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EFFECTS OF TEACHING CONTROL THEORY AND REALITY THERAPY AS AN APPROACH TO REDUCING DISRUPTIVE BEHAVIORS IN MIDDLE SCHOOL PHYSICAL EDUCATION

by

Robert Manning Edens

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

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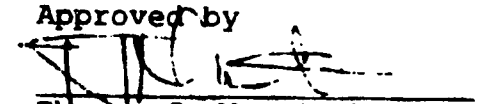
Approved by



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EDENS, ROBERT MANNING, Ph.D. Effects of Teaching Control Theory and Reality Therapy as an Approach to Reducing Disruptive Behaviors in Middle School Physical Education. (1995)Directed by Dr. Thomas J. Martinek. 185pp.

The purpose of this study was to assess the effects of Dr. William Glasser's control theory and reality therapy as an approach to reducing disruptive behaviors in middle school physical education. Two classes of seventh graders were selected to participate in the twelve week study. The Glasser class received instruction in control theory and counseling based upon reality therapy in addition to physical education instruction. The Standard class did not receive control theory instruction or reality therapy counseling. Disruptive behaviors, locus of control, and disciplinary carry-over effects were assessed for both classes.

At the end of twelve weeks, disruptive behaviors were lower for the Glasser class than the Standard class. There was no significant difference in locus of control for the two classes. Disciplinary carry-over effects were higher for the Glasser class than for the Standard class. The teacher's journal served to supplement the findings.

APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

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October 23, 1995

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of Drake and Ferrell Edens.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

> Disruptive behavior is an obstacle to learning. It robs instructional time not only for the disruptive students, but also for the non-offending youths as the teacher interrupts the learning process to handle the disruption (Gottfredson, 1989).

Traditionally, misbehavior has been the dominant theme in discussions of classroom management. Consistently, lack of discipline has been one of the most important problems facing our schools. In 16 of the last 18 years, parents, teachers, and administrators consistently rated behavioral problems and lack of discipline as a major problem in American Schools (Gallup, 1984; 1986; 1991).

Students in our schools have become increasingly more violent. "Teen Suspended One Day For Assaulting Teacher" was a recent headline in a local paper (Greensboro News & Record, 1993). In a classroom in Dartmouth, Massachusetts, three students burst into a classroom with a bat, a billy club, and a knife, attacking and killing another student (Toch, Gest, & Guttman, 1993). It is not uncommon to have students file through metal detectors or hand-held wands in order to enter the school building. Secretary of Education Dick Riley has declared that our classrooms have become war

zones due to misbehavior and violence (Toch, Gest, & Guttman, 1993).

Disruptive student behavior inhibits a teacher's ability to teach and a student's opportunity to learn. French (1987) states that disruptive behavior results in a decrease in on-task performance time by approximately 25 to 30 percent.

In physical education classes, disruptive behaviors are especially disconcerting. With some physical education classes having as many as 160 students in one gymnasium at a time, any disruption is magnified. Physical education teachers have tried a multitude of techniques to control disruptive behavior.

There appears to be two forms of these control techniques used by physical educators: prevention and punishment (Henkel, 1989). Prevention control techniques and strategies include: "getting pupils' attention" (Siedentop, Herkowitz, & Rink, 1984); "stating and reinforcing" (Graham, Holt-Hale, & Parker, 1987; Morris, 1980; Siedentop, et al., 1984); "managing time" (Morris, 1980, Siedentop, et al., 1984); "modeling" (Hoffman, Young, & Klesius, 1981; Wescott, 1979); "praising" desirable conduct (Graham, etal., 1984; Werner, 1985). Punishment control techniques include: "desist", "extinction", "omission training", "positive practice", "reward-cost", "rewarding other behavior", and

time-out" (Henkel, 1989). However, the underlying premise of these behavior management techniques is the teacher's attempt to control the students' behavior, rather than students controlling their own behaviors by choosing appropriate and acceptable behaviors. Upon examining studies conducted on behavioral management and discipline programs, it is apparent teachers' roles focus on controlling student behavior rather than helping the student to become self-disciplined. This study is designed to determine if the use of William Glasser's control theory/reality therapy can reduce disruptive behaviors in physical education by meeting students' needs rather than using teacher coercion.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The behavior of school children has been the focus of attention by behavioral researchers for the past 20 years (Sulzer-Azaroff, 1988). Preservice teachers consistently rank discipline as a premiere concern, while inservice teachers identify it as an on-going problem (Kirsch & McBride, 1987). As a result, program after program has tried to curb disruptive classroom behavior. A review of pertinent literature and research was conducted to investigate a) strategies for handling disruptive classroom behaviors and b) the concepts of and research on control theory and reality therapy.

Handling Disruptive Classroom Behaviors

Many approaches have been used to reduce disruptive behaviors. Gordon (1974) is still promoting Parent, Leader, and Teacher Effectiveness with its active listening, I-Messages, and no-lose contracts. Dreikurs' (1982) Goals of Misbehavior (Attention, Power, Revenge, and Withdrawal) are quoted as rational, though often unconscious reasons for youngsters' misbehavior. Also, behavior modification, with its language of positive and negative reinforcement, punishment and time-out, and its supporters such as Canter, appears timeless (Tauber, 1989). Strategies such as peer influence, codes of conduct, contracts, isolation, intervention teams, in-school suspension, suspension, and expulsion are common.

In an attempt to help teachers control students' misbehavior, several behavior management models - Assertive Discipline, behavior modification, Adlerian, Hellison's (1985, 1991, 1993) humanistic education and Teacher Effectiveness Training - have been proposed. Many of these models have a premises that are similar. Yet, each offers its own particular foundation or methodological strategies. Several of these programs emphasize strategies the teacher can use to assert discipline in the classroom.

Assertive Discipline

The basic premise of Assertive Discipline is the right of the teacher to define and enforce standards for student

behavior (Ford, 1984). Assertive Discipline reinforces the teacher's right to demand and enforce appropriate students behavior. This allows instruction to occur and is consistent with the teacher's abilities. The teacher's wants and needs are clearly explained to the student with consequences for noncompliance precisely defined. This is usually done on the first day of school. Teachers either hand out, post, or simply read the classroom and school rules. The most frequently used discipline procedure is placing student's names on the chalk board, sending a note home to parents, putting students' in time out, and/or referring students' to the principal or disciplinary office.

Assertive Discipline has been misconstrued in that the aim is to teach rather than to punish (Ford, 1984). Results from studies that have examined the use of Assertive Discipline on disruptive student behavior have varied. For example, one study found that Assertive Discipline has consistently shown that teachers dramatically improve student behavior when they use the skills as prescribed (Canter, 1989). However, Terrell (1984) matched 11 schools using Assertive Discipline with 11 other schools not using Assertive Discipline. Terrell found no significant differences in disruptive behaviors for truancy rates, referrals, detentions, and out-of-school suspensions. However, significant

differences were found in the reduction of in-school suspensions.

Additional evidence for the effects of Assertive Discipline on student behavior and attitudes has not been supportive. More studies found either no effects or mixed and negative effects than found that Assertive Discipline training resulted in improved student behavior and attitudes (Emmer and Ausskier, 1989). Examining the effects of Assertive Discipline on classroom disruptions, Ward (1983) was able to reduce classroom disruptions from a mean of 17.09 per day to 10.44 per day over a six-day period. Similar to Ward's findings, Allen (1983) found in a study of sixth and seventh graders that a significant decrease in the number of office referrals occurred after implementing Assertive Discipline.

Another study examined student teacher's use of Assertive Discipline as a means of emphasizing pupil control (Barrett, 1985). Student teachers participated in a six hour Assertive Discipline workshop. Program effects examined pupil control, teacher anxiety and teacher concerns. Results conducted indicated no change in the student teachers' pupil control. In addition, this study also found no significant results in the student teachers' anxiety levels or general levels of concern.

Teacher Effectiveness Training (TET)

Another approach which relates directly to the teacher's right to define and enforce standards of behaviors was

developed by Thomas Gordon (1974). Derived from a psychotherapeutic model (Brophy & Putnam, 1979), Teacher Effectiveness Training (TET) emphasizes a variety of human relation and communication skills. Teacher Effectiveness Training (TET) differentiates two types of classroom behavior: those in which the "teacher owns the problem" and those in which the "student owns the problem." According to Gordon, teacher-owned problems are ones which prohibit the teacher from teaching effectively due to disruptive student behavior. Student-owned problems are those which are caused by the student being upset at something (e.g. a poor grade or a personal problem). When the student owns the problem, the teacher uses a variety of listening skills to help the student understand and resolve the problem.

When the teacher owns the problem, "I-messages" and problem-solving are stressed. "I-messages" ask the teacher to 1) specify the problem the student is causing, and 2) negotiate a solution with the student so that both the teacher and the student are satisfied. The goal of TET is to solve problems in ways that are neither authoritarian nor submissive (Emmer & Aussiker, 1989). Teacher Effectiveness Training is conducted by a representative of Effectiveness Training Inc., founded by Gordon. Participants begin by reading related text materials. Training sessions are normally six hours and consist of listening to lectures and tapes, watching and doing

demonstrations, modeling desired behaviors, practicing learned skills, and doing workbook exercises. Teachers are asked to record their interactions with students to be used for self-analysis and feedback.

Results from studies on the effectiveness of the use of TET are mixed. Most are focused on student or teacher attitudes and beliefs rather than on disruptive student behaviors.

For example, Chanow (1980) found positive results on students' attitudes toward their teachers who had been trained in TET. Students' rated teachers who had received TET training higher on evaluations (competence, interest, and general impression) than did students whose teacher had not received TET. However, the teachers were volunteers and were not randomly selected creating some limitations to these finding.

Laseter (1981), studying student achievement gains, found significant differences when comparing the number of classes students took with teachers who had been trained in TET. High school students who had more classes with teachers trained in TET gained more on the California Achievement Test, reading and math, than did students who had fewer classes with teachers who had been trained in TET. Once again, teacher selection and failure to observe teacher behavior limit the interpretation of the results.

In a study that did examine student behavior, Thompson (1975) compared the effect of "I-messages" to reprimands on disruptive student behavior. In one class, Thompson found no differences in the use of "I-messages" or reprimand statements when trying to reduce disruptive behaviors. Although, in a second class, "I-messages" did reduce disruptive behaviors initially, no significant reduction in overall students' disruptions were recorded.

Behavior Modification

Behavior modification is yet another program that is used by many educators to reduce disruptive behaviors. It is based on the works of behaviorist B.F. Skinner (1954). Skinner believed that all behavior is primarily determined by the consequences it generates in the environment (Hellison, 1974). Behavior modification and its proponents focus on: 1) overt and specific behavior, 2) a precise setting of treatment goals, 3) formulation of specific treatment procedures for the particular problem, and 4) an objective test of the outcome therapy (Gutteriez, 1985).

Behavior modification is closely aligned with Assertive Discipline and encompasses numerous techniques and strategies. These include: planned ignoring, proximity control, tension decontamination through humor, removing distracters, signal interference, modeling, contracting, restructuring the classroom program and/or environment (Ackerman, 1982;

Siedentop & Herkowitz, 1984), group contingency (Vogler & French, 1983), sitting and watching (White and Bailey, 1990), using verbal praise, (van der Mars, 1989), and verbal reprimands (Henderson & French, 1990).

Physical educators have combined and used many behavioral modification techniques in order to curb disruptive classroom behaviors. One of the most popular is "sit and watch" technique (White and Bailey, 1990). When a student becomes disruptive in class, the teacher cannot teach, other students are deprived from participating and learning, and the classroom environment breaks down. Using the sit and watch technique, the teacher will remove the student from class, placing the student off by himself to sit and watch the others.

Another behavior modification strategy is group contingency. Vogler and French (1983) looked at the efficacy of this approach. In order to keep behaviorally disordered students on-task, students are given a set of rules that they must follow. In their study, students were divided into small groups and played games to try to win or earn extra free time. Group members were urged to encourage each other. However, at the end of a game, team members could vote to have a team member removed if he was not on-task. Groups were given "tokens" if they were on-task and "frowny-faces" if they were off-task. The authors reported that this technique was

significantly effective in increasing on-task behavior. They also found that the students responded positively to this strategy.

Tokens are used often by behaviorist. Tokens are an easy and effective, yet somewhat coercive, method of maintaining class decorum. Carter's (1989) "Champions" program uses tokens (points) to achieve good behavior. The program is an outgrowth of Carter's dissatisfaction with the "tough" approach to discipline as exemplified by New Jersey principal Joe Clark with his bullhorn and baseball bat. Points are awarded for good behavior and taken away for poor behavior. Students who earn enough points receive a "champions" sweatband. While purely subjective, Carter's evaluation of the program received unanimous support. Carter cites a "spillover effect" into other class, hallways, playgrounds. In other words, the behavior of students in the champions program improved in classrooms throughout the school.

Behavior modification techniques also include positive affirmations. These are statements made to the student in order to reaffirm or reinforce positive behavior. Van der Mars (1989) tested the effects of verbal praise on three second graders identified by their teacher as students being frequently off-task. The teacher, wore a wireless microphone and mini-tape recorder. During class the teacher increased the amount of verbal praise on students' skill performance and

general class conduct. Increasing the amount of verbal praise was shown to be effective in reducing off-task behavior for these three second graders.

Adlerian Model

Based on the works of Mortimer Adler, the Adlerian approach emphasizes understanding the students' reasons for their disruptive behavior. Under Adlerian thought, students who misbehave are trying to satisfy their basic needs for love and belonging because they are unable to meet these needs in socially acceptable ways. Therefore, students seek attention or engage in power struggles. Adlerian methods call for the teacher to: 1) diagnose the problem, 2) avoid reinforcing the problem, and 3) help the students find constructive ways to meet their needs. Rules are determined by the students. The role of teacher is that of leader rather than authoritarian.

Research has failed to establish the Adlerian approach as a solution to disruptive classroom behaviors. An example of this is reported by Krebs (1982). Krebs studied the effects of student achievement in two elementary schools, one using an Adlerian approach, the other using a traditional school approach. The study cites that one year after returning to the traditional school, students at the Adlerian school had greater academic gains than their traditional school counterparts. However, no pre-treatment achievement data were shown to demonstrate that the two groups were equal at the

start of the study. Emmer and Aussiker (1989) state that "the Adlerian approach is greatly in need of better evidence corroborating its effects on teachers and students."

Additional Behavior Management Models

Two other behavior management models, Shrigley's (1985) and Stefanich and Bell's (1985), have been suggested for reducing disruptive behaviors. Both models employ the use of several different intervention strategies, yet retain their own unique approach.

Shrigley's model (1985) is a two phase process combining different management strategies. The first phase consists of four body language intervention skills: ignoring the behavior, inaudible facial signals, proximity control, and touch control. These first four nonverbal skills are assertive enough to help students realize they are off-task or being disruptive, and usually enough to curb the behavior.

The second phase consists of verbal intervention strategies for coping with other disruptive classroom behaviors. These include: Gordon's (1974) "I-messages," direct appeal, logical consequences, contrived consequences or threats. Other verbal interventions include humor, sarcasm, reward, or assertive questioning.

As part of a study, a survey by Shrigley showed that 35 percent of the 523 incidents were curbed using verbal

interventions, forty percent were controlled by nonverbal strategies, and 23 percent by threats.

Teachers who have used Shrigley's model claim that it is easy because they already do these things. Shrigley's model is systematic and somewhat assertive. Shrigley claims that it is time teachers developed a systematic plan to control disruptive classroom behaviors rather than relying upon intuition.

A second model, Stefanich and Bell's (1985) Cascade Model, is intended to maintain control and on-task behavior, while allowing students to make decisions that enhance their learning. This model uses a pattern based on Public Law 94-142 which stressed the need to place handicapped individuals in the "least restrictive environment." The concept of this law focuses on facilitating the integration of handicapped individuals into society. The law requires handicapped persons be provided experiences which pattern that society as closely as possible. Adapted to physical education, the Cascade model uses a series of classroom intervention strategies having a general flow pattern and based on independence and self-responsibility to those of a more restricted environment. The key is the continual adaptation by the teacher to a management system while allowing students the freedom to make decisions. It is designed to help teachers identify and utilize various

discipline strategies and techniques in order to develop a positive learning environment.

The teacher uses these intervention strategies to move from preventive discipline measures through supportive measures, corrective measures, and finally adaptive measures. Each level is built upon the preceding one with restraints dissipating as one proceeds. The rules are decided and controlled by the teacher. The strategies are: proximity control, modeling, and attention-getting behaviors.

These intervention strategies use behavioral goal-setting methods to help students maintain self-control and understand the consequences of their actions. Adaptive measures such as time-out within the classroom, time-out outside the classroom with supervision, and in-school and out-of-school suspension are suggested. However, no research could be found to support or reject Stefanich and Bell's Cascade model.

In physical education, disruptive classroom behaviors are especially a problem, partially due to the more open and typically less restricted environment. Unfortunately, only limited research concerning behavioral management has been conducted in physical education (White, & Bailey, 1990). One program that has received support is Hellison's Self-Responsibility Model.

Hellison's Self-Responsibility Model

Hellison (1985) has developed a physical education program that addresses the concept of self-responsibility. Hellison's Self-Responsibility Model (SRM) was created for delinquency-prone youth and according to Debusk and Hellison (1989, p.104), "has been recognized by curriculum and instruction scholars as an exemplar of teaching social development through physical education."

Hellison's program requires students to progress through five levels of responsibility. Level 0 (Irresponsibility) describes students who are unmotivated and undisciplined. Level I (Self-control) describes students who may not participate in the activity or show little mastery or improvement. However, these students are able to control their behaviors enough that they do not interfere with the lessons of the other students who are trying to learn. Level II (Involvement) are those students who show self-control and are involved in the subject matter. In Level III (Self-direction) students take on more responsibility, are able to work without direct supervision, and take responsibility for their actions and intentions. The highest level, Level IV (Caring), describes students who are cooperative, give support to others, show concern and help for others. Hellison's model uses six types of interaction strategies: teacher talk, modeling, reinforcement, reflection time, student sharing, and

specific level-related strategies (e.g. reciprocal teaching) (Hellison, 1985).

Debusk and Hellison (1989) tested the impact of the Self-responsibility model on delinquency prone youth. During a six-week period, the model retained its validity citing behavioral, affective, and knowledge changes for those boys in the program. Two teachers noted positive behavioral changes in five of the ten boys, while the playground supervisor described these changes in eight of the ten boys. However, there were no changes in the number of office referrals.

Hellison and Georgiadis (1992) have implemented the Self-responsibility model in elementary, middle, and high schools in inner-city Chicago. They have attempted to maintain a balance between empowering students to make decisions for themselves and teaching them specific values. According to the authors, this program has been quite successful.

Hellison's model continues to receives high accolades. The promise of Hellison's model was cited as one that can "alter the socially destructive tendencies that at-risk students commonly possess" (Sparks, 1993). The premise of Hellison's model is that it attempts to teach self-responsibility to delinquent prone and disruptive youths through goal-setting strategies. However, as discussed later in this chapter, Hellison's model may fall short of meeting the students' needs for freedom and power. Additionally, other

than Hellison's own work, few empirical studies have been found to support his model. In contrast, programs designed around the concepts of control theory have proved to be effective in reducing disruptive behaviors while meeting the basic needs of students.

Review of Control Theory and Reality Therapy Concepts

The onslaught of disruptive behavior control techniques provides the physical education teacher with many programs from which to choose. Somewhat confusing and overwhelming, these programs address the teacher's need for control and not students' needs. The Quality School approach (Glasser, 1990, 1992), using reality therapy/control theory, advocates student responsibility based upon the students' perceptions of their own behavior. There is a need within physical education to assist the student in making appropriate behavioral choices. One such method is using Glasser's reality therapy and control theory.

Control theory is an explanation of human behavior. It states that people have five basic needs: survival, love and belonging, power (worth and recognition), fun, and freedom (Glasser, 1984). Control theory states that our behavior is our best attempt to satisfy one or more of these needs. It maintains that our behaviors consist of four components: 1)physiology, 2)feeling, 3)thinking, and 4)doing. We are not always totally aware of these components, but they are always

there. Glasser (1984) believes that most people have control over their actions, considerable control over their thinking, less control over their feelings, and considerably less over their physiology. People can have more control if they choose acting and thinking behaviors, and probably feel better about their choices (Montagnes, 1991).

One way of explaining control theory is using the analogy of a front wheel drive car. Glasser (1984) suggests that each wheel of this car corresponds to one aspect of an individual's total behavior. The front wheels are the "doing" and "thinking" components, while the back wheels are the "feelings" and "physiology" components. The car (individual) is guided or steered by a person's wants. The determinant of these wants are the five needs of the individual represented by the piston engine. As in a car, one has voluntary control of where one steers the front wheels (actions and thoughts). Consequently, the back wheels will follow. People can be taught to steer their cars in a better direction (Glasser, 1984).

Teachers and counselors (Floyd, 1987; Renna, 1991) commenting on their use of the car analogy have found this to be a successful method of explaining these concepts to students. Once understood, students learn that choices are available, and they become responsible for those choices.

Glasser's control theory provides the theoretical foundation of reality therapy. As an approach to counseling, reality therapy teaches people how to satisfy their basic needs by helping them make choices that are real (reality), responsible, and right (moral) (Glasser, 1965). According to Glasser, we are born with a set of instructions on how to behave, not a blank slate as others theorize (Glasser, 1965, 1984). Reality is an evaluation made by the individual.

Reality therapy can conducted within the classroom by means of the "classroom meeting", and individually as a student needs counseling due to disruptive behavior (Glasser, 1969). The approach is a progressive eight step counseling technique:

1) Be friendly. Make friends.
2) Have students determine what they want. Ask, "What do you want?"
3) Have students determine what they are doing to get what they want. Ask, "What are you doing?",
4) Help students determine if it is helping them get what they want (value judgment). Ask, "Is it helping?"
5) Make a plan if the present behavior is not helping them get what they want (a commitment).
6) Follow-up on students' progress.
7) When necessary revise the plan and accept no excuses.
8) Do not give up on the students.

Research on Reality Therapy/Control Theory

Reality therapy and control theory research has been conducted on numerous topics within a variety of environments and populations: faculty and staff (Coates, 1990; Drummond, 1984; Smodi & Landreth, 1988; Stowell, 1982; Tamborella, 1987), driver's training (Gramstad, 1990), at-risk children and special populations (Anderson, 1987; Epstien, & Maragos, 1983; Gorter-Cass 1988; Makarewicz, 1987; Renna, 1990; Omizo, & Cubberly, 1990). These studies indicate that teachers have found promising results when using Glasser's ideas and techniques. Control theory and reality therapy have been offered as constructive methods for managing disruptive behaviors, increasing self-concept, increasing on-task behaviors, and reducing school vandalism.

One of the earliest studies in an educational setting was conducted with black elementary school children (Hawes, 1971). Hawes matched two schools according to socioeconomic, ethnic, and academic criteria, and tested third and sixth graders using a Schools Without Failure program. One of the program's objectives was to encourage individual responsibility in children, thereby affecting appropriate classroom behaviors. Hawes wanted to see what effects reality therapy might have on individual responsibility, self-concept, and classroom behavior. Three hundred and forty second and third graders served as subjects for this sixteen-week program. Students

were found to have increased appropriate classroom behaviors, as well as increased positive interactions among the students, their peers, and their teachers. In addition, results indicated the program significantly affected the internal locus of control of these students. However, self-concept was not significantly affected by the treatment.

Gang (1975) also tested reality therapy as a means of reducing inappropriate behaviors among six elementary school children. Gang attempted to monitor the effects of a teacher's response to students' specific behaviors. Two teachers, each selected three students (n=6) whom they considered to have serious behavioral problems. Using reality therapy as an intervention, this study indicated the importance of building a positive relationship between the teacher and students. Data showed an increased percentage in appropriate behaviors and a decrease in undesirable behaviors. Two weeks later, Gang found that the positive behavioral gains by the children were maintained. However, tests of significance were not performed on either baseline, treatment, or follow-up data.

Similar results were found in a follow-up study by Poppen, Thompson, Cates, and Gang (1976) which also focused on discipline problems. Again, studying six elementary school children, the authors found that reality therapy/control theory approach reduced inappropriate behaviors while increasing appropriate behaviors.

In an empirical study, Hart-Hester (1986, 1989) assessed the use of reality therapy with four behavioral problem 4th graders. These students had previously exhibited non-compliance, aggressiveness, off-task behavior, and absenteeism. Hart-Hester used two classroom instructional settings to assess the four students. One setting was coded as teacher-directed. The other setting was coded as independent seatwork. The subjects met with an educational psychologist who counseled the students using reality therapy daily for 30-45 minutes during the noon hour. Results of Hart-Hester's study revealed increases in on-task classroom behaviors for all subjects across both instructional settings. However, the independent seat-work group showed the greatest increases in on-task behaviors for three of the four students. According to this study, reality therapy showed the ability to maintain positive effects in improving student behavior, although, peer interaction and student/teacher interaction rates did not show marked changes from the baseline measures. This study used an "outsider" as the educational psychologist. Therefore, subjects could possibly be remaining on-task and improving their behavior due to the increased attention this outsider provided.

Studies have not been limited to elementary school. In another study designed to reduce inappropriate behaviors, Edens (1994) was able to show that Glasser's ideas could work

in a middle school physical education class. Edens taught control theory and used reality therapy counseling with 42 seventh graders in a physical education class. Classroom meetings were held once a week and students who used inappropriate behaviors were counseled. At the end of the four week period, disruptive behaviors were reduced by 80 percent.

Glasser programs have been implemented in entire school with successful results. The Apollo School, which is a alternative school in Simi Valley, California, adopted The Quality School (Glasser, 1990, 1992) concepts to help 400 at-risk students become more responsible and improve learning. Although not an empirical study, Uroff & Greene (1991) used Glasser's concepts to achieve significant results:

1) State standardized test scores improved significantly;
2) Of the 150 students who graduated from the Apollo School between 1986 and 1989, only one failed to pass the district proficiency tests;
3) In 1990, only 5 of the 150 female students became pregnant, well below the national average;
4) Attendance improved dramatically;
5) A reduction in suspensions occurred from 16 percent in 1986-87 to 1 percent in 1988-89;

6) The only vandalism that occurred at the Apollo School was attributed to a student from a neighboring school.

In one junior high school that applied Glasser's concepts, the principal reported that vandalism dropped 70 percent; fighting, 60 percent; truancy, 72 percent; referrals to the office, 50 percent; and in-school suspensions, 65 percent in three years (Chance, 1987). The cost of vandalism dropped from $2,500.00 a year to less than $50.00 the next.

Additionally, when working with teachers and counselors, Patterson and Sikler (1974) have found reality therapy to be an effective means for building a positive working relationship between students and school staff (teachers and counselors). Patterson and Sikler also showed that discipline referrals decreased.

Cherry (1975) hypothesized that the use of reality therapy would increase appropriate classroom behaviors. Testing 16 high school students, Cherry was unable to achieve significant results. According to Cherry, results may have been unattainable due to the short span of time (three weeks, 15 classes) in which he conducted the study. Glasser (1990) advocates that the teaching and subsequent learning and use of control theory does not occur quickly. The process takes time and results should not be expected too soon.

Questioning the long and short term effects of reality therapy, Dakosee (1977) studied reality therapy counseling on the discipline problems and self-concept of 30, fifth grade students. Students were randomly assigned to either the experimental or control group, each group receiving 15 one hour classroom meetings. Dakosee found significant differences between the groups on self-concept and discipline problems immediately after treatment. However, upon follow-up one year later, analysis revealed no significant differences between the two groups on either self-concept or discipline measures. This findings may indicate that the long term effects of control theory/reality therapy may be contingent upon the length of treatment.

One way to reduce disruptive behaviors is to keep students on-task. Teachers consistently search for activities and programs to keep or increase their students' time time-on-task. Atwell (1982) tested whether use of reality therapy/control theory would increase time-on-task with disruptive students. Seventh grade teachers identified six males as the most disruptive students in their grade. Two students were also observed as a control group. Atwell found that teaching and learning of control theory/reality therapy significantly increased time-on-task for the disruptive youths. However, self-perception and teacher ratings showed no significant differences. Although data were collected on each

subject across different classes, Atwell failed to address any potential effects in the study.

In contrast, Shern and Randolph (1978) examined reality therapy's potential effects upon on task behaviors and self-concept. Twenty-seven fourth graders were selected for 4 groups (two experimental, two control). The authors were unable to show support for the use of reality therapy/control theory for either group. Shern's and Randolph's results were deemed inconclusive due to lack of controls over the classroom meetings or placebo career discussions. Two other studies (Stonewall, 1983; Welch & Dolly, 1980) also failed to show support for the use of reality therapy.

Glasser-based programs have been used to increase self-esteem and investigate locus of control. Comiskey (1993) used the School-Within-a-School concept along with reality therapy/control theory to investigate adolescents' self-esteem, locus of control orientation, academic achievement, school attitude, attendance, and classroom behavior on at-risk high school freshmen. The study compared three groups of 15 at-risk ninth graders using the Coppersmith Self-Esteem Inventory, Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale for Children, the Psychological Sense of School Membership Scale, and the Conners Teacher Rating Scale. Her findings revealed enhanced self-esteem, decreased absenteeism, greater participation with higher grades in English and Social

Studies, and an increased sense of school belonging. No significant differences were found in locus of control orientation or in positive classroom behavior. One of the concerns of this study was the fact that she was unable to randomly select subjects. Additionally, if students missed three classes, they were excluded from the study. Finally, only 33 of the 48 subjects completed the study.

Houston-Slowick (1983) also examined the effects of reality therapy/control theory on self-concept and locus of control among seventh and ninth grade Mexican-Americans. Two junior high schools were matched on socioeconomic, ethnic, and academic criteria. Four classes of 15-20 students (n=80) participated in non-randomized pretest-posttest design. Two teachers were trained in an eight-hour workshop to use reality therapy. Teacher training emphasized providing positive, authentic, and open academic environment that increases the chances of developing successful identities among their children. Using the classroom meeting, the program was conducted twice a week for 30-45 minutes for 11 weeks. The treatment program was designed to supplement the academic program by stimulating children to think and respond by providing an opportunity for success without failure. Teachers used reality therapy to help children become aware of their behaviors and to make appropriate choices to change their behaviors. Analysis revealed an improved self-concept of those

participating. However, no significant results between the control groups and the experimental groups on locus of control were found.

The authors cited several reasons for these non-significant results. First, Mexican-American scholars state that Mexican-Americans have perceptions of little control which may vary from the social, the physical and the intellectual domains. Second, there was some question that for Mexican-Americans, the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale may not have accurately assessed locus of control. Thirdly, the author questioned the length of the program as a factor for non-significant results in the locus of control measure.

In conclusion, teaching control theory concepts appears to reduce disruptive behavior in the classroom. In addition, reality therapy has shown to be an effective counseling method, enabling students to become more responsible for their own behavior. Subsequently, positive teacher-pupil interactions, as well as teacher and staff attitudes, improved as a result of using Glasser's methods. However, results have been mixed in regard to locus of control and self-concept.

Locus of Control

Locus of control is a construct derived from Rotter's (1954) Social Learning theory. It refers to how a person

perceives the events in their lives. According to Rotter, one has internal locus of control if one perceives events as a consequence of one's own actions, and that these events are controllable by oneself. On the other hand, one has an external locus of control if one perceives events as determined by forces or factors which one has little or no control, such as luck, fate, field conditions, or other people. For example, in the bottom of the ninth inning with her team losing by one run, a softball player strikes out, resulting in her team losing. If she attributes the strikeout to the pressure, the crowd noise, the harsh sunlight, or another "outside" factor, she is displaying external locus of control. If she had attributed her striking out to lack of effort or ability, she would be displaying an internal locus of control. Locus of control can be seen as a generalized expectancy in that people either see themselves as being able to control outcomes, or they attribute outcomes to influences outside of their control.

Studies support the notion that individuals may be hampered by external orientations (MacDonald, 1975; Lefcourt, 1976). In the same manner, disruptive students will use a variety of excuses for their behavior. Disruptive students who are more external might blame another student or circumstances for their own misbehavior. Control theory

and reality therapy attempt to help these students realize that they, not outside events, are responsible for their behavior.

Locus of control research has been conducted on a wide variety of topics. Among these are studies relating to schooling. Shapiro and Lawson (1982) suggested that much of this research treated locus of control as an independent variable, meaning that locus of control influenced behavior, achievement, and learning. They suggested that locus of control may need to be thought of as a dependent variable, that can be influenced by and developed through specific programming techniques. Consequently, by treating locus of control as a dependent variable, programs can be tested to determine if locus of control is an alterable construct.

Furthermore, perception of locus of control does not appear to be stable and has proved to be alterable. Studies have shown that locus of control can shift from external to internal (Duke, Johnson, & Nowicki, 1977; Omizo and Cubberly, 1983; Omizo, Cubberly, and Omizo, 1985). Additionally, it has been shown that a positive relationship exists between internal locus of control, and school performance and academic skills (e.g. task persistence, study skills, adjustment to class situation) among behavioral disorderly individuals, such as delinquent adolescents (Foley, Epstein, & Cullian, 1991). In general,

locus of control studies indicate that delinquent adolescents' perceptions have been found to be more external (Parrot & Strongman, 1984).

In sport and physical education, locus of control has been subscaled to a three-domain construct termed locus of causality, and has been considered a component of attribution theory (Weiner, 1974, 1979). Harter (1982) identified several significant competence subscales associated with locus of causality (control): cognitive competence, social competence, and physical competence. These subscales have not rejected the dichotomous nature of the locus of control construct.

At the middle school level, students are beginning to make their own decisions. They have choices, such as whether to take music, band, physical education, or other electives. With decision-making comes responsibility. This responsibility requires that students be the controllers of their behaviors.

Research on student decision-making in physical education has been somewhat mixed. Martinek, Zaichkowsky, and Cheffers (1977) found that students and teacher shared decision-making increased students' self-concept among 230 elementary children. Using a random sample, children in one group received physical education using teacher-decided instruction, while the second group shared in the decision-

making process. Even though the self-concept of those children in the shared decision-making group significantly increased, the teacher-directed group experienced significantly greater motor skill gains.
Two other studies confirmed the later finding (Lydon, 1978; Lynch, 1980), but were unable to confirm the results concerning self-concept.

In contrast, Schempp, Cheffers, and Zaichowksky (1983) and Lydon and Cheffers (1984) found that students who shared in decision-making did improve their motor skills. Two hundred and eight first through fifth graders were divided into one of three groups: the teacher decision-making (TDMA), the shared decision-making (SMDA), or the control group. The curriculum lasted for two four-week units of physical education and met once a week. The SDMA students began instruction at one station. When that task was completed, the students were allowed to choose which station to go to next, whereas the TDMA students went to the station the teacher decided. Decisions concerning planning, execution, and evaluation of those in the SDMA group were shared by both the student and the teacher. Results indicated that not only did the SDMA students improve their motor skills, but they also improved in self-concept, attitude, and creativity scores. This study concurs with

earlier findings that resulted in increased affective scores (Reams 1976; Mancini, 1976).

These studies, while mixed, appear to indicate that children can benefit from sharing the decision-making during instruction. Decision-making involves allowing students to make choices. In order to make a decision, the students must first be aware that they have choices and that choices are available.

Glasser's concepts of control theory and reality therapy are built upon the premise that having choices allows for greater decision-making. According to control theory, having the ability to control oneself is a basic need of all individuals. Control over one's actions relates to being able to make choices. The person who has internal control believes that whatever happens is related to one's choices. In school settings, this can be accomplished by allowing students the power and freedom (two other needs according to Glasser) to make choices concerning rules, procedures, activities selected, and evaluation (Glasser, 1992).

Reality therapy is Glasser's method of helping people realize that they can change the way they perceive themselves and events. Studies using reality therapy and control theory as the program of change have produced mixed results. Several have shown significant shifts from external

to internal locus of control (Hawes, 1970; Parish, 1988); while others showed no significant shift (Comiskey, 1993; Brandon, 1981; Houston-Slowick, 1983; Thatcher, 1988). Although these results are mixed, they recognize that control theory and reality therapy have merit and are in need of further examination.

Review of The Quality School

Becoming frustrated with the orthodox psychoanalysis and psychotherapy models of the 1960's, Glasser began to explore an alternative approach when the California Youth Authority asked him to become head psychiatrist at the Ventura School for Girls. The Ventura School is an alternative school for delinquent school-aged girls. It was at the Ventura School that Glasser perfected his approach and termed it Reality Therapy.

This cognitive-behavioristic approach advocates that people choose their behaviors and that these behaviors have consequences. These choices may or may not be made consciously. From his observations, he concluded all behaviors or actions had automatic responses. These stimuli-responses were natural and fairly predictable. Therefore, when a child chooses a specific behavior, a predictable response results. Consequently, a child could be taught to make a different, preferably better choice, resulting in a preferred outcome.

While using the reality therapy approach at the Ventura School and in the Watts (Los Angeles) public schools, Glasser published Schools Without Failure (Glasser, 1969). Glasser followed it up with The Quality School (Glasser, 1990, 1992). Combining concepts and principles from his control theory and reality therapy, Glasser integrated Edward R. Deming's quality management concepts in order to attack the problems of our educational system.

Deming believes that quality cannot be applied externally like a band-aid. It has to be developed. He stresses the practice of "working smarter, not harder" (Harris and Harris, 1992). Glasser's advocates that schools be redesigned in order to meet the needs of students. He believes that schools have a responsibility to stimulate children to solve their academic and social problems.

What exactly is quality? According to Glasser (1992), children learn to remember all that they do, or all that happens to them that feels good beginning shortly after birth. They store these memories in what Glasser calls the "All-We-Want World" or "Quality World." The memories become the standards for what they would like to enjoy over and over.

Glasser (1992) believes some children enter school ready to begin work because people they love (people in their quality world) have told them that school is important. They

have been told obeying their teachers and working hard is important. They recognize quality work by standards such as being valuable, prompt, clean, and neat (Glasser 1992). Unfortunately, other children may not put the teacher or the school in their quality world. The teacher has a tremendous challenge to pursuade these children to do quality work. Quality academic work may not be apparent to some students until they begin to do quality work. The teacher's job in the quality school is to help students put quality academic work into the students' quality world (Glasser, 1992).

Glasser (1992) suggests four conditions for building a quality organization. They are:

1. Quality is always useful and is never destructive.
2. Quality is the best that everyone in the organization, working both together and separately, can achieve at any particular time.
3. Quality can always be improved.
4. Quality always feels good.

Quality management should not considered to be some magic wand that can be waved and fix the problems in education. However, quality management has shown to be useful in the classroom.

Managing Classroom Behavior

In physical education, teachers respond to children entering the gymnasium in a variety of ways. Some teachers

will allow students to do as they please, possibly disregarding safety concerns and policies. Others teachers employ an authoritarian method of controlling students. Neither method is conducive to student learning. Glasser (1990) refers to the authoritarian type of management as boss-centered. In physical education, a boss-management teacher would be one who sets the task, instructs the children on how to do the task, corrects the improper method of doing the task, and evaluates the students on how well they did the task.

The Glasserian teacher is one that is termed a lead-management physical educator. The lead-management physical educator (LMPE) engages students in discussions and activities concerning the quality of work to be done and the time in which to do it. The LMPE would model or demonstrate what is expected, whether this be a behavior or a skill. The LMPE continually asks for student input and encourages students to explore better ways to accomplish the goal. In lead-management education, the teacher would accept that the students know how to produce high quality work and accept input from them. Students become the inspectors and evaluators of their work. The LMPE shows students that he has done everything possible to provide them with the best environment.

In a Glasser's Quality School, a LMPE would hold discussions, preferably at the start of the school year, in

order to determine the best (high quality) method of entering the locker rooms, getting properly attired, and coming into the gymnasium ready for class. She would ask students to devise the standards of proper conduct, as long as these standards were not in conflict with any school or safety policy. Rules would be agreed upon and accepted by the greater majority. The LMPE would emphasize the quality of what they are doing and the choices they make to adhere to these standards.

For example, it may be discovered that students need more time to go to their lockers prior to their next class. An agreed upon solution might be to allow a few extra minutes prior to PE allowing students the opportunity to get their materials ready for their next class.

The LMPE would not expect the students simply to remember to exhibit these new behaviors. New behaviors must be practiced in order to learn them. The LMPE would lead students in several practice trials that very day. This would accomplish three things. First, it would identify potential problems previously not thought of. Second, it would allow for corrections of the problems or revisions of the rules. Third, each student would know exactly what is required for getting ready for quality PE. These new behaviors should be posted so that all can see. It would be helpful if copies were distributed to all students. They could sign these signifying

that they agree to these standards. This would empowers students to accept responsibility for their own behavior.

Certainly, some students will forget or choose not to adhere to these quality standards. The LMPE understands this and would address these concerns using control theory and reality therapy. These issue is addressed later in this chapter.

Achieving Quality Physical Education

Physical education teachers are faced with the problems of managing their respective classes, dealing with curriculum choices, implementing those choices, and evaluating student achievement. Control theory/reality therapy, with the integration of quality management, may be able to create an ideal learning environment in physical education.

Adapting the general definition from Glasser (1992) to physical education, quality PE is achieved when all students say:

1. I like PE. I look forward to going each day.
2. I am learning things in PE that I think are good for me.

Seven guidelines, condensed and interpreted from Glasser's practices of a quality school (Glasser, 1992) for the quality physical education program, shape the curriculum for the Glasser PE class.

1. *Staff and students are friends. Coercion does not exist.*

The first step to producing quality physical education would begin with a "class meeting". Discussions at this meeting would center around what quality is and how quality can be achieved in the context of the physical education curriculum.

Students would have as much to say about what is included in the curriculum as the teacher. Mutually agreeing upon the contents is important in the quality school. This meets the needs of the participants. If the program meets their needs, students' may be more likely choose to participate. Additionally, this allows students to have a stake in determining their own future. Finally, if students are interested in a particular activity, they may want to learn to participate in it. By approaching the curriculum in this manner, coercion can be eliminated.

According to Glasser (1992), the methodology of instruction should determined by the teacher. However, some aspects of the structure of physical education classes may need changing in order to produce quality. For example, activities could be constructed in order to maximize participation and reduce wait-time. In a number of schools, up to half of a student's grade in physical education is determined by attendance and/or participation. This may

include coming to class dressed for taking part, and/or actually taking part. Discussions regarding proper dress as it relates to safety, hygiene, and appearance are discussed in the class meetings. The students and teacher would mutually agree upon what is acceptable and unacceptable attire. In the quality school, no student would be forbidden to participate because they forgot their gym clothes. The teacher would make every effort to include the students in that day's lesson in some manner.

2. *The teacher would teach the way he thinks best, and is under no pressure to prepare students to take national normative tests (fitness standards).*

In Glasser's quality school, teachers decide how to teach the activities the students and teacher have chosen to offer. A major goal in physical education should be fun. Most physical education teachers agree with this statement. Unfortunately, some physical educators do not make PE fun. Instead, they have their students stand in lines, dribble down the court (if they can), shoot the ball at the basket, retrieve the ball, and go stand in line again. Anderson (1978) found that approximately 61 percent of time in physical education is spent waiting or listening. To a middle school student, waiting in line is not fun.

If physical educators can make activities fun, children will want to participate. For example, when a child thinks

that playing soccer is fun, that child will spend all afternoon working on dribbling, shooting, heading and trapping. This child does not consider this work; it's fun. When PE becomes fun, the child looks forward to going to PE each day.

3. *In the middle school, movement, skills, knowledge, and games that have the greatest payoff in life would be emphasized. The teacher should be able to explain how what they teach is relevant and can be used in the students' lives, present and future. The teacher is encouraged to add additional skills as they see fit.*

Discussions of the quality program would naturally lead to the curriculum. Students would have a voice in determining what activities are offered. By giving students a choice, activities that are relevant to the child's quality world can be offered.

Activities would be tied to a purpose. Activities with the lifelong purpose idea in mind would be selected. Aspects of tumbling might be useful to those whose vocation may demand more physical work. Basketball can be played well into one's 30's and beyond, if only for enjoyment and fitness reasons. Soccer may be fun when you're in grade school, but will it serve any purpose later on? While many of the skills in soccer may not be directly used in later life, running and kicking with a future son or daughter may be justification for

inclusion. Also, there is the spectator enjoyment aspect. With people filling Saturday afternoon stadiums, there is justification for an understanding of the rules and strategies.

4. *Students would be asked to evaluate all of their work for quality. If written tests are given, these would not be of the objective measurement kind (multiple choice). Demonstration of movement, skill, knowledge, and games-skill competencies would be the criteria.*

Quality can be measured in different ways. Through class meetings, the teacher and students would agree to what quality is with regard to the activity. They would also determine how to measure quality. Evaluations would take place continuously throughout the instructional period. The teacher would solicit input relying heavily upon evaluations made by the student during the daily lessons. For example, as the final portion of a bowling unit, the student may be required to demonstrate competencies. This may be accomplished by bowling a complete game and recording the score. An agreed-upon criterion may indicate that the student needs additional skill instruction or help in scoring a game.

5. *As long as any student wants to improve, any grade can be raised. Students would be encouraged to keep working to the point where their own and the teacher's*

evaluation of what they have done reaches a level of quality. "B" is considered a competent grade.

The teacher and the students would determine the criteria of acceptable quality. In a sport like soccer, students could be evaluated as they play in a small-sided game, or from a series of skill stations. Demonstrating an understanding of the activity conceptually, by writing a report after observing the activity, or giving a classroom presentation could be used as a portion of the assessment process. As Glasser (1992) states, "competency and quality are the rules."

Ideally, time would not be a factor. Students would be able to approach the teacher when they felt they were ready to take any tests. Those that showed quality competence could move on; those that didn't would be allowed a chance to continue working until competence was achieved. A student may be asked to produce work that shows an understanding of the game. That student could observe several matches, and a written report could be one way of demonstrating a conceptual understanding of the game.

6. *Students who want to get credit and cannot achieve a "B" with what they have done in class would be counseled by their teacher with regard to what they need to do either at home, after school, or with special help to get credit.*

Under these guidelines, no grade would be final. A student may continue to work at home or with other students to improve their skills or knowledge. The teacher would work with the student on an individual basis in order to develop strategies to help the student improve.

7. *Teachers and students would be taught control theory. Teachers would be taught how to counsel students using reality therapy.*

From class meetings to individual counseling, students would be taught control theory. Handouts that help students make better choices (Appendices A, B, & C) and understand that the choices they make have consequences are presented during the class meeting. Additionally, students would be shown that by following the principles of control theory and reality therapy, they can enrich the quality of their lives in and away from school.

Schools sometimes notify parents only when the student gets in trouble. Glasser recommends notifying parents for positive reasons, not negative ones. An LMPE tries to deal with disruptive students without notifying the parents. When parents are notified only when the child has behavioral problems, the student may view the school or the teacher as the cause of his troubles. However, there may be times parents would be called to school to deal with matters, such as the child's inability to make friends (Glasser, 1992).

An example of dealing with a disruptive child would be as follows:

> Ted, it appears that you have a
> problem. Let's discuss it. As long
> as you are doing (XYZ behavior),
> we can't work things out.

While the others in the class resume or continue to work, the LMPE may approach Ted and say: "Would you like to discuss your problem now?" If Ted says no, the LMPE would work to set a time to discuss this problem with Ted. This time should be as soon as possible. In the meantime, Ted must resume his work or the discussion must take place immediately.

Sometimes students try to solve their differences by fighting. The LMPE teacher does have a responsibility for the safety of the students and therefore, must step in to break up the altercation. In this situation that the students have chosen to fight. It would be up to the LMPE to pursuade these students, through reality therapy counseling, that fighting is not an acceptable choice when resolving differences.

When counseling does occurs, the teacher would focus on the behavior, not the student. Table 1 provides the methodology of counseling by asking specific behaviorally related questions.

In counseling situations, it is important that the teacher not to argue with the student. The LMPE must find out what the

student wants and work out a plan so that his wants are congruent with classroom decorum.

Table 1

Reality Therapy Counseling Guidelines (Glasser, 1965, 1984)

-What do you want?
-What are you doing to get what you want?
-Is what you are doing helping or hurting?
-What can you do to do better?
-Will you commit to following this plan?
-How will you know if the plan is working or not working?

It may become necessary to ask a disruptive student to leave the room. When this happens, the student can be restricted to a "time-out" room until a solution to the problem can be reached (Glasser, 1992). The time-out room would be staffed with a counselor trained in the use of reality therapy. The student would not be allowed to just wait in the "time-out" room. However, several hours may be needed to effectively work out a manageable solution that is agreeable to Ted. The amount of time spent in the "time-out" room is not related to the severity of the disturbance, but to the student's willingness to work toward a solution. For the purposes of this study, a "time-out" room staffed by a

counselor trained in reality therapy is not available. Therefore, it is not applicable to this study.

The main focus of this study was the teaching of Glasser's control theory concepts and the use of reality therapy with physical education students who were disruptive. Students who chose disruptive behaviors were counseled by the teacher using a reality therapy approach. Counseling occurred the moment the disruptive behavior occurred or at the earliest, most convenient, and most appropriate time to intervene.

The Need for a Reality Therapy Approach to Reduce Disruptive Behaviors in Physical Education

As reviewed earlier, control theory/reality therapy has shown to be an effective method in changing inappropriate classroom behaviors. However, little has been done using Glasserian concepts within the physical education environment. Different models and approaches have been proposed to deal with disruptive student behavior and none exclusively applies reality therapy as the intervention strategy.

As previously discussed, each program has its own perspective. Glasser would argue that Assertive Discipline, being teacher-defined, imposes teacher controls over students allowing no choice and no voice. Therefore, resentment and resistance can ensue because students' needs are discounted

and viewed as not as important as the teacher's need for control.

The Teacher Effectiveness Training approach differs from Glasser's model in that it uses a compromise solution rather than a "needs approach solution" to the problem. While both methods will come to a compromised solution for appropriate behavior, TET is concerned with the teacher's needs, while reality therapy is based upon student's needs.

Glasser has stated that many of the roots of reality therapy are found in the Individual Psychology of Adler (Evans, 1982, Whitehouse, 1984). More so than Adler's, Glasser's approach is a method of application (doing). Once again, the major difference is in the method by which the student is helped. Using reality therapy, the teacher focuses on the behavior, already understanding that the students' needs are going unfulfilled. The teacher accepts no excuses, and helps the student design and commit to a plan that satisfies the unfulfilled need(s).

Gutteriez (1985), in a review of eight case studies concerning different counseling approaches (client-centered counseling, Carl Rogers; rational-emotive counseling, Albert Ellis; reality therapy, William Glasser; and Behavior modification, B.F. Skinner), states that "behavior modification is the least recommended theory, but it has its therapeutic value in the obtaining of short-term goals."

Although he offers no reasons for this explanation, his premise is that counselors should choose an approach they believe in and research the effectiveness for themselves. However, it is evident that behavior modification is coercive in nature. The use of "tokens", points, and rewards coerce the student to be non-disruptive for the sake of the reward. Furthermore, behavior modification strategies may not teach students to become self-monitoring or self-controlled.

Within physical education, Hellison (1974, 1992) has used several Glasserian concepts to formulate his model. However, in Hellison's model, students are assigned to categories or levels (0-IV) based upon their ability to control their own behavior. Based upon their specific behavioral level, students receive physical education instruction. Classifying or assigning students into behavioral categories or levels would not be congruent with Glasser's Quality School concepts. Modifying original ideas, Hellison (1995) suggests that the levels are only guidelines to help students and teachers formulate an idea of where they are in behavioral terms. However, the counseling strategies suggested by Hellison (1985) appear to be compatible with reality therapy counseling.

In addition, in Hellison's (1985) program, students are not allowed to participate if they forget their gym clothes. Glasser would argue that children should not be excluded from

participation in class for forgetting a pencil, paper, books, or such items as gym clothes. With the exception of safety rules, or the use of hard soled shoes on the gymnasium floor, students who have forgotten their gym clothes should be allowed to participate as fully as they see fit.

Hellison's programs illustrate that Glasserian concepts show promise of being adaptable to physical education. However, with the exception of his own research, little has been done within the physical education using Glasserian concepts as an approach to reducing disruptive classroom behaviors. More research is needed to test the incorporation of reality therapy/control theory and the quality school concepts within physical education.

Reality therapy can be described as an action plan teachers use to help students understand and change their behavior. This method of counseling uses specific lines of questioning (Table 1) that helps students assess their current behavior. By asking students to define what they want, the teacher and students agree to an acceptable plan of action to improve behavior. It differs from many other forms of behavior management in that the student is not coerced into appropriate behavior. According to control theory, a student behaves in a certain manner because he chooses too, not because he is forced to.

In physical education classes, students are not confined to sitting behind desks. There is more open space to roam and play. Within the openness of the physical education environment, students can become disruptive. In today's schools, students are more disruptive and violent than ever before, making teachers fearful within their own classrooms. Several programs and techniques have been used to try to curb disruptive classroom behavior. However, these programs only address the basic needs of students. A reality therapy approach to teaching, may help the teacher establish an environment where the students control their own behavior and are eager to learn. Control Theory/Reality Therapy may also be beneficial to physical education students by helping them choose responsible behaviors. Since little research has been done in physical education, it is apparent there is a need for such a study that utilizes control theory/reality therapy as a means to empower students and reduce discipline within a physical education environment.

Statement of the Problem

The major purpose of this study was to assess the effects of Glasser's control theory/reality therapy on reducing disruptive behaviors in physical education. The primary research question was: What effects will Glasser's Quality School concepts, control theory/reality therapy have

on physical education students' disruptive behavior, locus of control, and school office referrals?

Specific objectives of this research were:

1) Develop an instructional program based on concepts of control theory to a physical education setting;
2) Determine and compare the amount of disruptive classroom behaviors of physical education students in the Glasser class and those in the Standard class;
3) Determine and compare the locus of control levels of the students in the Glasser class with those students in the Standard class;
4) Determine if there were any differences in the school discipline office referrals between students in the Glasser class and students in the Standard class occurred; and
5) Determine and describe the teacher's perceptions and effectiveness of the Glasser physical education program.

Based upon the problem statement, the following questions are examined:

1) Are there notable differences in students' disruptive behavior during physical education between those students in the Glasser group and student in the Standard class?

2) Are there significant differences in students' locus of control scores between those students in Glasser group and students in the Standard class?
3) Are there notable differences in the number of disciplinary office referrals between those students in Glasser group and students in the Standard class?
4) What are the teacher's perceptions of the program and counseling strategies?

Definitions of Terms

The following defined terms were intended to clarify any disagreement or interchangeability regarding the terminology used in this study.

Basic Needs: Basic needs refers to the five basic psychological and physiological needs as described by William Glasser. These needs are survival (reproducing), power (self-worth, achieving, recognition), love (belonging), freedom (choosing), and fun (learning, enjoyment, playing) (Glasser, 1984).

Carry-over Effects: School carry-over effects refer to transference of decisions and/or learned behavior from one class to another class or other aspects of that student's life.

Control Theory: Control theory is an explanation of how all living organisms function. It is based upon the concept

that we are driven by basic needs and that all of our behavior is our best attempt to deal with the world so that we can best satisfy these needs. Control theory explains that the only behavior we can control is our own (Glasser, 1984).

Discipline: Discipline refers to techniques teachers use in behavior management of students.

Disruptive behavior: Disruptive behavior is any behavior that causes the student, the teacher, or another person to become distracted or off-task by said behavior. Disruptive behaviors do not have to be acts of aggression. For example, non-physical actions may include name-calling, facial expressions, and body gestures.

Locus of Control: Locus of control refers to the sense of personal control over the events in an individual's life as measured by the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale for Children.

Reality Therapy: Reality therapy is the cognitive counseling approach developed by William Glasser. The goals of this approach are to guide the individuals to more responsible behaviors and to develop a sense of success identity versus a failure identity. This approach emphasizes personal involvement on the part of the teacher (Glasser, 1969).

Assumptions

The following assumptions are fundamental to this study. They reflect accepted premises and will not be examined as part of the investigation.

1. All students are capable of making choices about their own behaviors.
2. Disruptive behavior is observable and measurable.
3. Participation and locus of control are predictors of responsible behavior.
4. Both groups received fair and equal instruction and treatment without bias.

Limitations

Several factors may influence or limit the accuracy of the results of this study. The findings of the study should be interpreted considering the following points:

1. This study was limited to the seventh/eighth grade students at middle school used in this study.
2. The sample size and scope of the sample limit the generalizability of this study.
3. This study may be limited since no controls could prevent a student from being counseled, guided, or learning about control theory or reality therapy outside the confines of the school environment.

4. This study may be limited since subjects were intact classes and no true independent sample was used.
5. The experimenter in this study was also the reporter. The reporter was trained and certified by the Institute for Control Theory, Reality Therapy, and Quality managment. Therefore, the potential exists for this study to experience experimental bias.

Significance of Study

Reducing disruptive classroom behaviors is of significant importance to the physical education teacher. This study examines the use of control theory/reality therapy as a means to reduce disruptive classroom behaviors. Given the limited research conducted within the physical education environment, this study will be important in many aspects.

For example, this study may help determine if Glasserian concepts are applicable to the physical education environment. It can provide validation regarding the use of control theory and reality therapy within this context. Additionally, findings from this study will help extend the body of knowledge concerning the structure of physical education classes by offering alternative ways of deciding curriculum and conducting physical education.

This study can help establish a protocol by which physical education teachers can counsel their students. This will allow them to help students become self-disciplined, thereby reducing disruptive behaviors in the classroom. If validated, findings from this study will offer the physical education teacher a methodology for empowering students to become effective decision-makers and controllers of their own lives.

In addition, this study may serve to initiate subsequent research that examines control theory/reality therapy within physical education.

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to determine if using control theory/reality therapy-based instruction is an effective method of reducing disruptive behaviors in a physical education class setting. The review of literature provided the rationale for the need of the Glasser approach in physical education. This chapter describes the methods of data collection for this study. The study's design, subject selection, instruments, procedures, curriculum, and data analysis are provided.

Design of the Study

The research design was a quasi-experimental case study approach. The independent variable was the instruction of Glasser's principles of control theory with the use of reality therapy as a counseling method for disruptive students. The dependent variables were (a) disruptive classroom behavior, as measured by the Disruptive Classroom Behavior Inventory (Edens, 1994); (b) locus of control, as measured by the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale for Children (Nowicki & Stickland, 1973); (c) school carry-over effects, as measured by the school office discipline referral records; (d)

teacher's perceptions of the program as described by the teacher's daily journal.

Subjects

The school was one of three middle schools serving grades 6-8 in a southeastern city in the United States. Total school enrollment was 1174 students. The diverse student population was 42.3 percent, White; 49.6 percent, Black; 5.2 percent, Hispanic; 2.5 percent, Asian; and 0.4 percent, Indian. The school population were 51.7 percent males, while 48.3 percent were females. Subjects in the study were enrolled as seventh graders.

Physical education was given in a regularly scheduled 50 minute class period, five days a week, for 18 weeks. Students received one credit for passing the class. Passing was considered to be a "D" or above. The school district required that students take physical education for one semester at each of the three grade levels. Students were randomly assigned by the school guidance office to one of four physical education classes. The computer program randomly assigned students by grade level, race, and gender to ensure an equitable distribution. Each class typically consisted of 30-40 students.

Prior to the beginning or the study, two seventh grade classes were selected as potential subjects. The two classes were selected by the teacher based on his perception that the

two classes were as close to equal in all aspects of gender, race, grade level, classroom behavior, and learning ability.

One class was selected to receive the Glasser program, while another class received no instructions or counseling based on Glasserian principles. To avoid any teacher pre-contamination of treatment conditions, the teacher was not informed which class had been chosen to receive the program until time to institute the program.

The teacher volunteered to be the instructor for the two selected physical education classes. He was one of the four physical education teachers at this school. The instructor was a white, 43-year-old male, who had taught in the middle schools for 20 years, 18 of which were at this particular school. He held a Bachelor of Science degree in Health and Physical Education and a valid South Carolina teaching certificate. He had served as a physical education instructor and curriculum advisor to the district, designing and implementing the district's current physical education curriculum. He had coached middle school football for 16 years and had served as head girls' varsity basketball coach for seven years and girls' track coach for three years. In addition, he was the assistant varsity boys and head junior varsity boys football coach. Prior to the start of this study, subjects provided parental consent which conforms to the

University of North Carolina at Greensboro's Human Consent Policy (Appendix D).

Instruments

Disruptive Classroom Behavior Inventory

Disruptive behaviors were recorded daily by the researcher using the Disruptive Classroom Behavior Inventory (DCBI). This instrument was developed by the researcher in cooperation with the teacher. The DCBI (Appendix E) is a qualitative- critical incident type of observational instrument It consists of five columns which allows the observer to record the date, the name or gender of student, the place of the disruptive behavior, a description of the student's disruptive behavior, and the teacher's reaction to the behavior.

By definition, students are disruptive if they engage in an activity that distracts the teacher, other students, or themselves from activities that had been assigned to them. Examples of disruptive classroom behaviors may include, though were not limited to: talking during the explanation of rules, procedures, or activities; running through the gym at inappropriate times; hitting or striking another student; playing with or using equipment inappropriately; or not following directions from the teacher.

For example, at the beginning of class, students were expected to get dressed, get a drink of water if they wished,

then sit down in a preassigned place for roll call. A disruptive student, instead of going to his assigned place, might climb on the bleachers or a piece of gym equipment. The observer would record the date, the student's name or gender, the place where the disruptive behavior took place, describe the disruption, and describe how the teacher dealt with the disruption. If the teacher took no action, this too would be recorded.

Reliability of the disruptive classroom behavior inventory, inter-rater reliability. In order to test the inter-rater reliability of the DCBI, five physical education classes were recorded on video tape. Separately, the teacher and observer viewed the tape and recorded all disruptive behaviors using the DCBI. Comparative results indicated that an agreement of 73.08 percent was obtained for all disruptive behaviors.

In order to test intra-rater reliability of the DCBI, a test-retest method was used the following week. The researcher viewed the tape of the five physical education classes and recorded all disruptive behaviors using the DCBI. These results were compared to his previously coded results. For the researcher, a intra-rater agreement of 92.30 percent was obtained. The teacher also participated in the intra-rater coding. Results of the DCBI test-retest for the teacher indicated a 82.61 percent intra-rater agreement. After viewing

the tapes together, the teacher and the observer agreed on all video-taped disruptive behaviors.

Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale for Children

The Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control for Children (NSCL-C) (Nowicki-Strickland, 1973) (Appendix F), is a paper and pencil instrument used to measure generalized locus of control, internal versus external, in children. The NSLC-C consists of 40 items constructed in "yes" or "no" format. The scale is scored by identifying the number of items which indicate an external response. The higher the score the more external the individual's locus of control. Forty (40) is the highest possible score. A sample question is found in Table 2.

Table 2

Sample Question - Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale for Children

Yes____ No___ Do you believe that most of the time it doesn't pay to try hard because things never turn out right anyway?
Yes____ No____ Do you believe that you have a lot of choice in deciding who your friends are?

Nowicki-Strickland (1973) reported an internal consistency by the split-half method, corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula, ranging from .63 to .81 for third

through twelfth grades, and .68 for grades six, seven, and eight.

Reliability was judged satisfactory despite the fact that the items are not arranged according to difficulty. The test is additive and the items are not comparable. Therefore, split-half reliabilities tend to underestimate the true internal consistency of the scale (Nowicki-Strickland, 1973, p.52). Test-retest reliabilities reported by Nowicki-Strickland (1973) ranged from .63 to .71 for third through tenth and .66 for the seventh grade. Construct validity was reported as $r=.51$, $p < .01$ for the seventh grade when correlated with the Crandall, Crandall, and Katkovsky's Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Scale and $r=.61$ with the Rotter Locus of Control Scale.

Discipline Office Referral Records

The school's discipline office referral records were examined for each subject in order to determine if there were any carry-over effects to other aspects of the students' school life. These records were collected from the school disciplinarian's office at the end of the pre-program period, and at the end of the program period. The frequency of referrals was compared on class basis as well as on individual student basis. School discipline referral records were categorized in three ways. First, the number of times per week a subject was referred was noted. Second, the frequency of the

type of referral was categorized. Third, the action taken by the school concerning the disruptive behavior was categorized.

Teacher's Journal

The teacher kept a journal expressing his thoughts, feelings, and perceptions concerning the two physical education programs. The journal served as a reference for the teacher concerning past classroom incidents or events that may otherwise have been forgotten over the course of the study.

Journal notes were used to add richer, more complete descriptions of incidents that occurred during the study. These notes served as a stimulus for the teacher to expand further on his impressions of the Glasser program. The journal also served to augment the data collected for the two classes.

Procedures

Teacher Training

The physical education teacher acted as the instructor for both classes in this study. He was trained by the researcher to use reality therapy as a counseling method and helped develop the control theory curriculum to be used in the Glasser class. The researcher had received certification training in reality therapy from the Institute for Reality Therapy. He had completed training to achieve basic program supervisor.

The teacher's control theory/reality therapy training began by reading Glasser's texts: Reality Therapy, Control

Theory in the Practice of Reality Therapy, The Quality School, Schools Without Failure, The Quality School Teacher, and Control Theory in the Classroom. During this time, the researcher and teacher met once a week for ten weeks to discuss the readings and his understanding of control theory/reality therapy.

In order to learn and practice counseling using reality therapy, several volunteer students were solicited. Counseling sessions took place either after school or during one of the teacher's free periods. The teacher participated in eight counseling sessions over a period of ten weeks. The students were informed that the teacher was practicing a new counseling technique. At the sessions, students were asked to talk about real life problems that they or one of their friends had. Several sessions were video-taped and then reviewed by the teacher and instructor for instructional feedback.

Overview of the Program Procedures

During the first three weeks of the study, the Standard class and the Glasser class received physical education instruction based on the middle school's curriculum guide. No control theory was taught to either class and no reality therapy counseling was used.

During weeks 4 through 12, the Standard class and the Glasser class continued to receive physical education instruction. During this time, the Standard class received no

lessons in control theory or counseling using reality therapy. The Glasser class also received physical education instruction. However, they did receive lessons on control theory. In addition, disruptive students were counseled using reality therapy.

The Standard Class

During the entire 12 week study, the Standard class was taught physical education as outlined by the school's physical education department and district's physical education guidelines. This curriculum can best be described as sports-skill oriented. The typical physical education class was teacher directed. Students had no choice in the determination of the activities, the manner in which they were taught, or the assessment process. The teacher told the class what they would be working on during the period. A demonstration of what was expected was presented. Students practiced the skill, while the teacher provided feedback. Many times the class would end with a game. By the beginning of the last week of the unit, students were engaged in game play.

Activities were taught in two- or three-week segments. The teacher decided which order and how long each activity would last. At times, team teaching among two, three, or four teachers occurred. Activities that were traditionally offered over the course of a semester varied from fall to spring. Typical course offerings included: basketball, touch football,

volleyball, square dancing, gymnastics, fitness, soccer, softball, floor hockey, and racquet sports. At times bowling and other recreational games had been offered.

When managing disruptive behaviors, the teacher was an authoritarian figure in the class. Disruptive behaviors were not tolerated. Should a student become disruptive, the teacher used a variety of strategies including: attention-getting getting strategies (blowing a whistle, calling the student's name, or shouting commands), verbal reprimands, sitting-out, chastising, or sending the student to the school's disciplinary office. All of these strategies were teacher-centered, and none included any type of counseling.

The Glasser Class

The length of each class period was 50 minutes, five days a week. Four days a week, the students participated in physical education activities, and one day a week students received instruction on control theory and concepts from Glasser's The Quality School. Control theory and quality physical education were taught through the use of the "classroom meeting". Classroom meetings usually last for 45-50 minutes and were conducted during the regularly scheduled physical education class. These meetings provided an opportunity to teach students about control theory. This was done using lessons such as Making Choices (Appendix A) and

Making Choices in PE (Appendix B). The Glasser program schedule can be found in Appendix G.

Beginning with week 4, the Glasser class began the control theory/reality therapy program. The first few days of the program students were lead in a discussion concerning choices of activities. A questionnaire (Appendix H) helped guide the discussion and formulate what activities the students wanted to do. Students helped to decide how long (number of days) they would engage in the activities. Class and gymnasium rules and procedures were determined from these discussions. For example, students helped to decide whether or not to dress out for gym class. The class also helped to decide how much time should be allowed for getting ready before class and after class. Should the class decide that they wanted to play basketball for the entire semester, it would be up to the teacher to persuade the students that there are other choices available. It should be noted that some rules were school rules and could not be changed. Many of the school rules had been implemented for the protection of the students. In an attempt to help students understand reasons behind many of the school rules and regulations, discussions concerning these rules were held during the first classroom meeting.

After the initial classroom meetings and agreeing upon what they wanted to learn, students began the chosen activity.

Students helped to decide what they wanted to learn from a certain activity. For example, some students may be very skilled at an activity, like softball. These students might choose to play a game, or help the teacher instruct others in batting, catching, or teaching the rules to others. Should the teacher observe a student doing poorly, the teacher would try to help that student with that particular skill or phase of the activity. This could be done individually or in groups, small or large.

If students chose to be disruptive, the teacher counseled them using reality therapy. Counseling was usually implemented immediately. In some instances, the teacher needed to attend to the needs of the class first. When this occurred, the student was asked to stand by the teacher while he finished what he was doing, or have a seat in the bleachers until the teacher could come over and talk to him or her. In all cases, counseling took place during the class period. Counseling followed realty therapy guidelines. Table 1 in Chapter I provides these guidelines.

If a student continued to disrupt the class after being counseled several times, the teacher used the My Plan For Improvement Contract (Appendix I). This contract helped the students formulate a plan for improving their behavior by defining what they wanted and how they intend to get what they wanted within the agreed terms of classroom and school rules.

The teacher and student discussed the student's behavior, and guided by questions, were able to formulate an action plan.

During weeks 5 and 6, lessons designed to help students make more responsible choices concerning their behavior were taught. These lessons included the Making Choices and Making Choices in PE questionnaires. The Making Choices scenarios provide an opportunity for students to make choices and explain how they would react to the different behavioral situations in generic school situations. A sample scenario and questions are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Example of guiding questions from Making Choices

You have just tried out for (cheerleader, the chorus, the band, the basketball team - choose one). You were not selected, but your best friend was.
What is your immediate reaction?
What are the possible choices you can make?
List the consequences for each of these choices.
Which is the most appropriate response to make?

Students were assigned to one of six groups. The teacher assigned one of the six scenarios to each group. Students in each group responded to four questions relating to the scenarios provided on the worksheet. Each group appointed a group leader who presented the group's responses to the class. The teacher led the discussion on appropriate and inappropriate behaviors based upon students' responses.

Table 4 provides an example of the Making Choices in PE lesson.

Table 4

Making Choices in PE

Fill in the missing blanks to the situations below.

INAPPROPRIATE BEHAVIOR: Running through the gym, climbing on the bleachers or the chin-up bars
CONSEQUENCES:
To Others: _____

_____

To You: _____

_____

APPROPRIATE & RESPONSIBLE CHOICE: _____

_____

Consequence: _____

_____

_____

The Making Choices in PE lesson was designed to help students understand and analyze inappropriate behavior within the context of the physical education class. In the Making Choices in PE lesson, there were three scenarios. Therefore, one situation was shared by two groups. After answering the questions, the selected group leader reported the responses to the class and helped to lead the resulting discussion.

During weeks 7 & 8, discussions of Quality Work/What is Quality PE were taught. Students responded verbally to questions the teacher asked concerning their ideas of what constituted quality work in PE. Leading questions were: How do you know when you have done quality work in school?; If the teacher was not there to grade you, would you know whether or not you had done quality work?; How would you know?; What do you think it means to do quality work in PE?. The teacher asked the students to discuss ways to help them determine what quality work to the fulfillment of these needs. Teacher lecture and class discussion was the format for this lesson.

The basic ideas of control theory were introduced to the students at the classroom meeting during week 9 of the program. This was a lecture/discussion format with the teacher explaining what control theory was and how it relates to their lives. The teacher led the discussion using questions to stimulate the students responses.

The car analogy (Appendix C) was presented to the class during weeks 10 ands 11. This was used to help students understand their basic needs and how their behavior was in response to the fulfillment of those needs. Teacher lecture and class discussion were the format for this lesson.

During week 12, students were asked to fill out a self-evaluation form (Appendix J). This form asks students to assess themselves on their activity, participation, and class work. The self-evaluation form asks students to assign themselves a grade based upon what they think they earned. Each student was asked to sign the evaluation as a true reflection of the work he/she did for the twelve weeks.

Data Collection

Data were collected for both classes using the Disruptive Classroom Behavioral Inventory during the entire study. During the first three weeks, both the Glasser class and the Standard class received the same physical education instruction during physical education class as provided by the middle school Physical Education Department curriculum.

Locus of control data were collected during week 1 and week 12. To do this, the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale for Children was administered to both groups at the beginning of the study and during the last week.

Discipline office referral records were examined in order to determine if there were any carry-over effects from the

Glasser program. Discipline office referral data were collected prior to the beginning of the program period and during the last week.

The teacher's journal was read weekly and served to supply this researcher with supplementary descriptions of the two classes. The teacher was told to write down any thoughts, concerns, or impressions he had about the lessons. He was told to make several entries per week. However, no guidelines were given as to what he should write about or how he should write. The teacher's thoughts concerning students' enjoyment, understanding, and adaptation to control theory/reality therapy served to enhance information obtained from the other data sources.

Reduction and Data Analysis

Disruptive Behaviors

Data form the Disruptive Classroom Behavioral Inventory were collected in four areas: student's name or gender, location of the disruptive behavior, type of the behavior, and what action was taken by the teacher. Disruptive behaviors were typed and categorized. The categories were totaled and frequency of occurrence was examined. Percentages were used to determine if any notable reduction in disruptive behaviors occurred.

Locus of Control

The Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale for Children was used to assess students' propensity to internal or external locus of control. Mean comparisons between the Glasser class and the Standard class were conducted on the pre and posttest Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale for Children measure. A 2 X 2 (group X pretest-posttest) factorial analysis of variance for repeated measures design was used to determine the significance of any shifts in the students' locus of control from the beginning of the program to the end of the program for the two groups.

Carry-over Effects

The school's disciplinary office records were examined in order to assess any school carry-over effects for the two classes. The name of the student, the date of the referral, the reason for the referral (the behavior) and the action taken by the administrator were recorded. The Glasser class was compared to the Standard group by citing frequency. Mean comparisons of the two groups were conducted.

Teacher's Journal

Descriptive data from the teacher's journal were analyzed. Impressions, descriptions, and thoughts were grouped according to themes and analyzed. These grouped themes were used as a supplementary source for describing the other data sources.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The central purpose of this study was to determine if a program approach developed from Glasser's control theory/reality therapy and quality school concepts would reduce disruptive behaviors in a middle school physical education classroom. This study also sought to determine if the Glasser approach would cause any shifts in the subjects' locus of control. Additionally, this study sought to determine if the Glasser approach would elicit carry-over effects to other areas of the students' academic experience in the form of reduced disruptive behaviors in other classrooms. Finally, this study sought to determine the teacher's perceptions of the Glasser program.

DISRUPTIVE BEHAVIORS

Types of Disruptive Behaviors

Data were collected using the Disruptive Classroom Behavioral Inventory (DCBI). Weekly frequency totals were compiled from the DCBI data. Frequency of occurrence was recorded for the following categories: a) who caused the disruption, b) where the disruptions occurred, and c)what type of disruptive behavior occurred. From the frequencies,

percentages were calculated for determining the amount of each behavior. The first set of data was collected during a three-week pre-program phase and the second set during the nine-week program phase of the study. This section will describe the types of disruptive behaviors.

Fifteen disruptive behaviors were recorded for the two classes. These were organized into eight types by combining several categories that had limited occurrence. The eight types were: *Not Following Instructions (NFI), Play Wrestling, Bothering Another Student, Playing with or on the Equipment, Talking During Instructions, Running in the Gym, Prefight/fighting,* and *Miscellaneous*. Miscellaneous included behaviors with limited occurrence. These *were Arguing, Foul Language, Not Participating, Wandering Off, Eating, Spitting, Playing at the Water Fountain,* and *Throwing Objects.*

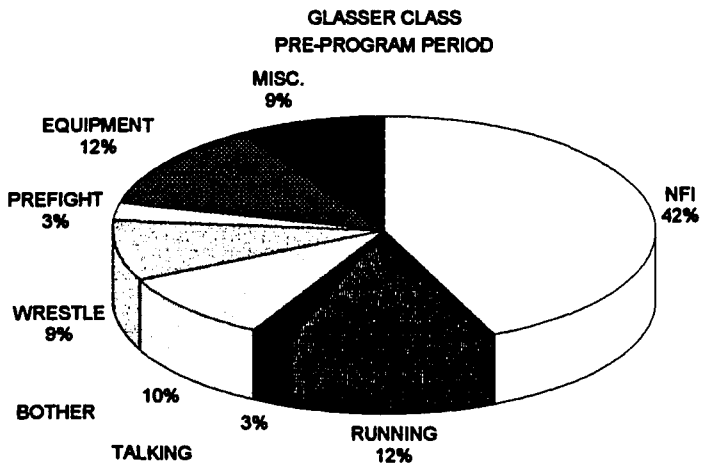
Pre-program phase. During the pre-program phase, the most predominant disruptive behavior for both classes was *Not Following Instructions,* comprising approximately 43 percent of all behaviors. *Running in the Gym* (12 percent) was the second most common disruptive behavior for the Standard class, while *Playing on the Equipment* was comprised 12% for the Glasser class. *Bothering Another Student* and

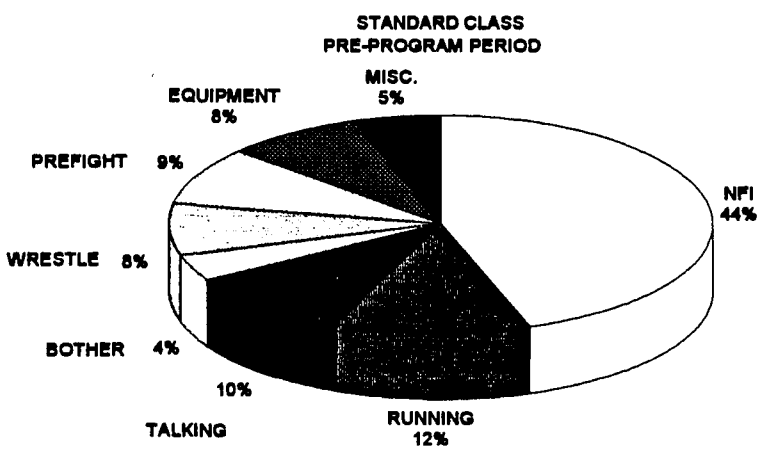
Talking During Instructions accounted for 10 percent of the behaviors for the Glasser class and the Standard classes, respectively, and were the third most common disruptive behaviors.

Figure 1 shows that the two classes differed somewhat in the remaining five categories. Disruptive behaviors due to *Talking During Instruction* were less for the Glasser class than for the Standard class, 3 percent and 10 percent respectively. Four percent of the disruptive behaviors in the Standard class were attributed to *Bothering Another Student*, while the Glasser class displayed similar behaviors 10 percent of the time. *Playing On The Equipment* made up 12 percent of the disruptive behaviors for the Glasser class, and only 8 percent for the Standard class. *Prefight/fighting* behaviors accounted for approximately 3 percent of the disruptive behaviors in the Glasser class, it accounted for 9 percent for the Standard class. The category, *Miscellaneous*, comprised 9 percent of the disruptive behaviors for the Glasser class and 5 percent of the disruptive behaviors for the Standard class.

Figure 1.

Percentage of disruptive behaviors - Pre-program period





Pre-program Period Frequency

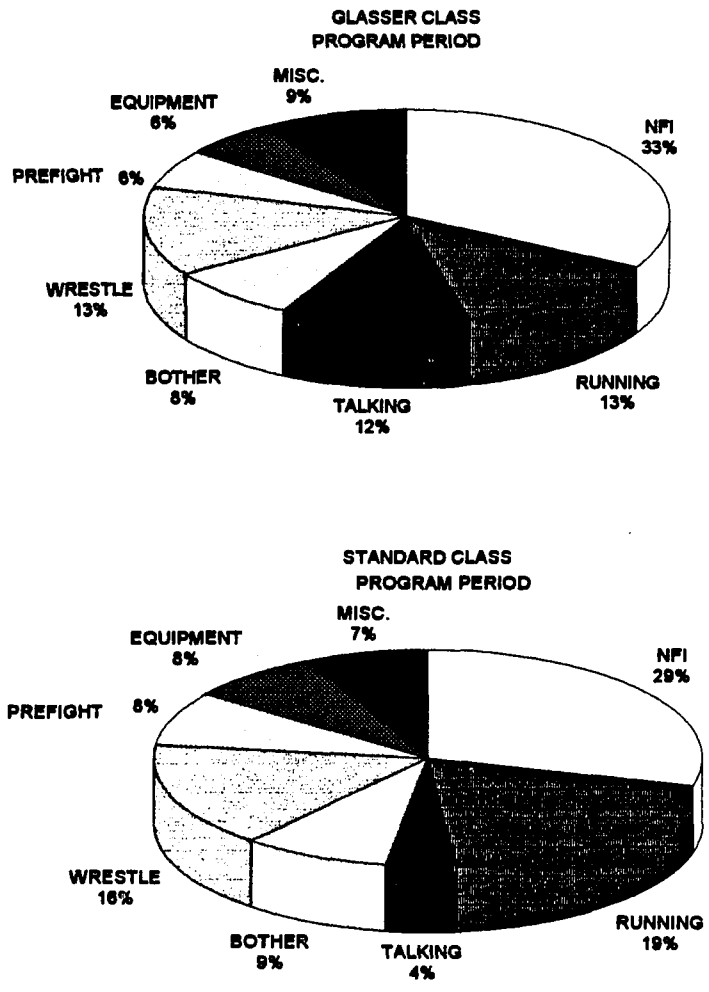
Glasser class = 115 Standard class = 152

Program phase. Shifts in disruptive behavior show that the Glasser class increased *Talking During Instructions, Play Wrestling,* and *Prefight/fighting* behaviors, while they decreased *Not Following Instructions* and *Playing with Equipment* behavioral percentages. Figure 2 shows that three categories, *Running in the Gym, Bothering Another Student,* and *Miscellaneous* behaviors remained approximately the same as their pre-program percentages.

The Standard class increased disruptive behavioral percentages in *Talking During Instruction, Not Following Instructions, and Miscellaneous* Behaviors. Percentages decreased in the *Play Wrestling,* the *Bothering Another Student,* and the *Running in the Gym disruptive behaviors. Playing with the Equipment* and *Prefight/Fighting* percentages remained about the same from the pre-program phase to the program phase. During the program phase, both classes had similar percentages for five of the eight disruptive behaviors: *Bothering Another Student, Play Wrestling, Prefight/fighting, Playing With Equipment,* and *Miscellaneous.*

Figure 2

Percentage of disruptive behaviors - Program phase



Program Period Frequency

Glasser class = 253 Standard class =544

The most prominent disruptive behavior, *Not Following Instructions*, accounted for 33 percent of the disruptive behaviors by the Glasser class. This was an improvement from the pre-program percentage of 42 percent. However, the Standard class improved from 44 percent to 29 percent in the same category.

Running in the Gym comprised 13 percent of the disruptive behaviors for the Glasser class during the program phase. This was approximately the same as the pre-program percentage (12 percent). The Standard class displayed a higher percentage of *Running in the Gym* behaviors, 19 percent, as compared to the pre-program 12 percent.

During the nine-week program, percentages of *Bothering Another Student* behaviors for the Glasser class improved slightly from their pre-program percentage (8 percent to 10 percent). The Standard class displayed this behavior 9 percent of the time, up from 4 percent during the pre-program phase.

Play Wrestling percentages increased for the Glasser class from 9 percent to 13 percent, as well as for the Standard class from 8 percent to 16 percent. The Glasser class improved their *Playing with the Equipment* percentages

from 12 percent to 6 percent, while the Standard class remained the same at 7 percent. Also, *Prefight/fighting* behaviors increased for the Glasser class from 3 percent to 6 percent, and decreased slightly for the Standard class, 9 percent to 8 percent.

One of the greatest changes occurred in *the Talking During Instruction* category. The Glasser class increased this disruptive behavior from 3 percent during the pre-program phase to 12 percent during the program phase. During the same time, the Standard class decreased these behaviors from 10 percent to 4 percent.

Overall Disruptive Behavior Frequency

This section describes the overall frequency of disruptive behaviors. Changes in specific disruptive behaviors are presented for the pre-program and program phases of the study.

Pre-program phase. Data analysis indicates that during the pre-program phase, the Glasser class displayed a total of 115 disruptive behaviors: 28 disruptive behaviors for the first week, 41 for the second week, and 46 for the third week. This resulted in an average of 38.33 disruptive behaviors per week. The Standard class displayed a total of 152 disruptive behaviors: 37 the first week, 53 the second

week and 62 the third week, for an average of 50.67 per week. During this pre-program phase, disruptive behaviors for both classes increased. Table 5 shows the frequency of disruptive behaviors by week.

Table 5

Frequency of disruptive behaviors by week

Week	1	2	3	4	5	6	*7	8	9	10	**11	12
Glasser	28	41	46	42	24	46	-	38	55	25	-	23
Standard	37	53	63	78	56	101	-	81	94	74	-	60

Frequency Totals: Glasser Class = 253 Standard Class = 544

* Students from the Standard class (11) were absent for 3 days due to field trip - data not included

** Two day Thanksgiving Holiday - data not included

Program phase. By the end of the program phase, the number of disruptive behaviors for the Standard class (n=544) were more than twice that of the Glasser class (n=253). It should be noted that during week *7, 11 students from the Standard class were absent due to a field trip, thus lowering an expected weekly total. This rendered week 7 totals invalid for any comparison and therefore, these were eliminated. In addition, totals for both classes during week

11 were well below expected levels due to the two day Thanksgiving holiday. These were eliminated.

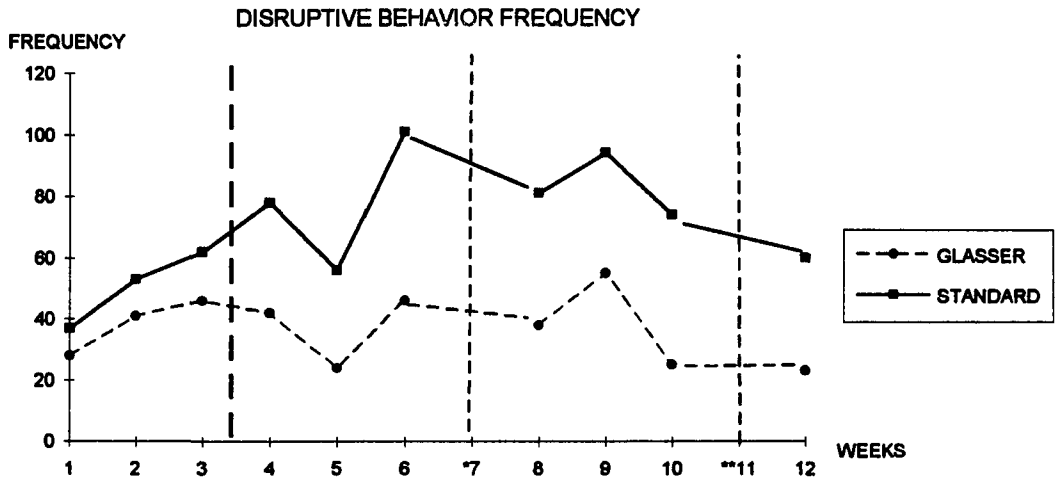
During the program phase, disruptive behavioral patterns for the Glasser and the Standard class were fairly similar. Although the Glasser class had fewer overall behaviors, the behavioral pattern was comparable from week to week.

During week 4, the Glasser class displayed 42 disruptive behaviors. This was a slight drop from the steady rise of disruptive behaviors during the three-week pre-program phase. By the end of the twelfth week of the program period, the Glasser class had reduced their disruptive behaviors to 23. This was fewer than their pre-program low of 28. Additionally, figure 3 shows disruptive behaviors for the Glasser class during the program phase were lower than any of their pre-program totals for all but two weeks.

In contrast, the Standard class displayed 78 disruptive behaviors during the first week of the program phase (week 4), an increase from 62 disruptive behaviors during week 3 of the pre-program phase. It should be noted that disruptive behaviors for the Standard class reached their lowest during week 1 of the pre-program phase, and at no time during the program phase did their disruptive behaviors drop below this pre-program level.

Figure 3

Frequency of Disruptive Behaviors



Disruptive Behavior Frequency

	Pre-program period	Program period
Glasser Class	115	253
Standard Class	152	544

* Field trip

** Thanksgiving Holiday

Comparison of Specific Disruptive Behaviors

This section describes and examines specific disruptive behaviors in terms of their frequencies. This includes describing the changes that occurred during the pre-program and program phases.

Not Following Instructions

Pre-program phase. The most prevalent disruptive behavior for both classes was *Not Following Instructions*. During the pre-program phase, these behaviors fluctuated somewhat for both classes. During this phase, the Glasser class showed a notable increase during week 2 and a slight drop during week 3.

The Standard class initially decreased during week 2 of the pre-program phase. However, *Not Following Instructions* behaviors increased sharply during week 3.

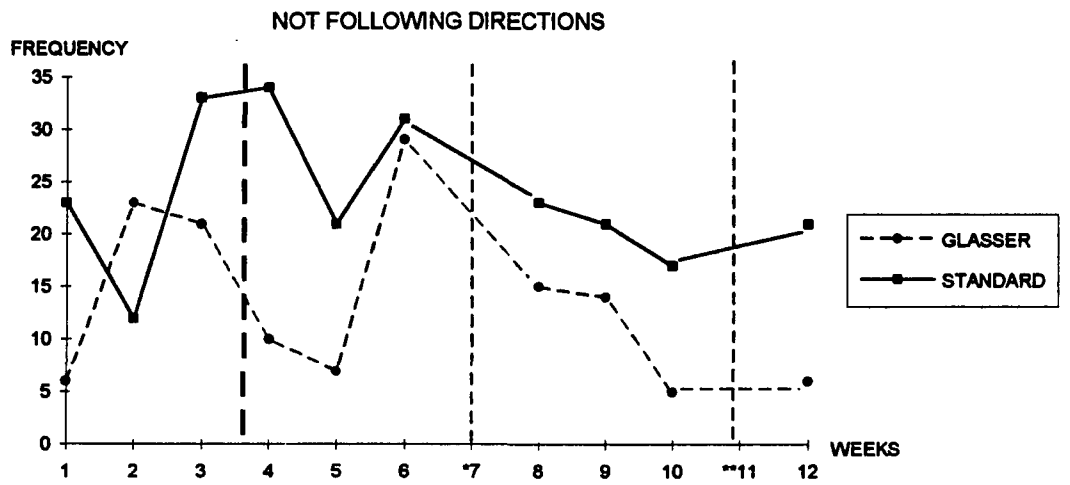
Program phase. Overall, both classes followed the same behavioral pattern during the program phase. The Glasser class decreased *Not Following Instructions* during the first two week (week 4) of the program phase. During week 5, the Glasser class showed a sharp increase to their highest level (n=29). From this point, the Glasser class sharply decreased *Not Following Instruction* behaviors until the end of the program phase.

The Standard class slightly increased *Not Following Instruction* behaviors during week 4. However, these behaviors decreased sharply during week 5. After an increase during week 6 to the previous week 4 level, the Standard class slowly reduced *Not Following Instructions* until the last week of the program period when a slight increase was

shown. Figure 4 shows the frequency of *Not Following Instructions* behaviors.

Figure 4

Not Following Instructions Frequency



Pre-program Frequency

Glasser class = 49

Standard class = 68

Program Frequency

Glasser class = 86

Standard class = 168

* Field trip

** Thanksgiving Holiday

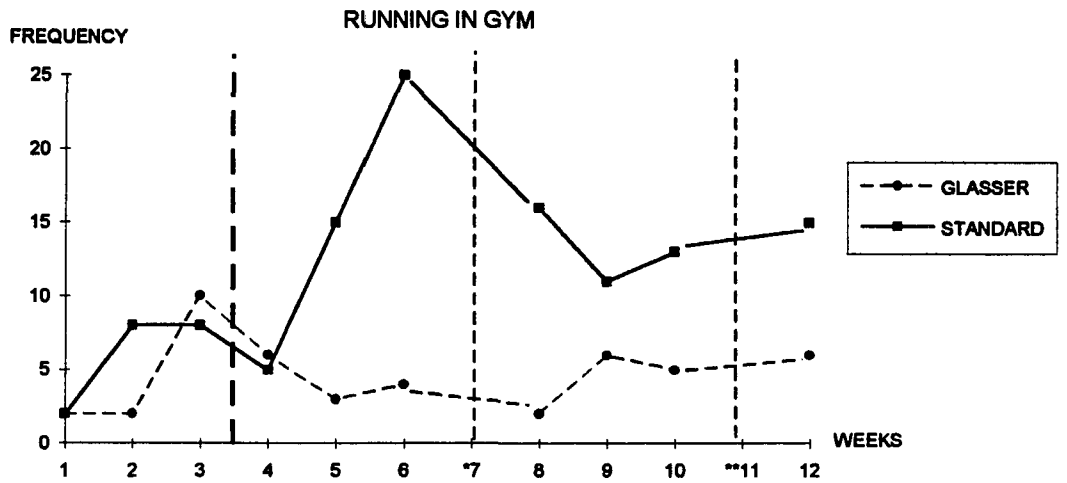
Running in the Gym

Pre-program phase. Figure 5 shows that *Running in the Gym* behaviors were quite different for the two classes. During the pre-program phase the Glasser class and the

Standard class began week 1 with the same number *of Running in the Gym* behaviors (2). The Glasser class repeated this during week 2 but increased to 10 prior to the end of the pre-program phase. The Standard class *increased Running in the Gym* behaviors during week 2 and leveled off at the end of the pre-program phase.

Figure 5

Running in the Gym



Pre-program Frequency

Glasser class = 14

Standard class = 18

* Field trip

Program Frequency

Glasser class = 32

Standard class = 100

** Thanksgiving Holiday

Program phase. During the program phase, the Standard class's Running in the Gym behaviors rose initially from week 4 peaking during week 6 of the program phase when *Running in the Gym* behaviors peaked at 25. Improvement was noted from week 6 to week 9. However, these behaviors rose again during weeks 10 through 12.

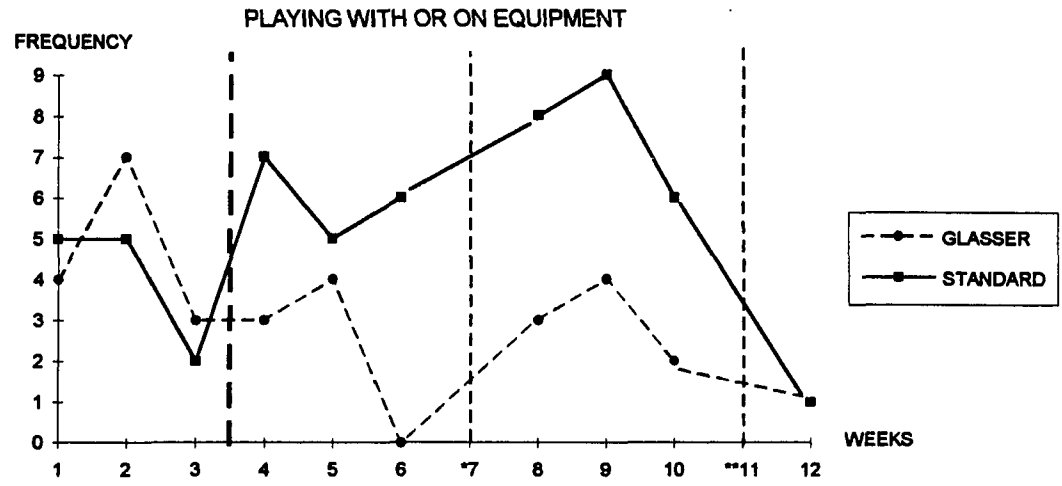
From the onset of the program phase, the Glasser class displayed lower *Running in the Gym* behaviors throughout the nine week program period. The greatest frequency occurred during week 9 and 12 when six incidences were recorded for each week.

Playing on Equipment

Pre-program phase. Pre-program patterns for Playing on the Equipment behaviors revealed slightly different patterns for the two classes. The Glasser class began week 1 at a lower level than the Standard class. However, they increased *Playing on the Equipment* behaviors during week 2 before lowering these to only 3 behaviors at the end of the pre-program phase. The Standard class remained steady for the first two weeks before reducing *Playing on the Equipment* behaviors during week 3. Figure 6 shows *the Playing on the Equipment* behaviors.

Figure 6

Playing on Equipment Frequency



Pre-program Frequency	Program Frequency
Glasser class = 13	Glasser class = 17
Standard class = 12	Standard class = 42
* Field trip	** Thanksgiving Holiday

Program phase. During the first week, program phase data showed the Glasser class remained at the same level as week 3 of the pre-program phase. After showing a small increase in *Playing on the Equipment* behaviors during week 5, the Glasser class reduced these behaviors to 0 during week 6. Remaining at consistently low levels, *Playing on the*

Equipment increased slightly until week 9. These behaviors until the end of the program period.

The Standard class began the program phase by increasing *Playing on Equipment* behaviors. After a one-week slight decline the Standard class increased these behaviors, reaching a peak during week 9 with 9 *Playing on Equipment* behaviors. A dramatic decline occurred from week 9 to week 12. During this time, the Standard class *reduced Playing on the Equipment* behaviors to a level equal to the Glasser class.

Bothering Another Student

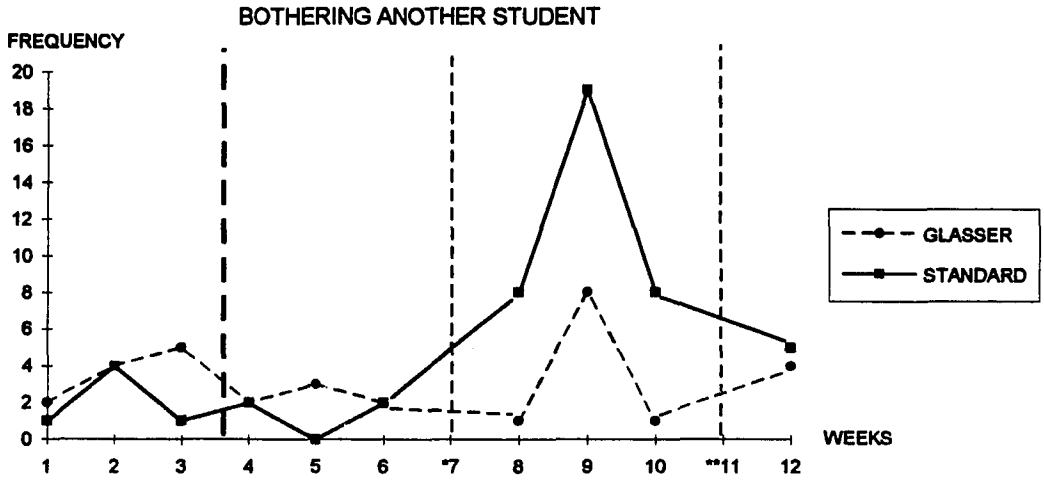
Pre-program phase. During the pre-program period, both the Glasser class and the Standard class displayed low levels of this type of behavior. While the Glasser class displayed a steady increase in these behaviors, the Standard class showed increases during week 2 and declined to one *Bothering Another Student* behavior by the end of the phase.

Program phase. The Glasser class showed a steady decline in *Bothering Another Student* behaviors for five weeks of the program phase. After experiencing a sharp increase to 6 disruptive behaviors during week 9, the Glasser class returned to their lower levels. A slight increase from 2 to 4 disruptive behaviors was shown during

week 12 of the program phase. Figure 7 shows the *Bothering Another Student* behaviors.

Figure 7

Bothering Another Student Frequency



Pre-program Frequency

Glasser class = 11

Standard class = 6

* Field trip

Program Frequency

Glasser class = 21

Standard class = 44

** Thanksgiving Holiday

The Standard class remained at relatively low levels until week 6 of the program period. At this point, the Standard class sharply increased these behaviors reaching a frequency high of 19 during week 9. By the end of the

program phase, the Standard class reduced these disruptive behaviors to a level comparable to the Glasser class.

Play Wrestling

Pre-program phase. Data collected on *Play Wrestling* behaviors for the Glasser group displayed a fairly stable pattern. After an initial drop during week 2, the Glasser class remained at a constant low level throughout the pre-program period.

The Standard group, however, displayed a more sporadic *Play Wrestling* pattern. From zero behaviors the first week, the Standard class increased to 9 behaviors during week 2, then back to 3 at the end of the pre-program period.

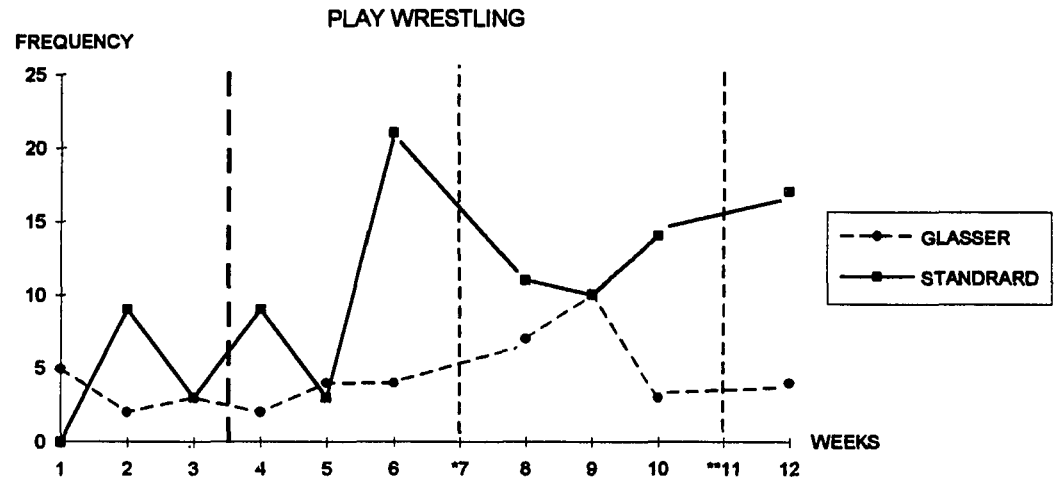
Program phase. Data collected during the program phase for the Glasser class showed stable, but slightly increasing, *Play Wrestling* behaviors for the first six weeks. *Play Wrestling* declined sharply during week 7 and remained low through week 9.

Play Wrestling behaviors for the Standard class showed a sporadic pattern throughout the program phase. These behaviors reached a peak during week 3 before tapering off through week 6. From this point, *Play Wrestling* behaviors increased steadily until week 9 ending substantially higher

than week 1. Figure 8 shows the frequency of *Play Wrestling* behaviors.

Figure 8

Play Wrestling Frequency



Pre-program Frequency

Glasser class = 10

Standard class = 12

Program Frequency

Glasser class = 34

Standard class = 85

* Field trip

** Thanksgiving Holiday

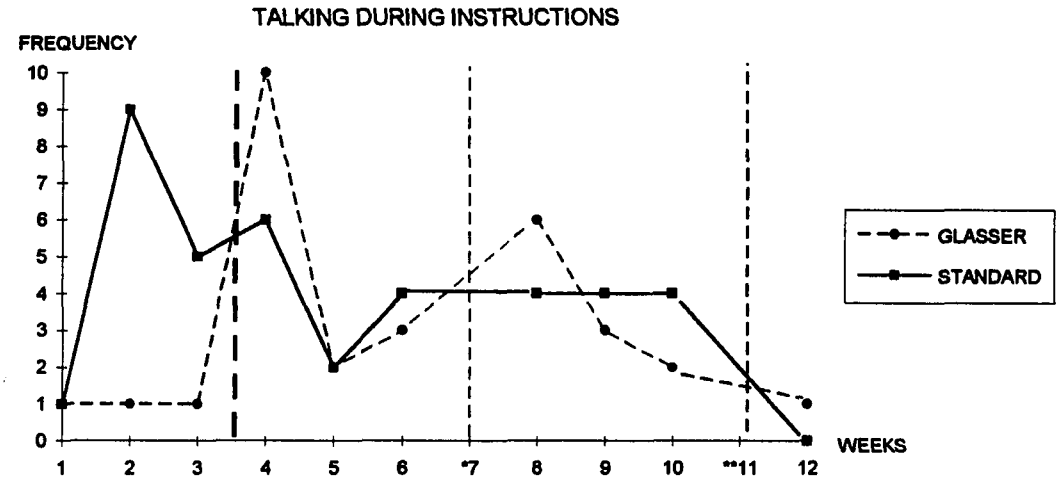
Talking During Instruction

Pre-program phase. The Glasser class displayed only one *Talking During Instruction* behavior incident per week during the three week pre-program phase. However, the Standard

class, after showing only 1 behavior the first week, escalated to 9 behaviors during week 2. During week 3, the Standard class was able to reduce these behaviors to 5. Figure 9 shows the *Talking During Instruction* frequency

Figure 9

Talking During Instruction Frequency



Pre-program Frequency	Program Frequency
Glasser class = 3	Glasser class = 27
Standard class = 15	Standard class = 24
* Field trip	** Thanksgiving Holiday

Program phase. During the program phase, the Glasser class showed a very sporadic pattern for *Talking During*

Instruction behaviors. From one behavior during the last week of the pre-program phase, the Glasser class showed a dramatic increase to 10 behaviors followed by a decline of 2 behaviors during week 5 (Fig. 10). A steady increase occurred from week 5 to week 8 and a slow decline was evident for the remainder of the program phase.

The Standard group showed dramatic improvement from the beginning of the program period to the end. A sharp reduction in *Talking During Instruction* behaviors occurred during week 5. Although a slight increase occurred from week 5 to week 6, weeks 6 through 10 showed a steady low frequency of *Talking During Instruction* behaviors. By the end of the study, the Standard class had reduced this disruptive behavior to zero.

Prefight/Fight

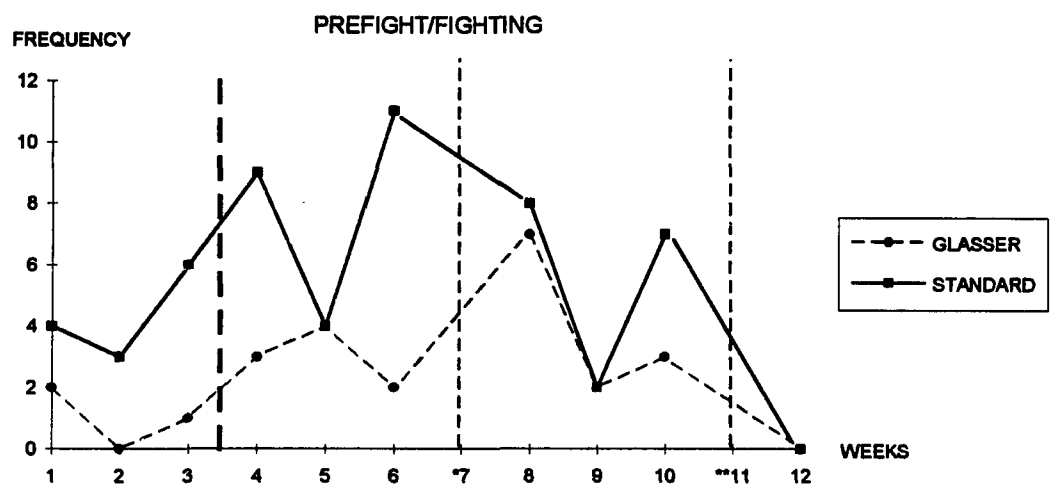
Pre-program phase. *Prefight/Fighting* behaviors displayed the same pre-program behaviors. Both classes had an initial decline in *Prefight/Fighting* behaviors and then an increase during week 3 of the pre-program phase. However, the Glasser class retained lower frequency levels than the Standard class.

Program phase. Despite a slight increase in *Prefight/Fighting* behaviors from the pre-program period, the

Glasser class showed slight improvement during week 6 of the program phase. A sharp increase during week 8 was followed by a downward trend ending with no *Prefight/Fighting* behaviors at the program's end. Figure 10 shows *Prefight/Fighting* behaviors.

Figure 10

Prefight/Fight Behaviors



Pre-program Frequency

Glasser class = 3

Standard class = 13

* Field trip

Program Frequency

Glasser class = 21

Standard class = 41

** Thanksgiving Holiday

Throughout the study, *Prefight/fighting* behaviors were considerably higher for the Standard class than for the Glasser class. Data revealed the Standard class displayed a highly varied pattern from week to week. An initial increase from the pre-program phase was followed by a sharp decline in *Prefight/Fighting* behaviors. Another increase during week 6 was followed by a moderate drop in these disruptive behaviors. Again, a sharp increase followed during week 10. Despite these fluctuations, the Standard class concluded the program phase at the same level as the Glasser class.

Discussion of Disruptive Behaviors

One purpose of this study was to determine and compare the amount of disruptive behaviors between the Glasser class and the Standard class. The Glasser approach advocates student responsibility based upon the students' perceptions of their own behavior. This approach assists the students in making more appropriate behavioral choices. Results from the Disruptive Classroom Behavioral Inventory (DCBI) indicated that a physical education program designed around Glasser's quality school concepts may be effective in reducing disruptive behaviors in a physical education class.

Frequency data indicate that overall disruptive behaviors were lower for the Glasser class than for the

Standard class. For example, during the pre-program period, the total number of disruptive behaviors for both classes was nearly the same with the Glasser class displaying fewer disruptive behaviors (115) than the Standard class (152). However, by the end of the program period, disruptive behaviors for the Standard class (544) were more than double the amount of the Glasser class (253).

Interestingly, the Standard class began the study with 39 students. The Glasser class began the program with 30 students. However, during the twelve week program, the Standard class lost 8 and gained 3 for a total of 34. During the same period, the Glasser class lost three and gained 5 for a total of 32. While the Standard class was declining in the number of students, their disruptive behaviors were increasing. In contrast, the Glasser class was gaining students, yet the number of disruptive behaviors did not increase at the same rate.

When students in the Glasser adapted PE program were disruptive, they were counseled using reality therapy. As stated earlier, this approach focused on helping students gain insight into their own behavior. This approach has been used in numerous settings experiencing similar reductions in disruptive behaviors (Hawes, 1971; Patterson & Silker, 1974;

Poppen, Thompson, Cates, & Gang, 1976; Dakosee, 1977; Hart-Hester, 1986, 1989; Uroff & Greene, 1991).

Analysis of specific disruptive behaviors revealed that for most all of the disruptive behaviors, the frequency of disruptive behaviors was two to three times higher for the Standard class than for the Glasser class. For example, *Running in Gymnasium* data indicated that at the end of the pre-program period, the two classes displayed virtually the same number of behaviors. During the nine week pre-program period, the Glasser class displayed 12 *Running through the Gym* behaviors, while the Standard class displayed 14. Yet at the end of the program period, the Glasser class had increased to 32, while the Standard class increased these disruptive behaviors to 100. The same pattern held true for *Play Wrestling, Not Following Instructions, Running in the Gym, Bothering Another Student, Playing on the Equipment,* and the *Miscellaneous* Behaviors. For all behavior types, the Glasser class displayed fewer behavioral disruptions than the Standard class. For these behaviors, the Glasser class appeared to be taking more responsibility for their actions and making more responsible behavioral choices.

Data show that the two classes differed in their display of aggressive and non-aggressive behaviors. The

aggressive behaviors would include *Play Wrestling, Bothering Another Student, and Prefight/fighting. Play Wrestling* behaviors for the Glasser class was three times greater at the end of the program period (34) compared to the pre-program period (10). In contrast, *Play Wrestling* behaviors for the Standard class was 7 times greater over the same period (pre-program = 12, program = 85). *Bothering Another Student* showed similar results. For the Standard class, these behaviors were 8 times greater during the program period (pre-program = 6, program = 50), as opposed to two times greater for the Glasser class (pre-program = 11, program = 21). During the pre-program period, *Prefight/Fighting* behaviors were higher for the Standard class (13) and remained higher than those for the Glasser class (3) throughout the program period (Standard = 41, Glasser = 21 respectively. The Standard class fluctuated from week to week, while the Glass class remained at lower levels of *Prefight/fighting* behaviors until the end of the program period (Fig. 10). For the aggressive types of behaviors, the Glasser class was able to find acceptable means of getting their needs met, thus resulting in more responsible behavior. Studies using reality therapy with delinquent and aggressive youths (Cherry, 1975; Drummond,

1982; Thatcher, 1983; Hart-Hester, 1986, 1989; Heuchert, Pearl, Hart-Hester, 1986; Hart-Hester, Heuchert, White, 1989; Uroff & Greene, 1991; Yarish, 1986) have found similar reductions in aggressive and delinquent behaviors. For example, Hart-Hester, Heuchert, and Whittier (1989) used the noon lunch hour to meet with four behavioral problem elementary students. The four youths were counseled daily for an undisclosed period of time. Observational data indicated these students reduced their non-compliant behavior and increased their on-task behavior.

Analysis of the non-aggressive types of behaviors showed similar results. The non-aggressive behaviors include *Not Following Instructions, Running in the Gym, Talking During Instruction,* and *Playing on Equipment.* The Glasser class displayed consistently fewer non-aggressive behaviors than the Standard class in all cases. For example, data for *Running in the Gym* indicated that at the end of the pre-program period, the Glasser class and the Standard class displayed virtually the same number of incidences, 14 and 18 respectively. However, by the end of the program period the Standard class had shown an greater increase in *Running in the Gym* behaviors, resulting in a total of 100 behaviors.

However, the Glasser class displayed a somewhat stable pattern and showed a moderate increase in occurrences (32).

An interesting finding involved the *Talking During Instruction* data. Analysis revealed that the Glasser class had 7 fewer *Talking During Instruction* behaviors than the Standard class at the end of the program period. The Glasser class had initially increased this disruptive behavior during the first week. *Talking During Instructions* fluctuated over the remaining weeks, and by the end of the program period, the Glasser class had reduced these behaviors to only 1. During the nine-week program period, *Talking During Instruction* behaviors for the Standard class fluctuated for the first two weeks. From week 6 through week 10, the Standard class maintained a consistent occurrence of four incidences, and during week 12, the Standard class eliminated this behavior. An explanation for this finding may be found within the program's design.

"Classroom meetings" and discussions were a large part of this study's design. Students in the Glasser class were allowed to express themselves and be accepted for what they were saying during these discussions. When students talked during the teacher's instructions, the teacher used reality therapy counseling methodologies to help students understand

that their behavior was not appropriate. In contrast, students in the Standard class were boss-managed. They were told where to go, what to do, and how to do it. The teacher would use authoritative behavior controlling techniques to control the student's behavior. While authoritative techniques can be effective in reducing disruptive behaviors (White & Bailey, 1990; Henderson & French, 1990), these strategies do not help students meet their needs. As previously mentioned, control theory and reality therapy helps students find acceptable means to satisfy their needs for power and recognition, love and belonging, fun, and freedom. Glasser (1990) explains that in order for people to begin to take responsibility for their behavior, they must learn acceptable methods of fulfilling their needs.

For example, during week 4, *Talking During Instruction* behaviors were at the highest point,(10) for the Glasser class. From weeks 5 through 8, these behaviors increased. However, by the end of the nine-week program period, these behaviors had dropped off to only 1 occurrence. It is apparent that the Glasser class learned more acceptable means of meeting their needs instead of talking during the teacher's instruction.

LOCUS OF CONTROL

Another purpose of this study was to determine if the control theory/reality-based program would elicit changes in students' locus of control. In order to answer this question, the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale for Children (NSLC-C) was administered prior to the beginning of the study and at the end of the program phase to both classes. A total of 18 students in the Glasser class and 26 students in the Standard class completed both the pretest and posttest. Table 6 provides a summary of the analysis conducted on the locus of control scores.

A 2 X 2 (Glasser-Standard class x pretest-posttest) analysis of variance for repeated measures was conducted to determine if there was a significant difference between the two groups across time in the students' locus of control results indicated there was no significant difference between the Glasser class($M=16.038$, $SD=4.485$) and the Standard class ($M=14.722$ $SD=3.893$), $F(1,42)=.82$, $p>.10$. Results also indicated no significant difference between pretest ($M=16.614$, $SD=4.468$) and posttest scores ($M=15.50$, $SD=4.256$) for either class, $F(1,42)= 2.73$, $p>.10$. In addition, no interaction effects were found to be significant, $F(1,42)=.16$, $p>.05$.

Table 6

2 X 2 ANOVA summary of locus of control scores

between-subject effects

Source	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig.F
Within Cell	1169.37	42	27.84		
Between Class	22.85	1	22.85	.82	.370
Time	28.85	1	28.85	2.73	.106
Class by Time	1.67	1	1.67	.16	.693

Discussion

Analysis of the locus of control data revealed no significant shifts from external to internal orientations from pretest to posttest for both groups. These findings parallel other studies using reality therapy (Brandon, 1981; Houston-Slowick, 1983; Slowick, Omizo, & Hammet, 1984; Comiskey, 1993). As discussed earlier, Dakosee (1977) and Houston-Slowick (1983) used similar, once or twice a week approaches. These authors found no changes from external to internal locus of control.

As suggested by Slowick, Omizo, and Hammet (1984), the design and length of the instructional period may have had an effect on the program's effectiveness. Students in the present study met for four periods (50 minutes) per week of physical education and met for one period (50 minutes) per

week for nine weeks. This amount time, nine meetings, may not have been frequent enough or long enough to result in locus of control shifts. Instead of conducting classroom meetings once per week, shorter daily meetings may have produced more positive results as did Hawes (1970). Hawes (1970) used a Glasser approach for 16 weeks with 340 elementary children. Because Hawes (1970) used daily classroom meetings and counseling sessions for longer lengths of time, shifts in locus of control may have occurred.

Supporting the notion of more and frequent meetings, Yarish (1986) reports similar shifts in participants locus of control. Yarish conducted 47 group counseling sessions at a state-run residential facility for juveniles. During the 130 day program period, Yarish used the "classroom meeting" style of counseling for 40 youth offenders. Of the 40 youths, 25 completed the program.

Of the research conducted using Glasser designed programs, all have varied in program length of time and length of time engaged in counseling and/or classroom meetings. This research has not revealed an optimum time frame to experience shifts in locus of control. Although, Thatcher (1983) showed that external to internal shifts in locus of control have occurred in as few as 8 weeks.

A second explanation why no differences in students' locus of control scores were found may be due in part to the teacher's instructional process. In this study, classroom meetings were used to help determine the rules, procedures, and activities offered during the program period. Through discussions, students helped decide what activities they wanted to learn during the entire semester. Glasser (1990) believes that students should be involved in the decision-making phases of learning. He believes that students know the best ways for them to learn.

While classroom discussions were conducted concerning which activities to offer, the activity and skill development segments were teacher-directed. That is, the teacher decided what skills were to be taught and in what order to teach them. In keeping with the Glasserian methodology, classroom meetings should help determine what skills and in what order the teacher would teach them. Therefore, it is possible that this teacher-directed style or as Glasser (1990) terms it, boss-management style, may have impaired any possible locus of control changes. Research in student decision-making is somewhat contradictory (Klein & Keller, 1990). However, several studies have shown that increased decision-making by students can improve students' self-concept (Schempp,

Cheffers, Zaichkowsky, 1983; Lyon, 1978; Lynch, 1980; Martinek, Zaichkowsky, and Cheffers, 1977), skill acquisition (Beckett, 1990; Schempp, Cheffers, Zaichkowsky, 1983; Goldberger, Gerney, 1986; Lyon, 1978; Lynch, 1980; Martinek, Zaichkowsky, and Cheffers, 1978) and attitudes toward physical education (Schempp, Cheffers, Zaichkowsky, 1983; Mancini, Cheffers, & Zaichkowsky, 1976).

Additionally, Omizo and Cubberly (1983) suggest that the teacher may not have had sufficient training in the principles of reality therapy and control theory and their application to produce changes in locus of control. In the present study, it was felt that the teacher had an adequate understanding of the principles of reality therapy and control theory and in conducting classroom meetings. However, the teacher in his journal did express concerns about his ability to conduct counseling while having to attend to the needs of the entire class. He stated: "It is difficult to counsel one individual during an activity due to supervision." The teacher suggests that he may not have been able to provide adequate reality therapy counseling for the disruptive student due to class constraints.

As discussed earlier, this program consisted of various written exercises and ensuing discussions. During these written activities, several students indicated that they did

not like doing the written portion. Item analysis performed on the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale for Children using Crombach's Alpha resulted in low alpha scores (pre-locus = .5803 and post-locus = .5435) indicating little internal reliability for the instrument. This may be due, in part, to the fact that students did not enjoy taking the scale. For example, one student asked: "Why do we have to do all this writing? I hate it. Nobody else is doing it." Another student said: "I hate this writing stuff." This type of aversion to writing may have caused students to rush through the NSLC-C and therefore, may not have understood nor responded to the questions. Therefore, caution should is emphasized when interpreting locus of control.

CARRY-OVER EFFECTS

Another purpose of this study was to determine if the Glasser program has any carry-over effects. Disciplinary office records were examined for subjects in both the Glasser class and the Standard class. Frequency of referral was examined in order to determine if the Glasser approach to physical education had any carry-over effects to other aspects of the subjects' school life. Overall, data indicate that students in the Standard class was sent to the disciplinary office by other teachers in the school less

than those in the Glasser class. Table 7 shows the frequency of disruptive behaviors.

Table 7

Disciplinary Office Referral Frequency

	Pre-program Period	Program Period
Glasser Class	4	19
Standard Class	4	9

During the pre-program period, students in the Glasser class and students in the Standard class were sent to the disciplinary office the same number of times(4). However, during the program period, students in the Standard class were sent to the disciplinary office 9 times compared to students in the Glasser class who were sent to the disciplinary office 19 times.

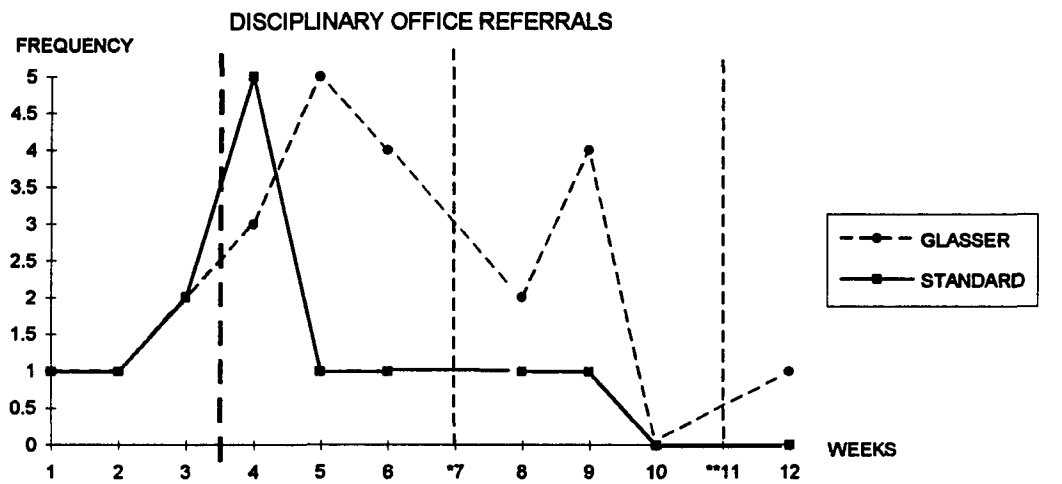
Further examination of the data show that five students in the Standard class were the cause of the nine referrals. In contrast, 11 students form the Glasser class were referred to the disciplinary office 19 times. Of these 11 students no single student exhibited substantially more disruptive behaviors than the others.

Pre-program phase. Figure 11 shows the weekly pattern of referrals. During the pre-program phase, disciplinary

office referrals for both classes exhibited the same rising pattern. Both began week one and two with only one office referral, but increased to 2 referrals prior to the end of the pre-program period.

Figure 11

Disciplinary Office Referrals



* Field trip ** Thanksgiving Holiday

Program phase. Beginning with week 4, the Standard class showed a decrease in office referral patterns. This pattern stabilized during weeks 5 through week 9 and then dropped to zero referrals for the remaining weeks of the program.

The Glasser class increased office referrals through week 5 before starting a downward trend. A slight increase in referrals occurred from week 8 to week 9 before the Glasser class reduced these referrals to zero at week 10. However, during weeks 10 and 12, there was one referral during each week.

Discussion

Office referral results are contrary to what was expected. It was expected that the program would have carried over to other aspects of the students' academic life, possibly resulting in reduced disciplinary office referrals for the Glasser class. An examination of the disciplinary office referral records indicated that members of the Glasser class were referred to the discipline office by other teachers more than twice as much as students in the Standard class. This finding was contrary to what was expected. For example, Patterson & Sikler, (1974) found that discipline office referrals decreased as the result of teachers and staff using a reality therapy approach, as did Uroff & Greene, (1991) with their work at the Appollo School.

An explanation for the discrepancy between these studies and the present one may be found within Glasser's control theory (Glasser, 1965). Control theory states that

people have five basic needs and that we seek out ways to satisfy these needs (Glasser, 1984). During this program, students in the Glasser class were taught that they have a voice in physical education. They were given choices and allowed to make decisions concerning their physical education experience. The teacher was attempting to teach the students that their opinion was valid, that they would be listened to, and that all of their options would be considered. In contrast, some classroom teachers in the school may use different and varying disciplinary methods in their classrooms. Whether behavior modification (Skinner, 1954), assertive discipline (Ford, 1984), Teacher Effectiveness Training (TET)(Gordon, 1974), or other types of behavior controlling strategies are used, the freedom, power and recognition, love and belonging, and fun that these students were learning and experiencing in the Glasser adapted PE program may have been suppressed and/or contradicted in other academic settings. It is possible that some of the students were rebelling in the only way they knew how, being disruptive. However, it is not known what strategies were used by other teachers at this middle school. While the students may have experienced more power and control over their lives through this Glasser designed physical education program, apparently they were unable to

transfer these principles to other areas of their school life. However, continuing discussions concerning behavioral choices and the consequences of these choices may help these students realize that what they were presently doing was not the best method for getting what they wanted in these other classes.

It was possible that the students did not fully understand control theory concepts. In his journal, the teacher indicated this perception.

TEACHER'S JOURNAL

The teacher in this study was asked to keep a journal. The purpose of the journal was to record the teacher's thoughts, feelings, and perceptions concerning the treatment program. The teacher recorded events he thought might be significant during the treatment program. This study wanted to determine the teacher's perceptions of the effectiveness of the Glasser physical education program.

Examination of the journal entries showed that the teacher expressed two general concerns. The first was that the students were not understanding the Glasserian concepts. A second concern focused on the problems with the physical education classroom setting. In addition to these two concerns, the teacher noted two significant incidents during the study.

Concerns about Student Understanding

During the first week of the program, the teacher distributed a questionnaire (Appendix H) to the students in the Glasser class. This questionnaire was designed to stimulate classroom discussions concerning what the students wanted in their physical education experience. Examples of questions posed to the students were:

- If you could design the ideal PE class, what activities would you choose?
- What activities would you like to learn more about?
- How much time should be allowed for you to get ready for your next class?

The teacher would ask open-ended questions to further the discussion. For example, in response to a student who expressed his desire to only play basketball, the teacher would ask: By playing basketball for the entire semester, do you think you would be getting the most out of your physical education class? The teacher would follow this with questions concerning other activities that the student enjoyed or might want to learn more about. Using control theory and reality therapy, the teacher attempted to reach a compromise regarding dressing out for PE, time allotted to change into and out of gym clothes, types of activities to

offer, how many days or weeks to learn the activity, and in what order to offer these activities.

Following these discussions, the teacher wrote in his journal that he thought the students were "unrealistic in their responses to what the ideal PE program was." He went on to write that he was "unsure that they (the students) understood the concepts."

Glasser (1984) believes that we think in pictures. He believes that conflicts arise when what we want, the ideal, is not what we are getting, the real. These ideas and suggestions were the students' pictures of what the ideal physical education class could be. However, in this situation it appeared that the teacher was looking for practical solutions, while the students were exploring what they wanted. The students were doing the assignment as asked. However, the teacher may not have understood that the students were discussing what they wanted and not what may be practical or feasible. The teacher may have missed trying to connect what the students wanted (ideal) to a discussion of what they could actually do in PE.

Concerns about the Physical Education Classroom Setting

The teacher's journal revealed several entries dealing with the physical education environment. In one entry, the teacher stated that "outside activities appeared to reduce

locus". Upon discussing the meaning of this with the teacher, he said that he was referring to the idea..."that the opportunity to be disruptive was greater when an activity was held outside the gymnasium rather than inside the gym." Locke (1975) refers to the gymnasium as a "complex place, where the nature of the subject matter makes physical education different from other classes because of space and noise consideration."

In physical education, the teacher must contend with considerations of space, noise, equipment, facilities, and other environment characteristics. Limitations of time and space and resources are the most common constraints (Berlinger, 1983). A learning environment where distractions are minimized is more likely to result in greater learning (Brophy, 1982). In this middle school, four physical education classes shared one gymnasium. The teachers tried to alternate use, whereby only two classes would be inside the gym at one time.

The teacher went on to say:

> I think opportunities for disruptive behaviors could arise more often when students were moving from one area to another, particularly if there was considerable distance to walk to get there.

It is not arguable that students who are involved in activities are less likely to be disruptive. Educators suggest minimizing delays, wait, and transition time in order to keep students on task and potentially out of trouble (Good & Brophy, 1988; Emmer, Everston, & Brophy, 1989; Ornstein, 1990; Rink, 1993). With this in mind, the teacher had considered the idea of doing part of an activity lesson prior to the beginning of a classroom meeting. In his journal he stated:

> I feel the need to get them into the activity quickly and bring them back to control theory. Possibly they would be in a better frame for listening, also would create more ideas....

In other words, do the activity portion first, and then have the classroom meeting afterwards. The teacher was contemplating changing strategies. Teachers should use a variety of teaching strategies in order to achieve a high level of student engagement (Rink, 1993). By presenting the activity portion first, he felt the students may be more receptive, attentive, and cooperative to the classroom meeting.

In their Games for Understanding Model, Bunker & Thorpe (1982) present the game portion (strategies) of an activity first, then break it down into the skill components to enhance learning. In testing this model, Turner & Martinek

(1992, 1995) showed that this approach had merit and should be explored further. However, the idea to hold the activity portion first never materialized. For reasons unknown, the teacher either decided against this strategy or simply forgot to pursue it.

The teacher expressed two other contextual concerns. These dealt with class structure and the PE facility. Class structure concerns refer to class size and the number of students in the gymnasium at one time. On several occasions, the teacher stated how difficult it was to counsel during physical education class. The teacher felt that counseling was difficult because...

> too many (students) were in gym to use RT (reality therapy counseling). It is very difficult to counsel one individual during an activity due to supervision.

One difficulty faced by teachers is managing large groups of students (Rink, 1993). At times, there were as many as four classes in one gymnasium at a time. This means that there were as many as 125 students sharing space for physical education.

Counseling a student in a physical education class presents a different challenge than when conducted in the regular classroom. This teacher must supervise the class during play, while trying to counsel others. Kounin (1977)

described the ability to deal with these types of multiple tasks as overlappingness. While liability and safety were the teacher's primary concerns, there were times the teacher had to wait until after class to counsel a disruptive student. However, once the class began to accept responsibility for their behavior, the teacher was able to counsel one or more students more effectively, while the class continued with the lesson.

Another concern dealt with the facility itself. Addressing this problem, the teacher wrote in his journal... "the small meeting area created most problems". While one short line in the teacher's journal expressed concerns about the meeting areas, this made it apparent that this situation was a difficult one in which to conduct a classroom meeting.

These facility concerns were problems with actual physical facilities available to the teacher when conducting class. This would include, but were not be limited to, class space, desks, chairs, and availability. At this middle school, the physical educator had little space to conduct a classroom meeting. There were no classrooms with desks available for the Glasser class to do their written work. During the program period, the Glasser class held classroom meetings either in the foyer of the gym or the multi-purpose room. The foyer was a small atrium that acts as the entrance

to the gymnasium for basketball games and other events. There was little room for all of the students to sit comfortably on the floor.

The other meeting area was a multi-purpose room. This room doubled as a place to teach dance, health, or recreational games and a locker room for those boys playing football and basketball. This room, while approximately the size of a regular classroom, had an odor of sweaty clothes and football equipment making it difficult for the students to concentrate on their work. Despite these concerns, the teacher was able to report positive student perceptions of the program.

Significant Incidences

There appeared to be two significant moments during the nine week program. Prior to week 7 of the treatment program, the teacher noticed that the students were beginning to think about their behavior. He stated:

> They seem to think more about their behavior. It's like they want to respond to some (disruptive) behavior, but they think about the consequences.

The teacher noticed that students would act as if they wanted to chase their friend through the gym but would hesitate, think about it, and then choose not to proceed.

The teacher felt that the students were becoming more self-responsible and more cognitively aware of their behavior. Week 7 data from the Disruptive Classroom Behavioral Inventory (Fig.3) supported the teacher's statements. Recall, these data showed the Glasser class displayed a dramatic drop in disruptive behaviors during this time.

A second significant moment occurred after the teacher had distributed a questionnaire. During the ensuing discussion, the teacher reported that the responses and discussion "did not go well." The teacher then used realty therapy to counsel the entire class. On the next day the teacher wrote:

> I felt like I was talking to dead air, but to my surprise something got through in discussion. Just when you think RT won't work, the next day the students got themselves quieter and into their roll call spots quicker.

The teacher had observed that the class appeared to become more self-responsible in controlling their behavior. They began to get themselves into their roll call places, exercise lines, and into the activity without as many incidents of disruptive behavior. He continued... "through RT they are learning that they can control their own destiny." By the end of the study, the teacher commented... "overall, class behavior was much improved."

Writings from the teacher's journal show that the Glasser program was able to help student's become more responsible for their behavioral choices. Despite such problems as the small and odoriferous meeting areas, the Glasser program appeared to break through these distractions and produce positive results. In addition, writings from the teacher's journal help to verify data collected using the Disruptive Classroom Behavioral Inventory.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to determine if a physical education program based upon William Glasser's control theory and reality therapy would display fewer disruptive behaviors than the standard school PE model. This study attempted to determine if students in the Glasser class would show changes in their locus of control. This study further questioned whether the Glasser-based PE program would show any carry-over effects. In addition, the teacher provided this study with his perceptions of the application of this program.

Overall, this study produced mixed results. Data demonstrated that the Glasser class displayed fewer disruptive behaviors than the Standard class during the program period. Results further showed that students' locus of control did not shift significantly from external to internal. Furthermore, data demonstrated that this program may have little carry-over effects, as the disciplinary office referrals were higher for the Glasser class than for the Standard class. In addition, the teacher's journal indicated several concerns dealing with student

understanding, counseling environment, and the facilities available to conduct teaching of control theory. The teacher also indicated several significant incidences that occurred during the program.

SUMMARY

Data collected using the DCBI indicated fewer disruptive behaviors for the Glasser class during the program period. While other models, such as Teacher Effectiveness Training (Gordon, 1974), Assertive Discipline (Ford, 1984) and behavior modification (Skinner, 1954), and the Self-responsibility Model (Hellison, 1985) have also reduced disruptive behaviors, the Glasser-adapted physical education model attempted to reduce disruptive behaviors by helping students take effective control over their own lives by addressing their needs of power and recognition, love and belonging, fun, and freedom. The Glasser-adapted model advocates helping students make appropriate behavioral choices through the teaching of control theory and the use of reality therapy counseling. Unlike TET, assertive discipline, or behavior modification, the Glasserian teacher avoids trying to control students. Instead, the Glasserian teacher helps students learn more responsible behaviors. The teacher helps students understand that behavioral choices

are available to them. Students understand that with choices come consequences and responsibilities.

In the Glasser-adapted PE model, there are no developmental levels (Hellison, 1985) assigned to students. Students were counseled using reality therapy in order to determine appropriate means to get what they want within the class or school's guidelines. Sometimes, this conflicted with the rules or procedures that have been previously agreed upon by class members. However, through counseling, students were able to determine ways adhere to these rules and procedures through more appropriate methods.

In addition, this study was conducted in a real physical education classroom. Students in this study were kept in their assigned PE class. This was purposeful so as to understand how Glasser's principles would hold up under real physical education conditions.

Although disruptive behaviors were lower for the Glasser class, this study showed there were no significant shifts in students' locus of control between the two classes. The most plausible explanations for this finding appear to be within program design and length of meeting time. For instance, in this program, classroom meetings were held once a week for 12 weeks. This length of time may not have been sufficient for notable shifts in students' locus

of control scores. This supports similar findings by Slowick, Omizo, & Hammet (1984) and Yarish (1986). Additionally, students' animosity toward writing may have negated the treatment effects on locus of control.

Disciplinary office records indicated that the Glasser class did not make appropriate behavioral choices outside the physical education environment as they did during PE class. The DCBI and the teacher's journal writings showed behavioral improvement for the Glasser class during the program phase. While disruptive behaviors may have been reduced during physical education class, the Glasser class did not transfer that same control to areas outside of PE. The teacher in his journal indicated that the Glasser students may not have fully comprehended the control theory/reality therapy concepts. It is also possible that the a conflict existed between the Glasser style class and the philosophical disciplinary style of the school. This may help to explain the increase in office referrals for this group.

Although disruptive behaviors were lower for the Glasser class, in his journal the teacher indicated concerns about counseling and maintaining class supervision simultaneously. Counseling students was a major premise of the Glasser-adapted physical education model. Glasser (1990)

suggests a "time-out room" staffed by someone trained in reality therapy counseling. This study was unable to incorporate this aspect of Glasser's ideas into its program. Perhaps a "time-out room" would have provided disruptive students with the additional counseling needed to help them become less disruptive outside of the PE environment.

The Glasser-adapted PE model attempted to the help students meet their needs by providing an opportunity for them to have power expressing their voice, to be in an environment where the teacher and classmates care about each other, to have the freedom to choose, and to have fun in the process. Physical education may provide an ideal environment in which to accomplish these Quality School (Glasser, 1990) principles.

RECOMMENDATIONS

This study attempted to adapt Glasser's quality school concepts using control theory and reality therapy as a means of reducing disruptive behaviors. Although disruptive behaviors were lower for the Glasser class than the Standard class, further study is needed to fully understand the control theory's and reality therapy's impact upon physical education. Several recommendations are made for further investigation.

First, counseling and cooperative strategies need to be developed in order that the teacher may attend to an individual without reducing supervision for the entire class. Practical strategies that teach management techniques in order to maximize supervision while attending to counseling and development of an individual need to be addressed. Studies should investigate the impact of these strategies within the physical education setting. It should be noted that in a Glasser quality school, all teachers would be teaching and using control theory and reality therapy.

Second, this study provided evidence for the need to develop ways to help students learn the Glasserian principles through the physical as well as the cognitive. This program used discussions and writings as the methodology for teaching control theory. However, activities and games that would teach Glasserian principles through play need to be developed and tested.

Third, this study provided evidence that when middle school students are given more voice and choice in one area of their academic life, other areas may experience carry-over effects. A control theory program should help students become aware that they can choose to control their behavior in all areas of their life, academically, socially, and at

home. Strategies that help students make these behavioral connections should be incorporated into the physical education program.

Fourth, there is a need to develop accurate instruments that measure whether students are getting their needs met through the program. Instruments are needed to measure and verify whether students are understanding the concepts being taught to them. Furthermore, instruments are needed that measure whether the teacher is teaching and adhering to the principles of control theory and reality therapy. A case study approach may be able to more effectively address concerns with verification of student learning. This approach may help determine if and how students are applying control theory to their lives.

Fifth, this study revealed the need to bridge the gap between appropriate classroom behaviors and appropriate school behaviors. The question then becomes what methodologies can the physical education teacher use to best teach these concepts. The development of activities and games seems to be the next logical step. Perhaps cooperative activities and games can be developed that meet students' needs.

Finally, it is recommended that more accurate and valid and possible different ways to measure student's locus of

control in physical education be developed. It may be possible to develop an instrument that utilizes an activity or game oriented methodology to measure locus of control.

While much work needs to be done refining the specifics of such a program, this study provided another building block for further construction of a program that might better meet the needs of the students in physical education.

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APPENDIX A

MAKING CHOICES

MAKING CHOICES

Every day we make choices. These choices have an effect upon ourselves, our family, our friends, and other people. Many times we think that we do not have a choice. We think that we **HAVE** to react or behave in a certain way. In reality, we have a choice to just about everything we do. We can choose whether to do drugs and/or drink alcohol. We can choose to study for that math test. We can choose whether to fight the person that stole your watch. Each of these choices has a consequence that goes with it.

Are you making the right choices in your life?

Below are six situations. Read each situation, then choose two situations, and respond to the questions at the bottom.

1. While entering the gym, one of your classmates runs by you and grabs your favorite baseball cap.

2. You have just gotten a new hair cut. Two of your classmates begin teasing you about it.

3. In PE class, you have just miss hit a serve in volleyball, and the ball goes on the roof of the building. Your teammates begin criticizing you and laughing at you.

4. You are trying to explain something very important to a group of your friends. Unfortunately, every time you start talking one of them blurts out and interrupts you.

5. Physical education class has just ended. On the way back to the locker room someone from another class throws a volleyball and it hits you in the back of the head.

6. You have just tried out for (cheerleader, the chorus, the band, the basketball team- choose one). You were not selected, but your best friend was.

What is your immediate reaction?
What are the possible choices you can make?
List the consequences for each choice.
Which is the most appropriate response?

APPENDIX B

MAKING CHOICES IN PE

MAKING CHOICES IN PE _____
name

Choosing Appropriate & Responsible Behaviors

Below is an example of INAPPROPRIATE BEHAVIOR in physical education class and the consequences of each. Read through the example.

INAPPROPRIATE BEHAVIOR: Slapping the ball away from another group when they are trying to practice

CONSEQUENCES:

To Others: That group must stop and go chase the ball. They lose practice and participation time. The group will be angry with you.

To You: You may be asked to sit out of the activity for that period or longer, be written up, have a letter sent home to parents, or be sent to the office.

APPROPRIATE & RESPONSIBLE CHOICE: I should stay in my own group and practice the skill that we are working on for that day.

Consequence: I will become better because my group and I will have had more practice.

Fill in the missing blanks to the situations below.

INAPPROPRIATE BEHAVIOR: Running through the gym, climbing on the bleachers, or the playing on the chin-up bars

CONSEQUENCES:

To Others: _____

_____

To You: _____

_____

APPROPRIATE & RESPONSIBLE CHOICE: _____

_____

Consequence: _____

_____

INAPPROPRIATE BEHAVIOR: While the teacher is giving directions, you and your group are talking.
CONSEQUENCES:
To Others:

To You:

APPROPRIATE & RESPONSIBLE CHOICE:

Consequence:

INAPPROPRIATE BEHAVIOR: Another student runs by and playfully slaps you across the head. You chase him/her to do the same.
CONSEQUENCES:
To Others:

To You:

APPROPRIATE & RESPONSIBLE CHOICE:

Consequence:

Do you have an inappropriate behavior you would like to work on? Below, list that behavior and fill in the blanks on the rest of the chart.

INAPPROPRIATE BEHAVIOR:

CONSEQUENCES:
To Others:

To You:

APPROPRIATE & RESPONSIBLE CHOICE:

Consequence:

Is this behavior worth working on? _____

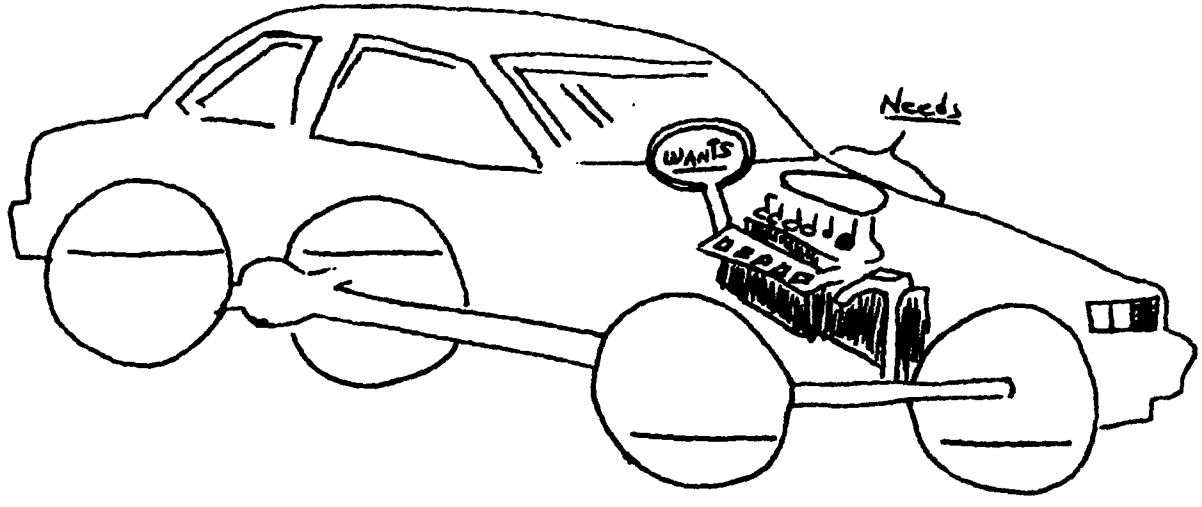
I agree to work on this appropriate behavior. _____

APPENDIX C

CAR ANALOGY

The Four Parts of Behavior

This CAR is ON a ROAD ON a JOURNEY through Life.



This CAR features front wheel drive. Whatever the front wheels do, the back wheels will follow.

APPENDIX D

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
School of Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance

Student's Name _____

Project: Reducing Disruptive Behaviors in Physical Education

Project Supervisor: Dr. Thomas J. Martinek

Project Coordinator: Robert M. Edens
Ph.D. Graduate Student
Department of Physical Education

I understand that the purpose of this study is to determine if using the counseling method developed by Dr. William Glasser, called reality therapy, is an effective method for reducing disruptive classroom behaviors in physical education.

I understand that this method of counseling involves helping students make appropriate choices, behavioral and academic. It asks students to examine if what they are doing (their behavior) is getting them what they want (fulfilling their needs). Through discussion, the student and teacher determine the best possible approach to solving a particular problem.

I further understand that participation in this study is voluntary and has been examined and approved by WWWWWWWW School District, Principal XXXXXX, and Physical Education Teacher YYYYYY.

I confirm and understand that no coercion of any kind has been used to obtain my cooperation. I understand that my child can withdraw from participation at any time. I have been informed of the procedure that will be used and give my consent for my child to participate in this study.

Please print

Name: _____ Phone_____

Address:_____

_____

Signature: _____

APPENDIX E

DISRUPTIVE CLASSROOM BEHAVIORAL ASSESSMENT

Coder

Block

DISRUPTIVE CLASSROOM BEHAVIORAL ASSESSMENT

DATE	PLACE	NAME	STUDENT BEHAVIOR	TEACHER REACTION

APPENDIX F

NOWICKI-STRICKLAND LOCUS OF CONTROL SCALE FOR CHILDREN

NOWICKI-STRICKLAND LOCUS OF CONTROL SCALE FOR CHILDREN

YES	NO	
____	____	1. Do you believe that most problems will solve themselves if you just don't fool with them?
____	____	2. Do you believe that you can stop yourself from catching a cold?
____	____	3. Are some kids just born lucky?
____	____	4. Most of the time do you fell that getting good grades means a great deal to you?
____	____	5. Are you often blamed for things that just aren't your fault?
____	____	6. Do you feel that most of the time if somebody studies hard enough he or she can pass any subject?
____	____	7. Do you feel that most of the time it doesn't pay to try hard because things never turn out right anyway?
____	____	8. Do you feel that if things start out well in the morning that it's going to be a good day no matter what you do?
____	____	9. Do you feel that most of the time parents listen to what their children have to say?
____	____	10. Do you believe that wishing can make good things happen?
____	____	11. When you get punished does it usually seem it's for no good reason at all?
____	____	12. Most of the time, do you find it hard to change a friend's (mind) opinion?
____	____	13. Do you think that cheering more than luck helps a team to win?

____ ____ 14. Do you feel that it's nearly impossible to change your parent's mind about anything?

____ ____ 15. Do you believe that your parents should allow you to make most of your own decisions?

____ ____ 16. Do you feel that when you do something wrong there's very little you can do to make it right?

____ ____ 17. Do you believe that most kids are just born good at sports?

____ ____ 18. Are most of the other kids your age stronger than you are?

____ ____ 19. Do you feel that one of the best ways to handle most problems is just to not think about them?

____ ____ 20. Do you feel that you have a lot of choice in deciding who your friends are?

____ ____ 21. If you find a four-leaf clover do you believe that it might bring you good luck?

____ ____ 22. Do you often feel that whether you do your homework has much to do with what kind of grades you get?

____ ____ 23. Do you feel that when a kid your age decided to hit you, there's little you can do to stop him or her?

____ ____ 24. Have you ever had a good luck charm?

____ ____ 25. Do you believe that whether or not people like you depends on how you act?

____ ____ 26. Will your parents usually help you if you ask them to?

____ ____ 27. Have you felt that when people were mean to you it was usually for no reason at all?

____ ____ 28. Most of the time, do you feel that you can change what might happen tomorrow by what you do today?

____ ____ 29. Do you believe that when things are going to happen they just are going to happen no matter what you try to do to stop them?

____ ____ 30. Do you think that kids can get their own way if they just keep trying?

____ ____ 31. Most of the time do you find it useless to try to get your own way at home?

____ ____ 32. Do you feel that when good things happen they happen because of hard work?

____ ____ 33. Do you feel that when someone your own age wants to be your enemy there's little you can do to change matters?

____ ____ 34. Do you feel that it's easy to get friends to do what you want them to do?

____ ____ 35. Do you usually feel that you have little to say about what you get to eat at home?

____ ____ 36. Do you feel that when someone doesn't like you there's little you can do about it?

____ ____ 37. Do you usually feel that it's almost useless to try in school because most other children are just plain smarter than you?

____ ____ 38. Are you the kind of person who believes that planning ahead makes things turn out better?

____ ____ 39. Most of the time, do you feel that you have little to say about what your family decides to do?

____ ____ 40. Do you think it's better to be smart than lucky?

APPENDIX G

GLASSER CLASS COURSE OUTLINE

GLASSER CLASS COURSE OUTLINE

Week 4 - Program Orientation
Discussion of PE Questionnaire Results
Established Rules and Procedures
Decided what Activities to offer
Discuss Purpose and Distribute Notebooks
Counseling of disruptive students in the Glasser class began

Week 5 & 6 - Making Choices (Appendix C)
Making Choices in PE (Appendix D)

Week 7 & 8 - Discussions of Quality Work/What is Quality PE?

Week 9 & 10 - Introduction to Control Theory
Car Analogy-Basic Needs

Week 11 - Self-Evaluation

Week 12 - Posttest and data collection

APPENDIX H

PHYSICAL EDUCATION QUESTIONNAIRE

PHYSICAL EDUCATION QUESTIONNAIRE

(Please Print) (Form 1)

NAME_____ Block_____
First Last

1. [Circle one] I **(DO)** **(DO NOT)** like PE.

If you answered **DO NOT** to question 1, please answer number 2. **Otherwise**, go to question 3.

2. The reasons I do not like PE are:
(Please rate your reasons from 1-10, 1-highest, 10-lowest)

____ The activities are not fun.
____ I do not like to dress out.
____ The amount of time it takes to get ready for PE (dress out) is too short.
____ The time it takes to get ready (dressed) for my next class is too short.
____ I do not like my teacher.
____ I do not like my classmates.
____ I am not good at PE.
____ I am not very skilled athletically.

_____Other_____

_____Other_____

_____Other_____

3. My favorite activities in PE are:
Please rate 1-6, (1-most favorite , 6-least)

_____FOOTBALL _____BASKETBALL ____VOLLEYBALL

_____ SOCCER _____ FITNESS ____ SOFTBALL

_____ RACQUET SPORTS ____ GYMNASTICS ____ GOLF

_____ TRACK _____ BOWLING _____ FOUR SQUARE

_____Other_____

_____Other_____

4. My **3 LEAST** favorite PE activities are:
(Please rate 1-3, (1-least favorite)

_____FOOTBALL _____BASKETBALL ____VOLLEYBALL

_____ SOCCER _____ FITNESS ____ SOFTBALL

_____ RACQUET SPORTS ____ GYMNASTICS ____ GOLF

_____ TRACK _____ BOWLING _____ FOUR SQUARE

_____Other_____

____ Other_____

5. If you could design the perfect PE class, what activities would you pick?

1._____ 4._____

2._____ 5._____

3._____ 6._____

5a. If you could design the ideal PE class, would you ask that all students dress properly for PE?
_____YES _____NO

5b. If **yes**, what do you consider proper dress of PE?

_____

_____

_____

5c. If **no**, why not? _____

_____

_____

5d.(1). If you could design the ideal PE class, how much time should be allowed to dress out for PE?

(Check **one** only)

____5 minutes _____8 minutes _____10 minutes
_____12 minutes _____15 minutes

5e.(2). How much time should be allowed to get ready for your next class?

(Check **one** only)

____5 minutes _____8 minutes _____10 minutes
_____12 minutes _____15 minutes

6a. If you could design the ideal PE class, indicate what you would you base a student's final grade on.**(You do not have to choose all of the variables).**

Scores on tests, reports, presentation _____
Demonstration of skills _____
Participation _____
Proper dressing out _____
Attendance _____
Ability to work with others _____
Other_____ _____
Other_____ _____
_____

7b. Should your grade reflect the QUALITY of the work you do?

YES NO

8. What grade do you expect to earn this semester? _____

APPENDIX I

MY PLAN FOR IMPROVEMENT

MY PLAN FOR IMPROVEMENT Date:

WHAT DO I WANT?	WHAT AM I DOING NOW?	IS IT HELPING OR HURTING?
AM I COMMITTED TO FOLLOWING MY PLAN?	DID I FOLLOW MY PLAN TODAY?	WHAT WERE THE CONSEQUENCES?
WHAT EXCUSES DID I GIVE FOR NOT FOLLOWING MY PLAN?	WHAT WERE THE CONSEQUENCES?	REVIEW-WHAT I WANT?

WHAT IS MY NEXT PLAN?

signature

APPENDIX J

PHYSICAL EDUCATION EVALUATION

Physical Education Evaluation

_____
name

Activity	**Circle One**				
I dressed out	Always	Nearly Always	Sometimes	Hardly Ever	Never
I participated	Always	Nearly Always	Sometimes	Hardly Ever	Never
I consider my work	High Quality	Medium Quality	Low Quality		
My skills	Improved	Stayed the same	Got worse		
My behavior was good	Always	Nearly Always	Sometimes	Hardly Ever	Never
I added value to the class	Always	Nearly Always	Sometimes	Hardly Ever	Never

Class and Written Work

I turned in assignments	All	Some	None		
I consider my written work	High Quality	Medium Quality	Low Quality		
I participated in classroom and triad discussions	Always	Nearly Always	Sometimes	Hardly Ever	Never
I added value to the class	Always	Nearly Always	Sometimes	Hardly Ever	Never

Considering what I have stated above, I would give me the grade of

_____
(grade)

This is a true reflection of the work I feel that I did in physical education class this nine weeks.

_____
Sign your name

APPENDIX K

SCHEDULE OF PROCEDURES

SCHEDULE OF PROCEDURES

Weeks 1-3

The Standard class and the Glasser class received physical education instruction based on the middle school's curriculum guide.

No control theory was taught to either class. No reality therapy counseling was used.

Baseline data on disruptive behaviors using the DCBI were collected from the Glasser class and the Standard class.

Pretest data were collected for the Standard class and the Glasser class using the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale for Children .

Discipline office referrals records were examined and recorded for the Standard class and the Glasser class.

Weeks 4-12

The Standard class received physical education instruction with no reality therapy counseling and no control theory.

The Glasser class received physical education instruction as well as lessons on control theory and disruptive students were counseled using reality therapy.

Disruptive behavior data were collected on both classes using the DCBI.

Week 12

Posttest data were collected on both classes using the Nowicki-Strickland locus of Control Scale for Children.

DCBI data were analyzed.

Data were collected on the Standard class and the Glasser class using school discipline office referrals.

Teacher's journal data were analyzed.

APPENDIX L

MIDDLE SCHOOL RULES

MIDDLE SCHOOL RULES

SCHOOL RULES

1. Respect others and their property.
2. Follow directions of all staff and faculty members.
3. Raise your hand and wait for permission to speak.
4. Come to class prepared.
5. Obey all school rules.

REWARDS

1. Positive notes or calls home
2. Verbal praise
3. Classwide reinforcement
4. Display of student work
5. Privileges

CONSEQUENCES

1. Warning
2. Student conferences
3. Parent contact and detention
4. Teacher's option
5. Discipline notice

Severe clause: Student is sent immediately to the administrator:
- deliberately disobeying any staff member
- deliberately harming another student
- deliberately threatening school personnel