The William Glasser Institute

President & Founder
William Glasser, M.D.

Administrator
Linda Harshman
22024 Lassen Street, #118
Chatsworth, California 91311
1-818-700-8000
FAX 818-700-0555
1-800-899-0688

Canadian Association for Reality Therapy

President
Jean Suffield
530 Des Chenes
Beloeil, Quebec
J3G 2H8
Canada
514-446-5671
FAX 514-446-5908

Association for Reality Therapy-Singapore

President
Irene Lio
c/o Boys' Town
622 Upper Bukit Timah Rd.
Singapore 678117
769-1618
FAX 762-7846

The William Glasser Institute-Australia

Administrator
Lynne Pearce
P.O. Box 62
Toowoon Bay NSW
Australia 2261
(043)335525
FAX 011-612-4333-4382

Reality Therapy Association-United Kingdom

Contact Person
John Brickell
Green House
43 George St.
Leighton Buzzard (BEDS)
England LU78JX

The William Glasser Institute-Ireland

Chairperson
Brian Lennon
6 Red Island
Skerrys
Republic of Ireland
011-849-9106
FAX 011-353-1-849-2461

Reality Therapy Association-Isreal

Contact Person
Sara Weisler
c/o Educ. Horizons-Israel College
Levanon 26, Tel Aviv
Israel
011-972-3-640-1111
FAX 011-972-3-640-1122

The Reality Therapy Association in Japan

Contact Person
Masaki Kakitani
2205-23
Oiso-Machi
Kanagawa 255
Japan
0463-33-8819
FAX 0463-61-2434

Croatian Association for Reality Therapy

President
Dubravka Stijacic
Kuslanova 59a
10.000 Zagreb
Croatia

Reality Therapy Association-New Zealand

Administrator
Penny Woollams
7 Cascade Avenue
Waiautarua
Auckland, New Zealand
64-9-814 9600
FAX 64-9-8149600

KART: Korea Association for Reality Therapy

Chairperson
Rose-Inza Kim
C.P.O. Box 1142
Seoul, Korea
822-335-0971/0972
FAX 822-335-0609

Reality Therapy Association - Slovenia

President
Bojana Gobbo
Morova 29
6310 Izola
Slovenia
386 666 2706
FAX 386 6674 7045
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Editor’s Comments
Larry Litwack

As we end the twentieth year of publication for the International Journal of Reality Therapy, it is worth a brief look at where we came from and where we are going. The Journal started publication in the Fall of 1981 with 32 pages. It seemed to fill a want among the many advocates of internal control psychology. Although originally hoped to be a quarterly, it soon became evident that the flow of articles seemed to warrant maintaining the Journal as a semi-annual publication.

The Journal continued in the early years with a dearth of articles and a shaky financial status. This gradually began to change. The flow of articles increased until the Journal hit the high mark of 137 pages in the Fall of 1996. It became apparent that the Journal had to change. Thus, in the Fall of 1997, the Journal evolved into a name change, the International Journal of Reality Therapy, and in size to its present format. The name change seemed to more accurately reflect the international scope of ideas represented by individuals around the world committed to the concepts and practice of internal control psychology.

This change is well represented by this issue. There are two striking features about this issue. First, seven of the nine contributors are from the international community, representing Korea, Canada, Australia, and Croatia. Second, five of the nine articles, and over half of the issue, are devoted to research on the practice of choice theory and reality therapy. The body of research material from Korea is principally due to the driving force of Rose-Inza, Kim, a regular attendee at our national meetings. She has set a standard for others to follow. It begins to fill a critical need in the literature.

Where does the Journal go from here? Hopefully, it will continue to fill a need among those who believe in the concepts of internal control psychology. It is unfortunate that although there are thousands of individuals who have been certified in reality therapy, there are less than 2000 who currently receive the Journal. Equally important, the majority of college and university libraries do not subscribe to the Journal. I would welcome suggestions about how to remedy either of these problems.

It has been a rich and rewarding journey for me as editor. As I look ahead, I am intrigued by the possibilities for the Journal. I would welcome input from readers about what you would like to see in the Journal. Please remember that it is your Journal.

(Correction: For the article by Constance Wittek in the Fall 2000 issue, her email address is mwitt@ties.k12.mn.us. She may also be reached at conniewittek@hotmail.com. She would welcome feedback on her article.)
The Development and Effects of a Reality Therapy Parent Group Counseling Program

Young-Soon Kim

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to develop and validate the effectiveness of a parent group counseling program using reality therapy. Subjects of the experimental groups were 25 mothers, and the control group consisted of 15 mothers. The instruments used to measure the effectiveness of this 8 weeks program were The Self-esteem Inventory by Coopersmith, Internal-External Locus of Control by Rotter, Parents-Children Human Relationship by Lewis. The pretest-posttest-delayed posttest experimental design was used for three groups to measure the effectiveness of this program. The results partially support the hypothesis that the program using Reality Therapy is effective especially to increase self-esteem and parent-children human relationships. Also, the effect on the experimental group was maintained for 12 weeks after the group ended.

INTRODUCTION

The objective of this study was to conduct and verify a parent group counseling program which was developed for parents who have young juvenile children based on reality therapy.

The research questions were examined as follows:

1. What is the effect of a ‘reality therapy parent group counseling’ program on the self esteem of participants?
2. What is the effect of a ‘reality therapy parent group counseling’ program on the internal control of participants?
3. What is the effect of a ‘reality therapy parent group counseling’ program on the human relationships between juveniles and their parent?
4. Are there any different effects according to the procedure of a ‘reality therapy parent group counseling’ program?
5. Is the effect of a ‘reality therapy parent group counseling’ program continued after a specified period of time?

METHODS

1. Program:

The program period ran from May to July, 1999. The experimental group I met every Wednesday, for eight weeks from 10-13 p.m. The experimental group II met three days straight, for eight hours daily. In this study, a reality therapy counseling program was applied to mothers of juvenile children. Their target was their role as counselors, and the program consisted of contents selected by parents' requirements based on a need survey.

2. Samples:

The participants of the ‘parent group counseling using reality therapy’ program were 33 - 46 years old parents who applied and joined the program. Data were obtained from a total of 40 mothers, in which 25 mothers participated in the program, and 15 mothers who did not join the program. Subjects of the experimental groups were two groups of mothers who volunteered to attend this program and who resided in Chung-Nam; one group consisted of 12 mothers, and another group consisted of 13 mothers of adolescents. The control group consisted of 15 mothers. Participants were placed in one of the three groups based on participant choice, time schedules, similar age, social background, etc. An analysis showed no significant differences among group members.

3. Tools:

The instruments used to measure the effectiveness of this 8 week program were The Self-esteem Inventory by Coopersmith, Internal-External Locus of Control by Rotter, and the Parents-Children Human Relationship by Lewis. These were administered to all three groups and their children as pre-tests, at the end of the eight week program, and at a twelve week follow-up point.

The Development of the ‘Reality Therapy Parent Group Counseling Program’

This program, based on Reality Therapy included the following:

1. The frame of the program was made by grafting current Reality Therapy with parent education programs.
2. The contents of the program were constituted based on the opinions obtained through a survey, such as the difficulty in raising children and places where the parents need help.
3. Experts in Reality Therapy and experts in Parent education were consulted about contents of this program.
4. We modified and fixed the programs by two separate pilot programs based on examination of documents, checking the present program, and thoughts and ideas of experts in these fields.

PROCESS OF GROUP COUNSELING

The program includes warming up, how they spent last week, key points of the lecture, practice, discussion, and sharing feedback.

1. Week one: Checking the Quality Picture and Personal Wants
   - Orientation of program
   - Pre-test
- Self-introduction of group members
- Assignment: What is your type of parenting style? What was it’s effect on your children?
- Assignment: What is your Quality picture of the parent you want to be?
- Sharing Feedback

2. Week two: Learning Parent Role as a counselor
- Learning the main concepts of RT & CT
- Understanding the basic 5 needs
- Assignment: What is your and your children’s need profile?
- Assignment: How are the need profiles alike and how are they different?
- Planning for the satisfaction of the basic needs.
- Expressing how the basic needs are satisfied.

3. Week three: Understanding Total Behavior
- How was your communication style with your children?
- Assignment: How was it’s effect on your children?
- Assignment: How do you know whether or not you are happy?
- Choosing one negative situation, what is your total behavior then?
- Assignment: Applying to your life the RT, CT cycle of counseling. What do you do to get what you really want?

4. Week four: Reinventing Total Behavior
- Learning empowering communication
- I-Message, Active Listening, Conflict Resolution
- Good relationships: making quality time
- Becoming the person you want to be: If you were the person you wanted to be, how would you be feeling? thinking? acting? physiology?
- Assignment: What do you do to reinvent yourself?

5. Week five: Real World and Perceptual World
- understanding the juvenile’s life style of their children.
- understanding the Inner meanings of adolescents’ delinquencies.
- Assignment: How are your teens?
- Assignment: What are your difficulties with your children?
- Practice: Encouraging your children

6. Week six: Issues of Choice and Responsibility
- Learning Parent role as a Sex-Drug Educator.
- Assignment: What do you think about Choice? What is Responsibility?
- Issue of Adolescents’ problems about sex and drugs.
- Discussion after watch video (sex education).
- Assignment: How can you solve a problem and get what you want?

7. Week seven: Understanding of frustration signal
- The sort of parent expectation for your children.
- Assignment: What are your expectations for your children?
- Considering whether or not your expectations are attainable.
- Assignment: How do you control irrational expectations?
- Sharing feedback

8. Week eight: Your best choice, Happiness
- Happiness is up to you, your best choice.
- Assignment: What is ‘nurturing mother with their growing children’?
- Assignment: Making quality relationships with your children.
- Planning ‘Quality time’.
- Final evaluation and feedback.
- Post test.

RESULTS
The pretest-posttest-delayed posttest design was used for three groups to measure the effectiveness of this program. The results of this research partially support the hypothesis that the program using Reality Therapy is effective to increase the self-esteem, parents-children human relationship.

The results of study can be summarized as follows:
1. Self-esteem was significantly increased in the experimental group of mothers.
2. The Internal Locus of Control was not significantly increased in the experimental group of both mothers.
3. Parents-Children Human Relationship was significantly increased in the experimental group of both mothers and children.
4. ‘Reality therapy parent group counseling’ program had somewhat different results according to the program procedures.
5. The effect on the experimental groups was maintained for 12 weeks after group.
Research Question 1. What is the effect of a ‘Reality therapy parent group counseling’ program on parent’s self esteem.

Table 1 Intra-group mean and SD of Self-Esteem

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>2.19*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05

Self-esteem was significantly increased in the experimental groups of mothers.

Research Question 2. What is the effect of a ‘Reality therapy parent group counseling’ program on the internal control of parent.

Table 2 Intra-group mean and SD of internal control

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>10.25</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Internal Locus of Control was not significantly increased in the experimental groups of mothers.

Research Question 3. What is the effect of a ‘Reality therapy parent group counseling’ program on parent-children relationships of participants.

Table 3 Intra-group mean and SD of Parent-children relationship

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>4.98***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>6.27***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** p<.001

Parent-Children Human Relationship significantly increased in the experimental group of both mothers and children.

Research Question 4. Are there different effects according to the program procedures of a ‘Reality therapy parent group counseling’ program.

Table 4 Program effect according to the program procedures.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inventory</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Ex.Gr. I (Weekly)</th>
<th>Ex.Gr. II (Marathon)</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self Esteem</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Locus of Control</td>
<td>10.33</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>10.17</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent-children relationship(P)</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent-children relationship(C)</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>.24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** p<.001

'Reality therapy parent group counseling' program had somewhat different effects according to the program procedures.

Research Question 5. Is the effect of a ‘Reality therapy parent group counseling’ program continued after a period of time (after 12 weeks).

Table 5 ANOVA for the pre-post-delayed posttest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inventory</th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>pretest M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>posttest M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>delayed M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self Esteem</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>2.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Locus of Control</td>
<td></td>
<td>9.67</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>10.33</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>10.33</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>3.67*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent-children relationship(P)</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>16.65***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent-children relationship(C)</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>106.70***</td>
</tr>
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</table>

* p<.05, *** p<.001

The effect of the experimental groups was maintained for 12 weeks after group.

The reactions of the participants after the program were positive:

"I realized that what counts most is myself."

"I can now understand my child better."

"I can now view the child as an independent individual."

"I acknowledge that we're different."

"I escaped from the negative view I had of teenage children, and my view has changed."
CONCLUSION

Based on the above findings, the conclusion of this research is that using Reality Therapy is definitely effective to increase Self-esteem and Parent-Children Relationships.

Even though all the research questions were not verified, all the results show the direction supporting the research questions. The questionnaires and personal interviews which were given for the purpose of modifying future programs also supported the research questions.

The program was more effective when it was performed broadly over a period of time, and the effects of the program were partially continued after twelve weeks.

SUGGESTIONS

The above-mentioned various analyses showed that a ‘reality therapy parent group counseling’ program, even though it was an experimental try, can be an effective program for both mothers and children, and this program was a model of a qualitatively excellent and useful ‘reality therapy parent group counseling’ program.

However, this research could be meaningful in the following aspects:

First, this is the first attempt to develop a parent group counseling program applying Reality Therapy in Korea.

Second, although the effectiveness of this program is not fully verified, there are tendencies to support all the research questions.

Third, this program could be applied directly in the field after appropriate modification is made depending on the level of attendants.

Fourth, this research could contribute to a baseline model to study and develop further a Parent Group Counseling Program Using Reality Therapy.

Therefore, this study showed that additional modification and complementary measures can develop more effective parent group counseling programs from this program which was in the beginning stage.

References


A theoretical Study on the Application of Choice Theory and Reality Therapy in Korea

Eun Suk Cheong

The author is on the staff of the Korea Counseling Center in Seoul, Korea and is a Basic Week Instructor with WGI.

ABSTRACT

This study examines the applicability of choice theory and reality therapy to Korean culture. For this, the present paper describes the characteristics of modern Korean culture, and evaluates choice theory and reality therapy from the perspective of Korean culture.

Choice theory and reality therapy seem to be applicable: 1) Family structure and function in modern Korea varies from the concept of functional family based in western society. Alternative family patterns in modern Korea are congruent with the goals of reality therapy and choice theory. 2) Human relationships in Korea, stressing 'we-ness' is congruent with the choice theory axiom focusing on relationships. 3) The problem solving method of Koreans fits with choice theory and reality therapy. 4) Respectful attitudes toward therapists in Korea facilitates the reality therapist's active intervention.

There are some considerations to keep in mind: 1) It is better for reality therapists to empathize fully for aiding the relationship. 2) Considering the indirect communication method in Korea, more indirect questioning is suggested. 3) Reality therapists should understand and use Koreans' characteristic socio-psycho behaviors.

I. Introduction

It is almost a half century since counseling was introduced to Korea, and it is 20-30 years since various family therapy theories were introduced to Korea. Because of criticisms that counseling for western countries was not proper for other countries, multicultural counseling was developed after 1970's (Pederson, 1987: Sue & Sae, 1990), and it was also in family therapy (Mc Goldrick, 1993). In Korea, many people tried for applications of counseling to our country (Kim, 1991; Lee, E. S., 1989; Seol, 1993). Recently, family therapy is the same (Hong, 1999; Kim Y. S., 1998; Kim Y. T., 2000; Ko, 1998; Lee, 1998, 2000; Song, 1997, 1998, 2000a, 2000b). These days, approaches in traditional family therapy are confronted by both clinical and sociocultural aspects. Furthermore, individual and family therapy no longer show significant differences, and family therapists do not restrict themselves to certain approaches (Kim Y. A., 2000).

Reality therapy was introduced to Korea in 1989. It is individual counseling, but emphasizes human relationship (Glasser, 1998). Based on human nature itself, choice theory explains all human behavior. It is therefore not culture specific. Thus the theory can be used by peoples of all cultures. (Wubbolding, 2000).

So applying reality therapy to Korea is meaningful. For this, I will describe the structure & function of the changing Korean families, human relationship patterns, problem-solving methods, communication methods and attitudes about the therapist, and evaluate choice theory and reality therapy from the perspective of Korean culture.

II. Characteristics of Korean culture

The Korean culture was influenced by Buddhism and confucianism. Especially, values of confucianism are family-centered consciousness, interdependent relationship, hsiao, loyalty, sacrifice, jen, peace and harmony, moderation, mutual help, conflict avoidance, the order of ranks, distinction between the sexes, preference for son (Song, 1997). Urbanization & industrialization of western society has been for 2-3 centuries, but Korea rapidly changed in the past 40 years. These changes impact Korean families and society greatly (Kim, 2000).

1. Family structure and Family function

Nowadays, the number of family members had rapidly declined (Park, 1993). So the expanded family became nuclear family (Kim Y. T., 2000). The family, including 3 generations, or expanded family structure is thought to be the family for Koreans (Lee, 2000). Since industrialization, women's economic activity and married women entering professions have increased. When we see the proportion of working couples in generations, the third generation occupied the highest standing and couple + unmarried children + single parent cases are very common (Lee & Yang, 2000).

Man and wife relationships, and parent-child relationships in Korea are as follows. Husband's power towards his wife and child has lessened rapidly, nowadays. Because preference for a son became weakened, and women's status became strengthened, the father-son centered family structure was changed to a parent-child centered family structure (Kim Y. T., 2000). In Korea, the husband is higher than the wife, but in child-rearing and socialization, the mother's power is higher than the father's power (Kim Y. T., 2000). The ratio of divorce in Korea was 5.7% in 1980 and it was 24% in 1997. Looking at the result of the Family Legal Advisory Office from 1996 to 1999, divorce and conflicts of couples were the number 1 and 2 most serious problems compared to other family problems. For both men and women, the number one reason for a divorce was differences in personality. Especially, with more educational chances for women, they ask for better quality of lives and an equal relationship between husband and wife, instead of just following traditional family mores.

The relationship between mother-in-law and daughter-in-law started to change. The predominance of the mother-in-law transformed into the predominance of the daughter-in-law (Yoon, 1986). Even though they don't live together, daughters get support from their natural parents. These trends show the change from a father dominant family relationship into a mother dominant family relationship, and that makes it possible for a woman to have a balanced relationship with her parents-in-law and her native parents, but this might cause many various and complicated problems (Lee & Yang, 2000). The function of family through the family life cycle follows.
According to Han (1993), in modern Korea, the common starting point of adulthood was having the economic capacities through army, marriage, and/or having a job. But marriage that seems to be an absolute indicator of adulthood cannot include physical and emotional separation from family of origin. Marriage seems to be more of the succession of a family line than their own new family. (Lee, 2000). In Korea, the parent-child relationship is interdependent through one’s whole life in various patterns (Song, 2000).

2. Human relationship pattern

Confucianism, representative of traditional values, was a practical philosophy focusing at relationship (Chang, 1999). After the 1980’s, individualism and collectivism have been used to explain the difference between cultures, Korea has been understood in the view of collectivism. (Song, 1997; Kim Y. T., 2000). Other studies describing Korea regarded family relationship as very important (Kim & Choi, 1992; Song, 1995). Choi (1997) stated that Koreans considered the relationship first and, according to relationship, they then set the level of expectation and thinking of mind. Koreans were more focused on mind than behavior itself.

3. Problem solving method

There would be two characteristics of the Korean problem solution method. One is that Koreans prefer negotiation through mediation; the other is not to problem solve, but a preference to cope rather than confront and change the problem (Song, 1999). When Koreans hurt another or have conflict with another, they try to get understanding of the other by knowing the other’s mind, and recognizing that their behavior is different from their original mind and intention. Their mind is focused on improvement of the relationship rather than rupture of the relationship. According to circumstances, a Korean can be satisfied with the other’s empathetic acceptance about their mind.

4. Communication method

In Korea or an oriental culture, communication seems to be indirect, and lays stress on non-verbal communication. (Kim, 1998). Koreans expect others to almost read their mind, rather than express their mind clearly (Choi & Kim, 1999). Minds need not only to be expressed by verbal, but also communicated by face, and posture. ‘Quick wittedness’ is one of the Korean psychological mechanisms that is developed in the culture which regards reading the other’s psychology as important (Choi, 1997). But it is not easy to read another’s unexpressive mind. Besides, it would be possible to misunderstand. So, misunderstanding and misunderstanding of intentionality and information often occur to Koreans (Choi & Kim, 1999).

5. Attitudes towards therapists

In Korea, clients expect therapists’ authority and want to be familiar with therapists. Sometimes clients would expect a therapist to be like a family member. Therapists would take an authoritative father role and family members would take a child role. Most Koreans would feel easy in upper-lower relationships with therapists (Kim, 1998). However, the attitude of unconditional dependency of clients on the therapist, caused by upper and lower relationship patterns, should not be depicted as immature. Such an attitude implies the full trust from clients to therapists (Song, 2000b). Choi & Kim (1999), who developed the Shimcheong (mind and emotion) therapy for Koreans, suggest that clients should feel a We-ness-Cheong relationship with the therapist. We-ness would be made when we feel cheong, and Cheong would be begun by holding a person dear. When we feel cheong, the other becomes We (Choi, 1997).

III. Application of Choice theory and Reality therapy from the perspective of Korean culture

1. Family structure & family function

Generally, family structure in Korea became a nuclear family, but concepts of the family would be different from western society. Husband and wife show a double emphasis between outer structure and child caring. Although family relationships seem to be important to Koreans, increasing divorce rate, change of characteristics of mother-in-law & daughter-in-law relationships, and the expanding of relationships with the mother’s native families show us that women power & individualism became stronger. Considering the family life cycle, the parent-child relationship remained interdependent. Consequently, characteristics of modern Korean families would be different from western culture. Traditional values would be mixed with western values, so there would be much confusion. Thus, it is not proper that family therapy theories based in western society are used with modern Korean families. It is necessary to develop an active empowerment intervention that strengthens the capability of the client as a creative initiator of change, not limiting the perspective to the adjustment of the family, or the family members to the society. Therefore, two perspectives would be considered for Korea. 1) Although it may vary by individual and by family, Koreans may find it rather easier to accept “integrity” as a symbol of maturity rather than “self-differentiation”. Tamura & Lan (1992) suggested that, in cultures stressing integration with other family members & good relationships, problems seem to be caused by integration rather than differentiation (Lee, 1998, 2000). 2) Because individualism and collectivism which have been used widely for explaining differences between cultures since the 1980’s are sociological concepts, so relatedness and separateness which are psychological concepts would be suggested. To modern Koreans, it would be suggested that alternative culture patterns, both relatedness & separateness are fulfilled. Kagitcibasi (1990) did not accept change from a non-western family pattern to a western family pattern. From a point of view that the independence of the American family was only a myth. Kagitcibasi described that theoretical premises and concepts about functional families would not be equally applicable to every culture. (Kim, J. S., 1998). Not only does Korea use interdependence of traditional collectivism as a resource, but also the autonomy of family members needs to be fulfilled. Our lives are a continual struggle to gain control in a way that we satisfy our needs and not deprive those around us, especially those close to us, of satisfying theirs. So whether we engage in national wars or personal wars, human beings have only one avenue, negotiation and compromise through which to work out a way to live in harmony. (Glasser, 1984). Thus the concept of integration and fulfilling both relatedness & autonomy are made concrete by a choice theory framework.
2. Human relationship pattern

In modern Korea, individualism has been expanded, but still Koreans regard relationships, especially family relationships as important. Koreans seem to divide human relationships in two, that is ‘We’ or ‘others’. For Koreans, ‘We-ness’ means ‘Being one’ and ‘We-ness’ is originated in family relationships. Koreans regard ‘We-ness’ relationships among group members as important, rather than goals of group. Thus, Koreans regard harmonious behaviors in ‘We’ group as important, rather than justness, ideology, or the improvement of behaviors itself (Choi, 1997).

In Choice theory, the most important need is love and belonging, as closeness and connectedness with the people we care about is a requisite for satisfying all of the needs. Therefore, a choice theory axiom: ‘Is what I am doing getting me closer to the people I need?’ is suitable for characteristics of Korean psychology. Accordingly, when exploring the client’s wants, the larger systems of family and community should be taken into consideration. The client may be encouraged to consider the views of others in the self-evaluation process, and the plan may even involve changing the client’s total behavior in order to meet the collective expectations (Cunningham, 1995).

3. Problem solving method

Koreans would rather endure than probe and eliminate the reason for a problem. Koreans interpret behavior as expressing of mind, not itself. If the problem were in behavior, one could not reinterpret because behavior is clear and unchangeable evidence. Since a mind is not clear in pattern and evidence, there are various problem solutions according to ways of giving meaning and interpreting (Choi & Kim, 1999). Reality therapists focus on client’s behaviors, and let clients recognize that they are responsible for their behaviors, and clients can only change themselves. So, reality therapists don’t focus on the reason for a problem. That is similar to the Korean problem solving method. According to choice theory, total behavior is always our best attempt to get what we want. So a reality therapist can allow a client to recognize the other’s quality world or basic needs rather than the other’s behavior itself. That is suitable for Koreans who regard the mind as more important than behavior itself.

On the other hand, considering that Koreans satisfy others’ empathetic acceptance about their mind. Rogers’ client-centered therapy seems to be also suitable to Koreans. Choi & Kim (1999) suggest shimcheong (mind & emotion) therapy for Koreans. They have tried to build a model for counseling and psychotherapy which is efficient for Koreans and suitable for therapy for Koreans. Shimcheong therapy is active intervention that respects and reinterprets problems in the new views above, with simple empathic reflecting on the client. That is like reality therapy which allows clients to choose their perception.

4. Communication method

A Korean’s communication method would be indirect, Koreans would not express verbally, but expect the other to know their mind. So quick-wittedness was developed, but misunderstandings would happen. The emphasis on questioning sets Reality Therapy apart from most other methods (Wubbolding, 1988). However, the use of many direct questions may be offensive to the client according to culture. So Wubbolding (2000) suggests, in Korea and Japan, “What are you looking for?” is a more gentle way of inquiring than “What do you want?”, “What do you want from me, your therapist?” might be better stated. “What would you like to have happen today that is different from what has happened before?” “How hard do you want to work at solving the problem?” becomes “What would happen to your life if you decided to do things differently?”

IV. Conclusion

Choice theory is based on a psychological theory of brain functioning that applies to all human beings over time and across cultures (Wubbolding, 2000). So applying choice theory and reality therapy to Korea seems not to be influenced much by Korean culture.

Considering cultural characteristics of modern Korea, choice theory and reality therapy seem to be applicable as follows. First, considering family structure & function in modern Korea, it is not suitable to apply to a Korean family the concepts of functional family based to western society. The concept of ‘integration’ and the family pattern in industrialized collectivism society (Wherein both relatedness and autonomy are respected) are congruent with the goals of reality therapy. Choice theory gives shape to that. Second, human relationships in Korea, stressing ‘We-ness’, is congruent with a choice theory axiom focusing on relationships. Third, the problem solving method of Koreans, that regards understanding of mind rather than grasping for the reason for the problem, is proper with choice theory and reality therapy, because choice theory and reality therapy focus on the problem now rather than the reason for the problem, and suggest many flexible methods in addition to simple problem solving. Fourth, to Koreans accepting the authority of therapist, reality therapy in which therapist intervenes actively is proper.

On the other hand, there are some considerations when choice theory and reality theory is applied to Koreans. First, when Koreans solve problems, they would expect the other’s empathetic acceptance. So a Korean client’s expectation from a therapist would be only empathic acceptance. Therefore, reality therapists have to empathize with a Korean client fully for maintaining a relationship. It is desirable to use supporting systems, including family or relatives. Reality therapists help clients to self-evaluate wants, behaviors, and perceptions, and choose and control their life effectively.

Second, considering indirect communication methods in Korea, more indirect questioning of clients is suggested. Third, when clients show a Korean’s characteristic socio-psycho behaviors (formal words and deeds, face-saving behavior, quick-wittedness), reality therapists need to understand those behaviors and use them to be familiar with clients. Users of choice theory and reality therapy are advised to examine their own attitudes, knowledge, and skills with a view to learning more about how other cultures impact the quality worlds, perceptions, and behaviors of individuals (Wubbolding et al, 1998).

Lastly, I will try to discuss choice theory itself and the future of choice theory and reality therapy in Korea.
According to choice theory and reality therapy, people try to fulfill their basic needs. So a plan should be to get unconditional self-esteem. Koreans regard face-saving as important and feel comfortable in 'We' group, and are happy when others give them Cheong. So, especially recognition from others is the core factor of the value of a Korean's existence (Choi, 1997). Thus Koreans would suffer from the lack of recognition from others. So, I suggest evaluation of quality world and change of thinking within total behavior.

Marriage & family therapy using reality therapy was introduced by Wubbolding (1988). Recently, Glasser (1998) suggested structured reality therapy marriage counseling. Mickel & Liddie-Hamilton (1996) stated that choice theory would be an effective practice model that clarifies and concretizes social constructivism. Nichols and Schwartz (1995) assert “choice theory asserts that reality doesn't exist ‘out there', but instead is a mental construction of the observer”. Thus, perception is reality, and this is a basic tenet of choice theory. As mentioned above, it is a common view that choice theory is a basic framework of reference for marriage and family therapy using reality therapy. Thus, this article dealt with the application of choice theory and reality therapy to Koreans in view of characteristics of Korean modern culture. Our task of the future would be to develop marriage and family therapy further using choice theory and reality therapy suitable for Korea.

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The Effect of Internal Control and Achievement Motivation in Group Counseling Based on Reality Therapy

Rose-Inza, Kim
Mi Gu, Hwang

The first author is Professor of Counseling Psychology and the second author is a graduate student, both at Sogang University in Seoul, Korea

ABSTRACT

This report describes the results of a study of the effectiveness of a group counseling program based on CT/RT on the development of internal control and achievement motivation among a group of middle school girls in Korea. First reported five years ago, this presents original data with a one-year follow-up analysis included.

INTRODUCTION

The aim of this research was to investigate whether students can develop as a part of their living pattern a sense of responsibility, cooperation, and expression and sensitivity towards the feeling of others.

William Glasser emphasizes that individuals must possess a sense of responsibility. According to his theory, everyone requires 5 Basic Needs. He argues in his choice theory that human beings are able to feel happiness when they can control themselves and believe that they are in charge of their lives.

Based on the program developed by Carleen Floyd, the group program named “The Quality World Activity Kit” was administered. To apply this program effectively, Prof. Kim In Ja of Sogang University recreated the program to adapt to Korean youth culture, called “Making The World I Want”.

The program “Making the World I Want” was tested on a group of students to investigate whether or not significant change occurred in internal control and motivation for achievement.

This program was administered to middle school girls for 8 weeks, from September to November of 1995. A follow-up test took place in September of 1996.

In administering this program, we wanted to find out whether they can develop their internal control and increase their achievement motivations. A strong sense of internal control is said to drive one to make stronger efforts to improve one’s quality of life rather than merely depending on fate or luck. It is emphasized that achievement motivation leads human beings to make long-term plans for their future, to foster desires towards establishing a goal, and to feel satisfaction in solving problems.

Working on this project, we hypothesized that the program “Making the world I want” would be very helpful for students in improving their internal control and achievement motivation. This program was administered to 23 middle school girls in Seoul. The students were divided into two groups: one was the experimental group and the other was the control group.

For an analytical comparison, we administered the program “Making the world I want” to the experimental group while applying just the usual reading program to the control group. In order to evaluate the internal control of the subjects, the test sheet of the Rotter Scale (1966) was used. For the achievement motivation, the test sheet of Herman (1970) was used. The t-test was used to examine the differences between the pretest, post-test, and the follow-up test.

The program consisted of 15 different sequential sessions. For a better understanding of the program, we would like to briefly explain each session.

Session 1 was labeled as “How are we all alike and how are we different?” In this session, we explained to the students Glasser’s Five Basic Needs, which are love or belonging, achievement, freedom, fun, and survival.

The topic of Session 2 was “How much of what you need do you already have?” The main purpose of this session was to make students express how, when, and where they feel satisfied with the five basic needs.

The topic of Session 3 was “How can you help yourself get what you really need?” In this session, we helped students find out how their five basic needs were satisfied. And we made them plan how they can become more satisfied with the five basic needs.

Session 4 was labeled as “What do you do to get what you need?” In this session, we explained about Glasser’s “Total Behavior Car” to the students. Then, we helped them choose their own behaviors, encouraging them to be positive and to evaluate their self-control abilities.

Session 5 was “What’s it like when you don’t get what you want?” which was designed to help the students understand the differences between a Quality world and the Real world.

Session 6 was “Is your road taking you where you want to go?” Its goal was to help students understand how to drive their “Total Behavior Car”.

Session 7 was “Do you have a road-map for your car of life to follow?” Planning how to drive the “Total Behavior Car” towards the desired direction was the aim of this session. It made the students consider whether their “Want”, which Glasser called Quality World, was attainable or not. Here, the planning had to be simple, immediate, specific and genuine.

Session 8, “Do you ever make excuses when you don’t do what you said you would do?” helped students realize that making excuses is not the way to achieve what they want.

Session 9, “Is the picture in your quality world a realistic one?” asked the students to draw mental picture albums and
to consider whether those were attainable or not. "Are one's perceptions of his Perceived World and Quality World pictures in good balance?" was the key question asked.

Session 10, "How do you know if you're happy or not?" enabled the students to decide which were good decisions for their satisfactions and to distinguish if they were satisfied with their "Want". It also asked when they were truly satisfied. In sum, this session helped them to move towards the reality and to explore other possibilities.

Session 11, "Who is in the driver's seat of your total behavior car?" helped the subjects realize that they were the ones possessing the ability to control themselves.

Session 12 was labeled, "What will destroy friendships more than anything else?" It made the students think about friendships and their feelings when they were being criticized. Thus, it made them think about how they should act towards others.

Session 13, "What if your Quality World picture doesn't match with another person's picture?" made the students consider situations where conflicts were present. It was emphasized that they needed to understand the 5 basic needs because conflicts usually came about as the result of the differences in the perception of needs.

Session 14, "What do you want that you don't have?" was aimed at giving the students an understanding of the goal of life. Hence, it made them think about what to do to attain their goals.

Session 15, "How can you solve a problem and get what you want?" taught the students how to plan through WDEP (Want, Doing, Evaluation, Planning). It was emphasized that they should plan in ways in which they do not interfere with others' desires.

This program was focused mainly on the action wheel of the "Total Behavior Car". Both the individual and the group activities have been completed by the students, for all of which they received positive feedbacks from the experimenters.

The following is the list of hypotheses we examined through this experimental study.

Hypothesis 1. The experimental group will show a significant increase in internal control after the administration of the eight-week RT group program compared with the control group.

Hypothesis 2. The experimental group will show a significant increase in achievement motivation after the administration of the eight-week RT group program compared with the control group.

Hypothesis 3. The internal control and achievement motivation will show a significantly high positive correlation among the subject in the experimental condition after the administration of the group program.

Hypothesis 4. The effect of increased internal control will be sustained in the experimental group 1 year after the administration of the group program, while no such effect will be observed in the control group.

Hypothesis 5. The effect of increased achievement motivation will be sustained in the experimental group 1 year after the administration of the group program, while no such effect will be observed in the control group.

In order to verify the first hypothesis, the Internal-control power of the experimental group and the control group was measured prior to and after the administration of the program. The result of the comparison obtained through t-test is provided in Table 1. It is evident that the experimental group showed a significant increase (p<.05) in Internal-control power during the eight-week program.

Table 1 Between groups comparison of Internal-control effect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>controlled group (n=12)</th>
<th>experimental group (n=11)</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>2.52*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to verify the second hypothesis, the achievement motivation of the experimental group and the control group was measured prior to and after the administration of the program and the result of the t-test is provided in Table 2. As the result of the analysis, it was observed that the experimental group showed a significant increase (p<.001) in achievement motivation in the course of the eight-week program.

Table 2 Between groups comparison of Achievement motivation effect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>controlled group (n=12)</th>
<th>experimental group (n=11)</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>26.07***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p<.001

To verify the third hypothesis, the correlation matrix between Internal-control and achievement motivation was obtained from the total sample of subjects, and the results are shown in Table 3. A significant correlation between Internal control and achievement motivation is shown in both groups. It is quite evident that an increase in internal control during the eight weeks of program is accompanied by an increase in achievement motivation. This strongly suggests that the short-term effect of increased internal control may act as a very significant factor in increasing achievement motivation.

Table 3 Total sample correlation matrix of Internal-control and Achievement motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Internal-pre</th>
<th>Internal-post</th>
<th>Ach.-pre</th>
<th>Ach.-post</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internal-pre</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal-post</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ach.-pre</td>
<td>.55*</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ach.-post</td>
<td>-.06*</td>
<td>.56*</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.01

n = 23
The fourth hypothesis was tested by comparing the post test and the follow up test. The result of the t-test is provided by Table 4. Within experimental group comparison of Internal-control power measured at the two different time periods did not yield any significant difference, suggesting that the increased Internal-control effect may extend to 1 year after the administration of the program. The extent to which teenagers possess the sense of internal-control determines their attitudes toward education, efforts, self-perception, life perspective, achievement, and superstitions beliefs. Thus, it is arguably very important to increase the Internal-control during the teenage period and this program can serve to effectively increase internal-control power of middle school girls for a long period of time.

Table 4 Experimental group comparison of Internal-control between post test and follow up test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>post-test</th>
<th>follow up test</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>11.91</td>
<td>11.27</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n = 11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to verify the fifth hypothesis, the achievement motivation of the experimental group was measured in the post test and the follow up test. The result of the t-test is provided by Table 5. As the result of the analysis, it was observed that the experimental group showed a significant difference (p<.001) in achievement motivation after 1 year of the program. Since achievement motivation decreased significantly after 1 year of the administration of the program, achievement motivation does not seem to be a long-term effect. In other words, the maintenance of high Internal-control does not seem to contribute to maintaining of high level of achievement motivation. Since the short term effect of increased achievement motivation cannot be sustained for a prolonged period of time, continuous administration of follow-up programs is therefore necessary.

Table 5 Experimental group comparison of Achievement motivation measured between post test and follow up test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>post-test</th>
<th>follow up test</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>7.09</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>25.27***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to verify the fifth hypothesis, the achievement motivation of the experimental group was measured in the post test and the follow up test. The result of the t-test is provided by Table 5. As the result of the analysis, it was observed that the experimental group showed a significant difference (p<.001) in achievement motivation after 1 year of the program. Since achievement motivation decreased significantly after 1 year of the administration of the program, achievement motivation does not seem to be a long-term effect. In other words, the maintenance of high Internal-control does not seem to contribute to maintaining of high level of achievement motivation. Since the short term effect of increased achievement motivation cannot be sustained for a prolonged period of time, continuous administration of follow-up programs is therefore necessary.

Figure 1 and Figure 2 compares the means of internal control and achievement motivation measured during the pre-test, post-test, and the follow up test.

As the above results clearly demonstrate, the group program "Making the world I want" proves to be one of the most effective programs for middle school girls.

The results of the self-evaluation reported by the participants upon the completion of the group program are as follows:

To the first question, "What have you attained through this program?" they answered: 1) I improved assertiveness skill in front of audience and my personality became better, 2) I enjoyed cooperating with others, 3) I realized what I should do to improve my life.

To the second question, "What have you especially learned through the group study - the role play and the video program?", they answered: 1) I realized that I am in charge of myself and of fulfilling my needs, 2) It was good to have time to think about my good performance in the group activity, 3) I have learned a lot about listening and speaking skills and my choice options. I have learned about the needs of the group.

To the third question, "How will you apply to your real life what you have learned from the group?" they answered: 1) I will do my best, I will keep the promise I made, 2) Before whatever I do, I will think first and will apply what I have learned, 3) I will express myself whenever I have a chance.

To the fourth question, "What part especially did you do well in group work?" they answered: 1) Explaining about needs, I had a good participation, 2) I had a good presentation in group activity, 3) Getting along better with friends.

To the fifth question, "In your thought, what should you especially do well in the future?" they answered: 1) More active participation, 2) I should make good decisions by my own choice, 3) Making more efforts on cooperation.
Administration of this program influenced the middle school girl participants in the following ways: First, by applying the RT program, they improved their internal control. We therefore believe that RT programs can help them develop their own decision making strategies rather than depending on fate in seeking their success. As William Glasser pointed out, when one possesses the sense of control of one's own life, he is able to make important decisions on his own and be responsible for his choice. Hence, increased sense of internal control that can be gained through this program may help teenagers to become content and satisfied.

Second, it was observed that as this program improved the level of their achievement motivation, they put more positive efforts on the given tasks. However, since the increased level of achievement motivation gained in the course of the program was not sustained for a prolonged period of time, further development and research on the content of this program are deemed necessary to amend such shortcomings.

Third, by attending this group program, the students made improvements on their communication skills in front of people, and their ability to understand others' feelings showed improvements as well.

This program also helped the students to make decisions by themselves and to carry out their own responsibilities. Even if not all of them showed positive attitudes, as a group they showed changes toward a positive direction which could not be quantified through any written tests. In short, they seemed to enjoy the eight weeks, which at least meant that they had fulfilled one of the 5 basic needs, i.e., fun need.

It is emphasized that the counselors who instruct this program should be trained in RT training. Because in an RT program, the effectiveness of the counselor is largely determined by his ability to place himself in the clients' Quality World, his responsible and trustworthy image becomes crucial to the success of the program.

Working on this program, we have identified the following methodological problems.

First, it was not easy to control the control group. Many environmental and experimental factors were by nature difficult, if not impossible, to control.

Second, only twenty three students were randomly selected from one school. The results of this experiment, therefore, should be carefully interpreted before further research evidences are advanced.

Concluding our paper, we wish this program could be more widely administered so that more students could attend this program. Those fortunate enough to do so may develop a stronger sense of responsibility concerning their choice and may also be better able to obtain their own desires and needs without interfering with others' wants.
Research on Reality Therapy in Korea

The following are a series of abstracts of research done at several universities in Korea on reality therapy. These studies were done by a number of different individuals.

I. The following studies were done in the Counseling Psychology program in the Graduate School of Education at SOGANG University in South Korea.
   a) Kim, Kyung Sook
   b) Kim, Myung Sin
   c) Hee Sue, Kim
   d) Song, Jung Eun
   e) Mi Hye, Lee
   f) Il Ho, Nam

II. The following studies were done in the Counseling Psychology program in the Graduate School of Education at HANKUK University of Foreign Studies in South Korea.
   g) Jang, Ae Jung
   h) Lee, Sok Ki

III. The following study was done in the School Counseling program in the Graduate School of Education at HANKUK University of Foreign Studies in South Korea.
   i) Kim, Young Hwa

IV. The following study was done in the Educational Psychology program in the Graduate School of Education at EWHA Women’s University in South Korea.
   j) Seok, Young Mi

V. The following study was done in the Department of Education Graduate School at SUNG KYUN Kwan University in South Korea.
   k) Chung, Soon Rye

VI. The following study was done in the Department of Social Work Graduate School at YONSEI University in South Korea
   l) Aeryung Woo

VII. The following study was done in the Counseling Psychology program in the Graduate School of Education of HANYANG University in South Korea.
   m) Me-Young, Kang

VIII. The following study was done in the Counseling Psychology program in the Graduate School of Education of ULSAN University in South Korea.
   n) Soonup Kim

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The Effect of Group Reality Therapy on Self-Esteem and Personality Traits of Primary Students

Kim, Kyung Sook

A brief report of an RT group program with elementary school children.

The aim of this study was to investigate how much group reality therapy could effect the self-esteem and personality traits of primary students, and to offer useful materials for development of group counseling programs in the future.

The hypotheses were as follows:

[Hypothesis 1] After the group reality therapy, the self-esteem of the experimental group children will show a significantly higher level than the control group children.

[Hypothesis 2-1] After the group reality therapy, the emotional stability of the experimental group children will show a significantly higher level than the control group children.

[Hypothesis 2-2] After the group reality therapy, the general activity of the experimental group children will show a significantly higher level than the control group children.

[Hypothesis 2-3] After the group reality therapy, responsibility of the experimental group children will show a significantly higher level than the control group children.

[Hypothesis 2-4] After the group reality therapy, the depression of the experimental group children will reduce significantly more than the control group children.

[Hypothesis 2-5] After the group reality therapy, the anxiety of the experimental group children will reduce significantly more than the control group children.

The study was composed of 23 students (the experimental group 11 students, the control group 12 students) who were volunteers among the fifth year girl students at the Y primary school in In-Chon.

Both groups were treated ten times. The experimental group was exposed to ‘I Am Learning To Be Happy’ - which
The Effects of a Reality Therapy Program on Locus of Control and Responsibility of Elementary School Children

Kim, Myung Sin

A brief report of an RT program with elementary school children.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of a reality therapy program on both internal locus of control and responsibility of elementary school children.

The hypotheses were as follows:

[Hypothesis I] The children who had the reality therapy program would show a significantly higher level of internal locus of control than those who didn't have the reality therapy program.

[Hypothesis II] The children who had the reality therapy program would show a significantly higher level of responsibility than those who didn't have the reality therapy program.

The subjects were 24 children who volunteered to attend this study, 12 children of whom belonged to the experimental group and the rest were regarded as the control group.

The children in the experimental group took part in the reality therapy program 10 times for 5 weeks, while the children in the control group had reading time for the same period.

The instruments used for this study were the Internal-External Scale developed by Nowicki & Strickland (1973) adapted by Kim Hi-cheon (1987), and a personality inventory developed by Lee Sang-ro, Pyun Chang-jin and Jin Wee-kyo (1989).

The Pretest-Postest design was used for both groups to measure the effectiveness of this program.

The results were as follows:

First, the internal locus of control of the children who had the reality therapy program increased significantly more than that of those who didn't have the reality therapy program.

Second, the responsibility of the children who had the reality therapy program increased significantly more than those who didn't have the reality therapy program.

As a conclusion, the reality therapy program proved to be effective for increasing internal locus of control and responsibility of elementary school children.

A Study of the Effect of Group Reality Therapy According to Gender Variables

Hee Sue, Kim

A brief report of an RT group with middle school students.

The aim of this study was to examine how much group reality therapy could effect internal control and self-esteem, and to offer useful materials for the development of a group counseling program.

The subjects of this study were middle school students living in KangBuk, Seoul. They were divided into two major groups: three experimental groups and three control groups. Y•Q•M•T (Youth Quality Management Program) was performed on the formal groups, and self-study on the latter. To examine the effects of group reality therapy according to gender, we placed 11 middle school boys, 10 middle school girls, 12 heterosexual middle school students in the experimental groups, 11 middle school boys, 10 middle school girls, 12 heterosexual middle school students in the control groups, The period of the performance was 8 weeks from April 1996 to July 1996 (two hours a week).

This study was intended to examine four hypotheses; First, the experimental groups that were offered the group program would significantly increase scores on the internal
control scale more than the control groups. Second, in the experimental groups, the scores on the internal control scale would differ according to heterosexual group, middle school girls group, middle school boys group. Third, the experimental groups that were offered the group program would significantly increase self-esteem scores more than the control groups. Fourth, for the experimental groups, the self-esteem scale scores would differ according to heterosexual group, middle school girls group, middle school boys group.

The checking tools used in this survey were personal workbooks "Making the world I want", "Internal-External Control Scale" produced by Rotter (1966), and the "Self Esteem Questionnaire" made by Rosenberg (1965).

The results are as follows; First, the internal control scale of the experimental groups increased more than the control groups. Second, in these experimental groups, the internal control scale scores increased for all, ranked according to middle school girls group, heterosexual group and middle school boys group.

The following are the results of self-evaluation reports written by the participants of the experimental group after the group program. This program helped them to plan their future more concretely than before joining this program. They perceived their living in a group newly as a result. Especially, they said that they were satisfied sufficiently with group work in this program and involvement activities. The majority of the participants showed their satisfaction about their basic five needs, such as love & belonging, power, freedom, fun and survival.

A brief report of an RT group program with unemployed youth.

If an individual's ego concept is proper and affirmative, he/she can plan a self-development of himself/herself. First of all, however, he/she must have a correct perception and self-respect for self-development.

This study approached this critical mind on the basis of theoretical resources about variables of ego concept and the Reality Therapy counseling programs presented by some scholars.

The purpose of this study was to analyze the correlation between an ego concept of unemployed youth who do not enter a higher school with the "Making the world I want" translated by Rose Kim.

This analysis examined the importance of the "Making the world I want" program based on Reality Therapy and find a clue to develop an efficient program of group counseling.

In light of the objectives of this study, the hypothesis that was examined was as follows:

"An experimental group that experiences the program of Reality Therapy becomes significantly higher than a control group in ego concept."

The results of analysis are as follows. First, in the case of the experimental group, a statistical significance between pre-test and post-test on total scores of self-affirmation indicated the effect of the Reality Therapy program upon an ego concept.

Second, we found significant differences in time of comparison between the experimental group and control group. According to the results, we can find the positive effect of the Reality Therapy program upon changes in ego concept.

Third, there were significant differences in total scores of self-affirmation on each sub-domain in the event of T-Test scores to the Quantitative increase of the experimental group and control group respectively. In other words, it is true that the experimental group was higher than the control group on the basis of T-Test scores.

Fourth, as a result of this investigation, an individual ego concept has an important effect upon other variables of that person.

Because an individual’s ego concept is formed from the cradle to the grave as a consistent factor, the concept is difficult to change quickly. Accordingly we can find positive results in taking aim at a short-run process of a training group, but it is necessary to investigate further the long-term effects.
The Effect of Group Reality Therapy on Internal Control and Self-Esteem

Mi Hye, Lee

A brief report of the effects of an RT group with female juveniles in a shelter.

The aim of this study was to examine how much group reality therapy could affect the internal control and self-esteem of protected juveniles in a shelter, and to offer useful materials for the development of a group counseling program.

The subjects of this study were 29 girls living in two shelters in Seoul. They go to middle school or high school. They were divided into two groups: the experimental group and the control group. The period of the performance was 8 weeks from October 1996 to September 1996 (two hours a week). The checking tools used in this study were personal workbooks, “Internal-External Control Scale” produced by Rotter, “Self Esteem Questionnaire” made by Rosenberg, and “S • E • Q (Session Evaluation Questionnaire)” made by Stiles.

This study was intended to examine three hypotheses. First, the experimental group offered the group program would increase scores on the internal control scale significantly more than the control group. Second, the experimental group would increase self-esteem significantly more than the control group. Third, participants in the experimental group would evaluate the effects of the group reality therapy differently according to their own internal-external scale scores.

The internal-external control scale and self esteem inventory were given to both groups. The different points between the pre test and post test were verified by using t-test.

S • E • Q also was given as follows: First, the participants in the experimental group were divided into two groups on the basis of the median of the internal-external control scale. The different points between the first session and the final session in two groups were verified by using t-test.

The results in the statistics were as follows; First, the internal control scale of the experimental group offered the program, “Making the world I want”, didn’t increase more than in the control group. Second, the self-esteem in the experimental group increased significantly more than in the control group. Third, the participants in the experimental group divided into two on the basis of the median of the pre internal-external control scale didn’t evaluate differently the effect of the group reality therapy.

The following are the results of self-evaluation reports written by the participants of the experimental group after the group program. This program helped them to plan their future more concretely than before joining this program. They perceived their living in a group newly as a result. They felt affection with their colleagues and the shelter itself more deeply. Especially, they said that they were satisfied sufficiently with the group work in this program and the involvement activities. The majority of the participants showed their satisfaction about their basic five needs, such as love and belonging, power, freedom, fun, and survival.

The effect of a Reality Therapy program on Reduction of college students’ anxiety

Il Ho, Nam

A brief report of an RT program with college students.

This study was aimed at developing a program applying Reality Therapy through which anxiety for healthy college life and future planning could be reduced.

Based on various theoretical and experiential research, the hypotheses of this study were as follows.

First, after the Reality Therapy program, the total anxiety level of subjects will be significantly reduced.

Second, after the Reality Therapy program, the effect of anxiety-reduction will be reduced more significantly in the high-level anxiety group than in low-level anxiety group.

Third, after the Reality Therapy program, the effect of anxiety-reduction will be reduced more significantly in male subjects than in female subjects.

To examine the above hypotheses, 36 undergraduates participated in a Reality Therapy program which was developed based on Glasser’s (1986) control theory.

The conclusions obtained from the results of this study were as follows:

First, the Reality Therapy program based on control theory was efficient in reducing anxiety.

Second, the Reality Therapy program based on control theory was more effective in the high-level anxiety group than in the low-level anxiety group.

Third, the Reality Therapy program based on control theory was more effective with male undergraduates than with female undergraduates.
Adjustment-Reinforcement of Boys in the Middle School through Reality Therapy

Jang, Ae Jung

A brief report of an RT group Counseling program geared for middle school boys.

This study aimed at developing a group counseling program based on Reality therapy, and at investigating the effect of the program when it was applied to Middle School boys.

The goals of this group counseling program were as follows:
1. To change from Failure Identity to Success Identity.
2. To built a responsible activity plan.
3. To commit oneself to perform the responsible activity.

The working hypothesis was:
The experimental group will change more positively than the control group in 11 adjustment factors.

The Adjustment Diagnosis Test was used to test the above hypothesis.

The number of subjects were 14 boys, evenly split and randomly assigned to the experimental group and the control group.

The experimental group took part in a group counseling program 8 times for 4 weeks, while the control group had no program for the same period.

Also, both groups were tested before and after the group counseling program with the Adjustment Diagnosis Test.

The results examined after the post-test showed meaningful differences between the experimental group and control group.

The maladjustment of the experimental group lessened while that of control group remained high.

The major cause of good results obtained in the experimental group seem to be as follows:
1. A student cultivated a successful identity through warm and deep involvement with those close to himself.
2. He acquired his goals through self check of his present behavior and plan.
3. At the same time, he recognized himself as a strong and potential identity enough to cope with maladjustment.

After the group counseling program, the experimental group changed more positively than the control group; the test scores were meaningful statistically.

In conclusion, the application of the group counseling program based on reality therapy proved to be effective for Adjustment-Reinforcement in a Middle School.

A study on a counseling program for Decrease of Aggression through Reality Therapy

Lee, Sok Ki

A brief report of a counseling program based on reality therapy with a group of aggressive high school students.

This study aimed at developing a counseling program aimed at decreasing Aggression through Reality Therapy, and applying this program to the Youth Association and the school.

The research questions were as follows.
1. In the Aggression test of the experimental group to which the reality therapy was applied, how will the difference between pre-test and post-test change?
2. How much will the experimental group change in aggression in comparison with the control group?
3. Will the responsibility of the experimental group increase in comparison with that of the control group?

Reality therapy has been used to get rid of abnormal behavior and for misdemeanor counseling since first introduced in 1965.

The number of subjects were 16 students who were identified for misdemeanor by the student guidance teacher in the school. Half of the subjects were randomly assigned to the experimental group and the other half to the control group. Buss-Durkee (1957)'s test and Antosinyou's test were used to test for Aggression and Responsibility. The experimental group took part in the counseling program 10 times for 5 weeks (twice a week) while the control group had no program over the same period. Both of them took the pre-test and the post-test at the same time. The result of this study shows that this program is very effective in decreasing the tendency of aggression through t-test, and pre and the post test of experimental group. Assault, Indirect aggression, Irritability, Negativism, and Verbal aggression shows statistically significant differences in which those items, above
Increment of Responsibility of Primary School Children through Reality Therapy

Kim, Young Hwa

A brief report of an RT group counseling program for primary school children.

This study aimed at developing a group counseling program based on reality therapy, and at investigating the effect of the program when applied to primary school children.

The author developed a program based on the counseling procedures and techniques for Reality Therapy and used the responsibility observation test and evaluation records as measuring tools.

The number of the subjects were 12 children, of whom half belonged to the experimental and control group, respectively. The experimental group took part in the group counseling program 12 times for 6 weeks, while the control group had no program for the same period. Both of them took the test before and after the program.

As a result of the program, the responsibility of the experimental group was cultivated remarkably. This was found by observing their homework execution and fulfillment of work. The effect became greater as the counseling repeated. This phenomenon is due to the fact that they cultivated the success identity themselves, recognizing their strong points and potential, and that they reached their goal through self-check of their present being and planning.

Another result of the program is that the experimental group got a better responsibility record than the control group after application of the program. The T-test of the responsibility evaluation done for the groups supported the fact. In the responsibility evaluation done by the teachers in charge of children belonging to the experimental group, it was shown that the experimental group came to have remarkably more responsibility than the control group.

In conclusion, the application of the group counseling program turned out to be effective for cultivating responsibility in primary school children.
Reality Therapy for Problem Middle School Students

Seok, Young-Mi

A brief report of an RT group counseling program with middle school students.

This study examined the effectiveness of group counseling using Reality Therapy on self-concept, internal locus of control and attitude about school of problem middle school students, and examined the capability of Reality Therapy for problem middle school students' guidance.

The questions in this study were as follows:

First, Whether group counseling using Reality Therapy significantly improves self-concept?

Second, Whether group counseling using Reality Therapy significantly improves internal locus control?

Third, Whether group counseling using Reality Therapy significantly changes the attitude about school?

32 subjects were enrolled in this study. Each subject was assigned into one of the two groups: treatment group and control group. Only 26 subjects (treatment group 13, control group 13) participated in the group counseling process because of their frequent absences. The treatment group was trained in a group counseling program using Reality Therapy twice a week for four weeks. The group counseling program was originally developed by WOO, ae-ryung (1994). It was modified for middle school students. In contrast, those in control group were not given any training during the same period.

The effectiveness of Group Counseling using Reality Therapy was measured by a Self-Concept Test, a locus of control scale for children by Nowicki & Strickland (1973) and TAMS scale by Whitemore (1974).

The results of this study are as follows:

First, self identity and physical self scores significantly increased in the treatment group. Self identity was significantly increased compared with the control group. However, self behavior and moral self scale decreased in the treatment group compared with the control group.

Second, compared with the control group, the internal locus of control was not significantly increased in the treatment group.

Third, the treatment group's attitude about task and teacher was statistically not significant, but changed positively. Comparing with the control group, the treatment group's attitude about school was not significantly improved. Among the sub-scales, scales of power significantly decreased compared to the control group.

In this study, Group Counseling using Reality Therapy partially had positive results in self-concept. However, internal locus of control & attitude about school were not significantly increased. Through analysis of the group counseling process and evaluation survey, the subjects realized their behaviors' inappropriateness and the necessity for behavior change.

The Effects of three Learning Methods in The Improvement of Students’ Attitudes about Academic Task, School and Academic Achievement

Chung, Soon Rye

A brief report of a study comparing the effects of cooperative, individual, and competitive learning groups composed of junior high school girls.

This study focused on the reconstruction of students' experiences in the academic task, school and academic achievement by the cooperative learning method based on Glasser's Reality Therapy.

Subjects consisted of 147 female students from three classes in a junior high school. Each class (49, 48 and 50 members) was randomly assigned one of three treatments: cooperative, individual and competitive learning groups.

All of the three learning groups studied the same academic task on the same schedule for one semester. Cooperative learning group members were assigned one of small learning teams, consisting of 1 high, 2 average, and 1 low achievers. In this condition, 4 members were instructed to work assignments (worksheets) cooperatively as a group, sharing materials and ideas, helping each other, and ensuring that each member agreed on the answer. At the end of the cooperative work, the answer sheets were scored as group academic achievement scores. Each learning team received the team academic achievement scores. Individual learning groups members were instructed to work alone, not being permitted to help each other with their work. The members in this condition received two individual academic achievement scores, the present score, and a prior score on the consequences of their individual work. Competitive learning group members also were instructed to work alone. This competitive condition was structured to maximize appropriate and effective use of competition. At the end of work, the members received academic achievement scores and grades, being compared with other members’ academic achievement scores.

Attitude tests about academic task and school and academic achievement were administered before and after treatment.

The data were analyzed using a 3 * 3 analysis of covariance and post hoc Duncan test.

Cooperative learning improved students' attitudes about
academic task and academic achievement, but individual and competitive learning did not improve. Cooperative learning, in the improvement of students’ attitudes about school, was more effective than competitive learning but not more than individual learning. Among academic achievement levels of the students, high, average, and low, cooperative, competitive and individual learnings showed no significant differences in the improvement of students’ attitudes about academic task, school and academic achievement. There was no significant effect of interaction among the three kinds of learning methods and of students’ academic achievement levels. Cooperative learning based on Glasser’s Reality Therapy facilitated students’ successful experiences in their academic task, school and academic achievement.

A Developmental Study of a Group Social Work Program Using Reality Therapy

Aeryung Woo

A brief report of a group program using reality therapy with two groups of mothers.

The purpose of this study was to develop a social group work program using Reality Therapy, and to explore the effectiveness of this program. Subjects were two groups of mothers who volunteered to attend this program and who resided in Seoul. One group consisted of 13 mothers of handicapped children and another group consisted of 13 mothers of normal children.

The instruments used to measure the effectiveness of this 8 weeks program were Internal-External Locus of Control by Rotter, Self-Rating Depression scale by Zung, the Self-Esteem Inventory by Coopersmith, and The Ways of Coping Checklist by Folkman and Lazarus.

The Pretest-Posttest design was used for both groups to measure the effectiveness of this program. The results of this research partially support the hypothesis that the group social work program using Reality Therapy is effective in increasing the internal locus of control, self esteem and a program solving approach, and to decrease depression.

First, the Internal Locus of Control was not significantly increased in the group of mothers of handicapped children, but increased significantly in the group of mothers of normal children.

Second, Depression decreased significantly in both groups.

Third, Self-esteem was not significantly increased in the group of mothers of handicapped children, but significantly increased in the group of mothers of normal children.

Fourth, a problem solving approach in coping mechanism increased significantly in the group of mothers of handicapped children, but did not increase significantly in the group of mothers of normal children.

Even though all the hypotheses are not verified, all the test results show the direction supporting the hypotheses. The questionnaires and personal interviews which were given for the purpose of modifying and developing future programs also support the hypotheses.

Based on the above findings, the conclusion of this research is that the group social work program using Reality Therapy is definitely effective in decreasing depression, and is positively effective in increasing the Internal Locus of Control, self-esteem and problem solving approach in coping mechanism.

This research could be meaningful in the following aspects:

First, this is the first attempt to develop a group social work program using Reality Therapy in Korea.

Second, although the effectiveness of this program is not fully verified, there are tendencies to support all the hypotheses in the results.

Third, this program could be applied directly in the social work field by group social workers after appropriate modification is made depending on the level of participants.

Fourth, this research could contribute as a baseline model to study and develop further social group work programs using Reality Therapy.
The effect of an Reality Therapy Quality Couple Program on Internal Control, Self-Esteem and Marital Satisfaction

Me-Young, Kang

A brief report of an RT program with married couples.

The purpose of this study was to help couples to improve their understanding and accepting of each other, to respect each other’s needs, to increase their marital satisfaction, and to enable them to grow as a couple by examining the effect of group reality therapy on internal control scale, self-esteem, and marital satisfaction. In the light of the objectives of this study, the hypotheses were as follows:

First, the internal control scale scores of the experimental group who experienced the Reality Therapy Quality Couple Program would be increased significantly more than the control group.

Second, the self-esteem scores of the experimental group who experienced the Reality Therapy Quality Couple Program would be increased significantly more than the control group.

Third, the marital satisfaction scores of the experimental group who experienced the Reality Therapy Quality Couple Program would be increased significantly more than the control group.

The subjects of this study were ME (Marriage Encounter) couples in Suwon Catholic Diocese. They were divided into two groups: the experimental group and the control group. For the experimental group, the pre and post tests were given while the Reality Therapy Quality Couple Program was provided on 5 sessions, once a week with at least 3 hours each time. The control group had only pre and post tests during the similar time period of the experimental group.

The checking tools used in this study were the “Internal-External Control Scale” produced by Rotter (1966), “Self-Esteem Questionnaire” made by Rosenberg (1965), and “Marital Satisfaction Scale (MSS)” devised by Roach (1975) and restructured by Bowden (1977). Data were analyzed by SPSS and the mean differences in internal control, self-esteem and marital satisfaction were examined by t-test.

The results of this study are as follows:

First, the internal control of the experimental group was significantly increased compared to the control group.

Second, the marital satisfaction of the experimental group was not significantly increased more than the control group.

Third, according to the self-evaluation of the couples who attended this program, they came to understand and accept each other’s needs, to decide autonomously and responsibly, to improve the ability in solving conflicts, and to be able to accept spouses differences not as a fault.

The result of the above is that when the Reality Therapy Quality Couple Program was applied, the hypotheses presented in this study showed partial significance, and the self evaluation of the couples who attended this program also supported those hypotheses. If the self evaluations of the participants, and the qualitative data, are considered important, the Reality Therapy Quality Couple Program resulted in being effective on couples’ internal control, self-esteem, and marital satisfaction.

The Effects of an Reality Therapy Program Applied to Mental Health Clients

Soonup Kim

A brief report of an RT group program with mental health clients.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of a program for mentally disordered clients. The program included a group counseling technique which is based on the theory of reality therapy.

The six subjects were clients of the Ulsan Mental Health Center (a kind of Community Psychiatric Rehabilitation). The program was run twice a week, 8 times as a total. Eight follow-up sessions were held on the same schedule.

The results of the program effects were analyzed by statistical measures and qualitative criteria for each case. The qualitative analysis was focused on an individual’s work sheet, group’s work sheet, questionnaire, and contents of discussion. The pre- and post test analysis of the group program’s effects was done to find any differences in such tests as internal control, self-concept, and meaning of life.

The results observed in this study were as follows;

First, It is difficult to expect any positive effect from a short-term program developed from reality therapy for social adjustment on a schizophrenic’s ability of internal control.

Second, the program was effective in improving four clients’ self-concept.

Third, the program was also effective in improving the meaning of their lives.

Fourth, some positive change and growth of social adjustment could be observed.
As a conclusion, the program was effective in improving some clients' self-concept, meaning of life, and social adjustment. The content analysis in particular showed the program was effective for those clients who were in the course of rehabilitation. Therefore, it might be concluded that when the program is revised to meet the needs of some clients' individual characteristics, there may be remarkable effects on clients' improvement in self-concept, meaning of life, and social adjustment.

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Investigating the role of redirecting awareness in the change process: A case study using the Method of Levels.

Timothy A. Carey

The author is in the Department of Psychology in the University of Queensland, Brisbane, Queensland, Australia.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this investigation was to conduct a preliminary exploration of the effect of redirecting awareness on depressive symptomatology. During the intake interview, the 19 year old female participant described a significant conflict she was currently experiencing. Based on the principles of Perceptual Control Theory, it was hypothesized that if the woman shifted her awareness so that she was able to reflect on the conflict rather than experiencing being in the conflict she would have an opportunity to reorganize the conflict. Four sessions using the Method of Levels were conducted with the result being that the participant’s ratings of depressed mood on standard measures of depression reduced from extremely severe depression to none or minimal depression. These results were maintained at a ten-week follow up.

Investigating the role of redirecting awareness in the change process: A case study using the Method of Levels.

In broad terms, change is perhaps the ultimate goal of a psychotherapeutic intervention. Generally, people initiate contact with therapists or counselors because they would like some aspect of their lives to be different from how it currently is (Follette, Naugle, & Callaghan, 1996). Different therapists use different techniques in order to promote client change, and these techniques are judged according to their efficacy in facilitating change. Some researchers of psychotherapy are interested in identifying those aspects of psychotherapy that are most efficacious in facilitating the change process (e.g., Castonguay, Goldfried, Wiser, Raue, & Hayes, 1996; Oei & Shuttlewood, 1996).

The present study was intended to be a preliminary investigation into a new perspective on change in psychotherapy. This paper will briefly outline the current state of knowledge in change processes and will describe how change might be considered using a different theoretical perspective. It will then describe a treatment program using a technique based on this theory that was used with a young woman who had symptoms of depression. The results of this treatment program are presented, limitations are discussed, some tentative conclusions are drawn and future directions are suggested.

Psychotherapy Currently

Generally, therapists seem to conceptualize change according to the particular theoretical perspective that they subscribe to. Therapists, for example, who understand that an individual’s feelings are created as a result of the cognitions the individual generates would attempt to alter the individual’s cognitions in order to see subsequent changes in the individual’s feelings (Beck, 1995). Alternatively, therapists who believe that a person’s actions were caused by particular needs the person had might spend time assisting individuals to identify more effective ways they might act in order to meet their needs (Glasser, 1965; Wubbolding 2000).

Currently, there has been no clear demonstration of an overall superiority of any particular technique or set of techniques in promoting change in participants during psychotherapy (King, 1999). The present state of psychotherapy seems to be that most techniques are successful some of the time for some people (Gomes-Schwartz, 1978; Oei & Shuttlewood, 1996). Could it be that whenever people experience beneficial effects from therapy the same thing has occurred in each of their heads? For particular problems, some researchers have demonstrated greater efficacy of cognitive-behavior therapy (CBT) techniques in comparison with other treatment protocols (Oei & Shuttlewood, 1996). Other researchers, however, claim that CBT is no more effective than a number of other therapies including Interpersonal Therapy, Brief Psychodynamic Therapy and counseling by social workers (King, 1999).

Perhaps the reason for a lack of overall superiority of any particular technique may be that even though researchers are able to outline with some confidence the factors that are likely to promote change, the change process itself is still not well understood (Cummings, Hallberg, & Slemmon, 1994). Often, the techniques used to bring about change include change as an implicit aspect of the strategy. In CBT, for example, an important aspect of treatment is assisting participants to identify and change dysfunctional cognitions (King, 1999). The way in which participants are to change their dysfunctional cognitions however is not well articulated. Similarly, even though researchers have established that the therapeutic relationship is an important component of successful psychotherapy, the reasons as to why this might be so are still speculative.

Perceptual Control Theory

William T. Powers has developed a theoretical explanation of the activity of living. Perceptual Control Theory (PCT) contends that to live is to control one’s own experiences (Powers, 1973). Controlling one’s own experiences involves the processes of perceiving, comparing, and acting (Powers, 1998). It is outside the scope of this paper to provide a detailed outline of PCT and readers are invited to seek out other sources (e.g., Powers, 1973, 1989, 1992) for more information about this theory.

In order to account for the myriad of experiences that occur during the process of living, Powers (1973) incorporates a hierarchy of perception into his theory. Essentially, the hierarchy explains the difference between the occurrence wearing sunglasses and getting married as differences in perceptual complexity. Wearing sunglasses occurs perhaps as a person controls a particular sensory perception (e.g., light intensity) and marriage occurs as a person controls a particular systemic perception (e.g., being a spouse). The
essential process of controlling an experience (perceiving, comparing, and acting), however, remains the same regardless of the complexity of the perception being controlled.

For the purposes of this paper, two aspects of the perceptual hierarchy are important. First, the perceptual experience at any one level is constructed from lower levels in the hierarchy (except for the lowest level that receives input directly from the environment). Second, information about any difference between what is being experienced and the intended experience is sent to lower levels (Powers, 1973). This signal then sets the intended experience for the lower level. In order to experience oneself as married, for example, one receives perceptual input from lower levels that might have to do with principles such as commitment, monogamy, and joint living arrangements. If the experience of marriage provided by this input is different from the marital experience one would prefer, then signals may be sent to the lower levels requiring different experiences of commitment, monogamy, and joint living arrangements.

The human existence, then, from a PCT perspective, is one of controlling different perceptual experiences. Problems occur for people when two opposing experiences are to be controlled simultaneously. If, for example, a person who likes to have eye contact when he or she talks to another person is engaged in conversation in bright sunlight, he or she might both not want to wear sunglasses and want to wear sunglasses at the same time. Trying to control two opposing experiences simultaneously is described as conflict from a PCT standpoint. According to Powers (1973), conflict between control systems is the fundamental problem for humans. Conflict is problematic because, while two control systems are in conflict, neither system controls satisfactorily. Conflict can be relatively simple as in the case of the sunglasses above or it can be more complex such as a person who wishes to both experience monogamy and sex with different partners. Whether conflict is minor or serious, however, it will probably be the case that while the conflict is occurring, neither experience will be achieved satisfactorily.

Whenever control is chronically unsatisfactory, Powers (1973) proposes that a reorganizing system acts on the hierarchy by altering various aspects of the hierarchy. The result of this reorganization is that individuals are able to control their experiences more effectively. Subjectively the phenomenon of reorganization may be experienced as insight or change. Powers (1973) asserts that awareness is an important aspect of the reorganizing system. Essentially, it is hypothesized that reorganization follows awareness (Pavloski, Barron, & Hogue, 1990; Powers, 1973). When conflict is experienced, part of the problem may be that people who are in conflict are directing their attention to either the incompatible goals or the unpleasant perceptions (perhaps feelings) that result (Carey, 1999). In the relationship example above, individuals may be very aware that they want to experience both monogamy and a varied sex life, and they may also be aware of the detrimental effect that pursuing these two goals probably be the case that while the conflict is occurring, neither experience will be achieved satisfactorily.

Where the two goals are operating (Carey, 1999). When awareness focuses on this higher level, reorganization is able to eliminate the conflict by altering the parameters of the system that is specifying the two incompatible goals.

According to PCT, then, the primary reason that people present for psychotherapeutic treatment is to resolve chronic conflict. Change in this conflict occurs when the reorganizing system is directed to the appropriate perceptual level. From a PCT perspective, therefore, the single most important element of effecting change in psychotherapy may be directing the client’s awareness towards where his or her conflict is being created instead of focusing on the conflict itself. If this is the case then, it may be that whenever any strategy or technique is successful for clients, it is successful because it assisted them in shifting their awareness to a higher perceptual level where reorganization could effect a change. This, however, remains an issue for future research. The remainder of this paper will describe a process of redirecting a person’s awareness to a higher perceptual level and the results that occurred when this process was used with a young woman who was experiencing depressive symptoms.

The hypothesis of this study is that by directing the participant’s awareness to perceptual levels above the level where she currently describes the presenting problem, she will experience reductions in depressive symptomatology as indicated by decreased scores on subsequent administrations of standardized measures of depression.

Method

Participant

The participant in this study was a 19-year-old female who was experiencing difficulties in a number of areas of her life including personal, social, and vocational. The participant was a Caucasian of average intelligence and was engaged. Her fiancé was her first boyfriend. At the time of the study, she was working part time in a supermarket having dropped out of university.

Measures

Self-report measures. Verbal self-reports were obtained from the participant regarding her current life-style. Of particular interest was her level of participation in daily activities and also the degree to which she was engaged in social relationships.

Beck Depression Inventory (BDI). The BDI was completed as a pre and post measure and also at a ten week follow up. The BDI is a widely used self-report instrument that assesses the severity of an individual’s depressed mood. This particular measure of depression was chosen because it has been established as a reliable and valid assessment instrument (Beck, Steer, & Garbin, 1988).

The Depression Anxiety and Stress Scale (DASS-42). The DASS was administered with the BDI at pre, post, and ten-week follow up. The DASS is similar in format to the BDI but provides scores on anxiety and stress as well as depression. The DASS was used to provide collateral information to the BDI with regard to depressive symptomatology and also to provide general measures on other emotional states.
During the intake interview, the BDI and the DASS were administered and ethical considerations such as confidentiality and right to withdraw were discussed. In the course of the interview, the woman described her difficulties as stemming from a desire to gain approval from her family and a simultaneous strong desire to make her own decisions. She described her current situation as problematic because when she made her own decisions, she did things her family disapproved of and when she did things to gain her family’s approval she found herself doing things she didn’t want to do. As a result of the situation the woman outlined, she found herself withdrawing from social activities, her eating and sleeping patterns had changed, she described herself as being constantly on edge and irritable, and she didn’t see any likelihood of the situation changing.

The Method of Levels. The Method of Levels (MOL) is essentially an awareness shifting exercise to resolve internal conflict (Powers, 1992). Using the concept of conflict described above, one of the principles of the MOL is that conflict involves multiple perceptual levels. The task of MOL therapists is not to change clients in any way but to assist clients to direct their attention to higher perceptual levels so that their own mechanism of change (reorganization) can effect any alterations that are necessary.

It is assumed in the MOL that when people are speaking, they are talking from a particular level of perception. From that level of perception one can be aware of lower levels, but one can not be aware of the level that one is in. Thoughts from the level one is in are usually accepted as being those thoughts pertaining to the current conversation. Background thoughts, however, that are generally thoughts about the current conversation are regarded as being thoughts from a higher perceptual level.

In order to be aware of the level one is currently “in”, one must shift one’s attention to a higher level of perception. Phenomenologically, people indicate awareness of higher levels when their flow of dialogue is disrupted. When a person pauses, for example, while describing his or her current daily activities and says “I don’t seem to do very much, do I?” It is assumed that that statement might be made from a perceptual level that is higher than the level that was responsible for providing the descriptions of daily activities. The therapist’s task in this instance would be to assist the client to direct his or her awareness to the level responsible for the evaluative comment of not doing very much.

The therapist might ask the client whether it bothers him or her that he or she doesn’t do very much or might ask him or her to explain what is meant by “very much”. In this way, the therapist attempts to initiate a conversation that was prompted by the comment from a higher level. As the client begins to discuss “not doing very much”, he or she may make another evaluative comment and the therapist would, once again, direct his or her attention to that statement.

Higher levels may also be indicated nonverbally when, for example, people pause in conversation and smile or laugh at something they have said. If this occurred in therapy, the therapist might ask what was going through the client’s mind at the moment that he or she smiled or laughed. Any verbal or nonverbal “interruption” to the flow of the conversation that the client is producing would be considered as a possible sign of a higher level of perception and would be worth asking the client about. If neither verbal nor nonverbal disruptions seem to be occurring, the therapist can simply ask if the client has any background thoughts about what he or she just described.

Essentially, what has been just outlined is the process of MOL in its entirety. The client’s task is simply to begin a conversation about anything that is on his or her mind. The therapist’s task is to become engaged in this conversation, but also to attend to any interruptions such as evaluative comments or changes in actions that may indicate a shift of awareness. When one of these interruptions occur, the therapist’s task is to assist the client to keep his or her awareness at this level. The process concludes when either the therapist decides that an upward direction is not being achieved, or the client indicates in some way that there are no higher perceptual levels for this particular conversation.

The MOL procedure should be explained to clients before it begins. For many clients, it will seem like an unusual conversation and they may feel at times that the therapist is not really listening to them. Also, some clients may feel their current problem is so compelling that they do not wish to discuss other matters. Finally, when reorganization occurs, clients may experience that for a period of time, their ability to control actually deteriorates even further as the reorganizing systems begins making alterations. These issues need to be discussed with clients before the MOL process begins.

Treatment outline. Four sessions in the MOL were conducted in this study. In each session, time was spent generally discussing current events in the participant’s life, then the MOL activity was engaged in, and finally some time was spent gaining feedback regarding the process from the participant. Each MOL activity lasted from 20-40 minutes.

In the first MOL session the participant discussed her need for familial approval and also her need to make her own decisions. During this activity, the conversation progressed through a number of levels until the participant stated that what she really needed to do was to learn to accept herself before she could expect others to accept her. Immediately after making this statement, the participant said that this idea had never occurred to her before and that she thought she had just solved her own problem. The MOL activity ended at this point.

The theme of the second session was once again the disapproval received from family members whenever decisions were made they disagreed with. The participant said that for a couple of days she had tried just accepting herself but that this hadn’t lasted very long. During the week she had been offered another job that she didn’t want to accept but her family wanted her to have. She was experiencing a significant amount of distress over this situation. In this session, the participant did not seem to shift perceptual levels to any significant degree.

In the third session the participant spoke about being independent. Family conflict was ongoing as the participant had rejected the job offer her family thought she should accept and she accepted a job her family thought she should reject. As the participant explained what being independent meant to
her, she laughed and said that she thought she should take her own advice at times. The participant felt that what she had explained made a lot of sense and that she felt settled about taking on the idea of being independent.

In the fourth session the participant reported a significant change in perspective. She claimed that she had been asking herself “Why do I need other people’s approval?” during the week. She had reduced her contact with her mother and reported feeling independent, particularly from her family. The participant claimed that her head felt really clear at the moment and that she had begun to think about things in her daily life the way issues were discussed in treatment sessions. She had begun to consider the idea that maybe she didn’t have a problem after all. That maybe she was OK the way she was. The BDI and the DASS were readministered at the end of this session and it was jointly decided that treatment for the participant’s depressive symptoms was no longer necessary. The BDI and the DASS were again readministered in ten weeks time.

**Results**

At the intake interview the BDI and the DASS were administered. These measures were administered at the end of the fourth session and again at a ten-week follow up. The data are presented in Table 1. The participant scored 32 on the BDI at the intake interview. Scores of 30 or higher on the BDI are regarded as being indicative of extremely severe depression. On the DASS, the participant scored 31 for depression, 31 for stress, and 26 for anxiety at the intake interview. These scores placed the participant in the severe range for stress and the extremely severe range for depression and anxiety on this scale.

Also at the intake interview, data were collected regarding the participant’s daily activities. The participant reported a great deal of difficulty sleeping, stating that she had difficulty getting to sleep, would often wake up when she was asleep and most days would wake up early and not return to sleep. Additionally, the participant reported having only one friend apart from her partner who she was engaged to and was living with. The participant was currently not in any social groups and didn’t go out at all except to go to work which she didn’t enjoy. She reported being more comfortable staying at home and said that she worried about what people thought of her and became anxious in social situations.

The participant’s scores on the BDI and the DASS at the end of the fourth MOL session and again at a ten-week follow up are reported in Table 1. At the end of the fourth session, the participant scored eight on the BDI. A score of eight is in the none to minimal depression range on the BDI. On the DASS the participant scored two for anxiety, zero for stress, and zero for depression. These scores are all in the normal range. At the ten-week follow up, the participant scored zero for the BDI and zero for stress, zero for anxiety, and zero for depression on the DASS. According to these measures then, the participant’s depressive symptoms had reduced from extremely severe to normal after four MOL sessions and these scores had been maintained at a ten-week follow up.

A similar pattern of results was observed in the participant’s self-report of daily activities. The participant reported having more friends and going out regularly. She also reported sleeping for eight hours a night without waking up. Additionally, the participant was beginning to consider career options and had enrolled in adult education classes in order to enhance her career prospects. Also, the participant had joined a sporting club and reported enjoying the social contact.

**Discussion**

It may be tentatively concluded that the hypothesis of this study was supported by the results. After four MOL sessions of redirecting the participant’s awareness to higher perceptual levels, the participant’s depressive symptoms as measured by standardized assessment items had reduced from extremely severe to normal.

Obviously, caution must be used when extrapolating from the results of a single case design, especially when the study is such a preliminary investigation of a different perspective. As a pilot project, there were insufficient controls in this study to disregard competing hypotheses with any certainty. One explanation for the reduction in depressive symptoms may have been that the participant simply gained employment in a work situation where she was happier. It seems unlikely that this would be the case since the participant claimed it was the assistance she had gained through treatment that had enabled her to accept the job. Without additional research into similar cases, however, the ruling out of alternative explanations remains speculative. Additionally the measures that were used could have been administered more frequently to gain a greater understanding of the client’s experience throughout therapy. Despite the limitations, however, preliminary results suggest that the MOL may be a technique that at least warrants further investigation. Due to the large reduction in scores on the assessment items over a short period of time, it seems worthwhile to investigate whether this effect could be replicated with other people and other presenting problems.

The participant that presented for treatment expressed a distinct conflict in her life. Perhaps part of future research programs could include an investigation into the extent to which internal conflict contributes to various forms of psychopathology. If conflict is a significant aspect of some
instances of mental illness, then the MOL might become a useful technique with further research.

Perhaps the greatest benefit that may come from future research into this psychotherapeutic technique could be a greater understanding of the change process that occurs in psychotherapy. Even if some of the limitations of this study are valid and there are other explanations for the reduction in scores of depression, these other factors still do not describe how the change occurred. As mentioned above, the central premise behind the MOL is that people’s problems are often being created by a higher perceptual level than the level where their awareness is currently focused. This premise needs to be examined further in well-controlled research programs.

The present study was a preliminary investigation into the processes of change from a PCT perspective. It was hypothesized that redirecting a person’s awareness to higher perceptual levels would resolve internal conflict. When this hypothesis was tested using the MOL technique, a large reduction in depressive symptoms was observed over four treatment sessions. It was suggested that the MOL might be an important research tool for investigating the change process in psychotherapy. PCT, which provides the theoretical base for the MOL, may be used to generate testable hypotheses for future research. With a well-articulated explanation of the change process, psychotherapeutic techniques may become more effective more of the time. An increase in the efficacy of psychotherapeutic techniques is surely a change worth investigating.

References


QUALITY
Who cares about it in school?

Rolf Ahrens

The author, a board member of The Quality School Consortium, lives and works in Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada.

ABSTRACT
A description of The Movement of a school toward Quality School status.

"So Larry how about doing that part over again?"
"Do I have to?"
"Well, wouldn't it make more sense?"
"Yea."
"Wouldn't it be clearer to the reader?"
"Yea, but do I have to? I know what it means."
"Wouldn't it be a better piece of work?"
"Yea, but ...."

In fact, Larry does know what quality is. So do we all. We also know what it isn't. When Larry goes to his basketball practice after school and Jenny goes to her swimming, when Jim practices on his skate board and Susan supervises after school daycare, they all know how to be good at what they do and they are willing to spend hours doing it.

We create for ourselves a very personal set of criteria that constitutes our idea of 'quality'. The only change 'school work' has of meeting these criteria rests with the adults in the school and their willingness to work on three key ideas: 1. Create an environment free of coercion; 2. Help students to self-evaluate; and 3. Ask students to do useful work.

So, who cares about quality in school? The answer is everyone does, passionately. In many ways it defines our wishes and dreams and who we are. What we, adults, working in schools need to know is how to help students realize that learning will add quality to their lives.

My six year experience at General Gordon School in Vancouver, starting in September of 1992, has taught me that getting all students to do quality work is a demanding but achievable goal. The cost is a four to six year commitment by the administration and the staff. The benefits are tangible and worth the effort.

September 1992

"We've been looking for a professional development focus that would involve the whole staff and that would give us a common goal, so I suggest considering the Glasser model."

"But why Glasser, why not Deming or Covey or Slavin?"

"Well, three reasons: First, I have done some training using the Glasser material. Second, Glasser's material is directed specifically at schools and third, the focus is where it should be — on the relationships between people."

The staff at Gordon School in Vancouver, B.C. made the decision in '92 to implement William Glasser's 'Quality School' model. They have in subsequent years and through the accreditation process re-affirmed their commitment to the model and have worked on the three key ideas mentioned above.

What am I getting into?

In practice, as with all successful implementations, the administrator takes the initiative and supports it over the long haul. A change in administration without adequate bridging and continued support for the implementation usually marks the end of the effort. Glasser suggests that five years is a reasonable time frame.

The staff agreed to read and discuss the first three chapters of The Quality School by William Glasser. On the basis of that discussion, 80% of the staff agreed to undertake the implementation of the model. Teachers committed to an initial 30 hours of training. They planned professional days and after-school meetings to gain further training and to share information. Teachers learned and are continuing to learn the essential skills for 'Lead Management'.

Parents are informed regularly about the progress of the implementation. Initially there was a presentation at 'Meet the Teacher Night'. Since that time the Parent Advisory Committee has sponsored a series of presentations on aspects of the Quality School as well as on ways parents can support their children.

Students learn Choice Theory and are encouraged to self-evaluate on the basis of their own criteria or mutually agreed on criteria. They also learn about behavior in a non-coercive environment.

There are key elements that the staff at Gordon School revisit every year:

• The staff discusses and plans actions around the following elements important to the work place: School and classroom management, discipline, instruction and a non-coercive environment.

• The staff reviews the questions: What constitutes quality classroom work and homework; and what is useful work in the context of the curriculum?

• Since impact of the training on the individual is usually profound, each staff member decides what further training in Lead Management, Choice Theory and Reality Therapy counseling they would like to attend.
What have been the benefits?

- Most staff and the large majority of students like coming to school. They find the school a satisfying place in which to work.
- Discipline problems, not incidents, have disappeared as students learn how to behave in a non-coercive environment.
- Working together on a common goal empowers staff, students, and parents. A shared purpose brings with it good will and support for the school. The implementation process has helped forge a greater sense of community.
- Doing quality work feels good. Once experienced it becomes life-affirming.
- The following are some selected comments from staff members past and present:

  "For me one of the major benefits of using Glasser's Quality School approach is the common language about behavior that students and teachers learn. Communication becomes non-confrontative resulting in more careful listening to each other. I believe that this creates a positive working environment where both student and teacher feel good about their relationship."
  Joan Tyldesley, Teacher

  "It (the training) helps me to understand children's needs as expressed through their behavior."
  Lana Hill, Teacher

  "The best thing about the professional development opportunities in the General Gordon Quality School initiative was the invitation to self-evaluate my teaching practice. As I internalized RT/CT ideas I found myself becoming more aware of what and how I was teaching. We were encouraged to ask questions and work collaboratively with colleagues and support staff."
  Don Teeuwsen, Teacher

  "The Quality School Initiative at Gordon has not only survived a change in administrators and a number of staff, but is growing in the degree to which it has been embraced by the school community. Take one aspect, discipline, for example. In this school, through the work of a committed staff, we have begun to realize that behavior is the work of the classroom. Children are introduced to language and practices to reflect upon their own behavior and to act as agents for their own change. All this has a liberating effect on the work of the administrators. We are increasingly free to provide proactive support rather than to act as disciplinarians. Referrals to the office for behavior concern are minimal."
  John Beach, Administrator

Additional considerations

Commitment to a Quality School is long term. Training of new staff members is an ongoing benefit and, of course, a cost. As well, the commitment requires that a certain amount of professional development time and staff meeting time is set aside every year for the implementation.

Ideally, the school district as a whole commits to the process. However, especially in large districts, this is an unrealistic expectation. Schools must be prepared to do this on their own, hopefully with support from their Associate Superintendent. Certainly, at Gordon School there was always moral and financial support from the area superintendent.

A question of choice for the future

How do you envision the future of schooling? Will schools in general pursue technological and curricular change or will they change in ways that provide increasingly more positive personal experiences for students and staff? I am not suggesting that these two directions have to be mutually exclusive. However, I do know from long experience, that education based on positive relationships in a school environment that is free of coercion has an excellent chance of making school a part of students' quality world.
WHAT A MANAGER DOES and HOW HE DOES IT

Anton-Tony Rehak

The author, a frequent contributor to the Journal, lives and works in Croatia.

There are two parts to every job. The same is true with a managerial job. The one part is WHAT a manager has to do if he wants to be responsible and HOW it will be done. Both aspects are very important. It is not easy to say what to do. Deming said that every problem is not the important problem. If you want to know what is important you have to know the kinds of knowledge. According to Deming, there is the system of the four kinds of knowledge, all related to each other:

- Appreciation of a system
- Knowledge about variation
- Theory of knowledge
- New Psychology

When I assembled my knowledge of Glasser’s and Deming’s ideas, I found that there are a lot of compatibility of those ideas. The new psychology is the Choice theory. Teaching managers means to give them both ideas. Managers have to know what they have to do if they want to have a quality result and they have to know how to do it. Each part must be very good. Good ideas with bad methods, the result is poor, as it is opposite.

First of all, what is the purpose of management? According to the theory of knowledge, the purpose of management is prediction and making the prediction happen. A manager governs the future of the system. Second is what the manager is responsible for. He is responsible for the quality of the processes and for the result of the system.

Let us see what a fourth generation manager does:

1. Define the aim of the system. The manager must sponsor and energize the determination of the system. A system must have an aim. Without an aim, there is no system. According to CT, the aim is what is in the quality world; first of all in the customers quality world, then managerial, and then in all people who are in the system. The aim is a value judgment, said Deming. People can judge only what is in their quality world. People who work in the system have only one aim: aim of the system. If someone does not accept the aim of the system, there are other systems. Therefore, management is the process in which a manager creates the environment in which people put the aim of the system in their quality world.

According to the aim of a school system, we can have the processes and the result of the system. In Croatia, we are creating a new school system. The present status is that 98% of students pass the elementary school. This is the result of the aim – schooling. If we want to improve the result, there is no space for improvement. We need to change the aim of the system. The aim of the future school system is to help parents in raising their children to prepare them for the quality of life, and with this the state will prosper. According to this aim of the school system, there are more than 60% school failure!

The system is full of the quality worlds. They have to be as much as possible nearby. In classic managerial language, it is called people integration in the system.

2. Create the flow diagram of the system. The flow diagram is the picture of the main processes in the system. It is the tool how to direct knowledge and efforts into a system, geared to the wants and needs of the customers. Who are the customers of the schools? There is an example of the diagram of the school system according to the new aim:

Every system can be drawn as a flow diagram in which is clearly seen where the process starts and who is the customer. The customer judges the quality of the result. The customer pays the result. In the school, concurrent evaluation is according this. Everyone must understand the danger and loss to the whole system if the customer is not satisfied.

The flow diagram ignited Japan to be where the whole world knows starting in 1950. The organization chart as a diagram only shows responsibilities for reporting, who reports to whom. It shows the chain of command and accountability. It does not describe what has to be done in the system. It does not tell anybody how his work fits into the work of other people in the system. The pyramid asks that anybody should first and foremost try to satisfy his boss. The customer is not in the pyramid. It destroys the system. Each component is an individual part and the system is fragmented. The picture of the system is like a broken mirror.

3. Create the vision. Management involves prediction. The prediction can not be from practice. It can be only from the knowledge which comes from theory. The theory of knowledge predicts the future. The theory helps us to use information.

Management of the system may require imagination. What result ought to be in five years from now? Ten years from now? Management has to know the picture of the future. The second part is to help people to share the vision of the
future result of the system. They must prepare themselves with lifelong learning. Every system can to some extent create its own future. The best way to have a future is to have a picture of it. This is the process of dealing with managerial and other people’s quality world.

4. To create processes which will lead to the vision. A manager is responsible for the quality of the processes, and he is creator of the processes together with the people in the system. Deming said that there are two groups of people in the system: people who work on the system and people who work in the system. Choice Theory is the theory of human processes. It means that in construction of the processes, Choice Theory is very important profound knowledge.

5. To ensure that processes will meet the vision, a manager is a facilitator of driving the processes.

This is WHAT a manager does. HOW a manager does it is lead-management, and everything that is written in The Choice Theory Manager, The Quality School, The Quality School Manager, Schools without failure and in Choice Theory. A manager who understands, accepts and practices Choice Theory is a quality manager who knows perfectly HOW WHAT has to be done. The customer is a rapid learner. The managerial job is to meet the customer’s expectations. There is nobody else in the system. Transformation is required to move out of the present state, not mere patchwork on the present style of management. Everyone will win; no losers, said Deming.

References


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An International Resource Library has been established at Northeastern University, the home of the International Journal for Reality Therapy. This library contains an annotated bibliography of all published articles and dissertations.

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Five Interrelated Challenges for Using Reality Therapy with Challenging Students

Brent G. Richardson and Robert E. Wubbolding

Both authors are members of the graduate Counseling Program at Xavier University in Cincinnati, Ohio.

ABSTRACT

Although reality therapy provides an excellent framework for effectively connecting and intervening with challenging students, adults who utilize this delivery system are not immune from the many obstacles presented by this population. This paper explores five interrelated challenges faced by adults who regularly interact with challenging students: (1) Connecting with the disconnected, (2) Acknowledging our own personal power and taking ownership for our responses, (3) Facilitating a process where youth can evaluate their own behavior, (4) Helping youth focus on controllable behaviors, and (5) Choosing creativity over coercion. Emphasis is given to ways adults can realign their own “thinking and acting” wheels to get their cars back on track to better meet the needs of challenging students.

Five Interrelated Challenges for Using Reality Therapy with Challenging Students.

Addressing the needs of challenging youth has become one of the most difficult problems of our time, and one that will, unfortunately, be likely to grow in the 21st century (Long, Morse, & Newman, 1996; Richardson, 2001). The frequency and severity of behavior problems of challenging students continue to surge (Morse, 1996). Educators and other professionals are expected to build and maintain therapeutic relationships with youth who have difficulty accepting responsibility, managing their emotions, making responsible choices, and believing adults can help them. Adults are asked to develop meaningful relationships with youth who have a history of abuse, neglect, and rejection by caretakers. “We often come to realize that developing and maintaining what Carl Rogers termed ‘unconditional positive regard’ with persons who present seriously explosive behaviors is quite difficult and no doubt one of the greatest challenges as counselors and teachers” (Renna, 1991, p.3). It is important to remember that many challenging students have already seen a variety of professionals and concluded that these experiences were not need-fulfilling (Selekman, 1993; Sommers-Flanagan & Sommers-Flanagan, 1996).

Many of the original ideas for reality therapy grew out of William Glasser’s work with “delinquent” girls at the Ventura School (Glasser, 1965). Reality therapy provides an excellent framework for creating the necessary balance between support and challenge for successfully connecting and intervening with challenging students. Nevertheless, there is a false belief that reality therapy is just common sense and therefore easy to put into practice (Wubbolding, 2000). Wubbolding and Brickell (2000) emphasized that “because of the emphasis on relationship building as the core of reality therapy, it is possible to erroneously conclude the delivery system is simplistic” (p.64). Although reality therapy was developed with challenging students in mind, adults who utilize this delivery system are not immune from the many obstacles presented by this population. This brief essay explores five interrelated challenges faced by educators and other professionals who regularly interact with challenging students. Emphasis is given to ways adults can realign their own “thinking and acting” wheels to get their cars back on track to better meet the needs of at-risk youth.

1. Connecting with the disconnected.

Glasser (1968, 1992, 1998) has written extensively about the importance of creating a school climate which fosters a sense of connection for “at risk” youth. Glasser asserts that youth have a basic need to feel connected at school. While relationships with peers are crucial, the relationship between a teacher and a student is the soil that enables learning to take root. Research has supported Glasser’s assertion that youth are most likely to succeed in school when they feel connected to peers, teachers, and what they are learning. Wehlage (1989) and his colleagues found the quality of the student/teacher relationship to be the primary distinguishing factor for effective schools for at-risk students. Based on a longitudinal study of over 12,000 students, perceived school connectedness was found to be one of the most critical protective factors against a variety of risk behaviors (Resnick et al., 1998). These authors described “at-risk” youth as “products of disconnection.” Glasser (1972) observed that many at-risk students remove themselves mentally and physically from schools to protect themselves from the pain of perceived failure. Reconnecting the disconnected is one of the most critical tasks of educators.

The most effective educators and helping professionals do not see teaching and connecting as mutually exclusive roles. They understand that students are more likely to excel academically if their quality words and needs are being met and they feel a sense of connectedness at school. Furthermore, these educators understand that behavioral management of these students is based on the quality of the relationship between the teacher and student as much as specific strategies a teacher might use (Long, Morse, & Newman, 1996; Wubbolding, 1993). Effective schools have consistently been distinguished by teachers who interact with students more, reward them more, have friendlier classrooms, and believe all students are capable of learning (Teddie, Kirby, & Stringfield, 1989).

Focus groups and national surveys have consistently revealed that youth do not want to be left to their own devices. They are longing for more regular contact with adults who care about and respect them (Hersch, 1998). Hahn (2000) reported that the average adult male can identify 12 to 65 adults who have made a significant difference in their lives. Conversely, incarcerated young adult males often struggle to identify even one adult who has made a significant difference. The key to the reclaiming process is connecting troubled youth with significant adults who can be trusted for support, guidance, and affection (Van Bockern, 1996).
Nevertheless, helping students reconnect is a difficult task. By the end of seventh grade, more than half of all students feel that teachers and principals are their adversaries (Glasser, 1992). These feelings are even more intense and imbedded for students identified as having a behavior disorder or emotional disturbance. Educators must resist the natural temptation to overfocus on short-term solutions (i.e. suspensions, detentions) and visualize the longer-term benefits of removing barriers to success and creating opportunities to meet their basic needs for connection and competence. Problems tend to be exacerbated when adults, trying to meet their own needs for quick solutions, attempt to either force compliance or intervene in ways that are not need-fulfilling for the youth.

2. Acknowledging our own personal power and taking ownership for our responses

Glasser (1998) asserted that conflicts between adults and youth often stem from misconceptions about the nature of control. Our beliefs about the statement, “We can only control our own behavior” have significant ramifications for working with this population. Professionals who practice choice theory and reality therapy readily acknowledge that individuals are responsible for their own emotional choices. Intellectually, we understand we cannot control adolescents and an adolescent’s behavior does not “cause” us to act, feel, or think a certain way. However, the irrational belief that we can control others is so embedded in human behavior and relationships, professionals who work with challenging youth often revert back to habitual, reactive behaviors and fail to take ownership for their own emotional responses. Renna (1991) noted that in the midst of conflict, “all our training goes out the window” and we choose to engage students in counterproductive power struggles. We perceive that what we want (to be an effective helper) is not what we have. If we respond when our own scales are out of balance, we are apt to only escalate the cycle of conflict.

Challenging adolescents tend to possess the unique capacity to elicit from others the opposite of what they need (Long, 1996; Tobin, 1991). For example, youth who desperately need to feel connected with significant adults often display behaviors which suggest that more disengagement is what they want and need. Before many of these students “will contemplate change, they will test before they trust; they will resist before they respect; they will alienate before they admire; they will denounce before they will depend” (Bratter, Cameron, & Radda, 1989, pp. 11-12). “Establishing trust means that there is nothing the children can say or do that will persuade you to reject them” (Glasser, 1998, p.211). Again, this is easier said than done. Unless we take proactive steps to monitor our responses and acknowledge our own choice-making power, we are likely to respond in ways which tend to escalate conflict, dismantle trust, and reinforce this sense of disconnection. We cannot help youth evaluate their own responses until we are able to get a firm grasp on our own. “The key is to first and foremost to attempt to focus on our own “thinking” behavior during a situation that may be highly emotionally charged and often quite scary” (Renna, 1991, p.7). Renna elaborated on Glasser’s car analogy. Professionals are advised to take a step back before, during, and after conflictual situations and ask themselves:

- Am I flooding my engines with emotions?
- Do I need to take a time out so I can redirect my car or turn it around?
- Is my thinking wheel in gear? (Renna, 1991)
- Is this way of responding that I am choosing (or chose) helping or hurting this relationship?
- Am I making threats that I am unable or unwilling to carry out?
- How can I communicate clear expectations, rules, and consequences in a way that respects the youth and myself?
- Am I giving the youth too much power to influence my emotions? (Richardson, 2001)

Each of these questions is designed to reinforce the power of choice and balance all of our wheels (thinking, feeling, acting, and physiology). Without understanding the choice theory explanation of behavior, frustrated adults will not recognize that they are choosing their response to the children’s behavior. By recognizing that frustrating and angering are choices, the adult is more likely to choose different behaviors (Glasser, 1992, 1998). Furthermore, the adult is then in a position to ask questions which help youth acknowledge their own personal power and take ownership for their responses:

- Do you always give him that much power over you?
- What are you *choosing* to do?
- So whenever he does that, you choose to get mad. What different choice will you make next time?
- When you choose to get mad, does that help you get what you want? (Richardson, 2001, p.90).

3. Facilitating a process where youth can evaluate their own behavior.

One of the primary goals of reality therapy is helping students make a connection between their behavior and their goals - between what they want and what they are doing. Wubbolding (2000) asserted that “self-evaluation is the heart, the essence, the most important component, the quintessential segment of the delivery system. It has long been the centerpiece in the process of reality therapy” (p.113). Effective self-evaluation is the key to discontinuing behaviors that are not helpful and sometimes even harmful. Wubbolding observed that although self-evaluation is the heart of reality therapy, it is too often neglected by practitioners of reality therapy. Like the totality of reality therapy, it is easy to understand but difficult to practice. There are a number of reasons why this process can become extremely challenging when working with difficult youngsters.

First, we tend to view youth problems through adult eyes. We neglect to take the time to empathize with their struggles and assume the path they “should” be taking is obvious to everyone but them. When we fail to meet youth where they are, we revert to habitual, ineffective behaviors such as lecturing and judging their behavior for them. It is recommended that adults maintain an “Aikido spirit” and...
utilize what the student brings to the session. When defining goals, many challenging students will say “I just want to get my parents off my back?”. Rather than challenging the merits of the stated goal, the counselor could encourage the youth to assess whether their current behavior is helping them reach that goal.

Second, with challenging youth, it is easy to be distracted by the intensity of their emotion and become engaged in an angry power struggle. Sometimes, we want youth to know that their behavior can “generate” anger in others. However, it is important to remember that youth, like all humans, tend to only focus on one thing at a time. If we give consequences in a judgmental, angry way, it is very likely that they will focus on our anger or feeling judged rather than their poor choice.

Third, some youth have grown up in families which are not need-fulfilling and have often received conflicting messages about what works and what doesn’t. For instance, one of the authors once worked with Brian, an 11-year-old boy who struggled to make good decisions. Brian shared that he recently got in a fight on the school bus because another boy made a disparaging comment about Brian’s mother. When his father learned about the circumstances around the fight, he praised Brian for “defending their family’s honor.” The next day, Brian was suspended from the school bus for the fight and his father slapped him across the face. Kids like Brian have learned not to trust their own judgment. Self-protection supersedes self-evaluation.

Fourth, the adult models for many challenging students have a long-standing pattern of externalizing responsibility and becoming overwhelmed by their emotions. An internal locus of control is a foreign concept for them. It has become more natural to choose angry or blaming behaviors than it is to accept responsibility for their own decisions. Ironically, helping professionals often find themselves trying to get these students to evaluate their behavior by asking “Why? or “How come?” Rather than yielding contemplative self-evaluation, these questions tend to generate a number of externalized answers (i.e. “He made me”, “Because these rules are stupid.”).

Fifth, one of the biggest roadblocks to positive change is the mindset “I don’t deserve better.” (Simon, 1988). For many challenging students, efforts to make sense of negative life experiences have resulted in negative self-fulfilling prophecies and poor self-concepts (Long, 1996). For youth who feel entrenched in learned helplessness and a sense of powerlessness over their lives, change will be gradual. Youth who feel they have no power to change the circumstances of their lives do not readily see the value of evaluating their own behaviors.

It is important to be sensitive to these obstacles and recognize that, for many of these kids, the important life skill of self-evaluation is a foreign concept. We must also remind ourselves that while it is easier and quicker to merely give the kid a fish, long-term benefits will only come if we have the fortitude to teach them to fish. The goal is to help youth identify for themselves that their behavior is not working so they can begin to take ownership for positive change.

4. Helping youth and families focus on controllable behaviors.

Another common challenge of adults who work with challenging youth and families is to facilitate a process which addresses four interrelated goals: building resilience, thwarting learned helplessness, lessening helper dependence, and maintaining high expectations. Wolin and Wolin (1993) argued that mental health professionals tend to alarm youth and families about their vulnerabilities while failing to build upon resiliency and strengths. These authors emphasized the need to shift from a “Damage Model” to a “Challenge Model.” Key differences in these two models are outlined below:

**Damage Model:**
- Emphasizes the past
- Frames youth as victim
- Focuses on blaming
- Dwells on damage

**Challenge Model:**
- Emphasizes the present
- Frames youth as survivor
- Focuses on choosing
- Stresses the challenges youth met and times they bounced back from adversity

The Challenge Model closely parallels Glasser’s Choice Theory. Both models promote the notion that it is more fruitful for helping professionals and students/clients to focus primarily on those elements of their lives that they have the most direct control. Both models also emphasize the importance of relationship-building. In their study of resilient survivors, Wolin and Wolin (1993) noted that a common denominator was at least one caring, strong adult who made a difference. It is “important to not view this as some helpless child who was rescued but as a child who understood the potential of healthy relationships and actively sought them out” (p.111). This new frame helps the youth shift the primary emotion from gratitude to pride.

It is essential that helping professionals recognize that a combination of biological, cognitive, social, and familial factors influence each youth’s perception of his/her quality world. Helpers can empathize with feelings of oppression, work to change oppressive systems, and continue to have high expectations for youth and families who have been oppressed. While the focus is on the present, balance and respect are essential. Some questions counselors can ask themselves include:

- How can I communicate that the past does not equal the future without discounting or disrespecting current or past struggles?
- How can I encourage the youth to make a distinction between explanations and excuses - between having feelings and being victimized by your feelings? (Richardson, 2001)
- How can I promote culturally sensitive interventions which enhance self-confidence, foster resiliency, and lessen helper dependency (Rak & Patterson, 1996).
The most effective professionals are those who are able to find an appropriate balance between support and challenge (Bratter, et al., 1989; Richardson, 2001; Wallbridge & Osachuk, 1995). These helpers appreciate that while youth cannot always control the conditions with which they are confronted, they can make a choice of how to respond to these challenges (Rak & Patterson, 1996; Wolin & Wolin, 1993). Furthermore, reality therapists can “initiate strategies that reinforce the client’s historical patterns of resilience or teach and model behaviors that buttress the client’s capacity to self-manage and cope with problems and stressors” (Rak & Patterson, 1996, p.371).

Physicists have studied bumble bees for years and concluded that bumble bees should not physically be able to fly. Fortunately, no one told the bees. Perhaps, professionals who work with difficult adolescents should follow this lead.

5. Choosing creativity over coercion.

After conducting a comprehensive study of educational and mental health programs in the United States, the authors concluded that the majority of programs for children with emotional and behavioral problems are often little more than a “rigid curriculum of control” (Knitzer, Sternberg, & Fleisch, 1990). These researchers concluded that the widespread misuse and overuse of simplistic behavioral interventions is contributing to a sense of hopelessness and bleakness for troubled children. Brendtro and Brokenleg (1993) argued that because so many of these obedience-training programs actually foster further alienation among alienated youth, a significant paradigm shift is needed. Palmatier (1998) echoed these concerns:

Operant conditioning and behavior modification may work as interim tactics, but, for the most part, these tools represent outside in applications… a sharp contrast to inviting students to identify their goals, pull some of their own strings, and shift their gears themselves (p.119).

Glasser (1992) stressed the importance of breaking the punitive cycle in which the child acts out and we punish, the children increase their resistance and we increase our punishment. “What is needed instead of coercion is a great deal of creativity and patience, both of which tend to be in short supply” (p.30). Brendtro and Brokenleg (1993) quote a foreign educator who was part of a team who reviewed American schools: “Control is the word I hear most often here and, to me, it is the opposite of creativity” (p.94). It is important for educators and helping professionals to challenge current delivery systems and develop creative ideas for removing barriers which inhibit students’ sense of connection and competence (Palmatier, 1998).

Below, are five hypotheses about the difficulties experienced by educators and mental health professionals in moving beyond this “curriculum of control” and choosing creativity over coercion.

First, it is very difficult to give up the mistaken perception that we can control others. All of us know otherwise rational couples who spend much of their lives trying to control their partners despite consistent feedback that these approaches are not productive. Therefore, it is not surprising that adults might hold onto the perception that they can control youngsters. In fact, Glasser (1992) observed that many adults believe that they could control youth if they were allowed to use more coercive techniques. Thus, when coercive techniques fail, the common response is to increase our level of coercion.

Second, many practitioners fail to recognize when consistency becomes redundancy. Conventional wisdom supports this irrational behavior: “If at first, you don’t succeed, try, try again.” Therefore, in an effort to “not give up”, they continue to attempt ineffective strategies. Sometimes, creativity is a more valuable commodity than consistency (Richardson, 2001). If at first you don’t succeed, you might try a second time - but if you don’t succeed then, try something different” (Fisch, Weakland, & Segal, 1982, p.18).

Third, because coercive techniques sometimes lead to improved behavior, professionals believe that these techniques are effective. Unfortunately, it is easy to confuse fear with respect and compliance with success. Fear-based interventions may spawn the right behaviors - but for the wrong reasons. If fear is the primary motivator for behavior change, we are likely to reinforce troubled youth’s perception of a hostile, uncaring world where might makes right. “Long-term process goals such as autonomy, responsibility, empathy, and self-esteem will have been sacrificed for compliance - all to achieve order, which is short-lived, and respect, which is contrived (Richardson, 2001, p.67). Glasser (1992) stressed that punitive measures may indeed address the short-term behavior problem, but they will not address the bigger issue of getting youth interested and involved in learning.

Fourth, many educators are not looking to instill fear, but rather, are driven by fear themselves. They fear that if they abandon punitive measures, the fortress that prevents total chaos and anarchy will come tumbling down. Ironically, research shows that empowering youth is likely to have a reciprocal effect. Those programs which respect the autonomy of youth and recognize the limitations of control tend to have more “controlled” and better behaved youth. Programs that respect the autonomy of youth tend to have more youth who are receptive to the legitimate authority of adults (Brendtro & Brokenleg, 1993).

Fifth, we become locked into one way of viewing and convince ourselves that our perception of a child is the only “correct” perception of the child. We fail to recognize that other adults can have a very different experience with the same child. Professionals who are "gifted at connecting and intervening with challenging youth possess both the creativity and compassion to see these youth and their struggles differently than most adults (Richardson, 2001, p.88). If a youth’s behavior is viewed in terms of unmet needs and unlearned skills, we are more likely to engage in helping behaviors which are need-fulfilling and skill-building. Back to Glasser’s car analogy, if we turn one of the front wheels, it will most likely have a direct effect on the other wheels. When we change what we view, we alter what we do. Similarly, if “we change what we do, we change what we view” (Wubbolding, 2000, pp.21-22). Rigid perceptions stifle creativity. Empathic understanding breeds creativity. “Imagine yourself in the shoes of a young person afraid to
come to school because he feels unwelcome and unsure. What action would you initiate to help yourself overcome these feelings of separation and fear?” (Palmatier, 1998, p.320)

Conclusion:

Reality therapy began in a residential setting where rebellious youth derived their identities by challenging society in general and adult rules in specific. Though reality therapy is widely practiced, many young people habitually choose destructive behaviors. Adults face many daunting challenges when dealing with students who choose harmful and alienating behaviors to satisfy their needs. Reality therapy provides many tools for helping adults reach out to disconnected youth. Through the creative and effective use of this delivery system, adults can learn to help students take responsibility for their choices, make better choices, ask themselves the classic procedural questions, evaluate their own behavior, overcome their helplessness, and achieve worthy goals.

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The Use of Choice Theory in Animal Assisted Therapy for Children and Young Adults

Michelle R. Jenkins Missel

ABSTRACT

Animal Assisted Therapy (AAT) is the utilization of an animal that meets specific criteria to facilitate therapy within a goal-oriented treatment plan that is designed and administered by a professional. AAT is very useful to counselors, and the integration of choice theory into AAT is especially beneficial for the psychotherapist when working with children or young adults. This article explores the use of choice theory in AAT when obedience courses and animal maintenance are part of the treatment plan. The fulfillment of basic needs by AAT is also briefly examined and personal responsibility and effective control are emphasized.

The Utilization of Choice Theory in Animal Assisted Therapy for Children and Young Adults

The use of animals in therapy is not merely a passing trend. It can be traced back as far as the time of Ancient Greece where dogs were known to be used for licking the wounds of the sick and imparting healing properties (Bustad, 1980). As early as the 1700’s, psychiatric treatment centers began using animals to help treat their patients (Bardill & Hutchinson, 1997; Beck & Katcher, 1996). Sigmund Freud also recognized the benefits of animals on clients and allowed his chow-chow, Jo-fi, to sit in on therapy sessions (Coren, 1997). Modern animal assisted therapy was pioneered largely by researchers Samuel and Elizabeth Corson of Ohio State University, and Dr. Boris Levinson, a prominent child psychologist, who used his own dog to help treat children in his care (Beck & Katcher, 1996).

Yvonne Gonski (1985) noted that populations that have responded best to animal assisted therapy included the deaf population, the mentally retarded, the physically handicapped, the elderly, and children with special needs and problems. Throughout the world, youth facilities and organizations utilize Animal Assisted Therapy (AAT) to help children take personal responsibility through the care and upkeep of an animal and to gain more effective control of their immediate situations by learning to train animals such as dogs and horses. Examples of these kinds of treatment programs are Green Chimney’s Children’s services in New York, a residential treatment facility for youth who have emotional and behavioral difficulties; Minnesota Linking Youth, Nature, & Critters, Inc. (MNLYNC), a nonprofit mental health service which conducts a variety of programs; and the Gress Mountain Ranch in Pennsylvania where Ms. Gress works as a counselor in private practice.

Choice Theory and AAT: An Overview

William Glasser’s choice theory points out that we are externally motivated by forces in the world around us and that each of us have genetically encoded needs, including the primary need to love and to belong (Corey, 2000). Corey also notes that choice theory involves having a personal realm that is the perfect world we would like to live in. He goes on to say that within this quality world, there may be no one to whom clients can relate. This is the main area where the role of the therapist and the animal comes in.

Choice theory is ideal when working with AAT. The use of an animal creates a warm yet challenging relationship for the client. Working with an animal may help clients assume personal responsibility and encourage them to focus on the present. Ways of including personal responsibility in an AAT oriented program may include the use of an assigned animal where daily tasks like feeding, brushing, and training of the animal are administered by the individual in treatment. Animal obedience training helps the individual gain more effective control over him/herself and his/her assigned animal. For instance, should s/he respond in an overly aggressive way to an animal, the animal may shy away and the desired therapeutic results are not achieved. The handler must learn to express his/her wishes to the animal in a clear and effective manner, taking care not to show hostility or aggressiveness to the animal. On the other hand, the client who is having difficulty with self-efficacy and assertiveness may be greatly reassured in his/her abilities when the animal responds to his gentle but direct commands. When an individual has trouble focusing on a specific task, his/she may be assigned a very friendly animal which may demand immediate attention, nudging to be petted, barking to be fed or watered, and the occasional dog who hops around in joyful circles, desiring to go for a walk, is difficult to ignore. As personal responsibility and gaining more effective control are at the heart of reality therapy (Corey 2000), they are also at the heart of AAT.

Creating a Warm and Supportive Relationship in AAT

One of the easiest ways to use an animal in therapy is as an icebreaker. An animal is an instant catalyst for conversation. The mere presence of an animal can stimulate beneficial rapport between a therapist and a client. Depending on the type of AAT being administered, some questions from the therapist for conversation might include the following: Would you like to pet my dog? Would you like for my cat to sit on your lap while you talk with me? Tell me how the dog’s/cat’s/lamb’s fur feels to you. Do you see the horses running back and forth in the pasture? Do you have any pets? Tell me about any pets you had as a child.

Two Frequently Used Techniques for Accepting Personal Responsibility and Gaining Personal Control

Dog obedience “lessons”

Youth who have emotional or behavioral difficulties are sometimes prescribed participation in dog obedience lessons. Dogs should be carefully paired to match the needs of their...
that the dog deeply appreciated. The girl replied: "I did it! She really likes it! I did something good! Can I help you walk back to the house, and reappeared with a bowl of fresh water she would rather another child do this task because she "was not the dog, she shook her head no and indicated that she "wasn't the dog some water in a small dish. After indicating that she

The child confined to a wheel chair gets just as many licks as the same dog would love a beautiful spokesmode. Animals take part in making us better people by sharing unconditional love, and returning love, unconditionally. The elderly woman with a large and disfiguring boil is loved by a cat loves a boy who has a dragon for an imaginary friend the same as a boy who has a famous real-life baseball player for the one running through the fields with a young puppy. A cat and "rehabilitated", making them more marketable as family pets. This creates a beneficial reciprocal relationship.

During a one to two hour long obedience session, admini
terred by trainers and therapists, participants are involved by providing appropriate hand signals to their dogs, giving clear verbal instructions, and focusing on the tasks at hand. Some goals drawn up by the therapist might include: increase ability of the client to focus and concentrate; improve communication skills; improve dexterity; and/or enhance self-efficacy. The dog obedience lesson helps otherwise failing children get involved, and to gain and maintain a successful identity (Fido's handler), ideas that Glasser perpetuates in The Identify Society (1972). The sessions give the client effective control over an immediate situation, raising self-efficacy. The program may be structured to meet up to six times a week and may continue for six to ten weeks, depending on the desired results for both the handler and the dog.

Caring for the animal’s basic needs

Residential farm treatment centers provide AAT mainly, but not exclusively, to youths who are residents at the center. These programs include assigning tasks such as cleaning an animal’s cage, providing the animal with food and water, and exercising the animal according to a regular schedule. This fulfills the individual’s need to nurture and to love and be loved. The progress is monitored by the facility staff and recorded on appropriate forms drawn up by the therapist. One pioneering facility that is well known for its commitment to AAT is Green Chimney’s Residential Farm treatment center in New York.

Fulfilling the Basic Needs

Perhaps one of the most important things animals can do for us is to fulfill our basic needs as defined by Glasser (1965, p.9): “...the need to love and be loved and the need to feel that we are worthwhile to ourselves and to others.” Glasser goes on to say that the basis of reality therapy is helping patients to fulfill these basic needs.

Animals take part in making us better people by sharing unconditional love, and returning love, unconditionally. The elderly woman with a large and disfiguring boil is loved by a dog just as the same dog would love a beautiful spokesmodel. The child confined to a wheel chair gets just as many licks as the one running through the fields with a young puppy. A cat loves a boy who has a dragon for an imaginary friend the same as a boy who has a famous real-life baseball player for a friend.

While working with a group of children at an emergency children’s shelter, the author noticed one young girl who stood aside, eagerly eyeing the children who were assisting in walking the author’s dog. When asked if she’d like to walk the dog, she shook her head no and indicated that she “wasn’t able to do anything like that”. Then the girl was asked to get the dog some water in a small dish. After indicating that she would rather another child do this task because she “was not able to” and no other children volunteered; she finally ran back to the house, and reappeared with a bowl of fresh water that the dog deeply appreciated. The girl replied: “I did it! She really likes it! I did something good! Can I help you walk

Future Outlook

Parents have reported seeing how a dog impacts the life of their lonely or sick child (Swiger-Anson, 2000) and the author has talked with facility directors who have noticed marked increased sociability of elderly residents when a volunteer’s small guinea pig is informally introduced into a group of elderly residents. Imagine the potential for growth and healing when animals are introduced into therapy sessions by a trained and experienced therapist. Animal assisted therapy, when properly administered, can produce dramatic results, from building rapport to introducing an element of control into an individual’s life. Long term results can include the fostering of empathy, personal responsibility, increased physical activity, and self control. The current developmental stage of AAT would seem to be one of definition to more fully differentiate itself from AAA (Animal Assisted Activities, or simple “meet and greet” activities with no measurable therapeutic goals). As more substantial research is done on the effectiveness of AAT, the benefits will become more apparent and current techniques more refined. With AAT the possibilities appear endless.

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