in autonomy.

K. Leonard (1982) made experimental research on personal space and the perception of assertion versus aggression. The hypotheses of his study was that a personal distance preferrence of highly assertive men would be significantly smaller than those of low assertive men. But the hypotheses did not receive statistical confirmation.

C. Stephen (1983) conducted research on the effects of demand on the cognitive assessment of assertion. The study was designed

a) To assess the utility of multi-dimensional scaling for cognitive assertion.

b) To assess the effects of demand on the methods of cognitive assessment.

c) To determine whether on not all or any of these methods may be impervious to the effects of the demand.

The result of the study offered empirical support to the hypotheses.

Webb (1981) made comparison of effectiveness of group assertive training and self-esteem enhancement. The primary purpose of the study was that whether group assertive training can decreases anxiety depression and aggression and can increase self-esteem. The result indicated positive support to the Assertiveness training programme in increasing self-esteem and decreasing anxiety depression and aggression.

Ragland (1979) conducted a research of Assertive Training with juvenile delinquents. The objective of the study was to determine whether or not assertive training would a increase self-concept in a group of courat adjudged juvenile delinquents. The result indicated a positive trend toward the use of assertive behaviour.

Johnson (1979) conducted research on Assertion Training with American Indians. The result supported the hypothesis that there are cultural and racial differences in assertive response and it depends on variables such as socio-economic status and lingustic differences.

Scott (1981) conducted a research on assertion training and physically disabled subjects' effects upon locus of control. The result showed that internal locus of control and assertiveness were significantly correlated.

Leask (1981) studied the effects of Assertive Training on self-concept and locus of control of women. The result demonstrated that attitude towards occupations and assertiveness is positively related to self-concept and internal locus of control.

Boyce's (1981) theme of research was placing assertion within a situation – how other's emotional expressions influence assertive behaviour. The result showed that un-assertive subjects intention to refuse their friends' request was more dependent upon the pleasantness of their friends' reaction than the assertive subjects. Unassertive subjects experience more subjective distress in all situations. Unassertive subjects experience a more negative emotion and thought that their friends had taken the refusal more personally than did assertive subjects. The present study suggests that assertion training would benefit from focussing on the unassertive individual's reaction to other people's emotional expressions.

Canning (1982) conducted a study of the effects of group assertion training on anxiety, depression, self-concept and assertiveness in heroin addicts. Contrary to the result of other studies individuals in this investigation receiving assertion training did not significantly lower their levels of anxiety and depression.

Whlie (1986) studied the psychological investigation on the effects of cognitive and behaviour assertion training on self-efficacy. Positive relationship were found between self-efficacy and assertion training.

Hewett (1976) conducted research on interpersonal perception among college students as a function of sex and level of assertiveness and came to the conclusion that male subjects considered assertive behaviour more appropriate than female subjects. Female subjects considered assertive behaviour to a peer appropriate but assertive behaviour toward a professor inappropriate. But male subjects who were non assertive to a peer but the strongest dislike on the part of the males was directed toward other males who were non-assertive to a professor.

What emerges from all these studies that developing of assertiveness in one's behaviour is a worthwhile thing for all persons irrespective of their sex and age and in this respect assertiveness training has an important part to play whose impact is really great in the life of the individuals.

2.2 Sense of Responsibility :

Responsibility is the ability to fulfill one's needs. A responsible person also does that which gives him a feeling of self-worth and a feeling that he is worthwhile to others. Though it is a very important concept in the field of education there are very little evidence of research on responsibility in the Indian field of education.

M. Panda (1983) made a study on the relationship of Parental life style, Intellectual achievement, responsibility among underprivileged children and concluded that parental life style has an important part to play in enhancing the sense of responsibility among the children.

P. Roy (1982) made attempt to find out the effects of attribution training on the development of intellectual achievement responsibility and cognitive performance among lower class children and concluded that the above mentioned training has some positive effect to increase those qualities.

S. Pandey's (1983) work was on factors affecting sense of responsibility amongst higher secondary school students. Major findings of the study were that sense of responsibility was significantly higher in students belonging to the higher income group and higher academic achievement group than students belonging to lower income and achievement groups. Sense of

responsibility has no significant relationship with caste, age,
sex, family education, occupation and political affiliation of
the family. Sense of responsibility was positively related to
intelligence and level of aspiration but it was negatively
related to anxiety. Sense of responsibility was predicated
with the help of intellgence and level of aspiration scores.
The sense of responsibility consists of two independent factors
viz. psycho-social atrributes and moral attributes.

B. Rani (1980) studied self-concept and other non-cognitive
factors (including responsibility) affecting the academic
achievement of the scheduled caste students and found that
self-concept and sense of responsibility is highly correlated.

A.S. Raghavakumari (1983) conducted a study on teacher
attitudes and perceptions, affective dimensions of classroom
instruction and pupil perceptions and concluded that teachers'
positive perception about their students help to foster a sense
of responsibility in the latter.

S. Beharawal (1987) made a study on locus of control and
attribution of Responsibility for success and failure.

R.D. Singh (1985) suggested that adolescent boys and girls
with a better social attitude had high responsibility.

S.P. Suri (1973) studied differential personality traits
in intellectually superbor, average and below average students
and found that superior students have more sense of responsi-
bility than average students.

However the foreign studies on the sense of responsibility
are as follow :-

Eaves's (1978) theme of research was the effects of style
focus and relevance of experience on the attribution of
responsibility. The purpose of the study was to investigate the
interaction effects of individual differences and environmental
influences on the attribution of responsibility using an
interpersonal paradiagm.

Baker (1988) studied judgements of responsibility - their
relationship with self and moral reasoning in Venezuelan
adolescents. The purpose of this study was to explore how
adolescents understand and conduct their meaning of responsi-
bility and to assess how these processes of understanding and
constructing responsibility are related to the adolescent moral
judgements and self-development.

Smith (1986) tried to compare tendencies to ascribe locus
of responsibility for intellectual achievement between two
groups of middle school students. The main point of the study
was to investigate if statistically significant differences
exist between two groups of students, those identified as
emotionally impaired and those identified as regular regarding
both academic success and failures. According to the study no
statistically significant differences exist between two groups
in terms of their locus of responsibility ascription.

Winslow (1975) suggested that self-concept of ability was
significantly related to self-esteem to responsibility for
academic success and responsibility for academic failure.

Forker (1978) studied social responsibility behaviour of high school senior and revealed a non-significant negative correlation between social responsibility behaviour and breadth of social concern and the importance of school as moral educator.

Crawford (1980) studied mother's attributions of causality and responsibility for achievement behaviour of their young children.

Weld (1985) made a correlational study of academic self-concept, intellectual achievement, responsibility, social cognition, and reading achievement for a sample of upper elementary school children.

Terasaw (1983) conducted a study on helplessness in learning disabled children - effects of attribution, retraining and reinforcement on personal responsibility and mathematical reasoning tasks. It was hypothesized in the study that a procedure that taught the learning disabled children to take responsibility for their behaviour would cause them to invest more effort on tasks thus leading to a change in performance. This should lead to increased persistence or increased motivation toward a task. Subsequently increased persistence should help to establish a dependent relationship between one's performance and reinforcement. Such a bond should lead to an increase in internalization of responsibility.

Clements (1991) made correlational study of awareness, sense of responsibility and commitment to learning goals. Result showed that all the variables are positively correlated with one another.

Hazel (1988) studied the effects of tutoring on reading achievement, self-concept and responsibility of 6th grade students.

McCade (1987) attempted to find out the relation between quality of school life, achievement, responsibility and creative thinking in children. Result of the study showed that more creative thinking leads to both more responsibility for achievement success and more satisfaction with structure of school.

Wylie (1985) found that academic success, feedback can affect positive academic self concept and responsibility for success in low academic self concept of students if it is presented under the proper condition.

All the above mentioned study showed that sense of responsibility is a key factor in any sphere or stage of life. Again sense of responsibility and academic achievement are highly correlated and without achieveving this sense of responsibility it is hardly possible for a student to get academic, success in school or to get success in the later period of his life.

2.3 Attitude toward school :

The attitude toward school refers the way the students have come to feel about their total school experience - how hard they want to work in schools, how highly they value school and how much they want to pursue further schooling. However, teacher's expectation play a definite role in students attitude toward school and performance.

Davidson and Lang (1960) found that students' perception
of the teacher's feelings towards them correlated positively
with their self-perception. They also found that the more
positive the child's perception of his teacher's feelings, the
better his academic achievement and the more desirable his
classroom behaviour as rated by the teacher.

Brookover and his associates (1967) found that student's
perception of the evaluation of their academic ability by
teachers, parents and friends are associated with self-concept
of academic ability. That is, teacher's attitudes and opinions
regarding his students have a significant influence on their
success in school.

Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) demonstrated that a teacher's
expectation of his pupil's intellectual functioning and
competence could come to serve as an educational self-fulfilling
prophency.

Sunderalakshmi (1981) compared the effects of two kinds of
instructional strategy on certain student gains. The two
strategies were two ways of monitoring classroom interactions.
In the first strategy teacher was "initiator" and all communi-
cations during instruction were channelled through the teacher.

In the second strategy the teacher was a facilitator of
interactions wherein he promoted more pupil-teacher interactions
while teaching, persuaded them to work on their own and helped
them in the tasks assigned.

The result showed that strategy one had greater positive
influences on students' academic performance and initiative
whereas strategy two had greater positive influence on class-
room trust, acceptability and cohesiveness.

Kounin and Gump (1961) reported that punitive teachers in contrast to non-punitive teacher had more pupils who manifested aggression, displayed misconduct in school and cared less about learning.

Leeper (1967) concluded that pupils learn more easily and their attitude towards school improved when the teachers were friendly and respectful. Pupils' attitude toward school deteriorated when teachers were impersonal and autocratic.

Webb (1971) found that students of humanistically oriented teachers had greater morale and improved in interest as well as reported greater academic gains compared to teachers who were not sensitive to individual students.

James (1982) studied 'Reinforcement and self-concept - their relationship to attendance and attitude toward school.' The study examined the efficacy of a token contigency program in reducing school absenteeism using both a continuous and variable schedule of reinforcement. Secondly it investigated the extent to which the self-concept related to attitude toward school and overall school attendence. Result showed that absenteeism was reduced particularly among low self-concept students but there was no effect upon attitude toward school as a result of the treatment intervention.

Leonard (1989) studied the direct and indirect effect of student temperament on school achievement and attitude toward school. The result indicated that students who are most likely to succeed in school are those who evoke high teacher expectations and perceive their class room experiences in a positive light.

Ingram (1976) conducted study on "a study of student attitude toward school." The study suggested that it is possible to administer a survey instrument to locate not only critical deviations in student attitude toward school in given school system but also to identify early indications of the detrioration of positive attitudes at various levels. While the attitude of boys and girls toward various aspects of the school environment have similar tendencies, the overall attitude of girls was significantly more positive than that of the boys.

Ruth (1984) conducted research on 'an examination of the relationship among students' self-concept, level of anxiety and attitude toward school. The findings of the study appear to indicate a statistically significant relationship among the variables.

Herriolt (1986) made a study entitled "a study of the self-concept and attitude toward school of gifted and general students and of teacher attitude toward these students". Result indicated that formal identification of academically gifted students and the provision of special programme for the student resulted in significantly more positive self-concept in intellectual and school status and significantly more positive attitude toward school. Teachers also indicated a generally more positive attitude toward them.

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Graves (1980) tried to find out how school achievement and attitude toward school are influenced by a set of demographic, ecological & psychological variables. Findings showed that achievement orientation emerged as a strong predictor of both school grades and attitude toward school. School enrollment size influences attitude toward school, primarily through perceived crowding.

MacDonald's (1981) study was on 'Thai vocational school students' self-esteem, alienation and attitude toward school. Result showed that Thai vocational high school students when compared with students from academic schools had lower self-esteem scores, they felt more alienated from their society, they felt more negatively toward their school.

Platt's (1985) work was on the relationship of self-concept social comparison process, study habits and attitude toward school in private and public school. Empirical result focused on the significant positive relationship among the variables.

Reimer (1977) wanted to see how a humanistic interaction treatment programme could help students to have positive attitude toward school and their teachers. The result of the study supported the contention that humanistic educational programme is very helpful to bring the above mentioned change in students.

Gordon's (1979) work was on "the effects of teachers' verbal/nonverbal behaviour upon students' attitude toward school, teacher and self". The study indicated no significant difference in students' attitude toward school teacher or self which was related to teacher's verbal/nonverbal behaviour. But

when grade level was considered the findings indicated that grade level influence students' attitude toward school.

Shearn (1979) worked on 'an analysis of self-concept and attitude toward school, between emotionally disturbed and normal school aged children. The result of this investigation concluded that emotionally disturbed group and a group of normal children matched for sex, age, intelligence and urban background were more similar in self-concept and attitude toward school than dissimilar.

Denzin (1978) tried to find out children's perception of mother-teacher similarity and attitude toward school. The conclusion reached were that there is a significant relationship between attitude toward school and children's perception of mother-teacher similarity in the population studied.

Brandon (1979) worked on the relationship of density and sex to self-concept and the cognitive and effective components of black high school students' attitude toward school.

V. Chaturvedi (1981) studied achievement and attitudes of students to school in relation to direct and indirect behaviour of teacher in the classroom.

B. Kour's (1984) work was on 'a study of attitude toward school of IX grade boys and girls in relation to achievement motivation.

R. Kulshrestha (1983) tried to find out the interrelation among value orientation, interests and attitudes school as correlates of self-concept of male and female adolescents.

V.R. Rawal's (1985) theme of research was 'Personality adjustment and attitude toward school of emotionally disturbed adolescent in relation to their home and school environment.

John & Abraham (1981) found that high achievers had a positive attitude toward teachers, school and academic work.

Nirmal Kumari (1979) made a study on 'Personality, Intelligence, Achievement Motivation, Attitude toward school and study methods as predictors of Academic Achievement.

Vijayalakshmi's (1983) study was on school achievement and students' attitude toward school as related to some demographic and psychological variables.

V.B. Chauhan (1981) made a comparative study on life tendencies, meaning of success, self-concept and attitude toward school among Harijan and Non-Harijan students.

V.S. Waghaye (1983) also made a comparative study of attitudes of scheduled castes and scheduled tribe pupils toward school and teachers.

S.K. Saxena (1981) tried to find out the relation of self-concept, study habits and attitude toward school as correlates of socio-economic status and cultural setting in different divisions of High School students of Kanpur district.

Sukhchand (1977) found that the reading achievement of disadvantaged students in grades VII, VIII and IX was related to their attitude toward school and the better rewards tended to have better attitude toward school than did the poorer readers.

Tiwari (1979) found a significant relationship between student's attitude toward the school and school achievement.

Rao (1966) found among the students of standard VIII in Delhi that intelligence, study habit, and school attitude were significantly related to the prediction of scholastic achievement.

Chopra (1982) also found that secondary school students attitude toward education had a very high positive correlation with academic achievement.

Bhaduri (1971) and Saxena (1972) found that the over-achievers had a positive attitude toward school, study and school work. Whereas Srivastava (1967) found that no significant relationship existed between under achievement and attitude toward school.

Zacharia (1977) found among the secondary school pupils in Kerala that there was high positive correlation between pupil achievement in social studies and their attitude toward social studies.

Jain (1979) found among the high school students of Jammu that attitude toward mathematics was one of the factors that played a vital role in learning mathematics.

Sarah (1983) reported that the attitude of high school students towards science and science education in Tamil Nadu was generally favourable but there was a wide disparity in their attitude toward school.

From all the above mentioned studies it is clear that positive attitude toward school is a very important factor getting academic success in school. Therefore parents as well as teachers should try their utmost to foster this quality among students.

2.4 Educational Aspiration :

There are varieties of researches on Educational Aspiration undertaken in India as well as in foreign countries.

However Rosenfeld and Zander (1961) define aspiration as the level of achievement realistically expected by an individual. In another study Rosenfeld (1964) equates level of aspiration with the difficulty level of the goal selected by a person.

According to Burnard (1972) the term level of aspiration refers to the level of performance to which one aspires in the future because of his success or failure in preceeding tasks. It is closely related to the concept which an individual has about himself and his powers. Edward and Seannell's (1968) view of level of aspiration as something that pertains to goal setting and goal achievement and Eysenck (1970) treated level of aspiration as a personality trait.

Emmit and Albert (1965) in their study pointed three generalized variables as being of major importance in structuring the aspiration of high school youths - the knowledge held by the youth with regard to the various occupational roles, the manners in which the various occupational alternatives were evaluated by him and the self-evaluation by the student in which he assessed the likelihood of successful performance in the various roles.

Karl and Edward (1976) found that academic ability and status origin as important determinant of educational aspiration.

Berger and Chey (1975) in a longitudinal study investigated the correlation between educational aspiration and educational achievement. Several correlational studies have found strong relationship among children's self-concept educational aspiration and their educational achievement. (Bledsoe 1967, Brookover, Thomas & Patterson 1964, Epps 1969, Rosenberg and Simons 1973, Walterberg and Clifford 1964, Goswami 1978) All of these studies reported that the positive self-concept of school ability is significantly related to educational aspiration.

Kausler (1959) and Ali (1969) established a significant positive relationship between educational aspiration and academic performance.

Harrill (1962) found significant difference in the level of aspiration of high and low achievers.

Ferrone (1984) conducted a study - the primary concept of which was to provide the educators with an insight into educational aspiration and expectations of high school students, related to students' perceived parental encouragement, achievement and locus of control. Result indicated significant relationship among the variables.

In India Ramkumar and Vasantha (1972) found that adequate appraisal of one's aspiration can be conducive to improve achievement to the level to which one's intelligence will permit.

Umiyal and Shukla (1973) from their study 'Academic achievement and behaviour in the level of aspiration situation' had come to the conclusion that educational aspiration vis a vis academic achievement is significantly and positively related with flexibility and performance score.

Pandey et al (1975) in their experimental study had found that increased level of aspiration resulted in a significant increase in academic achievement.

Shah et al (1971) found a strong relationship between the educational aspiration and academic achievement of post high school students.

Arap Rono (1982) attempted to identify the characteristic related to expressed educational and occupational aspiration and expectations of secondary school students.

Menon (1972) found that job aspiration and educational aspiration were strongly associated with high achievement particularly for girls.

Phutela's (1976) study in the states of Haryana and Punjab identified educational and vocational aspiration as specific predictors of academic achievement for the total sample.

Whereas Hussain's (1977) study found that students with low aspirations showed unrealistic and defensive attitude resulting in low achievement.

On the contrary Sharma (1979) found that the level of aspiration did not influence the academic achievement of high school and intermediate students.

Chopra (1982) found that significantly large number of first class students belonged to higher socio-eco status and they had higher educational and occupational aspirations.

Gupta (1981) reported that level of aspiration correlated negatively and significantly with academic achievement for the total sample and also to high socio-economic arts boys and science girls.

Jasuja (1983) found that the level of aspiration and frustration did affect the achievement.

Das (1986) found educational aspiration as the second powerful predictor of academic achievement.

Adiseshia and Ramanathan (1974) Dubey (1974) Pimpley (1974) and Sachidananda (1974) found that scheduled caste and scheduled tribe students had high educational aspiration.

But Gangrade (1974) reported low educational aspirations among scheduled caste students.

Koul (1983) found a low level of aspiration among the tribal failure students at middle and matriculation level.

Pandey (1985) found that the low deprived students scored significantly higher than high deprived students' on level of aspiration.

Therefore educational aspiration is the educational level which an individual wishes to reach. Its role is very important in the field of education as an individual's achievement can't be viewed as successful or unsuccessful unless a statement of his level of aspiration is obtained.
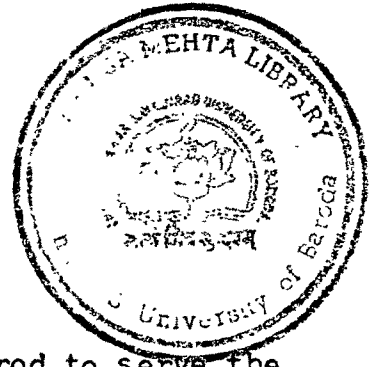
2.5   Academic Achievement :

Academic Achievement is the measuring rod to serve the purpose of evaluation in education. Academic Achievement is a 'sine qua non' in the school context. School as a functionery of formal education tends to emphasize achievement which facilitates the process of role allocation for the social system. However, in this study by Academic Achievement it is meant how well the students are doing in their subjects of study as are required by the school syllabus and how the students' sense of achievement regarding academics is increasing.

Ample evidences exist of relationship between intelligence and academic achievement. Eysenck (1947) reviewed 600 titles and concluded that the correlation between intelligence and achievement varies between 0.50 to 0.60 while Froehlich & Hoyt (1959) found the range between 0.30 to 0.80 in their review of 10.3 studies.

A vast number of studies by Jordan (1923), Thurstone (1925) Edds & McCall (1933), Burt (1939), Cohler (1941), Vermat et al (1966), Sudame (1973), Rastogi (1974), Seetha (1975), Ameerjan, Girija and Bhadra (1978) and many others have found positive relationship between intelligence & academic achievement. In the area of socio-economic status Dave & Dave (1971), Menon 1973), Abraham (1974), Dewal (1974), Chandra (1975), Halloway (1980), Khan (1980), Bolgiani (1984) etc. established significant positive relationship between socio-eco status and academic achievement.

The relationship between peergroup influence and academic achievement had also been evaluated by some other studies e.g. Cocalis (1972), Golden (1972), Badami & Badami (1975), Howton (1979).

Different socio-psychological factors concerned with the
student tend to occupy a pertinent olace in that measurement
process. Basically education is a social process a group
related activity. Therefore it is necessary to find out the
proper placement of group related factors along with its
relative imoact on academic achievement.

Dave (1963) and Wolf (1964) examined relations between the
family environment and measure   of academic achievement and
intelligence respectively. Wolf identified three press variables
in the home environment, which he postulated as being related to
intelligence. There were press for achievement motivation,
press for language development and provisions for general
learning. ▨

In Dave's study six press variables defined the family
environment, achievement press language models, academic
guidance, activeness of the family, intellectuality in the home
and work habits in the family. The result indicated that the
press variables have differential relations with oerformance
in the academic sybjects. For examole the environment accounts
for our 50% of the variance in arithmetic problem solving,
reading and word knowledge, but only 31% of the variance in
arithmetic computation scores. Also the order of importance
of the predictability of the six press variables was found to
differ from subject to subject. In the case of word knowledge
and reading achievement press was the most important variable
in a step wise regression analysis, while for arithmetic problem
solving the most important variable was intellectuality in the
home.

Laosa (1982) sought to study a combination of process and status variables operating in the home environment. This causal model hypothesized an inter-relationship between the background variables like the mother's education, the mother's occupation amount of reading she does mediated by variables like mother's socio-educational values, the maternal modeling also considered were child's age, child's sex and amount of reading done with the child by family members other than the parents. The findings revealed the positive influence of maternal modeling on child's intellectual development. /

Marjoribanks (1973) examined relations between the family environment and scores on tests of verbal, numerical, spatial and reasoning ability. Marjoribank's study emphasizes the importance of father involvement in the son's activities.

Bing (1963) found that mothers of high verbal boys (boys who had high verbal scores in relation to their number and spatial scores) in comparison to mothers of low verbal boys provided more stimulation in early childhood, were more critical of poor academic achievement, provided more story books and let boys take greater part in meal time conversations.

Results of Honzik (1967) Bing (1963) and other studies by Ferguson and Maccoby (1966) showed that in general our involvement with parents may impede the relative development of divergent number ability, while it is fostered in homes which allow boys a considerable degree of uninterrupted free time and freedom to experiment on their own.

The family environment studies have been conducted in diverse setting on varied age groups. A few of such studies Fraser (1958), Wiseman (1967), Plowden (1967) report that the

family environment measures account for more of the variance in the achievement scores than in the intelligence test scores. Further environment accounted for a large percent of variance for the aspiration scores of the children but is unable to effectively account for the other personality and affective variables.

The main conclusion from all these studies was that the school can't successfully remediate a child from a home that does not provide the basic and that the best home cannot fully take the place of the school.

Cannellas (1979) attempt with 112 first grade students proved that the group seriation and mental imagery subtests made significant positive contributions to the multiple correlations with each of the achievement areas, arithmetic, reading and language. The variance in achievement explained by the various combination of group cognitive tasks were 13% in reading 20% in language and 33% in arithmetic.

Taloumis (1979) through his research found that scores on conservation tasks could be used as predictors of academic achievement from first through third grades. Canter (1975) who worked with the Kindergarten children and followed them through the third grade found that conservation was significant predictor of achievement at the Kindergarten and first grade levels.

Omotoso (1975) also found that there existed a strong relationship between mathematics achievement and conservation seriation and classification abilities.

Jain (1965) sought to investigate into the relationship
between home environment and scholastic achievement. The
study revealed that the influence of home environment on
achievement was found to be positive and significant and that
the influence of intelligence on school achievement was found
to be the greatest and that it had higher relationship with
achievement of boys as compared to that of girls.

Barial (1966) attempted to explore the relationship
between the social class background, achievement motivation
and achievement of class tenth students. The investigation
revealed that there existed no significant difference in the
educational achievement, achievement motivation and intelli-
gence of students belonging to various social classes.

Studies by Chopra (1964) and Chopra (1982) explored the
relationship between certain socio-economic factors and
achievement. The findings revealed that children whose
fathers were professionals were certain of continuing their
education while majority of children whose father were skilled
and unskilled laborers were uncertain of their future education
(Chopra 1964).

Anand (1973) found that socio-economic environment
influences the mental abilities and academic achievement.

Sutradhar (1982) in his research attempted to enquire
into the relative academic achievement of the socially
advantaged and disadvantaged children and to find out the
socio-psychological factors associated with their relative
academic achievement. The major findings showed although
they do not differ in respect to intelligence the advantaged
children were always superior to the disadvantaged children

in respect to their academic achievement. The advantaged
families were characterized with more child centeredness and
positive self concept of the father and the child, the reverse
was found to be true for the disadvantaged group. The academic
achievement for both the groups had significant association with
the environment and biographic factors.

A research attempt by Chatterji Mukherjee and Banerjee
(1971) sought to investigate into the effect of some important
aspects of social class such as income, parents education, family
size, general condition of home etc. upon the scholastic achieve-
ment. Interestingly they found that the economic conditions of
the family seemed to have no effect upon the scholastic achieve-
ment in all the intellectual ability groups. Similarly posse-
ssion of a study room had no favourable effect in increasing
the achievement score in almost all the cases. The other
aspects showed that the family size and the number of sibling
were inversely related to the scholastic achievement specially
in the low intellectual level. In some cases parents help had
significant positive contribution towards higher achievement,
parents educational level was directly related to the achieve-
ment of their children, however father's occupation was not
found to be consistently related to children's achievement.

Srinivasa Rao and Subrahmanyan (1982) sought to study the
factors influencing the reading attainment of primary school
children. The findings were home condition, school conditions
and personal attributes of children collectively affect the
academic achievement.

Another approach in studying the factors what differentiates
the over and under achivers, specifically in terms of their
background variables. Such research attempts exploring into

the causes of academic over and under achievement have come out
with consistent findings in these respective studies (Mathur,
1963), Srivastava(1967),Menon(1973), Tandon (1978), Dave &
Dave (1971), Agarwal (1975), Chaudhuri and Jain (1975).

The findings of these studies showed that -

It was found that the high achievers usually had parents
with higher level of education specially mothers (Chaudhari &
Jain, 1975).

Parents of overachievers gave more importance to education
and provided their children with the required guidance.

Apart from the above mentioned general findings these
studies also showed some more pertinent observations.

Srivastava (1967) found that among other factors under
achievement was related to problems concerning the family and
to background and personal factors like age, socio-economic
status, father's profession,size of family, number of siblings,
birth order, reading interests, failure in school examination
and participation in games and sports.

Tandon (1978) showed that the physical, emotional and
socio-economic conditions of the male group of under achievers
were not whole some. Their parents were academically less
qualified had professions which were less remunerative and had
large families. However the home environment was not found to
be a relevant factor in under achievement of female under-
achievements.

Dave and Dave (1971) concluded that the non-verbal intelligence of the rank students was superior to that of failed students, next there existed significant differences in the intelligence of students coming from homes having differential parental income and occupations. It was also found that the higher percentage of failed students belonged to homes having lower parental income, education and occupation. Also like in other research findings parents of rank students showed more academic concern about their ward than those of failed students.

From the above mentioned studies it appear that there is a positive relation between intelligence and achievement. Academic achievement is also positively related with home environment, intellectuality in the home parents educational level, and occupation, child's age, sex etc. However, the economic condition of the family seemed to have no effect upon the scholastic achievement. On the other hand underachievement was related to problem concerning the background of the family and personal factors like socio-economic status, father's profession, size of family, number of sibling, birth order, reading interests, failure in school examination & participation in games and sports.

2.6 Self-concept :

Self-concept is the way people describe themselves based on the roles they play and the personal attributes they think they possess. Rogers (1959) defined self-concept as the organized consistent conceptual gestalt composed of perceptions of the relationship of the I or me to others and to various aspects of life together with the values attached to those perceptions.

Ramkumar (1969) has defined self-concept as cluster of most personal meaning a person attributes to himself.

According to Saroja (1991) self-esteem is formed when individual perceive themselves as capable worthy and accept themselves. Development of positive self-concept is the basis for the development of self-esteem.

Purkey (1970) explained that a person has countless beliefs about himself, not all equally significant. It includes only those perceptions about himself which seem most vital or important. Purkey further explained that the maintenance and enhancement of perceived self is the motive behind all our activities. We evaluate the world and its meaning in terms of how we see ourselves.

It is generally accepted that schools ought to and do develop learning in a variety of areas, including personal and social development. In fact, intrinsic to the notion of the hidden curriculum is the idea that the self and social outcomes of schooling are powerful equalas if not more powerful than academic outcomes.

A persistent relationship has been found between various aspects of self-perceptions and a wide variety of school related variables which have been found to be related to self-concept are school achievement, perceived social status among peers, participation in class discussion, completion of school, perceptions of peers and teachers, pro-social behaviour and self-direction in learning. Students carry images of the self in several areas as well as the potential for developing many more. These might include the self as person, as learner, as academic achiever, as peer and others. Each experience in school

can affect self-concept personally held values and/or the subsequent self-esteem of the learner. For this reason an understanding of self-concept and esteem in general, how they function in youth and how the schools might enhance or hinder them must be a major concern of those responsible for curriculum planning and implementation.

Deibert and Hoy (1977) found that students in humanistic school demonstrated higher degree of self-actualization than those in school with a custodial orientation. This correlational research has obvious implications for schools when one examines the qualities associated with each type of climate. The custody climate is characterized by concern for maintenance of order, preference for autsocratic procedures, student stereotyping, punitive sanctions and impersonalness. The humanistic climate is characterized by democratic procedures, student participation in decision making, respect, self-discipline, interaction and flexibility. In other words it appears that the custodial climate may be a debilitating factor in the concept of self while the humanistic climate might be considered facilitating (Licata and Wildes 1980, Estep, Willower and Licata 1982).

Both Campbell (1956) and Bledsoe (1967) using self-report inventories found a stronger relationship between the self-concept and achievement in boys than in girls. In 1960 Shaw Edson and Bell conducted a study to determine differences between achievers and under achievers perceptions of themselves. A major conclusion of the study was that male achievers felt relatively more positive about themselves than male underachievers.

Gill found patterns of achievement significantly related to the perceived self in public school students.

Cole (1968) explored the relationship between the reported self-concepts and school adjustment of 80 sixth grade students and found significant positive correlation between their self-concepts and such variables as reading and mathematical achievement.

Farquhar's (1968) study showed that over and under achievers responded with significant differences to items designed to measure their reflected self-concept and that students with high academic productivity tended to have high self-concepts. In an extensive research project Brookover and his associates completed three projects (1962 to 1968). Among their findings were that reported self-concept of ability is significantly related to achievement among both boys and girls. But this study led Brookover to hypothesize that confidence in one's academic is a necessary but not sufficient factor in determining scholastic success. The findings that socially disabled students do not necessarily report low self-concepts is borne out by a study by Soares and Soares (1969) who completed a comparative study of the self-perceptions of disadvantaged and advantaged elementary school children and found on the whole more positive self-perceptions among the disadvantaged than the advantaged children. A composit portrait of the successful student would seem to show that he has a relatively high opinion of himself and is optimistic about his future performance (Ringness 1961). He has confidence in his general ability (Taylor 1964) and in his ability as a student (Brookover 1969). He needs fewer favourable evaluation from others (Dittes 1959) and he feels that he works hard is liked by other students and is generally polite and honest (Davidson and Greenberg 1967). Studies which support the notion that underachievers tend to have negative

self-concepts are numerous. In 1960 Goldberg studied under-achievers and found that the underachievers was found to perceive himself as less able to fulfill required tasks, less eager to learn, less confident and less ambitious. In 1961 Show reported that underachievers have a more negative self-concept than achievers and demonstrate less mature behaviour than achieving peers. Bruck & Bodwin (1962) found a positive relationship between educational disability and immature self-concept. In 1963 Show and Alves attempted to verify previous findings and reported that male achievers and underachievers reported significant difference on the variables on self-concept, self-acceptance and the self-acceptance of peers.

Combs (1963) studied the relationship between self-perception and underachievement in high school boys and found that underachievers see themselves as less adequate and less acceptable to others and that they find their peers and adults less acceptable.

Taylor's (1964) finding was that underachievers have feeling of inadequacy, have a depressed attitude toward themselves and have strong inferiority feelings.

However, Holland (1959) found that the underachievers tend to have positive self-concept. But judging by the preponderance of available researches it seems reasonable to assume that unsuccessful students are likely to hold attitudes about themselves and their abilities which are pervasively negative. They tend to see themselves as less able less, adequate and less self-reliant than their more successful peers.

In India also there were several studies on self-concept
P.Deao (1967) conducted a study on self-concept of disciplined
students. S.K. Bhalla (1970) also made a comparative study of
the self-concepts of disciplined and indisciplined students.
The result suggested that the indisciplined groups describe
themselves through greater number of a adjectives, perceiving
themselves as graceful, likeable, amiable, energetic forceful
etc. whereas the other groups perceive themselves to be shy
introvert, socially withdrawn, patient, well adjusted and relaxed.
Both the groups consider themselves to be kind, cooperative,
friendly, self-controlled etc. Both the groups differ signi-
ficantly on emotional adjustment and social adjustment. The
mean score on self-concept of indisciplined students are lower
than that of the disciplined students.

The objective of the study of Goswami (1978) was to study
the self-concept of the school going adolescents and its
relationship to sex, intelligence, scholastic achievement and
adjustment. The findings of the study showed that the global
self-concept of male adolescent were significantly different
from that of female adolescents. Self-concept and intelligence
had a significant positive correlation. Self-concept mean score
of urban and rural students had no significant difference,
global self-concept and scholastic achievement had a signifi-
cant positive correlation and self-concept and adjustment had
a significant positive correlation.

Ramkumar (1969) aimed at studying the relationship between
the self-concept and achievement of college students and the
influence of certain variables on that relationship. Findings
showed that positive relationship existed between self-concept
and achievement, between self-concept and intelligence. The
intelligence and achievement of high and low achievers could
be differentiated on their self-concept scores.

Sumitra Patel (1973) in her study titled 'An investigation to study self-esteem changes as function of counselling Therapy' tried to enhance self-esteem using group counselling. Her approach to counselling was based on Roger's client centered Therapy. The results showed that the low self-esteem and high self-esteem subjects both showed changes in the level of their self-esteem under the influence of counselling interviews.

Choksi (1976) conducted an experiment using Psychological education input in primary school children of Baroda city ▄▄▄ and studied its effectiveness on academic performance as well as traits like motivation, adjustment, anxiety, class-room trust and self-image. Her finding showed a significant positive gain in pupil's adjustment trust and self-image.

Laxmi (1976) developed an input programme for teacher trainees of training college and found its effect on self-perception. The study revealed that there was significant difference in self-scale. The programme developed positive attitude towards self, optimism and respect for self. It also resulted in improving self-confidence and self-perception of teacher trainees.

Olivia (1985) developed educational input for the enhancement of self-concept and achievement motivation in the first year degree students of Apostolic Carmel Colleges. The study demonstrated that her psychological education input programme was effective in increasing self concept and N-achievement of college students.

Thomas (1987) and Saroja (1991) developed input programmes for teachers and students to orient the experimental class along a humanistic orientation characterized by caring and

positive relationship between teachers and the students and
among the students themselves. The study has shown growth in
some psychological dimension like self-concept, inter-personal
relation, cooperation and academic achievement.

From the review of the above studies it is confirmed that,
self-concept plays a crucially important role and that it can
be enhanced by people, programmes and policies (Purkey 1970).
The source of all our behaviour including learning is the
concept that we have about ourselves. As our behaviour emerges
from our self concept and tends to maintain it, changing self
concept is the most crucial task to achieve.

2.7. Researches on Reality Therapy :

Various works both theoretical and experimental have been
conducted on Reality Therapy. There are numerous researches
on Reality Therapy, nearly on every aspect of human life. Here
the investigator has chosen only those important works which
have relevance with the present study.

However, the works on application of Reality Therapy on
other aspects of human life have been added in the appendix
to show the versatile applicability of the therapy.

Renna (1984) in "The use of control theory and Reality
Therapy with students who are out of control" described
effective Reality Therapy techniques in crisis intervention
for teachers and counselors working with out-of-control (OOC)
students and clients. The Keystone of the technique lay in the
ability of the students to make value judgements that their
behaviour was not helping and then to make a commitment to
change. Redirectional techniques called "Cognitive hooks"
helped the OOC persons to use the thinking component of their

total behaviour to gain control. The steps involved exploring the picture or perception of what happened, reframing or changing the way students thought and felt about the problem and the therapy helped students to take responsibility for their behaviour, self-evaluation planning and commitment to change.

Fried (1984) in "Reality and Self control - discussed William Glasser's description of behaviour as the attempt to reduce the difference between desires and reality in the context of 'out of control' students. *Procedures* ~~Deadline~~ described by Glasser (1986) were presented to help student personnel workers to rebuild a trusting human relationship with students. The procedures included -

1. Becoming friends with students.
2. Helping students analyze their own behaviour in detail.
3. Teaching students to identify and set priorities and
4. Being unwilling to accept excuses.

Pearl (1986) in "Increasing the appropriate behaviour of two third grade students with Reality Therapy - A pilot study" conducted a pilot study to determine whether reality therapy could increase the frequency of appropriate behaviour and enhance the interaction of students with peers and the classroom teachers. A 9 year old male and a 8 year old female with behavioural difficulties in a 3rd grade mainstream classroom were the students. An observational instrument was developed which evaluated on task/off task behaviour and positive or negative interactions between.

(a) Students and students.
(b) Students and teachers.

Over a 6 week period students were observed during a
baseline and a treatment phase with Reality Therapy. Samples
of behaviour were collected and were analyzed by a percentage
agreement statistics. It is concluded that the successful use
of Reality Therapy technique facilitated a positive change in
behaviour in both the students.

Butzin (1990) in "School discipline - A new management
system that works" presented a four phase positive discipline
plan based on William Glasser's Reality Therapy. The goal of
the plan was to teach the students to assume responsibility
for their own action. Discipline was instructional as opposed
to punitive. A record was kept for each child upon which all
serious behaviour instructions were written.

During phase 1, the teacher dealt with the students
directly, evaluated possible cause of inappropriate behaviour
and attempted to find and reward positive aspects of the
student behaviour. After three infractions, the student met
with the teacher and developed a written plan to change the
behaviour. The parents were informed about the problem and
the students plan for change. If there were continuing
behaviour problems (6-10 infractions phase-2) the student
met with the principal and school counselor and developed
another written plan for changing behaviour.

Ten or more infraction (Phase-3) called for a meeting of
the student with the teacher, principal, counselor and parents
and the development of another written plan for behavioural
change. Misbehaviour beyond that point (Phase-4) resulted in
suspension and work with a behaviour specialist.

Sarah (1982) in "School Discipline programmes that work" had successfully operated a Time out/Discipline Model program in their middle school for five years. The program was developed from 1978-1981. Two major goals had proven statistically successful.

(1) Students chose responsible behaviour and reduced the number of times they were sent out of the classroom for inapropriate behaviour and

(2) Classroom teachers and the principal increased instructional time and decreased time spent on discipline.

The program was based upon Reality Therapy. The concepts of Reality Therapy included involvement with the students as a caring friend, concern with present behaviour not past behaviour students' acknowledgement of the appropriateness of the chosen behaviour, development of a plan for better behaviour which included referral to the time out room for help, student commitment to the plan, no excuses if the commitment was brokern and no punishment but rather fair and consistent consequences for choosing unacceptable behaviour. Two components were proved essential for the success of the program.

(a) entire staff commitment and
(b) a full time person available in the Time out area.

Young (1973) in "Discipline with a purpose" discussed classroom discipline in the light of the ideas of R.Dreikurs (1971) and William Glasser (1969). Logical discipline taught students that they were responsible for their behaviour and that every behaviour provided a benefit or a penalty to the student. Teachers refused to accept excuses for failures, communicated to students that they were capable and worthwhile.

Richard (1977) in "Implementing an Inservice programm in positive discipline strategies provided positive discipline strategies to Kentucky Junior high school students based on William Glasser's Reality Therapy over a period of two years (1974-1976). Four program elements were emphasized to ensure the teachers' and administrators' sense of commitment to and ownership of the program.

(1) Collaborative decision making among teachers, students and administrator.

(2) Long term training and support by university personnel with a full time trainer at the school for the first year.

(3) Identification of existing practices and the contigurations of changes to be implemented in school rules, teacher disciplinary actions, Administrator actions and

(4) The evaluation of data measuring the stages of concern and the level of use of the innovation.

The importance of teachers' and administrators' commitment to a new program was noted. As shown by the decline in student suspension, expulsion and days lost, the program was succesully imolemented.

Rudner (1987) in "A practical model for controlling a group of off behaviour problem children in the classroom" described a model combining a behavioural approach with Reality Therapy which was used to control a group of behaviour problems in the classroom. A behaviour modification design to the token economy system was established together with a classroom atmosphere of Warmth and understanding. The children

were helped to recognize what they were doing and their responsibility for it. In this design the children earned and/or lost certain rewards depending on their daily classroom behaviour. Difficulties that may arise and suggested, solutions to these are discussed.

Crow (1979) in "Social agency practice based on Reality Therapy/control theory" described the work of a foster care agency that used Reality Therapy in the treatment of children and teenagers with special problems. Learning to function as a successful member in a foster home was the basic treatment for the client. Training was given to staff client and foster parents in Reality Therapy and control theory. An interview study of the staff foster parents and clients associated with the agencys office indicated extensive and effective use of the concepts and techniques of Reality Therapy and control theory to teach clients to satisfy wants by exhibiting responsible behaviours.

Epstein (1989) in "Treating delinquent prone adolescents and preadolescents" described an after school treatment programme that provided academic remediation and socialization for preadolescents and adolescents males with a history of as acting out at home, in school and in the community. The treatment methodology of the program bore a close resemblance to Reality Therapy with its focus on the general refusal to accept past history as an unrelenting determinant or execuse for current behaviour. The program consisted of a sequence of activities that provided recreation guided socialization, experiences academic remediation and group therapy.

Watkins (1990) in "Combining the child discipline approaches to Alfred Adler and William Glasser - A case study" presented the case of 12 year old male with behaviour problems to illustrate how the disciplinary approaches of Alfred Adler (1956) and William Glasser (1965) were used to effect changes in the students' behaviour. A treatment plan addressed three areas -

i)   The therapeutic relationships.
ii) The classroom intervention.
iii) Family intervention.

Following treatment, students demonstrated little misbehaviour and assumed a more responsible role at home.

Page (1991) in "The effects of a program of behaviour modification and Reality Therapy on the behaviour of Emotionally disturbed Institutionalized Adolescent" used behaviour modification and Reality Therapy to bring positive behaviour changes in twenty severly retarded emotionally disturbed adolescents as measured on two adaptive behaviour scales.

Smith (1980) in "Serving troubled youth - quality programmes" presented three approaches to the problems of troubled and disturbed youth and described group therapeutic discussion based on William Glasser's Reality Therapy in which students earned points for responsible behaviour and task completion and an integrated approach to drug and alcohol.

Brown (1983) in "The effects of individual cotracting and guided group interaction upon behaviour disordered youth's self-concept" determined the effect on self-concept of guided group interaction on 25 male and 5 female of 13-18 years old

who had been referred to a youth centre by a juvenile court,
school, or parents contracted goals centered around cognitive
of psychomotor domains. Emphasis in the group interaction was
on Glassers Reality Therapy. Preparation of self was measured
by F.M. Bower and N.M. Lambert's self-test scale which uses 40
items to determine degree of congruence between perceived and
ideal self comparison of preprogram with postprogram scores
show that the individual's ideal self perception changed
following the intervention while there was no significant
change in real self score with the result that real and ideal
self perception were closer after intervention than before.
Results tend to indicate that the program promoted a more
realistic and mature self-orientation.

Kruger (1985) in "A child care treatment plan for the self-
development of emotionally disturbed children" described a
treatment plan for institutionalized emotionally disturbed boys
designed and implemented by a team of child care workers.
Teaching of skills needed for life in society was emphasised
through the guidelines of Reality Therapy. Each child received
an individual treatment program and daily records of progress
were kept. The treatment aimed at self-improvement through a
feeling of self worth. Two basic steps of the programme were:

(a) increase self-confidence through group participation.
(b) cooperation with others toward a common goal.

Bratter (1987) in "Treating alienated unmotivated drug
abusing adolescents" considered that a reality - therapy based
psychotherpeutic approach was effective in treating alienated
unmotivated drug abusing adolescents. Once the adolescent boy
was confronted with his self-destructive behaviour, the
counselor must become advocate, suporter, champion and represen-
tative, thus forcing behaviour change through direct interven-
tion.

Meyer (1993) in "Birth and life of an incentive system in a residential institution for adolescents" described the development of an incentive system based on William Glasser's Reality Therapy for use in residential institution for adolescent adjusted, neglected and dependent. The system involved assignment in an ascending order of expected mastery of problems and increasing privileges.

Gramstad (1991) in "The application of Reality Therapy in a problem-driver program" discussed how Reality Therapy concepts were applied in shaping the content of an educational course for problem drivers. Early in the class, participants addressed issues dealing with thinking, feeling right or wrong behaviour and the perceived fairness of receiving a citation. In later segments participants identified personal needs and wants and developmental picture albums through group activities Materials included an inventory designed to elicit a driver needs profile and a video-tap displaying effective ineffective and 'band aid' behaviour. After viewing the video-tap, participants identified alternative behaviours selected effective behaviours and developed plans to carry out those behaviours.

Cohen (1977) in "Using Reality Therapy with adult offenders" presented a modified version of Reality Therapy as understood and applied in work with adult offenders in a variety of practice settings. Reality Therapy seeked to enable the client to attain an innate sense of personal responsibility and to gain conscious mastery of his/her behaviour. The practice theory as developed here was rooted in the writings of William Glasser (1964, 1965). The normative principles underlying the theory were discussed and the 5 basic treatment

techniques – involvement, current behaviour, evaluation of behaviour, planning, commitment are outlined and illustrated via case vigneltes. It was concluded that Reality Therapy could provide a path to more responsible behaviour for most adult offenders.

Williams (1980) in "Reality Therapy in a correctional institution" presented that 43 male adolescents inmates participated in a 15 week pilot program in Reality Therapy (RT) which stressed the active role the client must take to change his style of living. Five groups engaged in three successive five week contract, negotiated between inmates and therapist. Each contract required a greater behavioural effort on the part of the inmate than the previous one. Inmates anonmously completed a questionnaire at the end of the program. Only 18 had participated in any previous group program and these voted overwhelmingly (16 to 2) that Reality Therapy was better than the previous program. Over 80% rated the program as being very helpful to them and almost 80% enjoyed it very much. Participants liked Reality Therapy because it gave them the opportunity to find out more about themselves and become more responsible to deal with reality and it helped them to have responsible outlook on life in genral and prison in particular No inmate received a disciplinary report during the program's 15 weeks. Results suggested that Reality Therapy seemed to work because it provided strength just where prisoners were weak i.e. if focused on the way life was rather than on a fantasy world, it stressed realistic future goals rather than past failures.

Yarish Paul (1985) in "Reality Therapy and the locus of control of juvenile offenders" studied 45 male juvenile offenders (aged 12-16 years) to determine whether positive perceptual changes could be brought about by the use of William Glasser's (1965) therapeutic technique of Reality Therapy. The Nowicki-strickland Locus of Control Scale for children (1973) was administered to students during their 1st and last week in a treatment facility. Evaluation by a matched pairs t-test showed a significant difference between the treatment and control groups. Proponents of locus of control orientation by J.B. Rotter (1966) believed that persons with an internal mechanism of control perceive that events were contingent on their own behaviour, rather than on the powerful control of other students who received Reality Therapy, moved in an internal direction and choose to behave better with control of their fate in their own hands.

Ross (1989) in "Education of the young offenders" - described the program offered by the shaw bridge youth Centre High School for adolescents offenders and focused on the school's life skill and Work Orientation Department, (known by the student as co-op.) overall goals of the educational programs matched to individual needs, and facilitating transaction of students between institutional life and the community. The co-op. was based on the approaches of Reality Therapy. The co-op. program was designed to help students acquire skills to improve their level of autonomy and employability.

Dempster (1990) in "Managing students in Primary schools - A successful Australian Experience" presents a policy of effective student management in Australian schools that was based on the principles of Reality Therapy and control theory.

The author discussed the needed ingredients for program success
for the students (aged 5-12 yrs.) the benefits for children of
accepting responsibility for one's own behaviour and the bene-
fits for the teachers of the stress reduction that flows from
the proper implementation of the program.

Slowick (1991) in "The effects of Reality Therapy Process
on locus of Control and self-concepts among Mexican American
adolescents" determined the effects of the Reality Therapy
process and use of class meeting on Mexican adolescents (7th
and 9th graders) perceptions of internal & external locus of
control (LOC) and self-concept. 26 students received Reality
Therapy (experimental group) 30 students did not (control
group) Tools (e.g. the dimensions of self-concept-Forms) were
administered 1 week before and 11 weeks after the experiment
started. Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) indicated
that experimental students had significantly higher scores on
academic interest, leadership and initiative measures and
lower scores on the anxiety measure. However students did
not differ significantly on Locus of Control. Students given
Reality Therapy were more interested and satisfied with the
experiences in school.

Omizo (1992) in "The effects of Reality Therapy classroom
meetings on self-concept and locus of control among learning
disabled children" presented 60 learning disabled (LD)
children aged (12-14 years) from 4 classrooms were randomly
assigned to experimental and control conditions. Experimental
group teachers were trained by a certified Reality Therapist
in the concepts of Reality Therapy and how to conduct the
classroom meetings. Students were administered the Dimensions
of self-concept (DSC) and Nowicki Strickland Locus of Control

Scale for children. MANCVA yielded no significant differences between the experimental & control groups. The intervention study appeared to be beneficial in improving some aspects of self concept among the learning disabled population.

Fuller (1989) in "Reality Therapy helping Learning Disabled Children to make better Choices" presented 10 step school wide approach based on Reality Therapy and positive teacher student involvement for dealing with learning disabled students. It was concluded that the approach offered everyone involved a chance to work together rather than against one another.

Marandola (1991) in "Glasser's Classroom meeting - a humanistic approach to behaviour change with pre-adolescent learning disabled children" evaluated the effects of Glasser's class-room meeting (William Glasser, 1965, 1969) on the argumentative behaviour of 10-11 years old learning disabled boys. The result of intervention suggested that the method may be effectively used with a learning disabled population.

Knudson (1979) in "Counselling disabled individuals using a Reality Therapy Model" discussed the application of a Reality Therapy paradigm for counseling disabled clients.

John (1986) in "the effects of a program of Behaviour Modification and Reality Therapy on the Behaviour of Emotionally disturbed Institutionalized Adolescents" presented institutionalised staff used behaviour modification and Reality Therapy to bring about positive behaviour changes in 20 severely retarded emotionally disturbed adolescents as measured on two adaptative behaviour scales.

Ziegler (1983) discussed the effectiveness of a course in Reality Therapy consisting of six participants. Result indicated that there was increased evidence of mutual trust among members of the group.

Grimesey (1991) described modifications in a middle school's discipline program based on Reality Therapy including ways in which teachers could maintain relationship with students without administrative referrals. Survey data from 37 teachers indicated that most had positive perceptions of the program particularly with their ability to use questions to lead students to identify the problem, judge their own behaviour and develop a plan.

Hart-Hester-Susan (1989) examined the effects of Reality Therapy on the on-task behaviour of participating students across two instructional settings. Four samples aged 9-11 years met with an educational psychologist, formally trained in Reality Therapy for 30-45 minute sessions. Results indicated that Reality Therapy was effective in increasing the on-task behaviour of targeted samples.

Schmidt (1984) discussed the frequent lack of responsibility in students toward learning and toward each other based on three case studies. Conditions in modern society that undermine motivation for responsible behaviour were analyzed. Reality Therapy and the development of positive personality traits were examined. Reality Therapy was very useful to develop a sense of responsibility was emphasized.

Welch (1980) examined the influence of inservice training in William Glasser's (1965, 1972) Reality Therapy and class meeting, techniques on teacher affective behaviour, student on-task behaviour absences. The sample consisted of 8 voluntary target teachers. No significant changes in teacher and/or student behaviour resulted from the in-service training.

Shearn (1978) examined the Reality Therapy method in the classroom via 94 group experimental design samples were 150, 4th graders in an overseas dependents school system in Japan.

The groups were as follows :-

(a)   Pre-tested Reality Therapy.
(b)   Unpretested Reality Therapy.
(c)   Pretested placebo.
(d)   Unpretested placebo.

The result indicated positive result.

Thompson (1976) described research support for the application of Reality Therapy to the resolution of classroom discipline problem in the elementary school. Data confirmed that trained teachers could successfully use Reality Therapy to reduce the frequency of undesirable pupil behaviour and to increase the frequency of desirable behaviour.

Dalbech (1981) described the use of Reality Therapy in groups of 4 students of junior high school. That group counselling programm had worked well in the school environment.

Meyer (1973) described the development and successful result of an incentive system based on William Glasser's Reality Therapy for use in a residential institution for adolescents adjusted neglected and dependent.

Cobb (1992) described a day long class aimed at helping adolescents in grade 7-12, to increase their self-confidence, acquire self-help tools for coping with everyday challenges and gain more effective control of their lives. The class was based on major components of William Glasser's (1984) Reality Therapy.

Parish (1992) discussed ways to enhance the motivation of students in the context of William Glasser's (1990) control theory and Reality Therapy.

McIntosh (1991) discussed a program called sex and total behaviour that was designed to introduce adolescents to control theory & Reality Therapy.

Acklin (1989) described a special college secretarial curriculum that was supported by Reality Therapy based training to help participants to build their skills in gaining a greater degree of interpersonal understanding & control in their lives.

Banmen (1985) studied William Glasser's concepts of Reality Therapy to explain the dynamics taking place in youth and young adults when they did not accept responsibility and to determine which intervention startegies need to be used to help youth with their career choices and work effectiveness.

From all the studies mentioned above one could understand
that the overall goal of Reality Therapy is to find more
effective ways of meeting one's needs for belonging, power
freedom and fun. The therapeutic process of Reality Therapy
consists of helping students to learn ways to regain control
on their lives and to live more effectively. These include
confronting students to examine what they are doing, thinking
and feeling to figure out if there is a better way for them
to function, Glasser (1989) emphasized "the only person's
behaviour that we can control is our own, which means that the
best way to control events around us is through what we do.