CHAPTER - I

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It is believed that grouping children on the basis of Intelligent Quotient (IQ) as high and low achievers and exposing them to a common learning situation could prove that success depended mainly on intelligence. Now many researchers have shifted their attention from intelligence to multiple factors.

There are many students who pass the examination, yet they fail to achieve as much as they can in terms of their abilities. These students are known as low achievers. They are the persons who are quite capable, but fail to achieve in conformity with their capabilities for several reasons. Perhaps many factors like lack of achievement motivation may interfere with their achievement.

Many failing children do have sufficient intelligence but are unable to progress. WAN has drawn attention to the problem of failures and wastage. He reported that during the last decade attention has been focussed not only on individual failures but on the failures of individual practice and system to inspire pupils. Only one out of eight adolescent children in the age group 14-17 years reaches secondary school. High school population is therefore highly selective, yet 50 percent failure; from the selective population is highly irksome. This does not indicate the wastage of money alone, but also of national man power. India is a developing country and she can ill-afford to waste human talent and the country’s limited resources. It is the moral obligation of the country to provide help like individual and group counselling by professionals in enabling the adolescent to develop their capacities of which they are capable.

Garrett (1949), Burgess (1956), Sinha (1966), Entwistle (1968), McClelland (1953) said that one of the major factors of low academic achievement may be low achievement motivation.

The question arises who is a low achievers? What are the sources that are available tend to agree on about children who are low achievers is that (a) they do not fit into the curriculum, pace that they majority of learners do, (b) the repeated failure they face can be damaging to their self-esteem, (c) they may be less motivated to learn due to chronic failing experiences, (d) they need more drill and repetition, (e) they may have little or negative social interactions with peers due to being viewed as failure.

Lehr (1988) in her book “At risk: Low achieving students in the Classroom”, compiles the following list of possible common characteristics of children who are low achievers. They
are academic difficulties, lack of structure, inattentiveness, distractibility, short attention span, low self-esteem, health problems, excessive absenteeism, dependence, discipline problems, narrow range of interest, lack of social skills, inability to face pressure, fear of failure, lack of motivation. Low achieving children are called on less frequently, seated farther from the teachers, giving less feedback, giving fewer work standards, praised less frequently and having less academic learning time.

The lack of published research on sets of characteristics common to children who are low achievers leave one to wonder why these children's needs are largely ignored. It also leads to the question of why there is little interest in defining the group as a whole, as an academic subject, rather than in addressing them solely within the context of environmental or racial factors.

**Concept of Achievement Motivation**

The concept of achievement motivation or need for achievement has generated a major current or activity in the psychology of motivation. It has been an object of considerable research and discussion in the recent years. It has great significance in understanding human behaviour as well as in changing it. With the application of psychology in the field of education and industry; it has become evident that motivation is crucial in the field of learning and in fact for any work performed at a high standard of excellence. The common assumption running through most contemporary theories is that motives are deficit tensional state which energise organisms until relief is obtained or equilibrium restored. In other words, motives are persistent conditions within the organism that dominate and direct the behaviour until he responds in such a way as to remove them. According to McClelland et al. (1953), Freud, Hull, Miller and Dollard, Murray and Mowrer all supported this theory while Young, Hebb, Maslow and Allport all objected to it.

According to McClelland and his associates, "A motive is the reintegration by a cue of a change in an affective situation (1953, p. 28)". The word reintegration in this definition is meant to imply previous learning. In this system all motives are learned. Again, they say "A motive is the learned result of pairing cues with affect or the conditions which produced affect (p. 75).

According to Atkinson (1966), "A motive is conceived as a disposition to strive for a certain kind of satisfaction, as a capacity for satisfaction in the attainment of certain class of incentives (pp. 12-13)". Thus the conditions for affected aroused of the motive involve not action so much as expectations. These expectations are built of universal experiences with problem solving and also involve standards of excellence with respect to such tasks. Thus
achievement motivation is to "perceive performance in terms of standards of excellence (McClelland et al., 1953, p. 78).

The concern to achieve has been identified as the motive to compete for success against some standard of excellence. Briefly it has been defined as performing in terms of a standard of excellence or simply as a desire to be successful. The achievement motive has been considered by Atkinson (1966) as a disposition to approach success (p. 13).

According to Heckhausen (1967) achievement motivation can be defined as the "striving to increase or keep as high as possible, one's capability in all activities in which a standard of excellence is thought to apply and where the execution of such activities can, therefore, either succeed or fail (pp. 4-5)". These standards of excellence according to him, may be task related, self-related or other related. The examples of these standards of excellence are degree of perfection as the result of performance, comparison with one's own earlier achievement and comparison with achievement of others as in case of competition.

The motivation of achievement related behaviour obviously deserves attention. Two pioneers in German psychology, namely, Narziss Ach and Kurt Lewin conducted research in this field. The former attempted to explain the achievement related behaviour subjects in his laboratory utilising the concept of determining tendency and the later employed the concept of "quasi-need". Later on Murray (1938) referred to achievement motive as "need for achievement" and described it as a desire "To overcome obstacles, to exercise power to strive to do something difficult as well and as quickly as possible (pp. 80-81)". According to him the desire and effects of n-achievement are "To accomplish something difficult. To master, manipulate or organise physical objects, human beings of ideas. To do this as rapidly, and as independently as possible. To overcome obstacles and attain a high standard to excel one's self, to revival and surpass others, to increase self-regard by the successful exercise of talent (p. 164)". He and his collaborators tried with their pioneering book, "Exploration in Personality" and only to define achievement but also to measure individual difference in motive strength by means of a questionnaire. According to Heckhausen (1967) these questionnaires data show very little correlation with behaviour in which competition with some standard of excellence is expressed.

In spite of the popularity of the theories of motivation not much work had been done in this area until the publication of the book "The Achievement Motive" in 1953 by McClelland and others. It is McClelland who is most noted for the work in achievement motivation. He and his associates regard it as a social motive and equate it to an inner concern with achievement, a disposition to engage in activities in which the important thing was doing well or "competition
with a standard of excellence (McClelland et al., 1958, p. 181). More recently the point that achievement motivation or n-Ach is a desire for excellence not so much for the sake of an inner feeling of personal accomplishment has been emphasised.

Atkinson (1964) is of the opinion that the theory of achievement motivation attempts to account for the determinants of the direction, magnitude and persistence of behaviour in a limited but very important domain of human activities. It applies only when an individual knows that his performance will be evaluated (by himself or by others) in terms of some standard of excellence and that the consequence of his actions will be either a favourable evaluation (success) or an unfavourable evaluation (failure). These two opposing tendencies to approach and to withdraw are inherent in any activity when the individual expects that his performance with either be a personal accomplishment or a sense of incompetence.

Vernon (1969) is of the opinion that achievement may be associated with a variety of goals, but in general the behaviour adopted will involve “activity which is directed towards the attainment of some standard of excellence (p. 121)” It may be, include competition with others in which they are surpassed. But on the other hand, the individual may be chiefly concerned to set himself a high standard of performance or level of aspiration and to reach this through his efforts, overcoming the obstacles to his success. When achievement motivation is charged up, people appear to be going about to meet realistic but challenging goals they have set for themselves, says R.S. McMullen (1973). They compete hard against themselves or against someone else and enjoy their pursuits.

Eysenck et al. (1972, Vol. 1, pp. 16-17) defines achievement motivation as “A hypothetical construct designed to explain inter and intra individual differences in orientation, intensity and consistency of achievement behaviour”. Again they have quoted Heckhausen to define achievement motivation as “the tendency to maintain and increase individual proficiency in all area in which a standard of quality is taken as binding (p. 17).

With regard to the role of achievement motivation in the field of education, a point naturally arises here for consideration. Does academic affairs or successful educational experiences increase the probability that the subject will verbalise achievement theme? The problem of causality still remains unsolved says Litting and Yeracaris (1963). The presently available data do little more than emphasis our lack of knowledge about this problem and there is no way to determine the degree of the development of achievement motivation. Recent researches indicate that achievement motive is acquired early in life as a result of parental attitude. As this early age, the parental expectations may interact with embryonic achievement motivation so as to raise it. “It seems plausible at this time to argue that n-Achievement may be
a prior condition to academic achievement (Litting and Yeracaris, 1963). By the definition itself the “Standard of excellence”, in case of achievement motivation must be imposed on the child by the culture or in other words by the parents who represent the particular culture in the family. In other words, it is the family that is responsible for the origins of achievement motivation.

According to Newcomb (1964) achievement motivation is the required tendency and one of the most important social needs. It has been defined by McClelland and his associates (1953) and also by Decharms (1968) as a disposition to strive for success in competition with others with some standard of excellence set by the individual. Motive to achieve requires an act of some norm of excellence long term involvement and unique accomplishment. These are the criteria set by McClelland and his associates (1953). In fact, this is one of the most important manifest and social needs and personality variable enlisted by Murray (1938).

Heckhausen (1967) also explains that the standard of excellence, which is one of the criteria of achievement motivation represent a classification of alternatives passed-failed, good-bad and so on.

Finger (1966) investigated some characteristic of academic motivation which is an area in achievement motivation in general such as persistence (work success) planning (time orientation) self-control, deliberateness (morality) which are present usually in high motivation individuals and lock in low motivation people. Besides these, personal responsibility, risk taking, level of aspiration, innovating activities and vocational goals, may be considered as features of achievement motivation.

Motivation is defined by Mwanwenda (1995, 259) as an energiser or a diving force, a desire or an urge that causes an individual to engage in a certain behaviour.

Mmyandu (2001, 4) defines motivation in the learning context as the willingness to engage in meaning tasks. If learners are motivated to attain a given goal their activities will involve moving in the direction of achieving that goal. The experience pleasure in tackling the task and they tend to develop inner confidence and generally expected to succeed. The opposite is true for learners who are unmotivated they tend to exhibit maladaptive behavioural patterns in that they do not value or establish reasonable goals, nor maintain striving towards these goals. The behaviour of the learner may be either intrinsically or extrinsically motivated.
**Low achievement:**

It can be defined as the low or bottom achievement in any scale or it may be defined on the basis of some percentage of marks at the extreme bottom of the scale; it can be defined according to any criteria. The definition is more subjective and there are no rules for considering low achievement according to any accepted definition. It may be defined as some laid down score or SD (standard deviation mean – 1**) below the mean on the basis of some percentage of marks or on the basis of certain numbers of subjects at the bottom of the scale. The term is not synonymous with under achievement which involves the discrepancy between the predicted and actual performance. Low achievement on the other hand is defined in terms of an absolute standard of performance. In the present study students getting less than 41% of their marks, are termed to be low achievers.

Lack of motivation is a significant factor in low achievement; however there are many reasons why students lack motivation to do well. Among other reasons they may be depressed, they may not have the information they need to be motivated to do well or they may have family based values or beliefs about schooling and work. Several researchers have looked at relational factors impacting on school motivation and achievement. Those children who have poor peer relationships and who lack the social skills to develop friendships are at high risk for academic difficulties at elementary level, and their trajectory does not improve over time. (Wentzel & Caldwell, 1997).

Academic failures and low achievers are like any educational outcome a result of complex inter connected factors. Psychological, educational and sociological research about this phenomenon has identified multiple factors which are all related. The variable most directly related to academic failure is obviously poor academic performance but there are many reasons why students don’t do well in a class and motivation is among the chief of them. (Bower & Hatch, 2002)

Researchers have found that students with low SES tend to rank low in educational attainment. Low achievement is particularly a problem in poverty areas of large cities. The major reasons for low achievement include the following:

(a) Students home and family environment do not prepare them well for success in the traditional school
(b) Genetic considerations (heredity) may interact with environment in some cases to further hamper achievement
(c) Traditionally organise and operated schools have not provided effective education for economically disadvantage students. Many problems in the schools tend to limit achievement, inappropriate curriculum and instruction, lack of previous success in school, difficult teaching conditions, differences in teacher and student backgrounds.
Teacher perceptions of student inadequacy ineffective homogeneous grouping, delivery of service problems, overly large classes, negative peer pressures and incompatibility between classroom expectations and students behavioural patterns.

According to Yaworski, weber & Ibrahim (2000:217) the low achieving students described many instances in which they felt powerlessness in motivating themselves to regulate their academic behaviour. The same authors indicate that when students put forth effort and did not achieve their expectations, their belief that effort is related to success was undermined. If much effort is exerted and failure occurs, the students will attribute failure to low ability and therefore lower his expectations for future successes as each failure is attributed to lack of ability a sense of hopelessness develops and the person stops trying altogether. This may lead to the development of a negative self concept which ultimately results in the individual experiencing the following (a) Inadequate desire to get involved in academic activities (b) withdrawal (c) lack of goal directedness (d) Feelings of hopelessness and inferiority.

Harlen & crick. 2003 said that low achievers were not motivated, refused to test and became disruptive within classrooms. The evaluation based on the test and teacher’s evaluation began the student’s construction of their identity. So if their identity is negative naturally their self-esteem would plummet and of course this would impact the student’s ability to excel in academics. Not only did the teacher and the student know the category that the student was placed in but so do their peers. Students who are compared unfavourable and publicly with their peers have low self-esteem in relation to learning avoid risks and use less effective and more superficial learning strategies. Not only do their own perceptions of themselves as learners suffer but their perception becomes shared by their peers. Testing does nothing for a students self-esteem nor does our society for pushing a test. Testing has a direct effect on a student’s belief in themselves which makes a change in the students work and attitude about school itself.

Socio-Economic Status: (SES)

Socio-economic status attempts to classify people according to socio-economic status. Considerable controversy has developed among sociologist regarding the use of the term as well as the question of class. It will therefore be worth while to classify our thinking on the subject, even if we have to disagree a little.

The various definitions of socio-economic status have been reviewed and summarised by Centers who says that much confusion can be avoided and great simplicity of conception gained if one always distinguishes clearly between stratum and class. Stratification is
something objective. It derives primarily from the economic system. The process of earning a living imposes upon people certain functions statuses and roles. Social and economic grouping and categories of people distinguished on the basis of occupation power, income standard of living, education function intelligence or other criteria are easily and properly denoted by the term stratum and state.

Moore quotes the following definition of class from a text by Sutherland and woodworth. The socio-economic status is a blending of the two status i.e. social status and economic status. First of all the term "status" we mean the recognition given to an individual by his group relation (Kelly 1951). As a rule of conversation (Cooley, 1956) in terms of the sense of belonging (Park and Burgess, 1921) it is the result of the ranking of a role by the group (Ogburn and Nimaff, 1960) that determines for its possessions of a degree of respect, prestige and influence (Maciver and Page 1937). They are thus, the ancient powers and privileges of the family bestowing prestige, authority and power (Mussen, Conger and Kagan, 1963).

Societies have thus developed two (distinct) types of status - The ascribed and the achieved (Linton, 1936; Cole and Montgomery, 1959; Ogburn and Nimcoff, 1960).

The ‘ascribed status’ is the recognition which a society gives to a person because of his position (Cole et. Al., 1959). It is assigned to individuals without any reference to their abilities or innate difference (Linton, R. 1936). Thus it can be predicted and ascertained since birth.

The ‘achieved statuses’ are those requiring special qualities although they are not necessarily limited to them. They are not assigned to an individual since birth is left open to be filled through competition (Linton, 1936 Ogburn and Nimcoff, 1960) as individual efforts (Linton 1936, Cole et al., 1959).

A social person is one who conforms to the three criteria of social development as he should behave in an approved manner, play the role which society prescribes for him and possess favourable attitudes towards people and social activities (Hurlock, 1964).

'Social status’ therefore in an indication of one’s position of respect prestige and influence in the social structure (Maciver and Page, 1936; Cole and Montagomery, 1959; Rogers, 1962) apart from his personal attributes which may either inhibit or enhance an individual’s access to sources of information and his willingness to deviate from group norms (Rogers, 1962) and may even vary with the groups (Cole et. Al., 1959).

The word “Economic” is used generally for the motives involving earning a livelihood, the accumulation of wealth and the like (Drewer, 1964). The economic endeavour entails ‘Cherishing of things because of their material value (Spranger, 1928) and the pursuer, by virtue of this activity, carves for himself a place in society recognised as “Economic status”.

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Economic Status, thus stratified modern population according to the amount and sources of income which is usually derived from a set of occupational activities the ownership of property or both.

Though none of the two statuses exist without each other yet they are distinctly different. 'Socio-economic status' appears to be the resultant of the position of an individual in a society by virtue of a complex fusion of both of them, which often do not run parallel to each other in their own areas. This intermingling takes place in an undefined and curious manner eventually to present an indicator to “socio-economic status”.

Socio-economic status would therefore, be a ranking of an individual by the society he lives in, in terms of his material belongings and cultural possessions along with the degree of respect, power and influence he wields.

The blended complex of two statuses in terms of ‘socio-economic status’ as such remains a highly important sociological concept and is usually measured in terms of occupation of father, education of father, house income social caste and class, neighbourhood material possession, land farm powers of the family etc. Classes are inclusive loosely, organised groupings whose members behave towards each other as social equals and toward outsider as social superiors or inferiors and who as individuals either stay in group to which they are born, or rise or fall to different levels depending upon the way their social attributes correspond to the values around which the particular class system is organised.

Good in his dictionary of education describes the meaning of socio-economic status as “the level indicative of both social and economic achievement of an individual or group”.

In some societies, family, religion and some other factors are the principal determinants of socio-economic status. Super has added much evidence to show that occupation is the best single index of status.

Kuppuswami has regarded occupation, income and education as the factors in socio-economic status.

According to Gordon Marshall in 1998 he said any measure which attempt to classify individuals, families or households in terms of indicators such as occupation, income and education is socio-economic status. One of the first major uses of SES can be found in the social class measures introduced by the British Registrar – General in 1911. According to Bartleby com, 2002, any individual’s or group’s position within a hierarchical social structure SES depends on a combination of variables including occupation, education income wealth and place of residence. Sociologists often use socio-economic as a means of predicting behaviour.
According to Wikipedia, the Socio-economic status comprises of different classes, the upper class, the middle class and the lower class or under class. Upper class is a concept in sociology that refers to the group of people at the top of social hierarchy. Members of an upper class often have great powers over the allocation of resources and governmental policy in their area. The phrase “Upper class” has had a complex range of meanings and usages. In many traditional societies membership of the upper class was hard and even impossible to acquire by any means other than born into it. Despite this chance of upward mobility, the upper class is according to many sociologists unattainable to those not born into upper class families. Historically, members of an upper class often did not have to work for a living as they were supported by earned or inherited investments although members of the upper class may have had less actual money than merchants. Upper class status commonly derived from the social position of one’s family and not from one’s own achievements or wealth. Much of the population that comprised the upper class consisted of aristocrats, ruling families titled people. These people are usually born into their status and historically they were not much movement across class boundaries. This is to say that it was much harder for an individual to move up in class simply because of the structure of society. In many countries the term “Upper class” was intimately associated with hereditary land ownership and titles.

The middle class, in colloquial language consists of those who have some economic independence but not a great deal of social influence or power. The term often encompasses merchants and professionals bureaucrats and some farmers and skilled workers. Social hierarchies and definitions vary. There are many factors that can define the middle class in a society such as money, behaviour and heredity. In many countries it is predominantly the amount of money that determines an individual’s position in the social hierarchy. In other countries social factors may have a strong influence. These factors include education professional or employment status, home ownership or culture. The middle class in this article refers to people neither at the top nor at the bottom of a social hierarchy. The term “Middle class” was once defined by exception as an intermediate social class between the nobility and peasantry of Europe while the nobility owned the country-side and the peasantry worked the country-side a new bourgeois (literally “town dwellers”) arose around mercantile functions in the city. This had the result that the middle class were often the wealthiest stratum of society (whereas today many take the term to refer by definition to the only moderately wealthy).

In early industrial capitalism, the middle class was defined primarily as ‘white’ collar workers – those who work for wages (like all workers) but did so in conditions that were comfortable and safe compared to the conditions for Blue collar workers of the “working
class". The expansion of the phrase “middle class” in the US appears to have been predicted in the 1970’s by the decline of labour unions in the US and the entrance of formerly domestic women into the public workforce. A great number of pink collar jobs arose, where one could avoid the dangerous conditions of blue collar work and therefore claim to be “Middle Class” even if they were making far less money than the unionised blue-collar worker,

The size of the middle class depends on how it is defined, whether by education, wealth, environment of upbringing, genetic relationships, social network, manners or values. These are all related. The following factors are often ascribed in modern usage to a “middle class”, i.e., achievement of tertiary education, academics, lawyers, engineers, doctors and clergymen regardless of their leisure or wealth, belief in bourgeois values, such as high rates of house or long term lease ownership and jobs which are perceived to be secure, lifestyles, cultural identification.

The contemporary concept is a sanitised term for what was known in the 18th and 19th centuries as the undeserving poor and may have been coined by American sociologist and anthropologist Oscar Lewis in 1961. This group according to Lewis has a strong present time orientation with little ability to delay gratification and plan for the future. The term was also used by Gunnar Myrdal in 1962 before the usage came into wide circulation in the early 1980’s following Ken Auletta’s (1982) use of the term in three articles published in New Yorker in 1981 and a book form a year later. Auletta refers to this class as a group who do not “assimilate”, identifying your main groups, i.e., (a) the passive poor, (b) the hostile street criminal drop outs, low class prostitutes and drug addicts, (c) the hustlers, (d) the traumatised drunks, homeless.

In the unified strata the term lower class is used by certain sociologists such as Dennis Gilbert to describe the most disenfranchised, Socio-economic demographic with a least access to scarce resources. Their incomes are far below the median and often fall below poverty line.

A.B. Hollingshead (1949) a sociologist who studied “Elmtown”, a small town in the American Midwest in the late 1940’s, divided the social spectrum into five classes, because most of the people he interviewed in the town he was studying were able to discern five status levels.

W. Lloyd Warner and Paul S. Lunt (1941), sociologist who studied “Yankee City” during the 1930’s decided on a three-fold scale – upper, middle and lower – with each class sub-divided into an upper and a lower segment. Thus they recognised two middle classes: an upper, middle and a lower middle, an “upper-lower class” is often referred to a “working class”. The sociologists report that differences in social status actually exist and they have
significant effects on many different aspects of thinking, feeling and behaving had an unsettling effect on many people.

Socio-economic status seems to influence a student’s attitudes, interests, values, motivation and his academic accomplishment. In this respect Vernon writes that social class is so closely associated with cultural level and with attitudes towards education that it has a marked effect on educational progress. Occupational status is an important socio-economic characteristic that goes together with educational accomplishment. Likewise economic status of the parents plays important role in this connection, because under economic deprivation smooth continuation of study becomes difficult.

Some studies report that difference in socio-economic status does not show any evidence in the difference of achievement. But it has been observed from some studies that merit scholars tend to come from higher economic status compared with non-scholars. In other words, Ramaji Rao contended that socio-economically disadvantaged children were poor in academic achievement due to poor study habits, lack of proper teaching facilities in the schools in which they study and shorter tenure of teachers handling their classes. It is thus, apparent that socio-economic status is positively associated with the academic of the students.

Social class differences tend to be correlated with a wide range of variables including the prevalence of various kinds of problem behaviour, need for achievement, need for affiliation, life-style, personality traits, authoritarianism and child rearing pattern’s.

Studies of child-rearing patterns show that Middle class parents tends to socialise more intensively with their children, are more permissive and stress self-control and individual responsibility for behaviour. Lower class parents tend to be more punitive and to stress obedience. Analysis of roles of parents’ show that working class fathers tend to be less involved in child rearing than do middle class fathers. Studies of child-rearing practices in other countries have produced findings similar to those in the United States, in that Middle class families tend to be more affectionate and permissive, less punitive, and to involve fathers in child care more than Lower class families.

Social class differences are determined by a number of variables the most significant of which appears to be occupational level, which in turn, is influenced by the amount of education completed. Education is the major avenue for social mobility but lower class children can succeed in school only if they are able to accept the goals and the norms that are basic to school achievement. Middle class children, who have built-in motives favourable to school, may benefit from highly permissive learning situations but such methods are less likely to work with slum children who seem unable to take the initiative in taking up the tasks of learning the basic
skills. Lower class children tend to have attitudes towards school that are passive or sometimes hostile and are inclined realistically or not to expect failure. On the positive side, many Lower Class Children are inspired by their teachers, success in school and escape from the slum environment. For a large number of Lower Class children the school is also a safer and more secure haven than is their home environment. The life style of the typical Lower Class home does not stimulate the development of need for achievement to any great extent, and the Lower Class child who does achieve may pay a price in terms of rejection by his family and the members of his peer group.

Consistent with the general patterns of lower class life is a tendency for authoritarian attitudes and behaviour to prevail. In some Lower Class cultures, such as that of the Mexican-American, there are compensating rewards in the form of emotional support from a closely Knit family structure. This tends to give the individual a high degree of psychological security, but makes it difficult for him to develop the achieving patterns of behaviour demanded by the host culture. The mutually reinforcing patterns of rejection and self-abasement that are experienced by Lower class people occur whenever they come in contact with a progress-oriented society.

GROUP COUNSELLING

Counselling is a special form of interpersonal communication in which feelings, thoughts, attitudes are explored, expressed and shared. The purpose is to enable decision-making through a process of explanation and clarification. The counsellor is willing to enter into this communication process and is specially trained for this purpose. The client is willing to seek and receive help for enabling him/her for decision making leading to a change. This might take place in the context of an individual interaction or through a group.

Though the activity of informal counselling was known to humanity since many years, the emergence of a full fledge and formal profession is relatively recent. Many people are still unsure what counselling means to them, they come up with varied responses that highlight the important elements in counselling. Being “Heard” as though the counsellor is really interested in the client and is really trying to understand. “Warmth” where the client feels welcomed as if the counsellor is genuinely pleased to see the client and really likes the client. “Confidentiality” is a surety that the counsellor will not reveal to anyone else what the client has said or even that the client has paid the visit, in case it is embarrassing to them. This is very important for the client to feel safe. “Equal” where both are in the same footing, with neither able to act in a superior way like an “expert” or have any power over the other. “Non-judgemental” where
neither by tone nor by gesture the client feels judged or told off for doing something wrong. "No Limits" in that the client can talk about anything at all that he or she thinks is important. "Crying" and other expressions of feeling by clients are not only permitted but are O.K. Relationship is the context within which help is both offered and received.

Counselling is not one time activity. The goal of counselling is behaviour change through enablement. This is a process involving the client and the counsellor. Here one person (the counsellor) explicitly and purposely, devotes time, attention and skill to assist another (the client/s) to draw an inner and outer resources and to empower them to solve highly personal and intimate matters and behaviours. Solutions may involve creating new perspectives and change in the client way of thinking and behaving.

Counselling is both an art and a science. A 'science' because of its underlying principles and knowledge base and an 'art' because of its blend of the counsellor's personality, techniques and skill. Counsellors often look anxiously for the techniques or approaches to enable them work effectively. More experienced counsellors use different skills at different times according to what seems to be most helpful.

Effective counselling requires much more than the practice of particular verbal skills. Counsellors need to know themselves well. They also need to know about human behaviour, social interactions and their influences. In addition, they need to have a solid theory base on which they must establish their practice. There are different approaches to counselling that have evolved based on differing philosophical views of personality. These includes the psychoanalytical, humanistic client-centered, Gestalt, Transactional analysis behavioural, rational-emotive and reality models.

Thus, counselling is defined as a relationship between a professionally trained, competent counsellor and an individual seeking help in gaining greater self understanding and improved decision making and behaviour change, skills for problem solution and / or developmental growth. Counselling is provided in a professional setting by a counsellor committed to counselling as a way of life.

With the founding of the American Group psychotherapy association followed by a results of small group research which results of small group research which generated new insights into group processes, group counselling has become a legitimate approach to dealing with the various objectives and goals of counselling. The first psychotherapy group is traditionally recognised as one begun by Joseph Hersey Pratt in 1905. Although Freud himself was interested in groups primarily as a means of learning about mass psychology and the influence of strong, powerful leaders, one of his colleges, Alfred Adler, made some progress in
adapting the methods of psycho-analysis to small groups. Other individuals from within the psycho-analytic school who focused on group activities are included Samuel Slavson, Alexander Woll, and Emanuel Schwartz.

The term group counselling has become very popular and practise under this name have been introduced in a variety of setting. There is still variation in what it means to different individuals. Professionals working in counselling and related fields have been asked to reach a consensus as to what a group is beyond the definition that a group consists of three or more members who influence each other and are influenced by others. Such a group of individuals who meet and interact with one another in a face to fact setting tend to believe that they belong to a particular group for the purpose of achieving some objective or goal.

Before looking at some specific definitions of group counselling it may be valuable to look at distinctions between three major types of group activities. Gazda says that group guidance is “organised to prevent the development of problems”. In such activities, the content includes, information about social-personal vocational-educational issues that are not ordinary taught in regular courses. Such activities usually occur in the classroom, involving the entire class. The primary purpose is to provide accurate information for use in improved understanding of self, others or a particular area of interest. On the other hand, group counselling is seen as more than prevention oriented, “growth engendering and prevention and remediation oriented”. Attitude change, and changes in cognitive processing are examples of potential goals of group counselling.

Gazda suggests three major differences between group guidance and group counselling while acknowledging that they share a great deal of similarity. First he point out that group guidance is recommended for all individuals on a regular basis, while group counselling is generally recommended only for those who are experiencing some coping difficulties in their lives. Second he points out that group guidance makes an indirect attempt to change attitudes and behaviours, while group counselling makes a direct attempt to modify attitudes and behaviours. Third, Gazda says that group guidance can be done with large, class room-size groups, whereas group counselling is most effective in small, intimate groups.

A third type of group activity is that of group psychotherapy used primarily as set of in-patient treatment for individuals who are suffering from severe emotional distress, group psychotherapy is most often seen to be remediative, adjustive – therapeutic, while counselling is thought of as developmental-educative preventive. While most professionals in the field believe that there is a difference between group counselling and group psychotherapy, most also agree that there is a great deal of overlay between them.
The distinctions between group counselling and group therapy are difficult to define, although it is generally accepted that such differences exist. George and Christiani suggest that a clear distinction between the two can best be made by giving counselling and psychotherapy as points on a continuum regarding various elements: goals, clients, settings, practitioners, and methods.

Overall, differences may be best understood in terms of the kind of goals, that are seen for each, whereas counselling is most often described as being educational, supportive, vocational, problem-solving, conscious awareness and short term in nature. Psychotherapy is most often perceived as being reconstructive, analytical, and long term, with an emphasis on severe emotional problems. The confusion resulting from the lack of agreement concerning a definition of group counselling can be seen by looking at various definitions that have already been offered. Glanz offered his definition of group counselling: “The establishment of a group of persons for the purposes of individual growth and development in the area of personal and emotional problem solving.

Muro and Freeman proposed that group counselling be used to refer to. ” A dorm of small group activity in which the participants are psychologically healthy and engaging in mutually supportive and stimulating inquiry into the values and meanings which are becoming attached to their lives in the larger world outside the group.” Gazda offered a further developed definition of a group: ‘Group work refers to the dynamic interaction between collections of individuals for prevention or remediation of difficulties or for the enhancement of patient growth/enrichment through the interaction of those who meet together for a commonly agreed on purpose and at pre-arranged times.

The definition of Weiner is offered as a simple, but important definition for us. Weiner suggests that while any group interaction can have a positive influence on the lives of individuals who are involved in that interaction and that therefore any group can be therapeutic, he defines group therapy as “a deliberate effort to alter the thinking, feelings, and behaviours of the group members.

Group counselling is not simply individual counselling applied to groups, nor is it merely an economical use of counsellor time. Many of the features of group counselling are quite unique and it would be wrong to think of it as “individual counselling in the mass. Because of the differences in the two processes, a counsellor trained in the skills of individual counselling might find herself in difficulty if she attempted group counselling without having some training in group discussion. It is essential, that a counsellor wishing to work with individuals and groups should have a thorough theoretical and practical grounding in individual
counselling theory and practice together, with some experiences of principles and practise of group dynamics.

Group counselling is a relatively new way of working to help people although it has a unique contribution to make to our range of helping skills it is not the complete answer for all psychological ills or needs. Carkhuff has written quite strongly that group processes are the preferred mode of working with difficulties in interpersonal functioning. We can do anything in group treatment that we can do in individual treatment and more since groups are inherently interpersonal they offer the helps the means not only to relate to the helper and himself with the helper's guidance but also to relate to other members of the group and to the group as a whole.

Certainly group counselling is sometimes successful with students who have not responded well to individual counselling and there are several combinations of group and individual counselling in use. The two extremes are to use either group counselling or individual counselling only as a main technique. Some counsellors feel that it is unwise to make the two methods available to the same students at the same time because students may not bring out their deepest problems in the group, reserving them for the individual counselling sessions, which could inhibit the work of the group. Other counsellors feel that individual counselling offered concurrently with group counselling gives opportunity for a student to discuss more deeply and extensively personal problem areas which they have been unable to bring out in the group, either because of their own inability or because of the lack of opportunity and a need to share the time of the group with other members. The interaction which takes place in a counselling group offers the students a means of gaining insight and understanding into his own problems through listening to other students discussing their difficulties. The counselling group not only helps the individual student to change but also often encourages both his desire and his ability to help social situation, for any group is more than the sum of its members, it is also the sum of its interactions.

The time factor in the group counselling situation is related to the purpose of the group, it is necessary for the group to meet more often than it would if the counsellor and the group members feel that the students need time between meetings to absorb and test some of the experiences learned. It is usual for the counselling groups used in education to meet once, or perhaps twice a week. The length of each group meeting will be related to the age of the pupil/people involved, and the frequency with which the group meets, but sixty to ninety minutes is probably a reasonable time span for college students, thirty to sixty minutes for secondary school pupils and no more than thirty minutes for junior school children. The composition of a counselling group is another practical consideration which is related to the
purpose of the group. Sometimes it is felt that a homogeneous group consisting of students of the same age or sex, or students who have similar problems is the most helpful, while other counsellors find that the wider talents of a heterogeneous group make for a better counselling situation. The size of a counselling group, like that of any guidance group, is related to the methodology used. A group of six to eight students is probably the best size for maximum group interaction.

As a result of research carried out into group counselling among pupils in a secondary school Ohlsen reports that with varying degrees of depth each client discovered:

1. That expressing his own real feelings about people’s things and ideas helped him to understand himself.
2. That at least one adult could accept him and that this adult, the counsellor, wanted to understand him;
3. That his peers had problems too;
4. That in spite of his faults, which they wanted to help him to correct, his peers could accept him.
5. That he was capable of understanding, accepting and helping others.
6. That he could trust others.

Group counselling in education is not group instruction nor is group therapy, but it is an experience which uses peer group support and identification in the social setting of the group to encourage students to accept and to learn more about themselves and at the same time to learn to accept and help others. ‘Group counselling is characterised by experience not by words, by being something not by talking about it. If one can experience sense of reality about one’s self in the presence of others then a step forward has been taken in the realisation of emotional maturity and security.

Some recent findings about groups reveal the following:
- Group counselling can be used to help motivate low-performing students and improve the grades and self-concepts of at-risk students.
- Learning groups geared toward cooperative sharing can help participants achieve their goals more easily.
- Support groups can help older women cope with divorce and its aftermaths.
- Group-counselling and psycho-educational programs can help persons who have sustained heart attacks deal better with stressors in their lives.
CHAPTER II

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

REVIEW AND HYPOTHESIS