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William Glasser January 1993

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Table of Contents

Vol. XIV No. 2 Spring 1995

Larry Litwack Editor’s Comment 2

Thomas S. Parish The Failure of Support 3

William J. Anderson III Systems in America’s Schools: Are America’s Children “At-Risk”? 7

Stanley E. Wigle Meaning, Relevance, and Purpose: Charles D. Manges Motivational Factors in Quality Schools 9

Peter J. Bray The Evolution of a Quality School: A Case Study of Leadership 15

Anne M. Schatz School Reform and Restructuring Through the Use of the “Quality School” Philosophy 23

Robert E. Racho An Evaluation of the First Step Passages Domestic Violence Program 29

Susan R. Easterbrooks Improving Pragmatic Language Outcomes of a College Student with Hearing Loss: Effects on the Individual and Staff 37

Scott B. Martin Reality Therapy and Goal Attainment Charles L. Thompson Scaling: A Program for Freshman Student Athletes 45

Elijah Mickel Andragogy and Control Theory: Theoretical Foundation for Family Mediation 55

Yusuf Emed Control Theory and Spirituality 63

Tom A. Davidson Faithing and CT/RT 67

Peter B. Appel Safety and Security Pictures: The Psychological Side of Survival 75


Robert E. Wubbolding Institute Ethics: Role Play vs. Real Counseling 83
THE FAILURE OF SUPPORT SYSTEMS IN AMERICA'S SCHOOLS: ARE AMERICA'S CHILDREN "AT-RISK?"

Thomas S. Parish
William J. Anderson, III

The first author is a frequent contributor to the Journal and is the Assistant to the Dean of the College of Education at Kansas State University in Manhattan, Kansas. The second author is an undergraduate student (with a dual major in computer engineering and creative writing) at Kansas State University in Manhattan, Kansas.

Abstract

In the present study, high school students voluntarily completed the Personal History Inventory, while K-8 students had their teachers complete the Personal History Inventory for Children on their behalf. It was found that the most frequent support system failure was a lack of teacher caring for their students. This finding needs to be brought to the attention of teachers so that they can realize the scope of this problem (i.e. 35% of the respondents indicated that teachers were not concerned for their students), and then make whatever adjustments necessary to help those teachers increase their awareness of students' needs. Most importantly, these findings can be used to help schools deal more effectively with the problem of "at-risk" students, due to the increased awareness of where the problems lie within the educational system.

In our society, we have individuals who suffer all types of problems within their childhood and/or adolescence. Whether these problems are due to financial hardship, geographic mobility, family conflict, or parent loss (to describe just a few of the many sources of emotional stress placed upon them), such problems have been truly overwhelming for many children/adolescents. Having been subjected to these sources of emotional turmoil, these individuals are more likely to be deemed "at-risk." A study done by Parish and Parish (1993) has already demonstrated that students who undergo failure(s) within a certain set of basic needs, or "support systems," within their lives will be much more likely to be at risk of dropping out of school. Brown (1980), in an earlier study of approximately 18,000 students, also demonstrated that students from families with only one parent, compared to those with two parents, were more likely to be the recipients of Title I programs, be suspended and/or expelled from school, as well as drop out of school more often. The identification of these support system failures certainly seems to be crucial if we are to accurately discern which students are likely to be at-risk in our nation's school systems. Besides ascertaining which support systems are failing, it should also be important to determine which support system(s) are failing our nation's students' most often. The present study therefore sought to address these concerns.

Editor's Comment

This issue marks the end of the 14th year of publication for the Journal. The first section of the issue reflects the growing attention paid to Quality School concepts. The first article by PARISH/ANDERSON describes research data identifying some current problems. The article by WIGLE/MANGES points the way toward a desired direction. The articles by BRAY and SCHATZ provide two outstanding examples of Quality Schools in action.

The second section presents several research-based reports. The article by RACHOR describes a domestic violence treatment program. EASTERNBROOKS reports on a study done with a college student with hearing loss. The article by MARTIN/THOMPSON reports on a method used in working with student athletes.

The final Journal section provides a mixture of theory and practice. MICKEL discusses the process of family mediation. This is followed by two articles - by EMED and DAVIDSON - exploring issues relating to faith and spirituality. APPEL looks specifically at the survival need. BRATTER provides an interesting book review looking at Prozac. Finally, WUBBOLDING, Director of Training for the Institute, reports on an ethical issue addressed by the Institute Board of Directors in Dublin in 1994.

At this time, I am looking for individuals interested in serving on the Journal editorial board. Individuals should hold at least Institute faculty status, be current on RT/CT principles and practice, and preferably have some writing/publishing experience. If interested, please send a resume to me at the editorial address. Members of the editorial board are asked to critique articles submitted to the Journal.
METHOD

A total of 2,481 K-12 students from a single school district in Colorado voluntarily completed the following surveys, or had their teachers do so on their behalf. All of the 9th through 12th grade students completed the Personal History Inventory (Parish & Parish, 1991). Meanwhile, teachers of students in grades K-12 completed the Personal History Inventory for Children (Parish & Wigle, 1985) for each of their students. Both inventories consist of 14 items, each item intended to assess the functionality or non-functionality of particular support systems for students. The actual items for both surveys appear in Tables 1 and 2, respectively.

Table 1
The Parish Personal History Inventory

Instructions: Please respond to the questions below by indicating either yes or no in the appropriate spaces. Only those who have lost a parent need respond to items 9-14.

1. In reference to your childhood/adolescence, would you describe your parents as either having been hostile or uncaring?
2. In reference to your childhood/adolescence, do you think you received adequate supervision when you were not in school?
3. In reference to your childhood/adolescence, do you feel that your teachers were generally concerned about your welfare?
4. In reference to your childhood/adolescence, do you feel that your peers were supportive of you?
5. In reference to your childhood/adolescence, did your family experience a great deal of geographic mobility?
6. In reference to your childhood/adolescence, did your family experience a great deal of financial hardship?
7. During your childhood/adolescence, did your parents get divorced?
8. During your childhood/adolescence, did one or both of your parents die?
9. If you experienced parent loss/absence, was there a stigma associated with this event?
10. If you experienced parent loss/absence, did your remaining parent experience a shaken sense of confidence?
11. If you experienced parent loss, did your remaining parent experience a marked increase in their role responsibilities?
12. If you experienced parent loss/absence, did your remaining parent experience (at least for a time) a task overload?
13. If you experienced parent loss/absence, did your remaining parent experience (at least for a time) an emotional overload?
14. If you experienced parent loss/absence, did your remaining parent remarry?

ID:
SEX:

Table 2
The Personal History Inventory for Children

Student's name ____________________________
Student's birthdate ____________________________
Student's grade ____________________________
Teacher's name ____________________________
School's name ____________________________

Instructions: In describing the above mentioned child, please respond to the following questions by indicating either yes or no in the appropriate spaces. You need respond to items 9-14 only if the child has experienced either parent loss or absence.

If you are unsure of any item, just leave it blank.

1. In your estimation, do the parents act in either an uncaring or hostile fashion toward the above mentioned child?
2. In your estimation, does the above mentioned child receive adequate supervision when he/she is not in school?
3. In your estimation, have you and your fellow teachers generally shown concern for the above mentioned child's welfare?
4. In your estimation, have the peers of the above mentioned child been supportive of him/her?
5. In your estimation, has the family of the above mentioned child experienced a great deal of geographic mobility?
6. In your estimation, has the family of the above mentioned child experienced a great deal of financial hardship?
7. Have the parents of the above mentioned child separated or gotten a divorce?
8. Have one or both parents of the above mentioned child died?
9. If the above mentioned child experienced parental loss or absence, was there a stigma associated with this event?
10. If the above mentioned child experienced parental loss or absence, did the remaining parent experience (at least for a time) a shaken sense of confidence?
11. If the above mentioned child experienced parental loss or absence, did the remaining parent experience (at least for a time) a marked increase in their role responsibilities?
12. If the above mentioned child experienced parental loss or absence, did the remaining parent experience (at least for a time) a task overload?
13. If the above mentioned child experienced parental loss or absence did the remaining parent experience (at least for a time) an emotional overload?
14. If the above mentioned child experienced parental loss or absence, did the remaining parent remarry? (Note: This effect appears to be dependent upon the gender of the child, i.e., females seem to benefit more than males) Therefore, kindly indicate the sex of the child below:
   male   female
   Today's date ____________________________

4
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In order to determine which support system(s) fail the most, percentages were computed for each of the items on the two scales so that the reader can readily see where such systems are most “at-risk.”

Table 3
Percentage of Responses on Each Item of The Personal History Inventory and The Personal History Inventory for Children.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>No answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Parent(s) hostile/uncaring</td>
<td>74.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>21.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Adequate supervision</td>
<td>70.3</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Teachers care</td>
<td>51.5</td>
<td>34.9</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Peers supportive</td>
<td>76.5</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Geographical mobility</td>
<td>61.8</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Financial hardship</td>
<td>56.8</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>31.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Parents divorced</td>
<td>51.3</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Parent(s) deceased</td>
<td>69.8</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Stigma</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>84.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Shock confidence</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>86.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Increased responsiveness</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>85.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Task overload</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>86.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Emotional overload</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>86.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Remarried</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>80.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* A "Yes" is intended to indicate that the support system in question was working well (e.g., parents were perceived not to be hostile and uncaring), and that no particular problem was found with it.

A "No" is intended to indicate that the support system in question was malfunctioning (e.g., parents were perceived to be hostile and uncaring).

"No answer" indicates that the item was left blank.

As the reader can easily discern from Table 3, students and teachers both identified “teachers” as the support system that failed students most often. A total of 35% of the respondents reported that teachers were not concerned with their students’ welfare. Curiously, teacher support system failure even topped such well known and expected support system failures as parent loss through divorce (27%), substantial financial hardship (12%), and parents being hostile and uncaring (5%). The results certainly seem to suggest that it may not be the parents and the family’s situation that need the most immediate attention if we are genuinely going to end the spiraling increase in students in our schools being identified as being “at-risk.”

Rather, these data suggest that it is the teachers themselves that are the most frequent “support system failure,” and as such may be one of the key factors undermining students’ academic performance and social-emotional well-being. Of course, these conclusions are only reflective of both students’ and teachers’ perceptions, and may not be totally accurate. Nevertheless, these are their perceptions, and as such, need to be fully considered in terms of their possible impact on the students in question.

In order to address this problem of lack of teacher concern for students, a two-pronged approach may be most appropriate. First, teachers may need to receive increased support from their community, and/or their administration. After all, how can we expect teachers to give of themselves when they get little in return.

Second, teachers need to familiarize themselves with some of the ideas offered by Glasser (1990, 1993), that suggest that teachers need to create “quality schools” and be “quality school teachers” if they really wish to positively impact upon their students. More specifically, teachers need to ascertain an understanding of their students’ needs and wants, and then show them ways that they can fulfill them. In so doing, teachers will help students to achieve those things that their students have placed in their “quality worlds,” and as a result will more likely be placed within the hallowed confines of this very special world themselves. Said somewhat differently, Glasser (1980), once stated that “People don’t learn what they don’t want to learn, but teaching becomes effective as soon as people who hurt discover that they can learn a better way” (p. 52). Hopefully, teachers will ponder these words and apply them to their teaching, for in so doing they will more likely be able to help their students to succeed, and experience more personal successes themselves.

In summary, the present study demonstrated that teachers’ lack of concern for students (both children and adolescents) was the most frequent support system failure reported by students and teachers. Of course, more research is needed to further validate this conclusion, since it is only based on students’ and teachers’ perceptions. Nevertheless, teachers need to be apprised of this finding so that they can take immediate remediative action. For in so doing, our students’ needs would be better met, and they will subsequently more likely succeed.
MEANING, RELEVANCE, AND PURPOSE:
MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS IN QUALITY SCHOOLS

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ABSTRACT

The thesis of this article is that increased learning for all students can be achieved when meaning, relevance, and purpose for classroom learning tasks are generated as an important part of the entire learning process. Curriculum, statements of purpose, and teaching strategies were proposed as three elements which were important in establishing meaning, relevance, and purpose.

While there is not widespread agreement concerning the general purposes of school, most would support the premise that a quality school should be designed to help children prepare for their futures (Cohen, 1993; Diessner, 1987; Romanish, 1993). Schooling must facilitate the acquisition of knowledges and skills which students will use after they exit school (Brophy, 1992; Marshall, 1992; Resnick & Klopfer, 1989). The goal of school is student learning and the business of school is instruction. However, students must choose to learn if schools are to be successful in fulfilling their primary function (Anderson, 1989a; Berg & Clough, 1991; Davis, Maher, & Noddings, 1990; Nuthall & Alton-Lee, 1990). And for students to choose to learn, quality schools must create a climate where students are enthusiastic about what they will learn (Glasser, 1986; 1990).

Student motivation is critical for learning (Ringness, 1965; Ugurogulu & Walberg, 1979). And theories of motivation abound in the literature related to classroom learning. For example, from control theory, we know that meeting the needs that students have in their quality worlds is vital if students are going to choose to do quality schoolwork. From social learning theory, we know that learners must expect to succeed and also believe that what they are learning is important and valuable if they are to be motivated. To promote a sense of value, students must understand both what they are supposed to be learning and also why they are learning it (Anderson, 1989b; Blumenfeld, 1992). Some cognitive theories assume that humans have a basic need to understand their environment and to be competent, self-directed and active in coping with the world (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991; White, 1959). But for learning to be effective, students must perceive the task with which they are involved as meaningful and important (Dweck, 1985; Glasser, 1969). In fact, student motivation to learn has been described as a student tendency to find academic activities as meaningful and worthwhile (Brophy, 1988). Finally, information processing theory assumes that making transfer as general as possible is an important factor in classroom teaching and learning. And the
key to this process is meaningfulness (Brown & Kane, 1988). Transfer, like retention, depends upon the students' ability to access and connect information in long-term memory, which in turn depends on its meaningfulness (Prawat, 1989).

One central issue that emerges from an overview of the research concerning student motivation and learning is the importance of meaningfulness. How can teachers make the concepts, information, and skills that they want students to learn as meaningful as possible? The thesis of this article is that increased learning for all students can be achieved when meaning, relevance, and purpose for classroom learning tasks are generated as an important part of the entire learning process. The purpose of this article is to discuss ways in which this might be done.

**CURRICULUM**

The curriculum that is taught in any classroom is an important factor in determining whether or not students will perceive the learning of that curriculum as having any meaning or value to them. However, evidence suggests that students in a variety of curricular domains are receiving a fleeting curriculum as having any meaning or value to them. However, evidence suggests that students in a variety of curricular domains are receiving a fleeting curriculum as having any relevance or value (Porter, 1989; Shanker, 1988). In part, this state of affairs is accounted for by the fact that many classroom teachers look to textbooks for guidance in deciding what to teach. Because of this, the textbook to a great extent has come to define the content of what is taught in schools. Given the size and the amount of information contained in the average textbook, so many, often conflicting, curricular demands are made by textbooks that teachers cannot possibly cover all the material adequately. So teachers often respond by “teaching for exposure,” which means that students often receive superficial exposure to a large amount of information, much of which is not perceived by them as having any relevance or value (Porter, 1989; Shanker, 1988).

Perhaps a better approach to curricular decisions for teachers to adopt would be “less is more” (Sizer, 1984). Instead of trying to “cover the book,” students would be better served if teachers examined their curricular domain in the light of how it relates to the world outside of the classroom. Following such an examination, those parts of content domains that have the greater potential for helping students meet the demands of the world beyond the academic setting should be targeted as intended student learning outcomes. By focusing upon knowledges and skills that have value in the larger society, outside of school, school learning could potentially become more than committing to memory isolated bits of information arbitrarily selected from various curricular domains. School learning could foster skills that are widely transferable, skills that match what people do in nonschool settings, and skills that have a clear relationship to the problems children find significant (Gardner, 1982). By connecting what happens in school to important nonschool knowledges and skills, students may begin to perceive the school learning tasks they are asked to engage in as meaningful and important. As the perceived meaning of any task increases, student motivation to attempt that task also increases. The choice of what we ask students to learn is an important one.

**PURPOSE**

Learning tasks may have three kinds of values to students. If a task meets one or more of students’ personal needs, they may see that task as having some attainment value. If a task provides some enjoyment to students, they may see that task as having some intrinsic value. If a task makes a contribution to meeting one or more student goals, they may see that task as having some utility value (Eccles & Wigfield, 1985). To help establish attainment value of school learning, teachers must connect the chosen learning tasks to the needs of the students (Newby, 1991; Schiefele, 1991). Designing learning tasks that require higher-order thinking on the part of students and which lead students to use the knowledge gained from such tasks in meaningful ways, helps to establish intrinsic value to school learning tasks (Herman, Ashbacher, & Winters, 1992). Personalization, or trying to connect curricular content to students’ daily lives, enhances learning by enhancing the meaningfulness of that learning (Lemke, 1982). So, to help establish the utility value of school learning, teachers need to point out and explain to students the connections that exist between what teachers want students to learn and their lives outside of and beyond school (Abi-Nader, 1991).

One insight that emerges from the research about the value of school learning is that value is not an inherent property of any particular learning task. Instead, a task has to be endowed with value by teachers and students. Part of the value of any learning task will result from how that task relates to what the student already knows (Resnick & Klopfer, 1989) and what the student thinks is important to learn (Eccles & Wigfield, 1985). However, learning tasks may also come to have value in the eyes of students if teachers point out the connections between a learning task and its usefulness in helping students meet their current or future needs (Glasser, 1990).

The messages teachers send through their actions help determine students’ attitudes toward learning and their perceptions of the value of that learning. Whenever a teacher asks students to attempt a particular learning task, the teacher must explain how that task can benefit the students. A teacher who is able to effectively incorporate a clear statement of relevant purpose into a lesson, will assist students in building the essential bridge from past knowledge to enhance the meaning of the learning task (Hunter, 1982, 1991).

In selecting and communicating to students the purpose for a task, teachers must make that purpose specific, believable, and personalized for the individual student. Saying, “learning this leads to certain benefits,” does not assist students in generating the link between their goals and the task. Instructors must know some of the pictures students have in their quality worlds and then articulate reasons for learning that are congruent with those student interests and needs. When students make such connections between a learning task and their personal goals, they tend to work harder and attempt more difficult tasks (Schunk, 1991). If teachers want students to remain motivated and perform at higher levels, then they must not fail to help generate the critical link between learning tasks and current or future students needs (McCombs, 1993). However, if instruction does
not provide such a connection, or if students are unable to make that connection, then students will be much less likely to perceive any meaning or value in school learning.

TEACHING STRATEGIES

Making good decisions about what students will be asked to learn and communicating reasonable reasons why they should learn are important factors in generating meaning, relevance and purpose for school learning. However, an equally important factor is how students go about the process of school learning. Teaching strategies make a difference in student motivation to learn (Gage, 1985; Good & Brophy, 1986; Good & Brophy, 1991). Classroom teaching strategies should facilitate maximum student involvement in any particular learning task (Nystrand & Gamoran, 1989). Active student involvement is made more probable when students are given frequent opportunities to respond (Anderson, Evertson, & Brophy, 1979), and when there are opportunities for substantive student-teacher interaction during instruction (Cruickshank, 1985; Snyder et al., 1991). In addition to active student involvement, classroom teaching strategies need to emphasize tasks that are worthwhile. If students are repeatedly asked to do busywork, to memorize definitions they will never use, to learn the material only because it is on the test, or to repeat work they already understand, then there will be little motivation to learn (Brophy, 1992; Brophy & Kher, 1986). Teaching strategies need to emphasize student understanding and utilization in real-world settings (Brophy, 1992; Marshall, 1992).

Teaching strategies that actively engage students, that require higher-order thinking, that have high transfer value, and that ask students to extend and apply their learning beyond the classroom are motivating to students. It takes time, effort and creativity to design such approaches to classroom teaching. It also takes an awareness of the part of teachers of the importance of how they ask students to learn in their classrooms. If students are to invest significant effort in school learning, they need to perceive that how they will learn has as much meaning, relevance, and value as what and why they are asked to learn.

CONCLUSION

Teachers should explain more than they do now about why we teach the things we do. We frequently require students to perform tasks in isolation, but we must learn to “sell” what we believe is worth learning to those we teach. Effective educators must create a learning climate where teachers provide relevance for student learning of the information and skills that they are asked to learn. When students are actively involved in their own learning, when students see value in classroom procedures, instruction, and curriculum, when students think that what they are learning is somehow connected both to the external world and their quality worlds, they will demonstrate an increased motivation to learn. In a quality school, all teachers must make a constant effort to teach so that what students are asked to do connects to the external world in a way that has value to them.

References

THE EVOLUTION OF A QUALITY SCHOOL: A CASE STUDY OF LEADERSHIP

Peter J. Bray

The author, who is reality therapy certified and a practicum supervisor, was a high school principal in New Zealand for fifteen years before undertaking doctoral studies at the University of San Diego in 1992-1994. He returned to New Zealand after graduation in May 1994.

ABSTRACT

A report on a case study of a school seeking to be a Quality School in Dr. William Glasser’s understanding. Using Dr. Joseph Rost’s definition of leadership as an influence relationship among leaders and collaborators who intend real change that reflect their mutual purposes, the study examined a school as it underwent substantial change. The crucial factor in bringing about the change, particularly in teachers’ beliefs, was the noncoercive use of influence by people in the school as they used Rost’s understanding of leadership. The change in the school was most noticeable in the care adults had for students and the drive to continually improve the quality of students’ experience at school. This was facilitated by training in Reality Therapy and Control Theory.

Developing a Quality School is a difficult and painful process. It is a process requiring a mind-shift that challenges people’s normal assumptions about what schools do and how they do that. Such a challenge can be very threatening to people in the school and can lead to considerable conflict. Those people serious about embarking on such a project need to be aware of the complexity and messiness involved in bringing about substantial change in an organization such as a school.

I had the opportunity to examine a school that was involved in the complex process of moving toward becoming a Quality School in the way William Glasser uses that term. On Glasser’s recommendation, I approached such a school, and the Board, Superintendent, principals and people from the school graciously consented to me doing the research. People in this one school have used a variety of means to bring about the changes that occurred. Because I undertook to preserve the anonymity of the place as a condition of my research, let me call it Mountainvista School. I observed this school for twelve months, from October 1992 until October 1993, and made inquiries about what had happened over the previous seven years. I was particularly interested in the leadership processes that were used to bring about the substantial changes that had occurred over that period.

THE SETTING

The people in the school were, and continue to be, faced with some very real difficulties. It is a one-school district in a rural area of California. Students are bussed to the school from an area measuring roughly five hundred square miles. The area is economically depressed with an 18% unemployment rate. Of the families who send children to the school, 46% are deemed to be at or below the poverty level so the children from these families are eligible for the free/reduced lunch program. Some students live
without electricity or running water. Some even live in tents or in cars for either short or extended periods of time. The majority of the students are from one-parent families and less than a quarter of them live with both natural parents. Drug babies have begun to appear at the school — almost 40% of the guardians in one kindergarten class admitted that serious drug use either was taking place, or had taken place in the home. It was within this context that the people in the school went about making changes.

Before the present superintendent was appointed, there had been a series of superintendents in the last few years. Such a turnover created a sense of instability, and uncertainty began to pervade the school. A number of teachers were concerned that what was best for the students was not given top priority. There was an awareness among this group that what was wanted for the students and what was happening were significantly different.

Soon after these teachers began talking about their concerns the superintendency became vacant again. The present superintendent, who was one of these teachers, decided to apply for the position. He was appointed and immediately began to evaluate in detail what was happening. The way he described the environment was in terms of a military metaphor. ‘The students were at war with the school and the school was at war with the students.’ He, along with the other teachers in the small group, were determined that the atmosphere in the school had to change. The relationship between the teachers and the students had to change if students were going to be adequately prepared for the twenty-first century. In addition, what the students were asked to do had to make sense to them.

INITIATING CHANGE

As these teachers sought 1) to improve the relationships between teachers and students and 2) enhance the experience students had at the school, a series of changes followed. Among these changes were the removal from the school of textbooks, tests and homework; the development of new approaches to discipline; a new structure of three periods a day, instead of the seven that had been there previously, and a new way of arriving at decisions. Such changes were not welcomed by everyone. There were heated battles as those opposed to the changes fought to avoid having change were trying to do was use their influence to entice, encourage and persuade other people at the school to engage in different behavior. They were wanting those people to place new pictures in their Quality World. Pictures that would provide people at the school with the motivation to interact with the students and with one another in a more need-satisfying way. Many of the people at the school made significant changes. Many teachers did install new pictures in their Quality Worlds, but by no means did all.

As the changes moved along, opportunities were offered to anyone who was interested in receiving the Reality Therapy/Control Theory training. This offer was not just restricted to teachers, but included anyone who was involved with the students. This training, and other educational opportunities, had a significant influence on the thinking of the people wanting to be involved. As a result changes were introduced which the people there felt were in line with the new thinking.

FOCUS ON LEADERSHIP

Since the focus of this study was on leadership, I sought to carefully examine the leadership processes that enabled the changes to occur, and also enabled the people to place new pictures in their Quality World. In doing this I was using an understanding of leadership that was developed by Joseph Rost (1991) at the University of San Diego. He found that leadership resides in great men and women who have “certain preferred traits who influence followers to do what the leaders wish in order to achieve group/organizational goals that reflect excellence defined as some kind of higher-order effectiveness” (Rost, 1991, p. 95).

In seeking to look beyond leadership residing in a person holding a position, Rost provided a framework to think of a leadership dynamic residing in a group. He defined leadership as “an influence relationship among leaders and their collaborators who intend real change that reflect their mutual purposes” (Rost, 1993, p. 99). In this understanding, leadership resides in the relationship that exists among the group of people who are wanting change, not just in an individual in a certain position. This approach moves beyond the great man/woman, do-what-the-leader-wants, and trait theories that are part of the dysfunctional industrial paradigm of leadership. There are four elements in this new definition. 1. It is a relationship based on influence. 2. The relationship is an active one involving leaders and collaborators influencing each other. 3. Leaders and their collaborators intend real changes. 4. What leaders and their collaborators intend reflect their mutual purposes. In leadership, therefore, change is a crucial element. It comes about through noncoercive influencing relationships.

Because leadership is invested in the relationship, it is not something possessed by some individual in a position. People in such a group all do leadership. The person with the most influence to move the group in a particular direction would be the leader at a particular time. However, the other people in the group have a responsibility to examine what is being proposed, to critique it, clarify it, support or oppose it. Leadership in this understanding is not passively doing what the leader wants. To exercise leadership, people must be actively involved and committed to seek after the common purposes of the group.

Such an understanding of leadership blends well with Glasser’s ideas of noncoercive involvement in a Quality School (Glasser, 1990). There are some difficulties, however, with Glasser’s term of lead-management. Rost’s
understanding of leadership makes a clear distinction between leadership and management. Leadership is about change while management is about current good order. That does not denigrate management. We desperately need good managers to ensure that things run smoothly and that goals are achieved. But such activity is not leadership. Leadership is an episodic affair where people marshal their personal resources to influence others in a certain new direction. This does not happen eight hours a day. It is not something that people spend their lives doing. Rather, as the need arises people seek to influence others to provide a new opportunity to attain mutual purposes.

A great deal of pressure is removed from people who are in authority positions within a school when leadership is viewed in this way. Such people are not required to have all the answers, to provide all the initiatives, to have the most influence for every issue. However, such people must relinquish a tight control on what happens in the group and allow other people the opportunity to influence the course of events. Thus there is a clear connection between the way a school is managed and the possibility of leadership emerging, but management is distinct from leadership. By using the term 'lead-management', Glasser combines these two very distinct ideas which results in confusion rather than clarity.

Mountainvista School stumbled into using this new understanding of leadership when the processes evolved into a noncoercive influence pattern. There were avenues for anybody at the school to exert influence and have an impact. When they were proposing new initiatives, however, they needed to be sure their reasons were well thought out and that they had good backing for what they were proposing, but change could originate from anywhere, not just from people in positions of authority.

INFLUENCE CRUCIAL

The use of influence in the whole change process was significant. The superintendent was a prominent person in bringing about change, although by no means the only one. There were a number of things which influenced him in the direction he took and a number of ways in which he influenced the course of events. Because he was an avid reader and subscribed to a number of magazines, the superintendent was influenced by the research reported in education-related material. In conjunction with this he was prepared to reflect on his own experience and the experience of others. He was open to learn from his successes and mistakes and the reports of other peoples' successes and failures. Through the process of intertwining research with reflection on his own experience and that of others, the superintendent was persuaded to adopt different ways of thinking and subsequently different ways of behaving.

The way the superintendent influenced others in the school arose from the things that influenced him. There were many personal resources he had available, such as: he was in an authority position; he had access to official information; he was well read, and had time to search out information; he was able to package information into digestible portions; he was articulate; he was forceful in presenting his reasons; he was willing to listen to other people's opinions; he had good communication skills; and he had access to outside individuals who could add weight to his arguments, etc. In order to influence the direction the changes in the school were to go, he marshaled these resources and used them very effectively.

The superintendent wanted to increase the gap at the comparing stations of the people in the school and so he kept asking questions about what was being done at the school. In this way he encouraged people to evaluate what was happening against what was possible. By wanting people to feel uncomfortable with the status quo, he was hoping to entice them to put a new picture in their Quality World.

In addition to these questions he wrote memos reflecting on some aspect of what was happening at the school. These were generally about a page long and were sent to all people involved with students. In this way he was again enticing people to reflect on what was happening at the school. The findings of research had a significant impact on the superintendent, and he used appropriate articles to alert people at the school to aspects of research that had bearing on what they were doing. When teachers indicated a desire to learn more about some aspect of their job, opportunities were provided to gain further skills and education. The training in Reality Therapy and Control Theory was an important aspect of this development of skills and new understandings. Thus, knowledge had a significant connection with the new beliefs the people at the school were developing.

One important way the superintendent influenced change in the school was in the choice of new teachers employed at the school. The process he used tended to ensure that the people coming into the school were open to the changes and prepared to become involved in improving what was happening at the school.

Perhaps the way the superintendent was most influential was through taking responsibility for failure in the school. He saw his role as being responsible for establishing the structures for teachers to succeed with students. If they didn't succeed in what they tried, then he asked what ways he could have been of greater assistance to them. His trust of their professionalism empowered them to reach out for continual improvement in what they were doing.

The way other people at the school influenced the process of change was through trusting one another and working together in peer-support arrangements; reflecting together on what was happening; initiating new ideas and contributing to the ideas other people initiated; instructing new teachers on the way things were done at the school, and especially by developing ways of caring for students that changed the atmosphere in the school.

These strategies were influential because they created a need-satisfying environment. A crucial factor in the development of such an environment was the trust the administrators, the superintendent and the two principals, placed in the professionalism of the people at the school and the trust the people working in the school developed in one another. This trust was evident in the attitude the superintendent took to other people and that many of them took to him. Because there was such a mutual trust among a significant group at the school, options opened up for teachers to try new
approaches in an attempt to meet the needs of the students at the school. Such an approach created an atmosphere for change.

As the change process evolved a steering committee was established. This became a major policy-making group in the school. The composition of the committee reflected the interests of the teachers, the ancillary staff, the parents and the board. The committee came into existence during the course of my investigation and was still evolving when I concluded my work at the school. During my attendance at their meetings, the members of the committee worked from ground rules which they had agreed upon and found liberating and conducive to discussion and decisions. These rules were:

1. This is a safe zone. 2. No rank in the room. 3. Everyone participates, no one dominates. 4. Help us to stay on track. 5. Listen as an ally. 6) One speaker at a time. 7. Be an active listener. 8. Agree only if it makes sense to do so. 9. Keep an open mind. 10. Maintain confidentiality. 11. Have fun. 12. Spelling doesn’t count. 13. Start and end on time. A facilitator was used to ensure these rules were followed and the meetings proceeded with a calm efficiency. In using these rules, the committee not only worked through a significant agenda but did so in a way that provided people with a sense of ownership in what was happening at the school.

A significant aspect of these meetings was that the second rule meant something. The administrators committed themselves to consensus decisions. They realize they had to marshal their resources to support a particular line of action or policy. However, if they could not convince members of the committee of the wisdom of what they were supporting, they would not revert to position power to get their way. Such a declaration freed people on the committee to say what they thought and to examine previously unexplored possibilities.

In this committee, it was particularly obvious that a new understanding of leadership was being played out. Individuals marshaled their personal resources and sought to influence the direction of policy. When someone initiated a proposal, other people on the committee did not sit passively by but were intimately involved in critiquing, clarifying, supporting or opposing what was proposed. Everyone on the committee did leadership.

This did not mean everyone had equal influence. Obviously, because of the considerable resources the superintendent was able to marshal he had a significant influence on the direction. The important fact, however, is that the process followed allowed leadership to be done in a new way.

Through the unpredictable process of continually searching for a better way to provide for students, the people at the school developed what became known as the parachute. This was a diagram illustrating the base from which the people were working and against which future proposals could be gauged. Essentially it was geared to optimizing student success by meeting the basic needs of love and belonging; fun and learning; power and recognition; freedom and choices; survival and security in order to become capable self-reliant participants in a twenty-first century democracy.

**CHANGE IN TEACHERS’ BELIEFS NEEDED**

The substantial changes that came about in the school resulted from more than tinkering with the details. There was a significant change in thinking, a change in the beliefs teachers held about students, about school, about what it meant to be a teacher. Unless people's beliefs had changed, there would not have been any significant change in the school. The way people think influences the way they behave and so the way people think about school, students, teaching etc., will markedly influence what they do in the school.

Schools can be thought about in a great variety of ways and these ways of thinking have significance for the way change is brought about. One of the important things to remember is that a school is not something physical like a table, chair or building. Hence it can only be talked about by using metaphors. One way to think about organizations like schools is as patterns of relationships that have been established over time and become accepted (Bray, 1993). At a particular time the relationship between the students and the teachers has been reasonably accepted. The relationships among teachers and the relationships the teachers have with the administrators have, over time, become understood and accepted. If the school is to change then the pattern of relationships has to change. Because this pattern is so complex it is unwise to think substantial change in schools can be achieved easily. It is a difficult, painful, ambiguous and paradoxical process requiring a long-term commitment on the part of those people interested in bringing about change.

Despite the difficulty it is possible. Teachers’ beliefs did change at Mountainvista. As I investigated the ways this occurred, it gradually became clear that there were four aspects involved in bringing about that change. The first was that people had to self-evaluate and become convinced that what they were doing was not adequate. This needed to be a deep conviction, not just a superficial notion. They then had to find a new theory or new way of thinking about some aspect of what they were doing. Such a new understanding, however, was not sufficient for a change in behavior. People had to see the new theory in practice or, in other words, see it modeled. Then, they had to try it themselves and experience some success in those tentative efforts. This process was not strictly chronological but rather an intricate blending of these aspects over time.

At Mountainvista, the superintendent, among others, sought to entice people to self-evaluate and see the need for a new approach. Glasser and other theorists provided the new theories or understandings. The Reality Therapy/Control Theory training process and the exposure of people at the school to one another and to other people who were trying different approaches provided the modeling. In a supportive and concerned atmosphere, people tried the new approaches and experienced some success. Over time, with the blending of these aspects, a change in thinking and beliefs among some of the people working at the school emerged.

The process of change is such that it rolls on, and peoples’ confidence increases as they see the result of their efforts and experience the improvement in the atmosphere in the school and the thirst of the students to learn. This certainly happened at Mountainvista. Students loved going to school and were excited by what they were doing. Because the relationship between
the students and the teachers improved, teachers were more willing to take risks in what they were doing with students. Hence, there was an improvement in the quality of what students were experiencing and so they were more interested. Thus, this circle continued to promote an atmosphere in the school that was supportive of change.

CONCLUSION

As people at Mountainvista moved on their journey toward quality, they were able to develop an atmosphere where people’s needs were met. This required, at times, considerable change in the pattern of relationships that had existed there, and part of this was enticing people involved in the school to place new pictures in their quality world. When this happened, the valuing filters were altered and this enabled people at the school to view one another, and particularly students, in a new light. People’s experience in bringing about such change showed it was possible for a group doing leadership to reflect the four aspects of Rost’s (1991) proposal for a more suitable understanding of leadership for the twenty-first century. The relationship was based on influence; it was an active one with influence moving in many directions among the leaders and collaborators; they were certainly intending real change, not just superficial tinkering, and the change was intended to be for the mutual benefit of the people at the school.

The new understanding of leadership can bring people together to create a Quality School with the characteristics Glasser advocates. It precludes a cookbook approach because it relies on people being free within themselves and so having integrity, on people taking responsibility for their actions, and on people making a commitment to seek after common purposes. With such a combination the possibilities for creativity in bringing about change are exciting and the source of great hope.


*S Based on unpublished dissertation research submitted in the Leadership Doctoral Program at the University of San Diego, 1994.

SCHOOL REFORM AND RESTRUCTURING THROUGH THE USE OF THE “QUALITY SCHOOL” PHILOSOPHY

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ABSTRACT

Huntington Woods Elementary School, Wyoming, MI, is experiencing success in the areas of reform and restructuring through the use of the “Quality School” model, conceived by Dr. William Glasser. Huntington Woods Elementary School, founded in 1993, is on the cutting edge of school reform. Based on its belief system, Huntington’s unique design features make it one of a kind in the nation.

As many schools across the nation are in the process of school reform and restructuring, each one is finding ways to cope and find hope to better educate children for tomorrow’s society. Huntington Woods Elementary School, Wyoming, Michigan, founded in 1993, is on the cutting edge of such reform and restructuring through the use of the “Quality School” philosophy developed by Dr. William Glasser.

The “Quality School” philosophy involves a belief system as the organizing principle which is implemented through school leadership systemically. The belief system focuses on attitudinal changes such as eliminating coercion as a behavior, using self evaluation as a means for improvement, and the ability to find purposes for which work takes on meaning and usefulness. By turning these attitudinal changes into management principles in the “Quality School”, it is believed a person’s basic psychological needs for survival, fun, freedom, belonging, and recognition can all be met with a sense of fulfillment.

When these attitudinal changes become internalized within a school learning community, the surrounding environment begins to take on a new dimension. Such is the scenario at Huntington Woods Elementary School.

Huntington Woods is in its second successful year of implementation and is gaining state and nationwide recognition for the success of its efforts. Huntington Woods School was visited by the Michigan Superintendent of Public Instruction, Robert Schiller, in June of ’94. He commented to a Grand Rapids Press reporter (1994, June 30) that Huntington Woods is an example of “all that’s right about restructuring elementary education; it is “a true lighthouse.”

The “Quality School” philosophy which Huntington supports, involves a streamlined version of W. Edwards Deming’s management principles and adds the concepts of Control Theory and Reality Therapy as defined by Dr. Glasser. It is a philosophy designed to improve productivity of the learner and simultaneously meet the psychological needs of the learner.
From this philosophical basis, Huntington has developed unique design features. Some of the features at Huntington include extended year-round education with inter-sessions; team teaching; teachers eating lunch in classrooms with students; choice time (after lunch activity time); Spanish instruction; Parent Action Teams; job corps; business partnerships; no bells; no scheduled recesses; no grading; multi-age learning families; open classrooms; no text books; computer aided learning for individualized instruction; portfolios; student led conferences; students hosting weekly visitors; and students and staff using self-evaluation daily to achieve quality in their work and quality in their lives. These features at Huntington Woods are incorporated to meet the needs of the total learning community including staff, students, parents and the surrounding municipality. The needs are defined through the knowledge of control theory.

Through control theory, it is known that all human beings have genetically encoded psychological needs for survival, belonging, fun, freedom, and recognition. People of all ages meet these five basic needs through behaviors at any given moment. Behaviors to meet these needs can be effective or ineffective. Effective behaviors can be defined as helpful, whereas ineffective behaviors are hurtful. When a need is being satisfied in an ineffective manner, personal conflict can occur leading to a tipping of a person's emotional scales. When fulfilling the five basic needs in an effective manner, people feel good and quality is added to their life. Hence, the “Quality School” philosophy focuses on being need fulfilling for its participants in order to add quality to their lives. This is accomplished by using attitudinal changes as management principles.

The management principles practiced at Huntington Woods can be streamlined into three basic ones. The first principle is to provide meaningful and useful learning through hands on education and real life experiences. Secondly, a warm, supportive environment is established by the elimination of coercion. There is no need for coercion in a “Quality School” since students will find their work meaningful and useful. Thirdly, and perhaps the cornerstone of the “Quality School”, is the practice of self evaluation as a means for improvement. Not only do these three principles apply to students, but also to teachers, administrators, and parent volunteers as well.

The first management technique, Meaningful and Useful Learning for students, is demonstrated by running school business such as the school store, crayon factory, school post office, school bank, and school newspaper. Students also engage in partnerships with area businesses. Meaningful as well for students is the opportunity to help each other. Through the implementation of multi-aging, older students naturally serve as peer tutors for the younger ones. Multi-aging parallels real life in that everyone learns from people of different ages throughout life.

Job corps at Huntington provides upper elementary students with experience in: (1) maintenance and housekeeping duties such as sweeping the halls and outdoor track, changing toilet paper and toweling, cleaning and straightening the lobby, dusting coat racks, straightening coat racks, emptying trash and recycling paper; (2) clerical duties in the office and media center; and (3) public relations duties such as creating a display for the showcase and hosting weekly visitors and speaking about Huntington at education conferences throughout the state. Not only are these types of duties real life experiences, but they also involve the students in taking pride in their environment. The basic needs of recognition and belonging can easily be met through these experiences.

Spanish instruction is being implemented at Huntington Woods, since a large percentage of the U.S. population is now Spanish speaking. The students are taught Spanish through interactive video and should be able to speak fluently after five years of the program. There are no test books at Huntington Woods, since in this, the information age, text books grow obsolete quickly, and do not provide real life experience for the students. As one substitute for text books, an Integrated Learning System is networked on all computers in the building and is used for individualized learning instruction. Through the use of the I.L.S., students can progress at their own speed. Word processing skills and keyboarding are taught to students as part of the curriculum at Huntington.

Year round schooling at Huntington Woods provides an opportunity for the students to plant and tend flower and vegetable gardens during the growing season. The flowers and vegetables are harvested and given to local nursing homes and charities. Year-round education also means less reviewing of essential learning, since students’ learning is reinforced 11 months of the year.

Extended year school at Huntington means 181 days of instruction with typical holiday break periods, and three, two week optional inter-session periods for staff and students. Inter-session periods typically occur in October, February, and May and may be used for vacationing or as a time for re-teaching or enrichment activities. For students who opt to attend all of the inter-sessions, there is a total of 210 days of instruction. Inter-sessions are based on themes in which the students have choices to select from, and involve extra assemblies, field trips and other unusual learning experiences. Through the use of meaningful and useful learning during the inter-session period, the needs of belonging, fun, freedom and recognition can all be met.

The second management technique is providing a warm and supportive environment. Getting to know the students and their families is important in the relationship building process at Huntington Woods. A multi-aged learning family comprised of three age levels stays with the same teachers for up to three years. Less time needs to be taken each year to get to know students. Student anxiety over getting to know new classmates, room procedures, and teachers is lessened as well. The physical structure of the classrooms at Huntington is helpful in engaging the students in cooperative activities. Classrooms are open to each other for movement throughout the day.

In order to provide a flexible, warm environment there are no bells or regularly scheduled recesses. Instead, the multi-age learning families take “breaks” when best suited for their schedule on any given day. This helps teachers and students to maintain momentum and focus. It also eliminates the mass school recess population at recess which in turn increases physical
safeness. Another technique used to diffuse the problems of the typical all school recess after eating lunch is an option of Choice Time. Choice Time provides the students with a number of choices for activities during a 30 minute period. Choice Time activities are supervised by parent volunteers on a daily basis. Some of the choices presented to students are arts and crafts, computer lab, board games, playdough, bingo, free play outside, quiet time, and other activities such as kickball and volleyball. During choice time, the needs for freedom, fun, belonging, and recognition can all be met. This contributes to Huntington’s climate, or environment.

The school rules at Huntington create the environment which is desired for all who enter the building. The rules are; Safety, Cooperation, Consideration, and Conservation. When speaking of the Safety rule to students, emotional safeness as well as physical safeness is discussed. By providing an environment in which a person feels safe, listened to, and part of a group, everyone feels valued. Through the implementation of class meetings and teachers eating lunch with students, the students are encouraged to share their thoughts and opinions. During these times the warm and supportive environment begins to take shape. In order to provide parents with the same type of environment, informal parent meetings are held frequently by the principal. The parent meetings, also known as “Coffee with the Principal,” are scheduled to answer questions or listen to concerns parents may have. Safety, Cooperation, Consideration and Conservation are practiced throughout the day by all staff and students.

Parents are an integral part of the learning community at Huntington Woods. Parent volunteers log over one hundred hours per week. Parents not only volunteer in classrooms, but also in Family Council Action Teams. Parent Action Teams replace the typical PTA at Huntington Woods. The Action Teams are made up of community members, students, parents and teacher representatives. Each team creates and functions according to its mission statement, and has complete autonomy. There are nine Action Teams at Huntington: Hospitality, Public Relations, Community Resources, Cultural/Fine Arts, Volunteers, Physical Fitness, Connection Activities, Parent Enrichment Program and Horticulture. The Action Teams meet on a monthly basis and promote on going activities throughout the year. By working together, parents and staff promote cohesiveness among the learning community and help create a warm and supportive environment while satisfying their basic needs in a meaningful and useful way.

At Huntington Woods no one condones blaming, or complaining, since the two behaviors are hurtful and do not move anyone toward a proactive stance. Instead, problems are talked out until a win-win agreement can be agreed upon.

The technique used to resolve problems at Huntington comes from the knowledge of reality therapy. Educators at Huntington Woods have had extensive training in the reality therapy process. Since teachers team teach at Huntington, it is possible for one teacher to be relieved to speak to students while the other remains in the classroom. Use of a scheduled floating substitute teacher on a weekly basis also gives the teachers a chance to speak to students, either to get to know them better, or to help them through a problem. Going to the principal’s office does not always mean talking out a problem. It can mean learning the game of cribbage, chatting, or eating lunch with the principal.

Students are taught the philosophical basis of control theory and reality therapy, and learn to apply the principles of each. Therefore, the students learn to use peer intervention when conflict arises. The reality therapy process again focuses on environment building with the person in order to provide a non-coercive warm, supportive and trusting atmosphere. Through the use of reality therapy based on control theory, students are taught that they can gain effective control over their lives by using positive behavior to meet their basic needs.

Self-evaluation, the third management principle, plays a critical role in the “Quality School” philosophy. Self-evaluation involves looking at what we want and what we are doing to get what we want. It is comparing where we’ve been to where we want to be. This includes improvement in behavioral aspects, personal goals, and academic areas. Because self-evaluation is key to the “Quality School” philosophy, there is no use of grading at Huntington Woods. Students assess themselves by thinking about such questions as “What could I have improved upon today, and how am I going to improve it tomorrow?” Students also write weekly narrative self-evaluations and marking period narrative self-evaluations, use portfolios, and conduct student led conferences to show progress and improvements. Teachers also evaluate themselves on a daily basis. Teachers are facilitators, and lead managers. Nowhere will you hear “I think you can do better.” What you will hear teachers saying is, “Is there one thing you could do to improve this?” Self-evaluation is a meaningful and useful tool to aid in improvement either individually, or in a team effort. Dr. Glasser (1992) states, “To be successful in life, we must evaluate ourselves and work to improve: we cannot and should not depend on others to do this for us.”

As Huntington Woods continues its journey through exploring the “Quality School” philosophy, using reality therapy and control theory as its connecting “golden thread”, it adapts and changes with the needs of its learning community.

The “Quality School” approach is not a prescriptive means to school reform. It is not a recipe book for instant success. It is however, a philosophy which one must study, ponder, ask questions about, and practice before it is internalized. The philosophy involves a humanistic, caring, yet straightforward way of management that is need fulfilling. Through this philosophy it is hoped that learners will take an active part in continual improvement of themselves and their surrounding communities.

The staff and administration at Huntington Woods Elementary have found ways to meet the needs of their learning community through exploring possibilities together. Through risk taking they have broken traditional paradigms. Through support of the constituency and central administration, Huntington Woods has been able to thrive.

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AN EVALUATION OF THE FIRST STEP PASSAGES DOMESTIC VIOLENCE PROGRAM

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ABSTRACT

The First Step PASSAGES program is a treatment program using a reality therapy approach for males and females involved in domestic violence. Clients are taught that both the abuser and the abused choose their behaviors in an effort to get their needs met. Eighty-three percent of the female clients reported that, since the First Step program, they had experienced no threats of violence or violence by partners. In an answer to an open ended question about accomplishments since First Step, 73% of males reported increased self-control or improved relationships with others.

First Step in Fostoria, Ohio is a shelter and treatment program for domestic violence. It’s PASSAGES program provides group treatment for both males and females using a psycho-educational therapy program based on the tenets of control theory psychology and the application of reality therapy. This reality therapy approach may be unique in the treatment of domestic violence.

Review of the Research on Domestic Violence

According to Geffner and Rosenbaum (1990), “... the problem of battering and abuse in relationships has reached epidemic proportions” (p. 131). Treatment groups for men who batter originated from public pressure on the criminal justice system to respond more effectively to the problem of wife assault (Dutton, 1986). Treatment programs fall into three categories: therapy programs involving couples, group treatment for male batterers, and criminal justice intervention (Edleson, 1990).

Only recently have attempts been made to evaluate the effectiveness of programs for men who batter (Dutton, 1986; Edleson and Gruszni, 1989; Edleson & Syers, 1990; Lindquist, Telch, and Taylor, 1985; Shupe, Stacey, and Hazelwood, 1986). Dutton (1986) concluded that, in a six month follow-up of male batterers, 33% of untreated men would be expected not to repeat their assaults.

Dutton (1986) compared treatment and control (untreated) groups of men with prior records of wife assault. The recidivism rate for the treated group was four percent compared to the recidivism rate of 16% for the untreated group. However, men were not randomly assigned to treatment and control groups.

Edleson & Gruszni (1989) compared men who completed treatment groups with men who failed to complete treatment groups for batterers. Female partners reported a recidivism rate of one-third for men who completed the program and one-half for men who did not complete the pro-
gram. It could be argued that men who dropped out of treatment tended to be more violent than men who completed the program. Edleson & Grusznki also reported that large numbers of treated males continued to use threats of violence.

Edleson & Syers (1990) reported that six months after treatment, 33% of men in educational treatment groups compared to 54% of men in self-help groups (similar to AA) continued spousal abuse. They also reported that men in self-help groups were more likely to threaten their partners with violence.

Lindquist, Telch, & Taylor (1985) reported a 50 percent recidivism rate among treated couples within six weeks and a 100% recidivism rate among the same couples after six months.

In another study, female partners reported that 55% of men who completed treatment programs and 33% of men who did not complete treatment programs did not continue their violent behavior. In the same study 80% of males, whether in treatment or control groups, reported non-violent behavior (Shupe, Stacey, & Hazelwood, 1986).

The accuracy of self-reports of violence and threats of violence is of great concern to researchers. The under-reporting of verbal and physical violence by men is documented in the literature (Browning & Dutton, 1986; Coleman, 1980; Edleson & Brygger, 1986; Sznovac, 1983).

First Step Program

The PASSAGES program began in 1985 as a standard domestic violence educational course for women. In 1988, Terri Mercer, director of First Step, recognizing the need for a more effective treatment program, chose to adopt a reality therapy and control theory approach. Ms. Mercer felt that the traditional program didn't address the root causes of domestic violence. David Eingle, a social worker, certified in reality therapy, was hired to direct the transition of PASSAGES to a reality therapy approach. During this time all professional staff members were trained and certified in reality therapy. In 1991, a controversial decision was made to integrate males into the PASSAGES program. The staff felt that the inclusion of men was a human issue. If males could hear and understand the female's point of view, while at the same time having females hear and understand their point of view, each would be empowered to change their behavior. PASSAGES is a psycho-educational program based on William Glasser's Control Theory Psychology (Glasser, 1984, 1986). Control theory teaches that each person is internally motivated. Reality Therapy, as authored by Dr. Glasser, is the mechanics or "how-to" of turning control theory into practice.

Many of the males and females involved in incidences of domestic violence (whether mental, emotional, sexual, or physical), were abused as children. As adults, they often admit that they know of no other behaviors to use in their attempts to get their needs met. They have learned that a particular behavior or combination of behaviors (violence) will, for the moment, satisfy a particular need. However, the pictures they have of a loving family fail to become reality because of their chosen ineffective behaviors. They remain unhappy and in great pain (Ohio Physicians' Domestic Violence Prevention Project). In addition, violent behaviors often prove in-effective in meeting their other needs. The abuser can lose his freedom (goes to jail), the female her life (survival), and both parties may continue behaviors which have been unsuccessful in meeting their needs.

Good (1987) stated that happiness occurs when our needs are satisfied and in balance. Our wants are then truly fulfilled. In PASSAGES, clients are encouraged to begin to think about their own choices of behaviors and to determine how effective those behaviors have been in getting their needs met. If their choices are not effective, clients are helped and encouraged to make new plans so their needs can be met. Very little time is spent on exploring the feelings of victimization. While feelings are important, it is an illusion to believe that clients can change them. However, clients can affect change more easily by using the doing and thinking components of behavior.

PASSAGES is a unique intervention/educational program which portrays domestic violence as a human problem rather than a gender-based problem. Clients are taught that both the abuser and the abused choose their behaviors in an effort to get their needs met. It is not the individuals' environment, their past, other individuals, or outside events that drive and decide their behaviors. They are responsible for the choices they make. They act upon their world. The world does not act upon them.

Traditionally, domestic violence professionals have focused on the victimization of the abused and the behaviors of the abusers. This focus teaches the victims that their lives depend on the choices of the abuser. In contrast, control theory stresses to clients that going into the past and blaming others is a futile and ineffective method for taking control of their lives and getting what they really need.

PASSAGES consists of 21 sessions which are two and one-half hours in length. It is divided into two phases. The first phase, taught by a male staff member, deals with the application of control theory and reality therapy in domestic violence. Topics include stimulus response, control theory, psychological needs, effective and ineffective behavior, co-dependency, roots of domestic violence, cycles of violence, homophobia, gender customs and history, value judgments, personal perceptions, and self-actualization.

The second phase explores and teaches the techniques used in the application of reality therapy within areas of clients' family, social, and work relationships. Topics include the evolution of the family unit, helping children develop an internal locus of control, acknowledging each person's parental values, converting parental values into action, illusions of control, the difference between discipline and punishment, six techniques for using less coercion with children, restitution, quality time in relationships, what is love, developing a strong marriage, developing family traditions, and the blending of families.

**purposes of evaluation**

The two goals for this evaluation were to measure: 1) the attitudinal and behavioral effects of the PASSAGES program on male and female clients, and 2) the effect of the PASSAGES program in reducing domestic
violence and the threats of domestic violence.

Method

One hundred and forty-six male and female clients had completed the PASSAGES program during a selected nine-month period. Forty-five (23 females, 22 males) out of the sixty-three randomly selected clients were interviewed by phone by trained volunteers. The minimum time between completion of the program and the interview was three months. The clients who were interviewed mirrored the population of First Step clients in regard to their sex, and their city and county of residence. The questions in the survey were designed to assess the effect that PASSAGES had in improving their quality of life and in reducing domestic violence. Many of the questions in the survey were open ended allowing the client to provide the most appropriate response.

The responses for each open-ended question were transcribed using a word processing program. After reviewing the responses to each question, similar responses were grouped together and given an appropriate descriptive heading. The headings and the appropriate numbers of male and female clients supplying answers matching those headings were reported in tabular form. This article summarizes the responses to several of the questions in the survey.

Results

Most men (73%) were ordered by the court to attend a domestic violence program. One-third of the females were either ordered by the court to attend a domestic violence program or voluntarily attended PASSAGES because their partner was court ordered. Interestingly, agencies, such as churches, the police, or social services, were not influential in encouraging potential clients to attend PASSAGES.

A male client, evaluated the PASSAGES program this way: "I was ordered by the court to attend PASSAGES, but I was falsely accused (by wife) and did not really commit a violent act. Oh, yes! I would recommend PASSAGES to friends with similar problems. In fact, I think it should be taught in public schools.

The instructors did a great job. Reality Therapy really impressed me. The entire program changed my life. I'm not so angry anymore. I've learned how to reduce stress by not worrying and to take things in stride. I can better care about others and not blame them for my problems. I've learned to take better care of myself. I have increased communication and I'm not as aggressive anymore. I hear others out and listen to their side. I'm less self-centered and I feel better about myself. This allows me to care for others.

[While denying that he ever hit his partner, he admits that] since PASSAGES, my partner isn't afraid of me anymore. I've started going to church again after 20 years of being away. I've also stopped blaming others and, at the same time, I've stopped getting down on myself. My family and friends can see a change in my attitude toward life."

Male and female clients appreciated the support of the other class members. It was somehow comforting to know that individuals from all social classes had the same problem. Clients were asked what was the one thing they learned from the PASSAGES program that has helped them the most. Two-thirds of the males indicated they learned self-control and effective behavior techniques. Forty percent of the females reported increased self-confidence and self-esteem.

When asked what was the one thing they had learned in PASSAGES that was the most difficult to put into practice, almost half (44%) of the clients mentioned either relinquishing control over others (mostly females) or maintaining self control (mostly males) as the most difficult thing to put into practice.

Answers to questions about violence and threats of violence from partners since First Step are reported in Table 1. Many more females reported threatening behavior by males than males reported their own threatening behavior toward females. Thirty-nine percent of the females reported continued harassment from their partners, although harassment was not defined.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>% Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Harassed</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is Female Partner Afraid of Male Partner</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threatened to Hit</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hit</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thirty-five percent of the females reported that they were still afraid of their partner. Three of the females had comments similar to the one female who said, "He is not around, but I'm still afraid of him." National studies of domestic violence programs are starting to focus on the fear women experience in violent relationships. Hart (1988) points out that removing the violence from a woman's life may not remove the terror she is experiencing.

Four females (17%) reported continued threats of violence by their partners. Edleson (1990) indicated that although violence may be eliminated, in many cases women victims reported continued threats of violence by their partners. Three of the four females (13%) who reported being threatened also reported multiple instances of violent acts by their partners. No males reported hitting their partner.

Clients were asked to describe one accomplishment, since PASSAGES, of which they were especially proud. Their answers are summarized in Table 2. There were major differences between the responses of males and females to this question. Sixty-four percent of all males reported increased self-control. One male client said, "I have kept control, not only with my wife, but in other parts of my life, like my job. I even like my job better. I like myself better." Another four males (18%) reported a changed outlook
on life. Comments such as "Everything is working great," and "Changing my attitude and outlook on life in general" would lead to a conclusion that the changed outlook includes increased self-control.

Table 2
Since First Step What is One Thing You That You Have Done That You are Especially Proud Of?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>% Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increased Self Control</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major Changes</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships with Others</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changed Outlook</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased Self Concept</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More Assertive</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nine females (39%) reported making major changes in their lives such as new houses, jobs etc. One said, I have "proved to my ex-spouse I can live without him and that I am an independent person." Another said, "For the first time in 20 years, I got a job on my own." Another female said, "We have a new home now. It's like we have a chance to start over." Three females reported they were more assertive about getting their needs met.

Clients were asked what comments (if any) their family and friends have made on changes they had noticed since the client had participated in PASSAGES. Eighteen of the 22 males (82%) and 16 of the 23 females (70%) reported changes in attitude, behavior, and relationships with others that were so obvious that family and friends notice and took the time to make a comment. One female said, "My family noticed my attitude has changed. I'm more excited, not depressed any more," A male reported that, "Wife says I've changed. I'm more easy going. Go with the flow better.

Thirty-nine clients reported that they were married and/or living with someone when they attended the PASSAGES program. Twenty of the 39 clients indicated that their partners had also attended the PASSAGES program. Nineteen of the 20 clients reported they were still married and/or living with the same partner whose partners did attend the PASSAGES program were significantly less likely to be separated or divorced from the same partner. Conversely, clients whose partners did not attend the PASSAGES program were significantly more likely not to be married/living with the same partner. This information is summarized in table 3.

Summary and Comments

There were two major limitations of the study. The first was that only clients who had a phone and had maintained that phone since their participation in First Step were interviewed. Therefore the study cannot be generalized to the domestic violence clients at First Step who did not have phones or who had moved to a different phone exchange since their enrollment in the PASSAGES program.

Second, this evaluation was dependent on a self-report. The evaluation was designed to measure the attitudinal and behavioral effects on clients of the PASSAGES program and the effectiveness of PASSAGES in reducing violence and threats of violence in domestic relationships. The few questions in this survey about continued violence or threats of violence are not supported by additional documentation such as spouse and/or police reports of recidivism.

There are several generalizations which can be made from this evaluation. Both male and female clients expressed very positive feelings about the First Step PASSAGES program and, more importantly, about the effect that PASSAGES has had on their subsequent lives.

Almost sixty percent of the males reported increased self-control. Five others reported either major changes in their lives or improved relationships with others (for a total of 82%). Eighty-three percent of females reported they had not experienced threats of violence or violence by partners since First Step. The rates of non-violence for the PASSAGES program are much higher than the expected level of 33% non-violence without treatment reported by Dutton (1986). A judgment can be made that PASSAGES appears to be effective in reducing the incidence of domestic violence. Males learn self-control and techniques for effective relationships. Females improve their self-esteem and learn how to function independently.

Few male clients attended the PASSAGES program voluntarily, yet every male client would recommend the program to his friends. It appears that the practice of the local criminal justice systems to sentence males to participate in the PASSAGES program is effective in improving the quality of life of the male clients and in reducing the incidence of domestic violence. It is critical, however, that males be encouraged to attend domestic violence programs before law enforcement involvement is necessary.

It appears that, when both partners participate in the PASSAGES program, the likelihood of maintaining the partner relationship is
increased. The assumption inherent in this conclusion is that the severity of the violence was no different in relationships where the partner attended the PASSAGES program than in relationships where the partner did not attend the program.

The research literature indicates that men tend to under-report incidence of threatening behavior during disagreements. This study seems to confirm that fact. However, males reported positive changes in attitude and behavior when asked open-ended questions.

The comments of the clients clearly indicate the PASSAGES program is successful. Continued study of the program would provide a larger data base which would strengthen the current tentative conclusions and would provide the opportunity for long term follow-up.

References


“The author wishes to express his appreciation to Terri Mercer, Director of First Step, PO Box 1103, Fostoria, OH 44830 and David Elingle, Director of Programs at First Step for their assistance in conducting this evaluation. The author also wishes to thank Steven Jurs, Ph.D., University of Toledo, for his suggestions in the preparation of this manuscript. Further information about the First Step program can be obtained by contacting Terri Mercer.”

IMPROVING PRAGMATIC LANGUAGE OUTCOMES OF A COLLEGE STUDENT WITH HEARING LOSS: EFFECTS ON THE INDIVIDUAL AND STAFF
Susan R. Easterbrooks
The author is a professor in the Program in Education of Students who are deaf/hard of hearing in the College of Education at Jacksonville State University, Jacksonville, Alabama.

ABSTRACT
Pragmatic language, that linguistic skill associated with social development, is often delayed in individuals who are deaf or hard of hearing. Intervention has focused on a therapeutic/remedial environment. The purpose of this study was to determine whether a Reality Therapy/Quality Environmental approach to interaction with a deaf student would influence social language skills as a by-product. The study contained two components: The first confirmed that this approach increased the comfort of interactions between the service providers and the deaf student, and the second documented improved pragmatic language skills.

Pragmatic language refers to the skills associated with the appropriate social use of language (Dore, 1974; Halliday, 1975). Pragmatic skills allow the speaker to use the appropriate language device with the appropriate person in the appropriate setting. Acquisition of pragmatic language skills in English presents students who are deaf with many challenges because social interaction and English use are integrally intertwined (Bates, 1976), and the average student who is deaf has difficulty with the English language (Quigley & King, 1988). An exception to this may be students who are immersed in the Deaf Culture and American Sign Language (ASL) environments. However, on a regular university campus, most interactions involve the use of English. Many students who are deaf come to college with a unique set of social and emotional needs which often have greater influence on their academic performance than do their hearing losses. Primary among these are learned helplessness, lack of social sophistication, and lesser effective coping skills (Easterbrooks & Miller, 1993a).

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether a cohesive environment of pragmatic language support, couched within the framework of a process for taking effective control of one's life, would improve pragmatic language outcomes. Glasser’s Control Theory, process of Reality Therapy, and Quality School concepts (Glasser, 1984, 1992) provided this framework. All team members in the subject’s academic support environment became certified by the Institute for Control Theory, Reality Therapy and Quality Management. In addition to pragmatic language outcomes, level of comfort in interactions with the student and his environment were investigated.
METHOD

Two studies were conducted simultaneously. Study One involved assessing the influence of a quality environment on a deaf student's language development. Study Two involved assessing counseling comfort of a support service staff. The process of these studies unfolded over a period of a year. Prior to completion of the IRT certification process, staff members rated themselves on a counseling comfort rating scale and rated the subject on a pragmatic language scale. Staff members then interacted in a routine manner with the subject, using their newly acquired skills. After a year of service, the subject's skills were reevaluated.

Subjects

Two sets of subjects participated in the studies. The first single subject study involved one 25 year old, profoundly deaf male who communicated through a combination of conceptually-based and English-like signs. The subject had attended a mainstream elementary school and an institutional secondary program. He was in his 6th year of college with two more years remaining to complete his baccalaureate degree, was perceived to have excellent leadership potential, yet lacked appropriate skills in self-determination, the ability to self-evaluate, self-advocacy, and knowledge of his own needs and wants. These pragmatic-language based skills are considered to be basic transition skills for all students moving from education to employment (NICHCY, 1993).

The second set of subjects consisted of six members of an academic support staff for students with disabilities at a small, regional, public institution of higher education. The entire staff (ie., a director, a faculty consultant, an interpreter, two staff instructors, and a secretary) identified the need for counseling services and the need to assist students in their social interactions as two of its priority areas. Since funding for counseling positions is traditionally limited, alternative strategies for interaction were needed.

Procedure

To determine the effectiveness of RT/CT and to determine whether the process of Reality Therapy and Quality School tenets would influence pragmatic language development, the staff members (N=6) rated the student's interactions with others using the Adolescent Conversational Analysis Checklist (ACAC) (Lord & McKinley, 1987). Since pragmatic language skills develop in the same sequence in deaf students as in hearing (Rathner & Harris, 1994; Skarakis & Prutting, 1977), a standard form was used rather than developing one specifically for deaf students. The staff also filled out the Counseling Comfort Rating Scale (CCRS) (Easterbrooks & Miller, 1993b). The CCRS was felt to have good face validity because the questions represented real problems faced by the staff on a daily basis. Upon completion of the rating forms, all staff members were encouraged to focus their RT/CT skills on the individual chosen for the study. They were not told that pragmatic language outcomes were being studied. Upon completion of the training sequence for certification and after a full year of interactions with the subject from an RT/CT/QS perspective, the staff members again rated themselves and the subject on the CCRS and ACAC.

The ACAC required staff members to rate a behavior such as use of excessive talking as adequate (A) or inadequate (I). The results were tallied and reported simply as a tally rather than a percentage since the N in the study was so small. Staff members rated each item on the CCRS by indicating a choice of 1 through 4, where 1= very uncomfortable, 2= somewhat uncomfortable, 3= somewhat comfortable, and 4= very comfortable. To score the CCRS, each rating of 1 received 1 point, 2 received 2 points, etc. The total number of points was divided by the N of 6. This yielded an average rating per item.

RESULTS

Table 1 shows the ratings the six staff members gave the student in Study One. On the ACAC, statistical significance could not be determined from the results of a study with an N of only six; however, the researchers determined that for their purposes, a rating of adequate (A) by two additional staff members (33%) was an important finding, and a rating of adequate by three additional staff members (50%) was a very important finding. The subject was found to have improved based on this analysis in the following areas:

- Indicates understanding or lack of in conversation by use of verbal/ nonverbal feedback.
- Production of nonspecific language.
- Production of false starts.
- Readiness to continue conversation.
- Initiation of conversation.
- Topic choice.
- Uses cues to switch topics.
- Interruptions.
- Talks too much/too little.

Study Two showed the most striking results. Table 2 shows the ratings the six staff members gave themselves on the CCRS. Notably, the mean (X) of almost every single item moved from the "uncomfortable" range (X < 2.5) to the "comfortable" range (X > 2.5).

DISCUSSION

There were numerous limitations to Study One. First and foremost, it was a single subject study, making generalization to a broader population limited. Replication with a larger population is advised. Second, no control group was used, calling into question what other factors might have accounted for the improvements. The larger purpose behind the study was to provide the staff with evidence of the broader application of their efforts, as it is very important for educators to question constantly their professional practice (Easterbrooks & Massey, 1981). Replication of the study with classroom teachers, a larger population, and a control group would add important information to the knowledge base.

Study Two showed that, clearly, the staff involved with this subject increased its level of comfort in interactions with the subject as well as other interactions within the support service environment. This was the most obvious result of the study.
TABLE 1
ADOLESCENT CONVERSATIONAL ANALYSIS CHECKLIST SYNOPSIS AND RESULTS

Role of listener in conversation

1. Appears to understand vocabulary and syntactical structures of conversational partner.  6 0 6 0
2. Appears to follow main idea.  6 0 6 0
3. Appears to listen in non-judgmental manner.  1 5 0 6
4. Indicates understanding or lack of in conversational partner by use of verbal/non-verbal feedback.  6 0 4 2 *

Role of speaker in the conversation

Language features

1. Production of variety of syntax.  6 0 6 0
2. Prod. variety of Q forms.  6 0 6 0
3. Prod. variety of figurative language.  4 2 4 2
4. Prod. of nonspecific language.  1 5 3 3 *
5. Prod. of precise vocabulary.
   word retrieval  6 0 6 0
   verbal mazes  4 2 5 1
   false starts  4 2 6 0 *

Communication functions

1. To give information.  6 0 6 0
2. To get information.  6 0 6 0
3. To describe ongoing event.  6 0 6 0
4. To persuade listener.  6 0 6 0
5. To express intention/belief/feelings.  6 0 6 0
6. Readiness to continue conversation.  4 2 6 0 *
7. To solve problems.  4 2 3 3
8. To entertain.  5 1 6 0

Verbal/non-v communication rules

Topics and Turns
1. Initiation of conversation.  3 3 6 0 **
2. Topic choice.  4 2 6 0 *
3. Maintain topics.  5 1 6 0

4. Uses cues to switch topics.  3 3 6 0 **
5. Turn-taking.  6 0 6 0
6. Repair/revise conversations.  5 1 6 0
7. Interruptions.  2 4 5 1 **

Rules of Politeness
1. Talks too much/too little.  2 4 6 0 **
2. Is honest/sincere.  0 6 0 6
3. Makes relevant contributions.  3 3 4 2
4. Expresses ideas clearly/concisely.  4 2 5 1
5. Is tactful.  2 4 3 3

Nonverbal rules of politeness.
1. Gestures.  5 1 6 0
2. Facial expressions.  5 1 6 0
3. Eye contact/gazing.  6 0 6 0
4. Physical distance from partner.  4 2 5 1

Regarding pragmatic language outcomes, the deaf subject involved was perceived by the staff to have improved his skills in a number of areas. These will be discussed using Reality Therapy, Control Theory, and Quality School terminology. The subject improved his ability to “indicate understanding or lack of understanding of a conversational partner by use of verbal and nonverbal feedback.” Prior to this study the subject engaged in a typical behavior of individuals who are in challenging communication environments: He nodded his head up and down indicating comprehension which was not in fact there. Nodding “yes” is a form of maintaining a sense of power, control, and influence in conversations. To admit that one does not understand a speaker is to show oneself as less skilled and less powerful. When he had learned about meeting his power need in more effective ways and had learned that it was his responsibility to communicate his needs effectively, he was better able to provide appropriate feedback to his conversational partners and to indicate lack of understanding when it occurred.

The subject improved in his ability to limit “production of nonspecific language and false starts.” When one has a vague sense of needing “help” without a clear notion of what one wants, there may exist a tendency to talk around an issue. Nonspecific language results when one has a nonspecific conversational goal in mind. The subject wanted to exert his influence, to be recognized, to have his need for belonging met, and his personal self acknowledged. He attempted to meet these needs through a series of “crises” and demands on the staff’s attention. However, in many instances he did not really know what he wanted, so conversations began with many false starts and were characterized by many uses of nonspecific language.
The most important changes fell under the category of verbal/non-verbal communication rules of topics and turns. 50% of the staff changed opinion on his ability to initiate conversation approximately, to limit interruptions, to switch topics when it was clear that a staff member was not going to allow rambling or wallowing, and to focus his conversational goal so that he did not engage in excessive talking. He did not barge into offices demanding immediate attention (recognition, power, influence, belonging) as often. In addition he was better able to identify his topic (needs), to wait for feedback (relinquish power, compare perceptual filters), and to self-evaluate his behaviors. One additional benefit of this approach is that the staff was much more comfortable dealing with him. Because he was improving in his ability to identify his needs and did not “waste” staff time as much, staff members were more willing to spend time with him. They did not try to “escape” when they saw him coming; thus, his belonging and affiliation need was better met because his conversational partners were more engaged in the conversation themselves. Once their freedom need was not thwarted, they were more willing to engage in conversations.

According to Control Theory, we run all our experiences through our own perceptual filters, and our opinions and judgments of events are influenced by our past experiences which in turn form the perceptual filter. It is possible that, since staff members were more confident as a result of their new skills, their perceptual filters changed rather than the student's actual behaviors. This could be investigated by having an outside evaluator rate a subject's pragmatic language rather than the staff members themselves doing the rating.

**Summary**

The study presented herein focused on the development of pragmatic skills in one deaf student within the context of a cohesive support service environment. In the first part of the study, pragmatic language was perceived as having improved. In the second part of the study, certification from the Institute for Control Theory, Reality Therapy, and Quality Management was demonstrated to have a notable effect on counseling comfort. While these data are limited, they provide a possible avenue for further study into the influence of RT/CT on acquisition of specific linguistic competencies among the population of individuals who are deaf or hard of hearing.

**References**


REALITY THERAPY AND GOAL ATTAINMENT
SCALING: A PROGRAM FOR
FRESHMAN STUDENT ATHLETES

Scott B. Martin
Charles L. Thompson

The first author is a research assistant in the Cultural Studies Unit and the second
author is a professor in the Counseling Education and Counseling Psychology Unit,
both at the University of Tennessee-Knoxville.

ABSTRACT

Reality Therapy and Goal Attainment Scaling are described as a specialized
program providing student athletes with an option for succeeding in college. The
program focused on assisting student athletes in setting realistic goals and taking
personal responsibility for themselves in achieving academic and athletic goals.
These activities help student athletes in understanding how their current behavior
influences future accomplishments. The instruments and goal attainment scaling
assist the counselor in facilitating the counseling process and evaluating the
counseling outcomes. Recommendations are offered for intercollegiate athletes,
coaches, academic counselors, and sport psychology consultants for balancing
the demands and responsibilities faced by the student athlete.

INTRODUCTION

Concern about the academic performance and personal development of
intercollegiate athletes during their freshman year in college has created a
demand for additional assistance outside the classroom (Harney, Brigham,
& Sanders, 1986). Most colleges and universities provide services such as
counseling, tutoring, remedial courses, study tables, and study skills
training in an attempt to improve the first-year academic performance of
student athletes (Chartrand & Lent, 1987; Jordan & Denson, 1990; and
Sweet, 1990). However, a high percentage of these student athletes still find
themselves in academic difficulty at the end of their freshman year. There-
fore, the purpose of this article is to present an alternative program for
assisting freshman student athletes.

There is an overemphasis on and misrepresentation of money and fame
in professional sports in today's society. Many collegiate athletes do not
want to think about academics or other job opportunities following college
because that suggests to them that they might not be able to continue on
into professional sports. Doubting their ability to go beyond college results
in a loss of confidence and determination to continue at the present level.
Most colleges and universities are interested in producing a winning athletic
program and providing successful academic experiences for those students
involved in their program. However, in many instances, student athletes
have suffered and have not received the education and training they need
resulting in negative stereotypes toward the intercollegiate athletes and
criticism toward the institutions (Kohl, Leonard, Rau, & Taylor, 1991; and
Zingg, 1982). The reduction in the number of hours per week for institu-
tional practice for sports has placed more importance on academics. How-
ever, many athletes feel obligated to practice fundamentals on their own to gain an edge over their competition. The pressure to “work on their own” is a reality. Reality Therapy and goal attainment scaling assist student athletes in understanding how their current behavior influences future accomplishments and provides the student with the necessary skills for setting goals and taking personal responsibility for those goals and their outcomes. Therefore, students feel as if they are satisfying their psychological needs (Glasser, 1986).

There are several reasons why difficulty results during the freshman year of college for the intercollegiate athlete. Many problems result from the transition from high school to college such as leaving home for the first time, going from a high school to a large college campus, loss of the high school identity, loss of high school social support network, and the necessity of taking more responsibility for oneself (Gould & Finch, 1991; Nyquist, 1982; Phelps, 1982; and Whitner & Myers, 1986). The loss of high school identity is a major issue for some student athletes. Student athletes, considered “at risk” in college, have been able to slide through high school because of their athletic performance. “Sliding by” in college is more difficult than it may have been in the past. In addition, the student athletes face other significant hurdles during their freshman year in college that other students do not face. Balancing the responsibilities of being an athlete and a student create the most demanding hurdles. Student athletes spend their mornings and early afternoons in the classroom, late afternoons and evenings practicing, evenings studying, and weekends competing. High visibility during public performances in competition adds more stress to their lives (Cooker & Caffey, 1984; and Zingg, 1982). The pressure to perform and the realization of broken recruiting promises and expectations adds to the frustration freshman athletes may experience.

REALITY THERAPY AND GOAL ATTAINMENT SCALING

A specialized program combining Reality Therapy with Goal Attainment Scaling was designed to assist the “at-risk” student athlete in setting realistic goals and taking personal responsibility for achieving those goals. The program provides a systematic method for evaluating the developmental progress of each student.

Reality Therapy

Reality Therapy (Glasser, 1965) is well-established as an effective counseling method for helping people move from irresponsible to responsible behavior. Furthermore, Reality Therapy has been successfully adapted to academic settings as a method for increasing individual and group academic performance (Chance, 1987; Dalbech, 1981; Glasser, 1986; and Heuchert, Pearl, & Hart-Hester, 1986). Reality Therapy is a method for assisting people in finding better ways to meet their needs through being productive in their work.

Reality Therapy consists of a process designed to identify problems, evaluate current solution strategies, discard unproductive strategies, brainstorm new strategies, commit to a new plan, and follow-up on the results. The method is based on the foundation of a good counselor-client relationship which discards punishment in favor of logical consequence when the client behaves irresponsibly. For example, failure to follow through with a plan results in writing a more effective plan rather than extensive concentration on why the client did not keep the commitment.

Goal Attainment Scaling

Goal Attainment Scaling (Kiresuk & Sherman, 1986; and Kiresuk, Smith, & Cardillo, 1994) is designed to help clients individualize their goals based on five levels of attainment ranging from best possible outcome (+2) to worst possible outcome (-2). The middle-level outcome (0) is designated as an acceptable level of outcome with a (+1) level being better than acceptable and a (-1) level being less than acceptable. For example, when working with a client who has attempted suicide, an acceptable outcome level (0) would be preventing further suicide attempts. A (-1) outcome level would be another attempt with a (-2) level outcome being a suicide. A (+1) level outcome could be an elimination of suicide ideation with a (+2) outcome having the client doing peer counseling with other potential suicide victims.

Goal Attainment Scaling works well for as many as four or five goals. Each goal is given a weight corresponding to its importance to the client. Weights generally range in value from 10 to 80 points. Level numbers and weight numbers are combined in a formula for determining the statistical significance in any change that might result in a client’s progress (see Kiresuk & Sherman, 1986).

Implementation of the Plan

Four instruments can be used to initiate the plan and to begin the treatment process. The Study Habits Inventory (Devine, 1987) and The Personal Evaluation Worksheet (Crawford, 1988) are both useful for helping students evaluate their current study habits and their time management skills. A principal feature of the Reality Therapy philosophy is that people do not change their current behaviors until they view that behavior as being unhelpful and even hurtful. The Study Habits Inventory is designed to help students evaluate the usefulness of their study habits and their utilization of academic resources. It is a thirty-question, Likert-type inventory that requires approximately 10 minutes to complete. The results of the inventory can be used in the Reality Therapy process during individual or group sessions to help the students move from current, ineffective study methods to more effective and successful procedures.

The Personal Evaluation Worksheet is designed to be an informal, non-threatening instrument that helps students clarify and verbalize their behavior, feelings, and thoughts considering where they are now in relation to where they would like to be in their lives. The worksheet contains a time management section to help students assess the ratio of productive to unproductive time spent each day.

Two additional activities can be used to help students construct their goal attainment scales. Peterson and Parr (1982) developed the Pathogram, a visual aid that provides students with a graphic illustration of the energy they currently expend on meeting their basic needs (see Figure 1). Martin (1993) devised a pie graph for helping student athletes chart the amount of
time they spend each week on academic, social, and athletic activities (see Figure 2).

The pathogram can be applied in a variety of settings. With student athletes, a pathogram can be used to discuss the here and now, a particular class, or their sport (individually or with their team). Initially, the counselor explains the five pathways: (a) love/belonging as receiving or seeking affection from others, (b) achievement/worth as being concerned with achieving, self-competence, and a sense of worth, (c) fun as looking for enjoyment, (d) freedom as wanting independence, and (e) variety as being interested in different activities. When students appear to have an understanding of the pathways, the counselor then asks them to draw a vertical line for each of the five pathways corresponding to the time and energy they spend trying to fulfill these needs. Students should begin with the need on which they expend the most time followed by the need that gets the least amount of time and energy. These two lines will be the longest and shortest lines on the graph. Students then draw lines for the remaining three needs. Following the initial pathogram, students are requested to draw a second pathogram indicating how they would like the situation to be at this moment. The next focus is a discussion of how this second pathogram could be achieved. Peterson and Parr (1982) suggest several reality-based questions to stimulate discussion following the construction of the vertical lines:

1. What have you learned about yourself?
2. What do you like about what you see?
3. What do you dislike about what you see?
4. What could you change?
5. How would you make the changes?
6. Will you make a change?
7. When will you begin?

Information learned from the session is used to construct the student's goal attainment scale. Figure 1 is a pathogram of an at-risk freshman student athlete.

As in the case with the Pathogram, the Student Athlete Activity Chart provides the counselor with the essential information on whether athletes believe they are spending the required time needed to be eligible and successful in their academic studies. Students are asked to draw a circle representing the amount of energy that was being spent on academics, social life, and athletics. Both the position and size of the circle are important. A circle located in the middle of the diagram overlapping all three dimensions indicates appropriate balance. A circle drawn between social and athletics indicates too little time spent on academics. The size indicates the amount of energy spent working toward the dimension included within the circle.

Many counselors find the Student Athlete Activity Chart more useful than the Personal Evaluation Worksheet following the initial session. The chart stimulates discussion about the reasoning behind the placement and size of the circle and the nature of the problem. Possible solutions to the problem follow which become the basis for goal setting.

These four activities with discussions culminate in the development of goal attainment scales. Daily or weekly goals can be chosen. Realistic, observable, behavior goals should be used on the scale. As mentioned above, each goal will have five levels of attainment weighted to represent its importance to the student (Emmerson & Neely, 1988; Kiresuk & Sherman, 1986; and Thompson & Rudolph, 1992). Goals of waking up on time and preparing to go to class, attending classes, reading a chapter a night, or preparing assignments ahead of schedule are appropriate. An even better goal than reading a chapter is to construct questions from the topic headings and write the correct answer to each question (see Figures 3 & 4).

The goal attainment scale is easy to understand and readily adaptable to graphing the degree of goal attainment (Dowd & Kelly, 1975). Additionally, the graph is used to chart the results of periodic follow-up checks on the maintenance of academic and counseling goals. Material for further counseling sessions follows from the improvement or lack of improvement within a scale. The counselor and student can adjust the scale or goal at any given time allowing the counseling process to continue until students are able to set and achieve goals on their own (Thompson & Rudolph, 1992).
The counselor asks student athletes how they spend their time and energy in relation to these activities. Next, the student athletes are instructed to place a circle on this chart that most represents them during a normal week of a semester. The chart shows an initial response typically given by a student athlete.

**DISCUSSION**

Typical examples of student athletes' responses are provided. The pathogram (see Figure 1) denotes that the student athlete graphs a high vertical line for the 'variety' pathway, indicating that he/she was involved in many activities. Today's collegiate athletes must be involved with practices, competition, classes and study table, many of the athletic department's functions, and their own social life. The pathogram shows that while collegiate athletes spend much time with activities that earn love or a sense of belonging, in most cases their self-worth or feelings of accomplishments were low. Freshman athletes attempt to prove themselves to coaches, other teammates, family members, and friends. What was once easy in high school is much more difficult at the collegiate level. The high praise given in high school and during the recruiting period is now absent. The freshman athlete is usually at the bottom of the totem pole and must be much better physically and mentally than the upperclassman to be able to participate in competition. The expectation for improvement and gains by coaches and peers seems negative at times due to the new circumstances that the freshman athlete faces. Additionally, the pathogram shows that student athletes enjoy themselves or spend time doing things they perceive as fun or that gain them some degree of recognition. Typically, the fun that is represented in the pathogram involves the social experiences with teammates. The Study Habits Inventory, on the other hand, suggests that student athletes are not having fun with academics. That is, they do not enjoy studying individually, with a tutor, or in an environment not conducive for position performance changes. Providing the student athlete the opportunity to participate in study groups offers both social and academic rewards. Glasser (1986) indicated that people should seek to balance their needs for fun and self-discipline if they are to experience true freedom. Persons taking responsibility for their lives results with them having more control and greater independence.
Initially, many student athletes place a circle close to the center of the Student Athlete Activities Chart (see Figure 2). This is an indication to the counselor that students believe they are spending the necessary time needed in all three activities. A common comment is that they spend much more time on practice than on academics. A valuable discussion topic is Glasser’s (1976) concept of positive addiction. A counselor asks athletes the amount of effort and practice time that has been spent over the years to obtain the quality of performance that they currently maintain in their respective sport (e.g., how many hours were devoted to swinging the tennis racquet or to shooting free throws each day). The inevitable comparison between time spent on their sport and academics opens their eyes to the relationship between time spent and results achieved. The learning of a new skill can be frustrating if progress is slow. Reality Therapy is based on setting and meeting small goals as a way of gaining the strength to accomplish bigger goals. Then the group may also provide new ideas as well as personal support. Reality Therapy and goal attainment scaling are useful in assisting at-risk student athletes in taking responsibility for their actions. Together, they provide the freshman student athlete with a plan for improving and tracking academic performance.

CONCLUSION

The student athlete, coaching staff, and counselor should work together (Walter and Smith, 1986) to provide the student with the chance to learn more about time management, study skill habits, developing peer and social relationships, career opportunities and life transitions, and methods for enhancing one’s self-esteem. Additionally, the counselor needs to provide individual and group counseling. Individual counseling provides the opportunity to discuss private issues. Group sessions provide opportunities for individuals to realize that others are having similar concerns. The group may also provide new ideas as well as personal support. Reality Therapy and goal attainment scaling are useful in assisting at-risk student athletes in taking responsibility for their actions. Together, they provide the freshman student athlete with a plan for improving and tracking academic performance.

References

ANDRAGOGY AND CONTROL THEORY: 
THEORETICAL FOUNDATION 
FOR FAMILY MEDIATION

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ABSTRACT

The article posits andragogy and control theory as the theoretical foundation for family mediation. They develop a union which can be used to optimize the family mediation process. This article develops a linkage between andragogy, control theory and mediation. Each theory stands on its own and contributes to the problem solving process. Together they allow the learner and facilitator to maximize their potential.

There are no contests in the Art or Peace. A true warrior is invincible because he or she contests with nothing. Defeat means to defeat the mind of contention that we harbor within.

The Art of Peace

Family Mediation

The United States court process is an adversarial one. The objective is for two systems (theoretically of equal power) to battle it out in an environment where they can come to a conclusion in the best interest of the State or the Family. The battle is over only when one side overpowers the other and is declared the winner while the other is the loser. This process is based upon conflict rather than consensus. Into this system, the family is thrust to resolve issues of persons and property. The goal becomes to win as much as one can at the expense of the other family member. This member has to be reduced to an opponent in order to accomplish this goal. The family remains family only so long as it has a perception that it is family. A conflictual system seldom functions in the best interest of the family. This is where mediation plays its most significant role. The need for clarity always requires operational definition(s). There are several significant definitions of mediation which meet this need.

According to Mondy, Sharplin and Premeaux (1991), "Mediation is the process in which a third party enters a dispute between two parties for the purpose of assisting them in reaching an agreement. A mediator can only suggest, recommend, and attempt to keep the two parties talking in hopes of reaching a solution" (p. 412).

According to the Multi-Door Dispute Resolution Division’s Family mediation training (1994), "Mediation is a process for resolving existing or potential disputes, or for mitigating the negative effects of such disputes. It is an art and not a science. Mediation involves not a single activity, but a group of activities that may differ substantially from one case or problem to another, therefore there is no one single "bible" that one can use to mediate conflicts” (p. 1).
According to Lemmon (1985), “Mediation is the practice of resolving disputes with the aid of an impartial third person” (p. 6). According to Davis and Roberts (1988), “The characteristic that distinguishes mediation from other forms of dispute-resolution is that authority for decision-making remains with the parties. In this respect mediation differs from both arbitration and adjudication, each of which involves an appeal to an outside decision-maker. The parties engage in mediation voluntarily and the object is to arrive at an agreed outcome, this being the basis for the claim that these decisions are more likely to be adhered to than those that are imposed by a judge” (p. 7).

Mediation is a change process involving three change agent systems. The first system is comprised of the parties; the second system is the mediator, and the third is the mediation environment where the change (learning) occurs. The parties to mediation are individuals who have not been able to resolve issue(s) that are conflictual or potentially conflictual. Mediation can be used as a tool to intervene and prevent further conflict. In the family mediation process, the parties usually share property or have a common parental investment in children. The common ground is usually these areas of interest.

The mediator is a trained third party. This person is the catalyst, a neutral third party who acts as a conduit and harmonizer who assists the parties to resolve their issues. (S)he helps the parties to reach a win-win agreement. The environment is a non-coercive need fulfilling arena where each party is assisted to responsibly meet his or her needs. It is within the environment that issues of culture and diversity are addressed. The reality to be addressed is that culturally shaped behaviors exist. The culture is comprised of the factors that shape values, attitudes, perceptions, needs, modes of expression, patterns of behavior, and identity (Wilkinson, 1986). These factors must be evaluated, and culturally competent mediation training and practice developed to address them. There are three components of the mediation process. The first is selection, the second is training and the third is mentoring.

In the selection process, mentors are recruited from many walks of life. In an effort to ensure quality services, mediators should represent the communities in which they work. They should also reflect the diversity of those communities. The major determinant of suitability is the ability to communicate. Mediators must be able to communicate across culture, gender and class.

The second component is training. Training is andragogically based and consists of lectures, audio visuals, demonstrations, exercises and role-plays. Much of the training is conducted by experienced mediators who have been trained as trainers. In addition, training uses experts as well as the trainees to transmit the requisite knowledge.

The third component, following the training, is mentoring. It is in this phase where emphasis centers upon self-evaluation. This is a continuation of the training process. In this phase the trainee is prepared through participant-observation to be an able mediator. The mediators each mediate with mentors who provide verbal and written feedback after each mediation. The mentoring period is the optimal time for the integration of theory and practice. This period is where information learned in training is put to use in practice. It is within this arena that we balance what we have with what we want. Specific pictures of what mentees like and consider important to them within the learning process are the result of their involvement in need fulfilling activities that they retained in their memory.

Although this perspective is concerned with andragogy and control theory as the theoretical foundation for family mediation, one can extrapolate this relationship to the workplace. Reality performance management (RPM) is one method used for the resolution of conflict. This approach, properly used, can obviate the need for an adversarial process. Quality managers can use mediation to improve the work environment. According to Karrass and Glasser (1980):

- RPM does not dwell on complex psychological theory. Rather, it is based on two complementary approaches to effective management.
- One approach, known as Reality Therapy, holds that the most effective thing a manager can do in dealing with an employee who is performing poorly is create a warm, non-stressful environment. In such an environment the employee can feel safe to face the reality of his or her inadequate performance and, with the manager’s help, take the responsibility to improve.
- The second approach, known as Both-Win Negotiation, is similar in that it encourages the manager to create a situation wherein the employee feels that he or she has not only an incentive to improve but a reasonable chance of doing so — of winning. Furthermore, from the manager’s point of view, if the employee wins, the boss wins as well. By doing an effective job of motivating the employee, the manager too has gained in position. They both win. (p. 2)

Andragogy

Andragogy (Knowles, 1970) is the art and science of facilitating the learning of maturing human beings. It is concerned with total behavior in the learning environment. Andragogy is founded upon several basic assumptions: (a) the learner is increasingly a self-directed organism; (b) the learner’s readiness to learn develops from life tasks and problems; (c) the learner’s orientation to learning is task and problem centered; and (d) the learner is motivated via internal motives and needs. Conflict is located at one end of the continuum for the solution of human problems. It is but one step in the process which moves from problem to solution. Along the continuum from conflict to consensus is the education/change process. Knowles (1974) related, “The purpose of education, according to this model, is the continuous development of individuals to their full and unique potential through their lifespan and the continuous renewal of the large social systems of which they are a part through their interactions with them” (p. 300). Family conflict is an interruption of this process.

Mediation continues the education process which moves the family from conflict to consensus. Andragogy provides a frame of reference from which to view the parties as maturing human beings. Under the auspices of andragogy, the parties to mediation can be viewed as self-directed
organisms. They, from their experiences, bring a rich resource for decision making. This learning system applies to the process of making life choices. The readiness to change develops from life tasks and problems, the big picture. Andragogical learning is task and problem centered and is internally (as opposed to externally) motivated.

Those who would be mediators undergo classroom training as well as a period of mentorship. In each phase, an andragogical approach undergirds the learning process. In the classroom phase, they learn the theoretical approaches to mediation. In the mentorship phase, they learn to do. The skill to do, based upon the theoretical, forms the common base of mediating practice. According to Bartlett (1970), “Practitioners learn these “common elements” in school and apply them in their professional practice. The base is not the doing but what underlies the doing” (p. 129). Thus, mediators acquire knowledge and skills which define the focus of intervention and the subsequent planning process. The skills based upon knowledge are joined with the mentor’s values to move toward a wholistic approach to intervention. Our knowledge and values which underlie our perceptions are developed within our culture.

The myopic practitioner and/or student fails to recognize that diversity and difference are an important part of the process that underlies the doing. Mentors will reflect their learning environment. The culturally competent mediators’ behavior, when it is wholistic, reflects service to the whole person. It is during the mentoring period that one reinforces the necessity for cultural competence. Training prepares the mentor(s) to work with those who are similar as well as different from themselves so that they perceive differences as acceptable and not aberrant.

The theoretical and practice orientation of mentor(s) plays a significant role in the forming of their perceptions. This orientation provides a yardstick by which we can measure subsequent learning behaviors. The mentor influences the trainees’ perception and perceptions form internal attitudes. Our external acts result from these internal attitudes. This is the essential process of integration of theory and practice. Thus, the pictures we form are vital to the total behaviors in the educational process. The need fulfilling environment is where the link between theory and practice is cemented.

The linkage between theory and practice is an integral part of training. It is the role of the mentor to provide an environment that is need fulfilling and maximizes integration of theory and practice during the training process. A need for integration between theory and practice is essential to developing the effective mediator. To maximize efforts to provide the best possible training for those who participate in and become family mediators, choosing an efficacious system is important. This choice, in practice, rests cooperatively with the trainee and mentor. To assist with this choice, an explanation of this system is required. To secure this linkage, one must use an appropriate theoretical frame of reference. Andragogy and control theory present an approach to learning that provides a method to structure the environment and thereby maximize learning.

Mediation and RT/CT

Reality therapy, based upon control theory, is a process by which people are taught better ways to fulfill their needs (Glasser, 1965). It is a way to gain and maintain a successful identity (Glasser, 1972). Reality therapy is an approach to counseling, educating and living. Reality Therapy is based upon the concepts of control theory. Control theory is, a biological theory which explains why and how all living organisms behave. All any organism can do is behave and all behaviors are total (IRT, 1987).

We always use our total behaviors in the decision making process. During mediation, the parties’ total behavior are the focus for gathering information for the big picture. Mediators, like all students, strive for quality when they are encouraged to set their own standards. Self evaluation of total behaviors and the assessment of the perceived impact of those behaviors on the mediation process is required.

Although there is an interdependent relationship between behavioral components, thinking and acting are those components in the total behavior which become the focus for mediation. In fact, action receives the attention over all other behaviors. The mediator, as an internally motivated learner, is at his or her best in a need fulfilling environment. Mediation is concerned with developing the physical, spiritual and mental environment. It is a wholistic approach to need fulfillment. According to McMahon (1990), “Professionals and paraprofessionals in human services are growing in the use of a holistic conceptualization of the persons receiving services. The client/patient/consumer is seen holistically when focus is on the whole person—body, spirit, and mind—and on the interdependence of each of the major dimensions of person” (p. 4).

Mediation proceeds developmentally (Multi-Door Dispute Resolution Division, 1994) through three stages - introductory, engagement and closure. In the introductory stage, one forms the relationships with the parties. Herein, what the reality therapist terms involvement occurs. The parties are allowed to ventilate, fill in the big picture, explain their position or wants. The mediator validates the parties, stresses their preliminary areas of agreement and summarizes stressing interest or needs. According to Mickel (1993), discussing the parameters of reality therapy involvement, “It is an approach which focuses upon the relationship system, works to modify or change those processes which detract from the strength need fulfilling quality processes” (p. 36). Within this mediation environment, persons learn best through need fulfilling involvement. Need fulfillment is a level playing field in terms of power. It is also a noncoercive, safe situation provided in both joint and individual sessions.

In the engagement stage, the parties are encouraged to move to a focus on the future and not the past. The past is used as a foundation for strength building behaviors. In this stage we complete the big picture. Parties are assisted in distinguishing wants from needs. Those needs are legitimized. The mediators support parties and alleviate major imbalances of power. According to Mickel (1993), “The process begins by asking the client that (s)he wants. Empowered persons know in what direction they wish to go. Once the worker understands what the client wants, then it becomes necessary (for the worker’s planning) to translate that want into a basic need” (p. 36).
In the closure stage, the issues move to future problem solving. Here we test the written agreement, ensuring the language is clear and concise. Mediators encourage belief in future success. Finally, we clarify post mediation tasks. This component is consistent with reality therapy based planning. According to Mickel (1993), “All plans should be short, success oriented and strength building. They should have built in milestones and checkpoints. Planning is an ongoing process” (p. 36).

The mediation session reflects the environment that we perceive as the real world. The session is in a controlled environment. Participants must be aware that the results are all developed for the real world in which the family solves problems. To change, two components must be present. One is the learner and the second is the learning environment.

The art of mediation is essentially the management of these key variables. The critical function of the mediator, therefore, is to create a need fulfilling environment where the parties can learn to guide their interaction to and reach a win-win agreement. This agreement is the ultimate objective resulting from proper management of the need fulfilling process. The final agreement results when high quality work is accomplished. According to Glasser (1990), “For workers, including students, to do high quality work, they must be managed in a way that convinces them that the work they are asked to do satisfies their needs. The more it does, the harder they will work” (p. 429).

Clearly, self-directed learning, andragogy, control theory and reality therapy also contain practices that are congruent with family mediation. Reality Therapy based on control theory posits certain values, while self directed learning exemplifies similar values. The planning process uses participative decision makings. The models are the ideal, but the more nearly the change environment approaches the model, the more it should reflect the congruence of practice with theory.

The focus has been to show the linkage between Andragogy and RT/CT as a theoretical foundation for mediation. It presents a paradigm one can use to integrate theory with practice. The rationale for choosing this model is strong. The approaches are compatible. They are mediator/party oriented. They have similar roots, especially shown through the reliance upon choice for learning (change). Internal motivation is the foundation upon which they build their understanding of human behavior. It aids in understanding the learning environment’s role in the change process. The focus for change is in the here and now. The past is utilized as a source of strength. Finally, though Knowles does not focus upon the role of the needs, he recognizes their existence, and the unification of andragogy with control theory and reality therapy completes the pictures. Each has advantages and strengthens the other. This is a solid foundation upon which to build mediation training and practice.

Conclusion

Educators can stretch the boundaries of curriculum, but they cannot without fear of ostracism exceed them. The framework of practice is dependent upon its theoretical underpinnings. Mediators rely on the curriculum’s norms, values, mores which set the boundaries within which they operate. Mediators maintain the ability to choose their boundaries and need to remember both environment and the learner when they make this choice. According to Glasser (1986), “If what is being taught does not satisfy the needs about which a student is currently most concerned, it will make little difference how brilliantly the teacher teaches—the student will not work to learn” (p. 20). When the curriculum is need fulfilling, wholistic and allows the learners to maximize their potential, mentors will reflect these values.

In the final analysis, the marriage of the andragogical model with reality therapy is presented as a methodology that can enhance those qualities necessary to facilitate the development of the family mediation process. The role of the mentor is to provide an environment that will allow the mediator to use the information (s)he brings to the learning environment and not to be solely a transmitter, filling an empty void. This marriage meets the needs of the mediator during the training process. It, properly applied, can take him/her in the direction (s)he wants to go. It enhances the mentor’s self-concept reifying the pictures which enhances role modeling. That is, the mentee begins to experience the values and treatment (s)he expects to practice with future parties.

This congruent relationship simplifies the move from dependence to interdependence. Andragogical based family mediation training reinforces those experiences that the mediator brings to the environment. The mentor is a facilitator of change. Both mediator and mentor change as the trainee, internally motivated, impacts upon the task-centered learning environment. Finally, the trainee moves from becoming to using doing, thinking, feeling and physiology in the learning process. He learns the importance of mind, body and spirit in developing the need fulfilling environment. If one component is missing, the environment and the subsequent training is incomplete. The trainee becomes a self-directed organism only within a wholistic approach. Andragogy and control theory unite to provide a viable forum to maximize the mediation process. It reinforces the mediator’s abilities to participate as a catalyst for change. Remember, the mediator is a neutral third party - a catalyst. This relationship provides an optimal environment for the integration of theory and practice. When one attempts to use a different method, sometimes there are barriers, mountains which stand in the way, but they can usually be climbed if not conquered.

References
CONTROL THEORY AND SPIRITUALITY

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ABSTRACT

This article examines how spirituality and religion fit into Control Theory as developed by William Glasser. A variety of religious or spiritual behaviors are discussed. Conclusions are drawn that the 5 basic needs (Survival, Love, Power, Freedom and Fun) are sufficient to explain authentic spiritual attitudes, and that the spiritual dimension is a function of the pictures we have in our Quality Worlds of satisfying basic needs.

William Glasser suggests in a video (1993) that there is a place for religious belief in Control Theory. To a woman who demands to know "Where is God in this chart?", he points to the Quality World. That area of the Control Theory chart is marked "Specific Pictures such as Mother (Wants)". He says that he put 'mother' in there as an example because that is pretty universal, but each of us is free to put in our own ideas, pictures or beliefs. A belief is a Quality World picture, and each one of us is free to add whatever we believe in to our personal Quality World.

This framework provides for religious freedom and for plurality of beliefs. However, it ties religious belief, like any other belief, to the 5 basic needs of survival, power, love, freedom and fun. A religious belief, like any other Quality World picture, must get into our Quality World in the first place because it satisfies one or more of these needs.

To some people, this has appeared for all the wrong reasons. While it may be true that a person may satisfy one or more basic needs by joining a spiritual group, by holding religious beliefs or by doing spiritual practices, somehow the core of spirituality seems to be missing. Isn't it somewhat cynical to suggest that people become religious just to join a group or to gain some power? How is this different from joining the Rotary Club or even the local chapter of Hell's Angels?

Indeed, numerous suggestions have been made to Glasser through the years to include a spiritual need among the basic needs, notably in a Journal of Reality Therapy article by Brent G. Dennis entitled Faith: The Fifth Psychological Need? (1989). Glasser, however, has continued to hold that the five basic needs as they currently stand are sufficient.

I would like to show that spirituality does in fact properly belong in the area of our Quality World pictures. It is not an extra ingredient, or a special set of behaviors that we perform in order to satisfy a special need, but an attitude that considers the Whole, and my place in this Whole at the same time. In that sense, spirituality is close to ecology. "We have to recognize a new natural law: you can’t isolate an event. We are nature. Nature is in our..."
bodies. And sure enough, if we destroy nature, we are destroying our bodies.” Who is speaking here, a native American tribal elder or a modern ecologist? (Cobb, 1970).

As modern physics has taken “solidity” out of matter, and as modern spirituality has similarly removed “ghostliness” from spirit, it is now easier than ever to see the unity that Zen and other mystical traditions speak about. Huston Smith expresses this eloquently when he says: “It is the distinguishing genius of Zen Buddhism to refuse to dislodge earth from heaven. Zen Buddhists enact this central teaching by placing their palms together and bowing — joining their palms symbolizes the union of finite and infinite, while their bow evinces gratitude.” (Farkas, 1993). The spiritual traditions of the east have emphasized personal experience and growth, attitude, and integration into daily life, and not merely belief or faith.

Our basic needs are satisfied in competitive and cooperative ways. The first way considers the individual first. It is also sometimes characterized as selfish, egocentric, and exclusive. The second way, sometimes considered to be more characteristic of “spiritual” persons, can be said to be altruistic and inclusive. These two ways are complementary and not opposites, and we may expect to find any mixture in a given person’s Quality World. Glasser’s Identity Society discusses the importance of cooperation for the survival of early human societies in depth.

Ecological and spiritual attitudes go an extra step, and include all species and all beings in this cooperative attitude. Buddhists and Hindus, for example, through their belief in reincarnation, have intermingled the destiny of other beings with that of humans within the context of religious belief.

This view extends the notion of responsibility to a wider circle of reference. I must satisfy my needs in such a way as not to interfere with the life and welfare of all other species and beings. Even further, as one of the four Bodhisattva vows states, I must actively work for their liberation and actualization.

**BASIC NEEDS AND SPIRITUALITY**

1. **My survival pictures** include the survival and welfare of other species and the ecosystem. I try to satisfy my personal needs without losing sight of this holistic picture. I see myself as a child of Mother Earth and have a picture of a healthy and surviving planet in my Quality World. I want to be alive not just tomorrow, but 20 years from tomorrow as well. My quality pictures also include a healthy social climate. I am convinced that I am still alive today partly because I do not live in a country such as Rwanda. Indeed, one of the 3 pillars of Buddhism is community (Kapleau, 1965). The Biblical exhortation to “love your neighbor as yourself” has a similar import.

2. “The same power that moves the universe also moves me” say the Sufi mystics. The power of the whole ocean rises up with the wave; it would be absurd for the wave to live in a teacup and consider itself powerful apart from the wind and the ocean, the tides and the moon. - The prophets in the Hebrew tradition saw themselves as instruments of God, and their power as a manifestation of God’s power. This is also the attitude of Islam, where every act and every exercise of power, however minor or insignificant, is preceded by the formula ‘Bism illah’ (in the name of God) and every plan or wish is followed by ‘Insh Allah’ (with the permission of God).

3. “For the mature person, the Tao begins in the relation between man and woman, and ends in the infinite vastness of the universe.” (Mitchell, 1991). The bumper sticker that says “Love thy Mother” beside a picture of the earth says it more modestly.

- Dr. Schweitzer, Mother Teresa, animal rights activists, many vegetarians, generous and charitable persons of all persuasions are models of a love and belonging that has spiritual dimensions.

- Indeed, in Sufism, to love a person, or anything at all as an end in itself is akin to idolatry. The purpose of all love in this context is to see the universe in the beloved.

4. The Qur’an says that on the day of judgment, those people who denied themselves legitimate pleasures will be called to account.

- In the Hindu tradition, one vision of reality is to consider the world as the plaything of divinity (Lila).

- Thich Nhat Khan, the Zen Buddhist activist who won the Nobel Peace Prize, gives retreats with the theme of “Inner Laughter” and “Inner Smile” which are the keys to a relaxed and calm attitude. Here is fun and pleasure seen as a way of life, and indeed a way of being going beyond the individual.

5. - Wisdom stories from different spiritual sources often feature a wise man who acts in unexpected or unusual ways, demonstrating his freedom from stereotyped behavior and dogma.

- Meditation practices, as documented in Glasser’s Positive Addiction, tend to give a boost to our creative potential.

- In the Judeo-Christian tradition, Moses strove to give the Hebrew people freedom from slavery. Centuries later, Jesus in turn strove to give his followers freedom, including freedom from some of the strictures of Mosaic Law.

**CONCLUSION**

The above examples show how a spiritually oriented person might picture his or her basic needs. Is there really a necessity or even a place for an extra basic need here? Glasser has steadfastly refused adding a spiritual need to the list of basic needs. He has done this in numerous talks, in a Journal of Reality Therapy Article (1989) and as late as July 1994 during Certification week in Dublin where he went so far as to say that “to postulate such a need would drag us right down into the gutter”.

One reason for this may be that spirituality is not to be sought outside of our everyday reality. It is an appreciation of the wholeness of things, a holistic outlook that considers the oneness of reality.
It is manifested as total behavior. It includes overt action (daily life, or daily bread as poetically expressed in the Bible), Right Thought, (one of the Buddhist eightfold path), Emotional Involvement (Love) and Physiological awareness and grounding (breathing and meditation).

Although Control Theory is not specifically a theory about spirituality, it will explain spiritual behavior following the guidelines outlined above. Although we often say that needs drive behavior, that is not entirely accurate, because needs drive behavior indirectly. What drives behavior directly are the wants, or the Quality World pictures we have of satisfying our needs.

It is in this area of Quality World pictures that we will find our spiritual attitudes.

References

Faithing is a chosen behavior, whether it is everyday faithing or faithing in God. These five elements - wanting, believing, doing, risking and letting go are present in all faithing. Faithing is about the possible, the seeming-impossible, and the difficult. It is not about the impossible. Faithing in God consists of wanting what God wants us to want, following where we perceive God is leading us, and trusting in God’s power for our following.

As Christians, we faith in God by placing Christ in our Quality World, welcoming him into our Control Center, and making our loyalty to him our most important want.

Faithing is a chosen behavior. Every day of our life, you and I engage in the act of faithing. Since we are internally motivated, faithing is something we do because we choose to do it. There are five elements involved in our everyday faithing. The first one is wanting.

1. WANTING

A group of teenagers who should have returned to the base lodge hours ago have not returned. Already, it is very cold on the mountain, and getting colder. Darkness is only a few hours away. They are in potential danger.

As soon as the rescue team hears about the teenagers, they immediately begin packing their gear and making the necessary preparations for their trip up the mountainside. As soon as they are ready, they leave the lodge and head for the mountain.

They choose to do this. No one forces them to do it; no one can force them to do it. They choose to do it because what they want most is to save those who are in danger. Whether they realize it or not, they have begun the faithing process, for the first element in faithing is wanting.

In order for a want to be valid, it must be specific and attainable. Those on the rescue team know exactly what it is that they want. But, is it attainable? What if their trip is doomed from the very beginning, and they know it? Suppose there is zero visibility already, plus an intensive build-up of ice and snow that has made the mountain passes totally impassable, and they know it. If they go out wanting to rescue those on the mountainside, knowing that it is totally impossible to save them, they are choosing an invalid want.

Ted has his final chemistry exam tomorrow morning. During this school-year, Ted has skipped more classes than he has attended, he has done only a few of his assignments, completed none of his lab experiments, and is not studying for his exam. He may wish he would pass; he may even want to pass; but, if so, he is wanting something that’s simply not going to happen.
Ann and Bud get married, and they both say what they want is a close and happy marriage. Bud's life is centered around hanging out at bars, drinking and staying out late. On the other hand, Ann enjoys staying at home, and does not enjoy being around alcohol. How they ever got married is a mystery. The fact is, however, so long as their present behavior remains as it now is, the chances of their being close and happy are very remote.

Jane is depressing, and not at all pleased with herself. For the most part, she likes her job and she makes a good salary. The only thing she does not like about her job is the falsifying of records and files that her office manager expects her to do, and which she does. She would like a greater self-esteem than she has, but her chances of getting it are nil until her choosing is different from what it is now.

Faithing is wanting what is attainable, as it's attainability is best determined. We cannot always know with absolute certainty that a want is attainable, but to want what is totally unattainable is not faithing. Call it wishing or fantasizing, or whatever else, but it is not faithing, because faithing involves wanting what is attainable. Faithing is about the possible.

There are times when faithing may be about the seeming-impossible. Discoveries, breakthroughs, victories, world records, outstanding accomplishments are often achieved because some one chooses to want what most other people think is impossible, but which in fact is only seemingly impossible.

Faithing after the seeming-impossible involves more than wanting. It also involves believing, as does all everyday faithing.

2. BELIEVING

To my knowledge, no one has ever jumped off the Empire State Building, really expecting to fly. Yet, one man believes he can stretch a wire between the towers of the World Trade Center, and walk across from one tower to the other. Before he actually does this, some people might think of it as impossible. For others, it might only seem impossible. The man who actually does it believes he can do it.

Those on the rescue team believe they can save the stranded teenagers. Skilled and well-equipped, they have travelled up and down that mountain in almost all kinds of weather. They all know each other well, and have worked together many times doing the same thing they are doing now. With all conditions appearing favorable, they do not consider themselves as choosing the impossible, nor even the seemingly impossible. They classify what they are choosing to want as difficult, but doable. They believe they can do it.

Most of the everyday faithing you and I do is not aimed at achieving the seemingly impossible, but in doing the difficult. Draining responsibilities, unpleasant tasks, recurring failures and disappointments, lingering fears and uncertainties can be very difficult to face. Even so, we face these things because we want to, and because we believe we can do so successfully.

Faithing involves believing, rather than knowing. Knowing precludes faithing. If there is knowing, there is no need for faithing. Those on the rescue team believe they can rescue those stranded on the mountain; they do not know it. We believe that we can achieve that which is difficult, and even that which is seemingly impossible, but we do not know it. We choose to believe that we can.

Once we choose to want what we believe we can achieve, what then? We do the best we know to do in order to achieve it.

3. DOING

The man who walks the high-wire wants to do it; he also believes that he can. But, his faithing involves more than his wanting and believing. It also involves his actually walking that high-wire.

Suppose that Ted realizes he cannot possibly pass Chemistry this year, but that he can re-take it and pass it next year. Suppose he chooses to want to pass it next year, believing that he can. What is it going to take for him to pass? It will take his doing whatever is necessary for him to pass - regular attendance, studying, completing his lab work, turning in all his assignments, and studying for the exam.

Suppose that one day Bud and Ann decide that they really want to be close and happy in their marriage. And suppose they believe that they can. What will it take for them to become close and happy? They will have to do what it takes for this closeness and happiness to come about.

Faithing involves wanting, believing, and doing! But, that's not all; there is more. There is the element of risking.

4. RISKING

It is important to recognize that risking implies the possibility of failure. Yet, without risk-taking there can be no faithing.

If the rescue team waits at the lodge until they are assured of a successful rescue, they will never leave the lodge. If Ted refuses to crack a book next year until he is guaranteed a passing grade, this time next year he will still be where he is now. And, if Bud and Ann refuse to make the necessary changes in their marriage until all of the risk is removed, they will continue to experience the same old unhappy marriage.

Risking always involves the possibility of failure. But faithing is willing to risk failure for the possibility and the opportunity to succeed.

Sandra wants to be ready for the try-out at next year's Olympics. She believes she can be qualified by then, and she commits herself to the grueling and demanding regimen that is required. She realizes there is the possibility she will not make it, but she is willing to take the risk of not making it for a chance to make it.

Finally, there is the fifth element involved in faithing, which is letting go.

5. LETTING GO

Having chosen to want what is determined to be valid, having believed it to be attainable, having done what seems necessary in order to achieve it, willingly risking failure for the chance to succeed, what is there left? Only one thing! Let go!
When we have done the best we know to do, and there is nothing else left to do, then the best thing to do is to do nothing. Let well enough alone. Worrying will not help, fretting will not help, projecting and second-guessing will not help. Turn loose, relax, and wait.

One of the first things recovering alcoholics learn is that they cannot control people, places and things. This desire to control, however, is shared by many who are not alcoholics. There are times when most of us would like to control people, places and things. We are fortunate, however, when we come to the liberating realization that we delude ourselves whenever we think we can.

Humbling though it may be to accept, you and I live most of our everyday life wanting, believing, doing, risking and letting go.

Besides our everyday faithing, there is another kind of faithing we can do. We can faith in God.

For clarification purposes, I have no difficulty accepting the fact that there are those whose experience of God is not the same as mine. I respect and their experience, and would not presume to speak for them. At the same time, I am confident that there are those whose experience of God is similar to my own. Because of the commonality of our shared experience, the collective pronouns “we”, “us”, and “our” are often used.

According to the Old and New Testaments of The Bible, God is the creator of the entire universe, and exercises sovereign power over all that is created. Faithing in this God is concerned with much more than God's creating and governing power. It is also concerned with God's attitude and activity toward us, as recorded in the Scriptures.

The one story of The Bible is the account of God's covenant involvement in human history - beginning with Abraham, culminating in Jesus Christ, and continuing to the present through the power of God's Holy Spirit. A covenant is an agreement with a promise.

For followers of Christ, faithing in God is best understood by faithing in Christ. This is based upon the acceptance of Christ as being “the visible likeness of the invisible God”, who “has in himself the full nature of God”. (Colossians 1: 15,19 - The New Testament in Today’s English Version)

As followers of Christ, using CT/RT imagery, we have placed the Spirit of Christ in our Quality World. We have welcomed him into our Control Center. We have declared our loyalty to him as our most important want. We are responsible for implementing our commitment to him; no one can assume our responsibility for us.

In my pastoral counseling, I readily accept as clients those whose spiritual orientation is other than Christian, just as I accept those who identify themselves as Christian. Also, I have found that I can use CT/RT with equal ease and effectiveness in both counseling environments.

**FAITHING IN GOD**

Faithing in God is a chosen behavior. It is something we do because we choose to do it. Using the same five elements of wanting, believing, doing, risking, and letting go, faithing in God takes place in three ways.

The first way is choosing to want what God wants us to want.

**WANTING WHAT GOD WANTS US TO WANT**

Wanting what God wants us to want is based upon the belief that God wants, and that our wanting is a part of God’s wanting. The nature and content of what God wants our wanting to be can be found in the Scriptures.

One day, Ann and Bud realize that the kind of marriage they say they want is not the kind of marriage they have. They claim that closeness and happiness are in their Quality World, but what they are actually experiencing is counter to closeness and happiness. They decide to change what they are doing so that they can achieve this closeness and happiness, but are unclear as to the specific changes that might best be made.

They begin to reminisce about their earlier years, when they were growing up. They acknowledge to each other that their lives were more meaningfully related to God earlier in their lives than they are now. They remember when they attended church, and were involved in church activities. When they decided to get married, they were married in the church. God was more important to them then. They wonder if this could be part of their problem. Finally, one of them suggests they go to a nearby church and talk with the pastor.

As the pastor of that church, I welcome them. They ask if they can talk with me, and I immediately begin to create a positive and supportive counseling environment. When it seems appropriate, I ask them why they have come to me; why they have come to a church. They answer, “Maybe it’s because we should be giving God more importance in our marriage than we’ve been doing.”

I ask them, “What do you believe God wants you to want for your marriage?” I could ask the same question another way: “If you choose to put Christ in your Quality World, what influence do you see this having upon your marriage?” To be even more direct, I could ask, “If you welcome Christ into your Control Center, what do you think he will lead you to want for your marriage?”

Jane is frustrating because there are two wants battling against each other within her Quality World. Up till now, she has held on to her job because with her good salary she can buy expensive clothes, go to expensive places, and do expensive things.

And yet, she is aware that her expensive lifestyle is not really satisfying her need for the kind of belonging, freedom, power, and fun she learned to appreciate when she was growing up. She admits to herself that she has sacrificed a lot of that earlier satisfaction ever since she began falsifying records and files at work.

She remembers her parents, her family and friends whom she has known to be honest and trustworthy. She knows that her dishonest behavior at work conflicts with the honesty in her Quality World. She is guilt ing because she knows that what she has been choosing to want violates what she believes God wants her to want. And she will continue to guilt so long as this contradiction remains.
But, one day Jane chooses to place a much greater value upon her relationship with God than she has previously done. She now wants to honor this relationship with God, even if it means giving up her expensive lifestyle.

Sam is depressing. "I don't understand it," he says. "If God loves me, why am I so miserable?" The counselor asks him, "What's going on in your life?" "Nothing," he says. "Nothing exciting, that's for sure."

"What would it take for your life to be exciting?"

"I would be having more fun.

"If you could change one thing in your life so you would have more fun, what would it be?"

"My wife would go with me to hockey games."

"Have you said this to her?"

"Sure I have. Many times."

"And what has she said?"

"You know I don't enjoy watching all that violence.

"Do you think she will ever want to go with you to a hockey game?"

"Probably not."

"Is insisting that she go with you to hockey games working for you?"

"No."

"What are your options?"

"Well, I could go by myself, and then find other fun-things that she and I could enjoy together."

"But, if you had to choose between going to a hockey game by yourself, and doing something that the two of you could enjoy together, which would you choose?"

"I see your point. My relationship with my wife is more important to me than my hockey games."

Bud and Ann choose to want a Christian marriage; they also believe they can achieve it.

Jane chooses to want the kind of integrity she once knew and enjoyed. She believes she can restore this integrity to her life.

Sam wants his wife and him to have more fun together, and he believes it can happen.

It is not enough that clients have wants that are specific and attainable; their wants must also be responsible. When their wants go through their Value Filter and are compatible with their Quality World, they can conclude that their wants are responsible.

On the other hand, if what they are wanting gets a questionable-to-unacceptable rating by their Value Filter, this means there is a conflict. As a result of this conflict, they will either change what they want, or they will re-prioritize and adjust their Quality World to accommodate their want.

Whether professing Christians or not, this process of self-evaluation serves to place the onus of responsibility squarely upon the clients themselves. For those who are not professing Christians, I might ask, "Do you really feel good about yourself over what you are choosing to want?" For those professing to be Christians, I might ask, "Do you think this is what Christ would have you to want?"

When I say, "Do you really feel good about yourself?", I am attempting to help them compare what they are choosing to want with what is in their Quality World. For Christians, I am challenging them to compare what they want with their commitment to Christ.

I assume that those who are followers of Christ are aware that Christ himself possessed and practiced certain qualities: humility, obedience, forgiveness and caring. He also teaches and expects those who follow him to cultivate and express these same qualities. For example, does what they want reflect an attitude of humility, or of arrogance? Obedience, or disobedience? Forgiveness or revenge? Caring or indifference?

Faithing in God also involves choosing to follow where we perceive God is leading us. This involves the element of doing.

FOLLOWING WHERE WE PERCEIVE GOD IS LEADING US

Ann and Bud want a Christian marriage. They also believe it is attainable. Can this Christian marriage be attained simply by their wanting it, and believing it is attainable? Wanting and believing are not enough.

Suppose Jane wants to restore a greater sense of integrity in her life, and believes she can do it. If she really wants it as much as she says she does, she will do the best she knows to make it happen.

As a counselor, I place a lot of importance upon my clients' evaluating what they are choosing to want. I see the fulfillment of their need for belonging, freedom, power and fun being jeopardized until they have validated what they are choosing to want. Once their want is validated, it seems to me that it is just as important for them to validate what they are choosing to do: "What are you doing to get what you want?"

Again, for clients whose orientation is not Christian, I might ask, "Do you feel good about yourself in what you are doing?" And, for Christians, "Is what you are doing compatible with your commitment to Christ?"

Once Bud and Ann choose to ask God's leading for their marriage, their next step is obvious. They begin to do the best they know in order to achieve it. For example, they take on an attitude of humility toward each other. They forgive each other wherever forgiveness is needed. They do whatever they can to improve the quality of their relationship with each other.

Jane wants to be at peace with God and with herself. She believes this will happen when she re-establishes honesty and integrity in her life. She leaves her present job and finds employment elsewhere, determined to act with honesty in whatever job she finds.

Sam does what he believes God is leading him to do, as he expresses a quality of caring toward his wife which he has never felt or shown before.

Finally, faithing in God involves choosing to trust God's power for our
following. I think of trusting as a combination of risking and letting go.

TRUSTING GOD'S POWER FOR OUR FOLLOWING

To trust is to walk where we cannot see clearly and with certainty; it is for us to believe where we cannot prove. Relative to our trusting in God, it is to risk the possibility that God’s power will not be there for us when we need it. At the same time, it is for us to step out and start doing what we believe God wants us to do, as if God has already given us this power, and we already possess it. This is our “leap” of faith.

Suppose Bud and Ann wait to make the needed changes in their marriage until they are totally sure God will give them the success they want. Suppose Jane waits to leave her old job until she knows absolutely that she will be able to live a life of integrity at a new job, which she does not yet have. And suppose Sam refuses to take the first step toward changing his treatment of his wife, until he knows that he will be successful.

The old proverb is most appropriate: “Nothing ventured, nothing gained.” Faithing in God is venturing and daring. It is a willingness to risk failure for the opportunity and the chance to succeed. But it is more. It is venturing and daring with the confidence that whatever is needed, God will provide it, one way or another.

This trust in God supplies no blue-print or schedule of how God’s power will be given. It may come in the form of courage for endurance during times of suffering. It may come as protection or deliverance, or overwhelming success. God’s power comes to us - whether or not we can anticipate it, recognize it, or understand it. It is true, “God moves in mysterious ways, his wonders to perform”. It is mysterious to us, but not to God.

As a counselor working with those who share this kind of trust in God, I am able to remind them of some of the ways God has provided for those who have trusted in him. This reminder can serve to strengthen them in their choosing to keep on trusting in God, regardless of circumstance or condition.

Alcoholics are not the only ones who have discovered the value of “letting go and letting God”. When we choose to want what God wants us to want, to follow where we perceive God is leading us, and to trust in God’s power to help us in our following, we can then let go and wait for God to “do his thing”, when and as God chooses.

One of the most common human behaviors is that of impatienting. We want what we want, how we want it, and we want it now. Faithing in God involves letting go because it involves choosing to wait with patience while God works his mysterious ways.

When it’s all said and done, the process of faithing in God is essentially the same as everyday faithing. The major difference is found in the meaning and ramifications of the phrase “in God”.

SAFETY AND SECURITY PICTURES: THE PSYCHOLOGICAL SIDE OF SURVIVAL

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ABSTRACT

This article examines the psychological aspects of the need for survival, as described in Control Theory. It gives examples of certain kinds of problems people face that may be related more to safety and security than to the other psychological needs. The article also addresses the apparent balance needed by an individual between safety/security and freedom, and speculates on the connections between safety/security and routines, and the organization process of behavior by which it becomes less and less conscious and more and more automatic. Finally, the article also speculates that one difficulty in changing behavior is that this involves a threat to the safety/security of the individual, and only through providing safety/security in the counseling relationship, can the helper facilitate the client making the changes desired.

In Control Theory, Glasser refers to our basic needs as genetic instructions, and lists five: 1) the need to survive and reproduce, 2) the need to belong, 3) the need for power, 4) the need for fun, and 5) the need for freedom. Glasser asserts that the need to survive and reproduce is centered in the “old brain” and that there are a number of automatic vital functions that are regulated by one or more portions of the old brain. The old brain has no consciousness. Survival activities of the organism can occur with little or no consciousness as when our bodies detect and deal with infections or when our breathing adjusts upon exertion. However, Glasser has also asserted that it is our Quality Word rather than the genetic instructions which is directly responsible for generating behavior. The Quality World pictures are very conscious and centered in the “new brain” as Glasser describes them. This article will address some aspects of the conscious, Quality World pictures related to the need to survive.

SAFETY AND SECURITY

While survival itself on a day to day basis is not a problem for a majority of Americans, in an affluent society such as ours, the need to survive seems to have psychological as well as physiological elements: the need for safety and security, which do affect most people on a daily basis. Because the difference between the perceptions we have of the world and our Quality World pictures generates the urge to behave, it is useful to understand what perceptions seem to represent a threat to the survival of an individual or which are distinctly different from the individual's pictures related to safety and security. From working with many spouse abusers over the past several years, some initial perceptions about their behavior seemed too shallow. At first, it seemed like a power need was operating, and power or importance pictures were what the person was attempting to fulfill. Some clients reported that power needs and pictures were mixed in. A number of these clients picked “power-over” behaviors to deal with the “crisis” occurring for them and could relate strongly to power as the need engaged when taught Control Theory. On the other hand, there were a number who

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This article is based on the writer's understanding and appreciation of Dr. William Glasser's Control Theory/Reality Therapy. It is also based upon the writer's professional training in Christian theology, and his years of pastoral counseling.
seemed very much afraid, as if their safety were at issue, as if their picture of who they are was threatened by some choice of their wife or girlfriend such as to work, or to go out with her girlfriends, or to get a driver’s license. Helping these men find more importance or power in their lives in ways other than abusing their spouse was not enough. These were dependent, insecure men whose safety and security needs were met through the relationship with one person, primarily, their spouse. At the same time, many of them maintained very dependent relationships with their own parents. They did not seem to feel whole or safe, alone. It was as if their picture of “home base” involved their spouse at home cooking and cleaning and waiting to take care of them both physically (dinner) and emotionally (being there to talk to). These “security pictures” represent the psychological side of their survival need.

**BALANCE BETWEEN SAFETY/SECURITY AND FREEDOM**

Another focus which can help explain these pictures related to safety and security, is through comparing them to the other needs pictures Glasser describes. Glasser describes the implicit conflict between the needs for belonging and power and concludes by saying that “those of us who can negotiate a balance between these needs are fortunate.” Yet is there a need which conflicts in the same way with the need for freedom? Again, is it possible safety and security represents the “other side” of these scales? While teenagers are one of the most vocal groups concerning freedom and choices, (at least in our society), they are also a group who seem to prosper in the presence of boundaries, limits and rules. Rules seem to help people feel a sense of security, that there is some predictability to life, that certain procedures follow others. This is even more visible in younger children who will spend time focusing on rules in different ways. A two year old will look a parent in the eye before throwing her food on the floor, despite having been told about the rule many times before. Perhaps freedom for her is testing the rules. A six year old complains that the parent is not playing by the rules when he spies (“I Spy”) something outside the car when on a long trip. A nine year old will question how fast the parent is driving and why it is okay to break the rule. It would seem that the sets of expectations generated in a family for its members (a set of rules) are designed for safety and security (“Don’t run in the street!”) while attempting to recognize family members’ need for freedom (“If you’re going to be late, call.”) There is no real threat to a family’s survival if the father has extra money and decides to go to New York for the weekend without telling anyone, but this may clash strongly with their safety and security pictures and they may generate “insecure” behaviors (“What will he do next?”).

**SCHEDULES AND SAFETY/SECURITY**

Another convincing support about safety and security is the observation that people have a propensity for doing things in a fixed way. This is how routines are formed. To say that following a specific morning routine daily (e.g. shower, shave, brush teeth, eat breakfast) gives a person more control of one’s day’s beginning begs the question. If a person has a need for freedom, why doesn’t the person do it differently every day? Routines don’t seem to help a person get more fun, belonging, or power/ importance but they do help one feel more secure and hence, safer. To be able to predict and control various random factors which may occur day to day (such as getting mud on recently polished shoes, forgetting an important paper at home, or finding oneself short of energy in mid-morning) helps a person get more freedom eventually, but at the moment helps one feel safer and more secure. To make more effective control of life often involves attempting new, creative ways of doing the regular things (meeting freedom pictures) yet at the same time, maintaining the regular routine helps prevent conflicts and so there is less frustration in one’s life (meeting safety and security pictures). So walking on the sidewalk (avoiding potential mud), placing important papers in the briefcase (so as not to forget), and eating the same kinds of breakfast daily help maintain a routine and satisfy the psychological side of the survival need, through meeting safety and security pictures.

**SAFETY/SECURITY AND THE ORGANIZING OF BEHAVIORS**

Another way to explain the need for safety and security is that if freedom is involved in opening up the creative, reorganizing systems, then safety and security is involved in the organizing, storage and automatic (less conscious) retrieval of behaviors that have worked in the past. Part of the need satisfaction that comes from looking for the lost keys for the fifth time in the same place they weren’t when one looked for the fourth time, is from the sense of security in the routine of looking. Following a routine helps make things seem safer. On the other hand, there are those people who are in a panic the first time they look because they probably haven’t developed a routine, a program for searching (a set of organized behaviors) and/or they perceive a serious threat to their safety and security (“What if I can’t find them in time . . . ”).

**CHANGE OF BEHAVIOR: THREAT TO SECURITY?**

To make a change in behavior always involves a choice and often involves a new choice of behavior. To change a pattern or routine of behavior(s), involves a risk, an insecurity, a suspension of our sense of safety even about the “devil we do know” (which doesn’t seem as bad as the “devil we don’t”). The routine, in giving us security, locks us into what may not be a helpful pattern. However, through the safety and security of the effective therapeutic relationship, new choices can be more easily made and new behaviors can be risked. This sense of security allows the person to try (and perhaps fail), to risk, and to learn.

**SUMMARY**

In summary, the need to survive may be primarily based in the old brain but a psychological side to this need can be seen in the new brain’s search for safety and security pictures. Relationships, rules and routines often involve this element. Breaking out of ineffective patterns of behavior involves taking a risk for someone, which means that safety and security must be built into the therapeutic environment in order that a person can begin to make changes and live life more effectively.
Book Review

TALKING BACK TO PROZAC: WHAT DOCTORS AREN'T TELLING YOU ABOUT TODAY'S MOST CONTROVERSIAL DRUG
by P.R. & G.R. Breggin

Thomas E. Bratter

The author is head of The John Dewey Academy in Great Barrington, Massachusetts.

ABSTRACT


The Breggins, who have been aggressive advocates for supportive-exploratory psychotherapy, challenge the bio-chemical, metabolic assumptions justifying Prozac. They reject the alarming trend of psychiatry to treat all symptoms with potent, psychotropic substances which they contend are toxic.

Ironically, there is consensus that at no time in history has life been more complex, conflicted, and contradictory. For every study which concludes "yes, it's safe" there is one which states "no, it's dangerous" which confuses readers. This is not a recent trend. Five centuries ago, Christopher Columbus challenged the prevailing sentiment that the world was flat by gambling it was round. Despite overwhelming evidence of mortality, Ponce deLeon searched for the fountain of youth, presumably to offer immortality.

The Eli Lilly Corporation, the pharmaceutical giant, has searched for the "magic pill" which can cure all diseases. While some may claim the Eli Lilly motives are altruistic, there is reason to believe that the Corporation's primary intent is to increase profits which benefits stockholders. It is amazing how, with the discovery of DNA, there has been an attempt to simplify human interactions by reducing them to being controlled by medication. At no time in history has there been such formidable conspiracy between the Food and Drug Administration and Wall Street to attempt to convince the world that life can be manageable by "Better Living Through Psychopharmacology."

Morphine was used during the Civil War as a potent pain killer with the net result that thousands of soldiers became addicted. Heroin was proposed to be the cure for morphine but, in fact, created more physiological problems so methadone, a synthetic opiate, became the modern solution. While the Eli Lilly Corporation may protest, there is substantial evidence methadone is more toxic than morphine and heroin. Eli Lilly convinced the FDA on the basis of the Dole & Nyswander (1965) sample included 22 addicts who had twenty interviews to assess their reliability and commitment to change rather than to gather data. Bratter (1985) criticized the government for questioning neither the protocol nor the still unsubstantiated hypothesis of a metabolic disorder which creates the craving for heroin. To date, no researcher has explained what causes this alleged metabolic disorder.

What seems to be an anomaly is how difficult it has become to convince the FDA that AZT or any medication may be a cure for AIDS. Twice, in contrast, Eli Lilly has manipulated the FDA to endorse methadone and now Prozac with shockingly insufficient data. Perhaps the solution for manufacturers who want their cure for AIDS approved would be to make it a co-venture with Eli Lilly which has acquired special expertise how to convince the FDA.

Kramer's Listening to Prozac (1993) was a frightening endorsement of the alleged magical, miraculous pill. Kramer illustrates points by describing patients referred to him by psychologists and social workers, who do not have the power to prescribe, which presumably permits him to be more objective than if he were to use his patients. Kramer's book is anecdotal. Predictably, Listening to Prozac has become a best seller since so many either take this potent psychotropic pill or are considering using it.

Ironically, Breggin (1991) is taken to task and viewed by the Psychiatric Establishment to be "an enfant terrible" because he is a humanistic psychiatrist whose anti-medicine views have been well documented when he describes his perception of the "Brave New World" of psychiatry which can be reduced to prescribing medicine:

As the medical and biological wing of the profession [psychiatry] has taken over, compassionate psychologically oriented psychiatrists have been replaced by biochemists and lab researchers as department heads. Major journals devote nearly all their space to studies on the brains, blood and urine of psychiatric patients — without so much as a passing mention of patients as people with thoughts and feelings relevant to their condition and their recovery.

People suffering from what used to be thought of as "neuroses" and "personal problems" are being treated with drugs and shock. Children with problems that once were handled by remedial education or improved parenting are instead being subjected to medical diagnoses, drugs, and hospitals . . . Yet the only biochemical imbalances that we can identify with certainty in the brains of psychiatric patients are the ones produced by psychiatric treatment itself. (p. 12)

Breggin continues his attack on biochemical psychiatry. Depressed people don't tend to hurt themselves when they have a good relationship with a therapist and some hope of improvement. I try to help individuals experience their feelings, to understand the sources of their despair, and to overcome hopelessness, while providing a caring, morale-building relationship and guidance toward more effective ways of living. Often this involves the client learning new, more positive values and a more daring, caring approach. (p. 171)
Peter Breggin has written a most disturbing, meticulously documented, rebuttal, *Talking Back to Prozac*, which exposes the inherent dangers of this selective serotonin re-uptake inhibitor (SSRI).

The major criticism of the Breggins' book is that St. Martin's Press failed to provide competent editing which not only would have eliminated many redundancies but also corrected some of the jargon. Rather than using a scholarly-scientific writing style, not infrequently, the Breggins' lapse into diatribe which is distracting because it detracts from the message. The title, *Talking Back To Prozac*, suggests a more active, critical form of thought than *Listening To Prozac* which suggests they intend to discredit Peter Kramer's book whose title conveys the passivity of listening. Given the obvious biases of the authors, a more appropriate title would have been *Criticalizing Prozac*.

Breggins' primary hypotheses are stated cogently:

**ONE:** The three protocols we have examined were the only ones that the FDA judged valid enough to use for demonstrating efficacy. A large number of other studies were even more scientifically objectionable or showed Prozac to be ineffective. These three badly flawed efforts, with many patients suffering adverse reactions, are the basis for the FDA allowing Prozac to be given to millions of Americans. A lot of fancy numbers-crunching was required to make Prozac look better than a lowly sugar pill. In addition, several of the investigators were severely criticized by the FDA for their practices, including failure to observe protocol rules.

It bears repeating: These three protocols — with only 286 Prozac patients finishing the four-to-six-week studies — were the best that Eli Lilly and the FDA could come up with to prove the value of Prozac.

We believe the FDA, based on its analyses, should not have approved Prozac. All in all, this is anything but an encouraging outlook for the drug — hardly the stuff national crazes are made of. We will have to keep looking for the real underlying causes of Prozac's enthusiastic endorsement by so many patients. (Italics added for emphasis, TEB) (pp. 55-56)

**TWO:** Prozac can cause a range of psychological and neurological disorders that can lead to destructive actions. First, Prozac frequently causes agitation, panic, or anxiety . . . Second: Prozac causes mania in a significant number of patients which can lead to suicide and violence . . . Third: Prozac very commonly causes the neurological disorder, akathisia . . . Fourth: Prozac can cause depression or symptoms that mimic depression — including fatigue, agitation, social withdrawal, emotional flatness or apathy, loss of appetite, loss of sexual desire and loss of loving connection to other people . . . Fifth: Prozac can cause paranoia — an irrational fear and blaming of others — that can lead to violence against others, and less commonly against oneself. Sixth: Prozac can increase obsessive-compulsive thoughts and behavior, including preoccupations with death, murder, and suicide. Seventh: Prozac frequently causes insomnia, and sleeplessness can drive people to despair and sometimes to suicide. (Italics in the original) (pp. 153-154)

**THREE:** Once a drug is approved for marketing by the FDA, there are no government controls over what physicians can prescribe it for. While Prozac was originally approved for depression — and only recently for obsessive-compulsive behavior disorder — it and the other SSRIs quickly began to be prescribed for a wide variety of ailments and difficulties, such as seasonal affective disorder (SAD) or "winter blues," obesity, anorexia, bulimia, phobia, anxiety and panic disorder, chronic fatigue syndrome, premenstrual syndrome (PMS), post-partum depression, drug and alcohol addiction, migraine headaches, arthritis, body dysmorphic disorder (BBD), and finally, behavioral and emotional problems in children and adolescents. (p. 4)

At the very least, until these assertions can be proven, the FDA needs to declare a moratorium on new prescriptions. Prozac may prove to be the fraudulent snake oil of the 1990's.

The John Dewey Academy offers psychiatric casualties, described by Bratter, Bratter, Maxym, Radda & Steiner (1993), a pragmatic education where they learn how to love and be loved, how to respect and be respected, how to help and be helped, how to trust and be trusted, and most importantly how to live a good, decent, moral, responsible life.

40% of the students arrive at The John Dewey Academy being medicated by lithium, prozac, ritalin, monoamine oxidase inhibitors, and tricyclics. Currently none are medicated, thus confirming the Academy's anti-medication policy. The John Dewey Academy questions the neurobiologic research that presupposes the serotonin re-uptake inhibitors — i.e., fluoxetine (Prozac), sertraline (Zoloft), and paroxetine (Paxil) — have revolutionized the psychiatric treatment of depression. Bratter, Bratter, & Radda (1988) report The John Dewey Academy rejects the biological, genetic and cellular bases of psychiatric disorders. Psychotropic medicine neither ameliorates attitude problems or creates self-respect.

This reviewer recommends everyone who takes Prozac, is considering taking it, has a relative or friend taking it, or those credentialed professionals who work in the fields of psychotherapy and pharmacology, read this book. Anyone, who has a tenth grade reading ability, can understand its contents. Hopefully, *Talking Back*, when the test of time validates its warnings, will have a better fate than did *The Crisis of AIDS* by Masters, Johnson, and Kolodny (1988) no longer in print, nor quoted which accurately predicted not only the epidemic spread of AIDS but also that this disease would affect heterosexuals.

Reality Therapists need to challenge the assertion that the etiology of disease is caused by unsubstantiated claims of metabolic disorders. By asking questions of those with whom we try to help them to help themselves, generally there are realistic explanations why individuals feel depressed, shame, humiliation. By helping persons-in-psychotherapy recognize that by taking control of their respective lives, they can improve the quality of their existences is more helpful than to join the conspiracy of "Better living Through Chemistry" by using potent psychoactive substances" which have been proven conclusively to be deleterious to health. In the final analysis, the best way to (re)gain self-respect is to be responsible, honest, and productive.
Sleak (1995), who joins the swelling ranks of those disputing the claims of effectiveness of Prozac, asserts that “usually medication alone can’t help patients deal with issues that spurred their depression.” (p. 31) Once again, the public naively believing medication can cure all problems has been duped. It is a case of deja vu when the Food and Drug Administration has been manipulated to give its approval prematurely. If, indeed, history repeats itself there is reason to believe within the next five years, Prozac will be withdrawn from the market when other spurious claims are proven false, thus validating Talking Back to Prozac albeit several years post hoc.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

INSTITUTE ETHICS:
ROLE PLAY VS. REAL COUNSELING
Robert E. Wubbolding

The author is Director of Training for the Institute for Control Theory, Reality Therapy and Quality Management.

Many ethical and professional issues have been discussed in these pages during the past several years, e.g. issues related to consultation (Wubbolding, 1991a, 1991b), suicide (Wubbolding, 1987, 1988, Hallock, 1988), informed consent (Wubbolding, 1986), and most recently dual relationships (Wubbolding, 1993). Recent discussions within the Institute indicate the need to elaborate on how ethical issues relate to the certification process. Please consider the following case:

Lee is a workshop participant in a basic intensive week. In setting the stage for practicing the CT/RT principles, the instructor asks Lee to be a client for a role play demonstration. Lee describes his own personal problem and decision and freely agrees to ask for help. The instructor agrees that Lee can be himself in the demonstration. Role play is thus not utilized in this case.

Lee describes feelings of depression as a result of being a single parent with the responsibility of raising three pre-teenage children. The spouse had suddenly asked for a divorce and moved out of state with a much younger companion of the same sex. During the session the client becomes quite emotional, showing anger, rage, and subsequent embarrassment.

The participants feel the responsibility of assisting Lee who later expressed profound regret at having consented to “real therapy”. The instructor believes the participant needs extra attention and spends several evenings counseling this “client.” At the end of the week, Lee states “all is well now, I’m OK. I’m really OK. I’ve put the entire problem behind me.” The other participants are not sure.

QUESTION: What is wrong with the above picture?
ANSWER: There is almost nothing right with this scenario. Many ethical issues are involved in the highly questionable events that occurred.

Institute Documents:

It is the position of the Institute for Control Theory, Reality Therapy, and Quality Management that practice sessions conducted in training programs include role play. Throughout the training process from basic
intensive weeks through instructor programs, role play is the main vehicle for instruction. (*Programs, Policies, Procedures & Materials Manual*, pp, 6-14). For example, in the advanced week, “the participant is expected to participate more actively than during the basic week. There is more emphasis on role-playing and the processing of the role-plays by the participants.” (Ibid., p. 9).

Additionally, William Glasser has emphatically and clearly stated that role play practice, not real counseling, is the focus of our training. He stated if “one person were to commit suicide, it would be a thousand too many.” (1994).

Thirdly, the advisory board of the Institute has unambiguously endorsed the position that practicing skills in Institute programs includes role play practice, but not “real therapy.” (1994)

**Multiple Relationships:**

Elsewhere I have summarized a major ethical issue in the helping professions (1994). I wish to argue here that “real counseling” in intensive weeks extends beyond dual relationships into an even more complicated multiple relationship. An instructor who demonstrates reality therapy with “real counseling” establishes a therapist-client relationship on top of the instructor-trainee relationship. This dual relationship is rendered more complicated when the purpose of such a session is described. Is the primary responsibility of the instructor to counsel the client or to instruct the participants? In any counseling session, the helper’s primary responsibility is the client. However, the other participants/observers have not contracted with the instructor or the organizer to observe someone else resolve personal problems.

**Informed Consent:**

In attending Institute training programs, participants expect to be trained to use the procedures. They are told that they will role play practice skills, hear lectures, etc. They come with the expectation of receiving training, not personal therapy.

Moreover, because the relationship between trainer and trainee is distinct from that of therapist/client, it can be argued that it is one of consultation. The American Counseling Association describes the nature of this relationship, “... the focus of the relationship (is) on the issues to be resolved and not on the persons presenting the problem” (Section E, 1). The Canadian Guidance and Counselling Association describes the nature of the relationship in identical terms (Section D, 2).

**Uncovered Issues:**

In entering a therapeutic relationship, the client needs to understand that issues might emerge that include a beginning, a middle, and an end, i.e., disclosure, discussion, and closure. Thus if participants agree to receive “real counseling,” to be themselves, they should be informed that the full process of counseling cannot occur in the short period of an intensive week.

Moreover, experience has shown that some individuals seem to freely consent to “real counseling” without realizing the many implications and consequences. They often express regret or confusion at a later date. Or, as in the case of Lee they minimize the over-inflation of the feeling wheel of their behavioral car or even deny it. Thus the outcome of this “counseling” is that clients can be worse off than before they received such insufficient help.

In the voyage to higher quality the Institute has attempted to stay on course and to practice what it teaches. The documents clearly describe beliefs about the content of training. Participants’ informed consent is based on the expectation that these beliefs are modelled and made specific in the training programs that our professional relationships are clear and unambiguous.

**Bibliography**


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