Effects of Cognitive Restructuring and Solution Focused Brief Counselling Techniques on Self-Concept of Secondary School Underachievers in Ilorin Metropolis, Nigeria

By

ABDUL-HAMEED AKOREDE ZAKARIYAH

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY AND COUNSELLING,

FACULTY OF EDUCATION,

AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA

NIGERIA

OCTOBER, 2016

Effects of Cognitive Restructuring and Solution Focused Brief Counselling Techniques on Self-Concept of Secondary School Underachievers in Ilorin Metropolis, Nigeria

By

Abdul-Hameed Akorede ZAKARIYAH

B.A. (Ed).University of Ado-Ekiti (2004), M.Ed. University of Ilorin (2010)

PhD/EDUC/41750/2012-2013

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES, AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (PHD) IN EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING

OCTOBER, 2016

Declaration

The researcher declares that the work in this Thesis entitled Effects of Cognitive Restructuring and Solution Focused Brief Counselling Techniques on Self-Concept of Secondary School Underachievers in Ilorin Metropolis, Nigeria has been carried out by him in the Department of Educational Psychology and Counselling. The information derived from the literature has been duly acknowledged in the text and a list of references provided. No part of this thesis was previously presented for another degree or diploma at this or any other institution.

_____ _____

Abdul-Hameed Akorede ZAKARIYAH Date

Certification

This Thesis entitled Effects of Cognitive Restructuring and Solution Focused Brief Counselling Techniques on Self-Concept of Secondary School Underachievers in Ilorin Metropolis, Nigeria by Abdul-Hameed Akorede ZAKARIYAH meets the regulations governing the award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in Educational Guidance and Counselling of the Ahmadu Bello University, and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

_____ _____

Dr. Mustapha Ibrahim Abdullah — Date
Chairman, supervisory committee

_____ _____

Prof. Sani Sambo — Date
Member, supervisory committee

_____ _____

Prof. Raliya Muhammad Bello — Date
Member, supervisory committee

_____ _____

Dr. Muhammed I. Aisha — Date
Head of Department

_____ _____

Prof. Kabir Bala — Date
Dean, School of Postgraduate Studies

DEDICATION

This study is first and foremost dedicated to Almighty Allah for His mercy and blessing over me and my family. To my late father Alhaji Abdil-Qadir Zakariyah Ajape Oniyere (May Allah grant him Al-Janat Fridaus) and my golden mother Alhaja Zakariyah Hajarat Asabi Oniyere (May Allah spare her life with sound health to reap the fruit of her labour).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

All thanks and adoration are due to Almighty God for his love, blessing, mercy, kindness and divine guidance and support towards the realization of this educational goal, to Him all the glory. May the peace and blessing of God be upon the best of all creatures i.e. Prophet Muhammad Habibullah (S.A.W).

The researcher is immensely grateful to all his humble, able and active supervisorsDr. Mustapha A. I, (major), Prof Sani Sambo (second) Prof. Raliya M. Bello (third) and all internal supervisors Prof.Musa Balarabe, Prof. M. A. Sulaiman, Prof. K. Mahmoud, and Dr.Yunus Umar (seminar coordinator) for their proper guidance and assistance, meticulous scrutiny and thorough supervision which contributed immensely toward the successful completion of this work and the course at large. To them, he shall ever be grateful. May Almighty God reward them abundantly.

The researcher is also indebted to Dr. MuhammadI. A., the Head of Department for her motherly guidance, assistance and encouragement and all the other lecturers in the Department of Educational Psychology and Counselling and visiting lecturers for their ever-ready assistance and kindness throughout the duration of both course work and thesis writing. They are Prof. **E. F. Adeniyi,**Dr. Dominic Oliagba,Dr. J.O. Bawa, Dr. Hadiza Tukur, Mr. Luker Maude, Dr. Bagudu, and late Dr. Osas Eihosua. May God bless them all.

Profound gratitude goes to Dr. S. A. Adisa Director, Counselling and Human Development Centre, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, his school father, Dr, Oladimeji Y. Usman lecturer in the Faculty of Agric., Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria and Mr. Adio Kamaldeen (Ph.D. English in view)for their assistance in editorial review of the work, guidance and encouragement toward the successful completion of the course and this work. His appreciation also goes to all the administrative staff of the Department, such as Mall. Muazu A., Mall. Bashir A., Mr. MarcusM. and others for their assistance.

Special thanks tothe researcher's able principal, Alhaja Ahmed M.A.A. for her social, moral and financial support and the Vice Principals and the entire Staff of Government Day Secondary School, Okekere. May God bless them all. He also appreciates all the principals, V. P. Academics, school counsellors and the entire staff of the selected schools, most especially the trained research assistantsselected from each school, Yusuf A. K. (Mrs) (BCSS), Mr Jawondo (GHS) and Mr. Yiara (GDSS). May Allah assist them all.

Also, appreciation goes to allhis course mates, Jibril T. AbdulKadir, Zainab A. Gwadabe, Akintunde Josephine, Elisha N. Kolo, and Zainab Alhassan, and his humble and dearest friends Garba K. H. and his course mates and others too numerous to mention.

Sincere gratitude also goes to my golden mother for her moral, social and spiritual assistance rendered towards the realization of this educational attainment, May God spare her life to reap the fruit of her labour. Appreciation also goes to my brothers and sisters and the entire Oniyere family, friends, and well-wishers. May Allah continue to provide for their needs.

Special acknowledgement goes to my darling wives Hajiah Aminat Funke Akorede and Hajiah Rodiat Ayo Akorede and my precious children, Mall. Abdul-Qadir, Mall. Zakariyah, Sister Biliqees and Sister Hameedat for their constant love, care, support, endurance, understanding, encouragement and prayer. May God bless them abundantly.

Finally, my appreciation goes to all the people who in one way or the other rendered valuable assistance toward the production of this work and total completion of the entire course. May God continue to be with every one of us (Amen).

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the effects of cognitive restructuring and solution focused briefcounsellingtechniques on self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis, Nigeria. Five (5) research questions and five (5) null hypotheses to guide the work. Quasi-experimental design involving pre-test post-test control group with two experimental and one control groups was adopted for the study. The population of the study comprises of fifty (50) identified students with low self-concepts underachievers from SSII.The purposive sampling procedure was used in selecting (45) samples and were grouped into treatment and control. Academic self-concept scale developed by Liu and Wang (2005) was the instrument adapted for the collection of data in this study. The ANCOVA statistical tool was used to test five hypotheses raised at 0.005 alpha level of significance. The findings showed that cognitive restructuringtechnique is effective in managingself-concept of secondary school underachievers (p = 0.000), solution focused brief counselling techniqueis effective in improvingself-concept of secondary school underachievers (p = 0.000) in enhancing self-concept of secondary school underachievers. Comparing the two techniques, both were effective (p = 0.763)in improving self-concept of secondary school underachieversin Ilorin metropolis, Nigeria. The result found no significant differential effect of cognitive restructuringtechnique in improving self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis, Nigeria (p = 0.359),no significant differential effect of solution focused brief counsellingtechniquein improving self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis, Nigeria (p = 0.341).The researcher recommended school counsellors and psychologists should be encouraged to use cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques in improving self-concept among secondary school underachievers. School counsellors and psychologists should be encouraged to use both techniques in improving self-concept of male and female senior secondary school underachievers.Also, teacher should be trained by the counsellors andpsychologists on the use of cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques in enhancing self-concept of secondary school underachieversin Ilorin metropolis.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Content	**page**
Cover page	i
Title page	ii
Declaration	iii
Certification	iv
Dedication	v
Acknowledgements	vi
Abstract	vii
Table of Contents viii	
List of Tables	xi
List of Appendices	xii
List of Abbreviations	xiii
Operational Definition of Terms	xiv
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	
1.1 Background to the study	1
1.2 Statement of problem	5
1.3 Objectives of the study	6
1.4 Research Questions	6
1.5 Hypotheses	7
1.6 Basic Assumptions 8	
1.7 Significance of the study	8
1.8 Scope and delimitation of the study	10

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1Introduction 11

2.2 Conceptual Frame Work 11

2.2.1 Overview of self-Concept 12

2.2.2 Overview of Underachievers 21

2.2.3 Self-Concept and Underachievement 36

2.2.4 Cognitive Restructuring Technique 42

2.2.5 Solution Focused Brief Technique 51

2.3Theoretical Frameworks 63

2.3.1 Cognitive Behaviour Therapy 63

2.3.2 Humanistic Theory of Carl Rogers 66

2.3.3 Achievement Goal Approach Theory of Butler 69

2.3.4 Cognitive Development Theory of Jean Piaget 69

2.3.4 Social Learning Theory by Albert Bandura 72

2.3.5 Multimodal Theory of Academic Achievement 74

2.3.6 Fundamental Psychological Needs for Students Theory 76

2.3.7 The Self-Determination Theory 78

2.4 Empirical Studies 79

2.5 Summary 99

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction 101

3.2 Research Design 101

3.3 Population of the Study 102

3.4 Sample and Sampling Technique 102

3.5 Instrumentation 103

3.5.1 Validity of the Instrument 104

3.5.2 Pilot Testing 104

3.5.3 Reliability of the Instrument 105

3.6 Procedure for Data Collection 105

3.7 Treatment procedure 106

3.8 Procedure for Data Analysis 112

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction 113

4.2 Demographic Data Presentation 113

4.3: Answer to Research Questions 114

4.3 Hypotheses Testing 118

4.4 Summary of Major Findings 123

4.5 Discussions 124

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1Introduction 132

5.2 Summary 132

5.3 Contribution of study to Knowledge 133

5.4 conclusion 133

5.5 Recommendations 134

5.6 Suggestions for Further Studies 135

5.7 Limitation of the Study 136

References 137

Appendices 152

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: Distribution of samples in to three schools 103

Table 4.1: Distribution of respondents in two treatment and one control groups 113

Table 4.2: Distribution of respondents by gender 114

Table 4.3: Means and standard deviation of Pretest and Posttest mean scores on self-concept of Underachievers exposed to CRCT and Control 114

Table 4.4: Means and standard deviation of Pretest and Posttest mean scores on self-concept of Underachievers exposed to SFBCT and Control 115

Table 4.5: Means and standard deviation of Pretest and Posttest mean scores on self-concept of Underachievers exposed to CRCT and SFBCT 116

Table 4.6: Means and standard deviation of Pretest and Posttest mean scores on self-concept of male and female Underachievers exposed to CRCT. 116

Table 4.7: Means and standard deviation of Pretest and Posttest mean scores on self-concept of male and female Underachievers exposed to SFBCT 117

Table 4.8: One-way Analysis of Covariance on Effect of CRCT against a Control Group 118

Table 4.9: One-way Analysis of Covariance on Effect of SFBCT against a Control Group. 119

Table 4.10: One-way Analysis of Covariance on the Differential Effect of CRCT and SFBCT. 120

Table 4.11: One-way Analysis of Covariance on the Differential Effect of CRCT on Self-Concept of Male and Female Underachievers. 121

Table 4.12: One-way Analysis of Covariance on the Differential Effect

of SFBCTon Self-Concept of Male and Female Underachievers 122

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix **Page**

1. Academic Self-Concept Scale 152

2. Treatment Phase I: Cognitive Restructuring Counselling Technique (CRCT) 154

3. Treatment Phase II:Solution Focused Brief Counselling Technique (SFBCT) 162

4. SPSS Computation Output 168

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

SC:	Self-concept
SSU:	Secondary School Underachievers
CRCT:	Cognitive restructuring Technique
SFBCT:	Solution Focused Brief Technique
CG:	Control Group.
SSII:	Senior Secondary II
IQ:	Intelligent Quotient
SSCE:	Senior Secondary Certificate Examinations
WAEC:	West African Examinations Council
NECO:	National Examinations Council
CBT:	Cognitive Behaviour Therapy
AGAT:	Achievement Goal Approach Theory
SLT:	Social Learning Theory
ASCS:	Academic Self-Concept Scale
ANCOVA:	Analysis of Covariance

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following are the operational definition of terms as used in this study:

Self-concept:- refers to students' perception of competencies in their academic achievement situations

Secondary School Underachievers: - are students whose average scores are not more than 49 in English Language, Mathematics, Civic Education and Computer Science.

Cognitive restructuring Technique: - is the counselling technique that is used to modify or changeunderachievers' irrational thoughts to make them think rationally and thereby enhancing their self-concept.

Solution Focused Brief Technique: - is theconversational skills required of the counsellor to invite underachievers to build solution that is needed to diagnose and treat their lowself-concept.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Self-concept is the image that people have of themselves. This image is formed in a number of ways, but is particularly influenced by interactions with important people and events in their life. Many scholars described self-concept in different ways such as the perception or image of one's abilities and uniqueness. At first, one's self-concept is very general and changeable... as one grows older, these self-perceptions become much more organized, detailed, and specific (Pastorino& Doyle-Portillo, 2013). According to Abdulkadir (2011), self-concept may be high or low. It refers to a man's nature or personality, image or the qualities that makes up the individual.Ajoku (1998) pointed out different terminologies used to represent self-concept such as self-esteem, self-image, self-identity, self-perception, self-acceptance and self-worth. In this study, self-concept comprises among others the above terminologies.

Research conducted by Marsh, (2004) has established that there is close relationship between self-concept and academic achievements of students. Students with high self-concept participate enthusiastically in the learning process. Such students are more confident, active and motivated towards learning and perform better in examination as compared to those students with low self-concept because self-concept is the significant tool that differentiates between academic achiever and underachiever students.The lower the self-concept, the lower the aspiration for academic success; because the lower the aspiration, the lower the achievement and vice versa. This situation occurs because the students' actions are influenced by their self-concept as it is the basis for all motivated behaviour(Ahmad, Zeb, Ullah, & Ali, 2013). Gender has also beenhighlighted to influence academic self-concept and academic achievement in various studies done on gender, self-worth, and academic achievement among students.A significant difference in

self-concept was noted between males and females and in their academic achievements (Lanza, Osgood, Eccles, & Wigfield, 2002; Sar-Abadani-Tafreshi, 2006).

Achievement can be described as something which someone has succeeded in doing. In education, the term academic achievement refers to the performance or accomplishment of students in academic or learning task (Ngwoke, Numonde, & Ngwoke, 2013). It is used to indicate the degree of success attained in some general or specific area of academic task (Enyi, 2009). Academic underachievementcan be defined as a discrepancy between the child's school performance and some index of his/her actual ability. That is, one whose achievement score is lower than his/her ability score. Ability may be measured by test scores or even by observing the child at home or at school. Underachievement is most commonly defined as a discrepancy between potential (or ability) and performance (or achievement). A student who appears capable of succeeding in school but is nonetheless struggling is referred to as an underachiever (Coil, 2010; McCoach&Siegle, 2001).Based on the definitions, underachievers can be described as students who, in a significant way, are not working up to their potential. These students often see 'YOU CAN DO BETTER' written boldly in red on their homework, test papers, and report cards and receive this message in many other ways, both verbally and nonverbally.For a variety of reasons they continue to do much less than they are capable of doing.

The low academic achievement of students in external examinations in Nigeria has become a source of great concern to all the stakeholders in the education sector. This calls for concerted efforts for remediation (Ngwoke, Numonde, & Ngwoke, 2013). This problem if not urgently addressed will lead to academic failure in final examinations such as the examinations conducted by the West African Examinations Council (WAEC) and the National Examinations Council (NECO). To buttress this, Ali (2009) claimed thatmost secondary school leavers failed the May-June examinations conducted by WAEC and NECO.Of the candidates who sat for the year 2009 May/June Senior Secondary Certificate Examinations, 84% failed. Also, of the candidates who

registered for 2013 WASSCE (May/June edition), 20.04% obtained credits in English language, Mathematics and at least three other subjects (Ogundare, 2013). Though not all these failures wereunderachievers, majority of them may be described as academic underachievers since their failure may not be attributed to any learning disability or difficulty.

For a better clarification of who the underachieversare; here are their major characteristicsas mentioned by Williams (2008) irresponsibility, laziness, poor study skills,lower attainment value on learning, and disinterest in school, as well as lower academic self-concept which is the focus of this work. Based on the findings of some researchers, academic underachievement has no gender barrierbecause it affects both sexes but in different forms and rates. Weiss (cited in Chukwu-etu, 2009) posited that gender differences affect underachievement, with approximately 25% of females who are above-average in academic performance may be considered underachievers as compared to 50% of above-average males.

Cognitive restructuring was originally developed by Albert Ellis and Arron Beck. It is a psychotherapeutic process of learning to identify and dispute irrational or maladaptive thoughts. That is, a coping technique; substituting negative, self-defeating thoughts with positive, affirming thoughts that change perceptions of stressors from threatening to nonthreatening(Dombeck, 2014). In this technique, four major steps are to be followed. They are: identification of problematic cognitions known as "automatic thoughts" which are dysfunctional or negative views of the self, world, or future; identification of the cognitive distortions in the automatic thoughts; rational disputation of automatic thoughts with the Socratic dialogue and development of a rational rebuttal to the automatic thoughts (Hope, Burns, Hyes, Herbert &Warner, 2010).

The researcher’s choice of cognitive restructuring is based on its efficacy in managing both cognitive and behaviour problems as noted by Ekennia, Otta, andOgbuokiri (2013).The purpose of cognitive restructuring is to widen students’ conscious perspective and thus allow room for a change in low self-concept perception to a positive one because cognitive restructuring has been

used to help individuals experiencing a variety of psychological or psychiatric conditions, including low self-concept, depression, substance abuse disorders, anxiety disorders, bulimia, social phobia, borderline personality disorder, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder(ADHD), and gambling, just to name a few (Chronis, Gamble, Roberts, & Pelham, 2006).Cognitive restructuring helps students consider any maladaptive patterns in their thinking-feeling-behaviour cycles.

Solution Focused Brief Technique (SFBT), often referred to as simply 'solution focused therapy' or 'brief therapy', is a type of talking therapy based upon social constructionist philosophy. It focuses on what clients want to achieve through therapy rather than on historical background of problem(s) that made them seek help (Guterman, 2006).Solution Focused Brief Technique(SFBT) is used to treat the entire range of clinical and psychological disorders, and in educational and business settings. Meta-analysis and systematic reviews of experimental and quasi-experimental studies indicate that SFBT is a promising intervention for the youth with externalizing behaviour problems and those with school psychology and academic problems, withsignificant effect measures. The researcher prefers this technique because it has been used by many researchers to find solution to problems like Parent-child conflict, child behaviour problems, diabetes, domestic violence, suicide, self-harm, alcoholism, substance abuse, gambling, depression, anxiety, schizophrenia, delinquency, antisocial behaviour, life coaching, poor self-concept, school counselling related issues (Pichot& Dolan, 2003; Stephen, 2014). It is the belief of the researcher that application of SFBT will beuseful in enhancing the self-concept of secondary school underachievers.

From theexplanations so far, it is clear that low academic self-concept may be one cogent aspect of affective domain that contributes immensely to the academic failure of secondary school students irrespective of gender, or age (Wilson, 2009). In this regard, cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques would be applied and tested if they would be of useful measures to strengthen the self-concept and self-confidence of these secondary school

academic underachievers due to their records of efficacy in managing same or related psychological and behavioural problems in the past.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The low academic achievement of students in external examinations in Nigeria has become a source of great concern to all stakeholders in education, Kwara State is not an exception. Many secondary school students in Kwara State fail their external examinations, while some drop-out and tagged as academic underachievers. These may be as a result of poor academic self-concept or other affective domain variables.In teaching and learning situation students who have positive self-concept are actively involved in learning process, while the others who are quite passive with negative self-concept usually experience academic failure. It can be stated that, self-concept is critical and central variable in human behaviours. Individuals with positive self-concept are expected to function more effectively; this is evident in interpersonal competence and intellectual efficiency.In contrast, negative self-concept is correlated with personal and social maladjustment and academic underachievement (Olorunfemi-Olabisi &Akomolafe, 2013).

For secondary school underachievers to be helped, there is need to expose them to counselling interventions techniques and programmes that will help them reshape their self-concept. This may reverse their ugly trends of academic underachievement so that theycan become successful students to be proud of, be it at home and school, and worthy ambassadors of the nation as a whole. Various cognitive behavioural modification techniques like cognitive behaviour, self-management, token economy, time out,modelling counselling techniques and many others have been used by many researchers to treat students with affective domain disorders like depression, anxiety, negative self-concept, low self-esteem, attitude and motivation, attention deficit, hyperactivity disorder and many others at various level of educations, but none of them combined both cognitive restructuring and solution focusedbrief counselling techniques to enhance students' poor academic self-concept. Thus, the researcher deems it necessary tofocusthis work on the

effectivenessof cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques on self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The study was to achieve the following objectives:

1. To examinethe effectiveness of cognitive restructuring counselling techniqueon the self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis
2. To examine the effectiveness of solution focused brief counselling technique on the self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis.
3. To find out the differentialeffectiveness of cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques on the self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis.
4. To examine the differential effectiveness of cognitive restructuring counsellingtechniqueon the self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis.
5. To examine the differentialeffectiveness of solution focused brief counsellingtechnique on the self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis.

1.4 Research Questions

Based on the above objectives, five research questions were raised.

1. What is the effectiveness of cognitive restructuringcounsellingtechniqueon self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis?
2. What is the effectiveness ofsolution focused brief counsellingtechniqueon self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis?

3. What is the differentialeffectiveness of cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counsellingtechniques on the self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis?
4. What is the differentialeffectiveness of cognitive restructuring counsellingtechnique on the self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis?
5. What is the differentialeffectiveness of solution focused brief counsellingtechnique on the self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis?

1.5 Hypotheses

The following hypotheses guided the study

Ho_1 There is no significant effectiveness of cognitive restructuring counsellingtechnique on self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis.

Ho_2 There is no significant effectivenessof solution focused brief counsellingtechnique on self-conceptof secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis.

Ho_3 There is no significant differentialeffectiveness of cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counsellingtechniques on the self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis.

Ho_4 There is no significant differentialeffectiveness of cognitive restructuring counsellingtechniqueon the self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis.

Ho_5 There is no significant differentialeffectiveness of solution focused brief counsellingtechniqueon the self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis.

1.6 Basic Assumptions

The basic assumptions underlying the study were:

1. It is assumed that cognitive restructuring counsellingtechniquemay have effectiveness on the self-concept of secondary school underachievers.
2. It is assumed thatsolution focused brief counsellingtechniquemay have effectiveness on the self-concept of secondary school underachievers.
3. It is assumed that there may be differentialeffectivenessof cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counsellingtechniques on the self-concept of secondary school underachievers.
4. It is assumed alsothat cognitive restructuring counsellingtechnique may have differentialeffectiveness on the self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers.
5. It is assumed also that solution focused brief counselling technique may have differentialeffectiveness on the self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers.

1.7 Significance of the Study

It is hoped that the findings of this work would make valuable contribution to knowledge and research especially in the areas of psychology and counselling by pointing out the effectiveness of both cognitive restructuring and solution focused counselling techniques on the self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis. It is hope that the findings of this work, would add value to therapeutic building in behaviour modification and management most especially in cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques in remolding the self-concept of secondary school underachievers so as to make them think positively about their personal and academic ability.

The findings of this research work will be significant to school counsellors and psychologists. It will be of great importance towards improving their level of awareness about the relationship between poor academic self-concept and academic underachievement among

secondary school students. It will also increase their awareness of the effectiveness of cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques in enhancing the self-concept of secondary school underachievers.

It is hope that the findings of this study will also helpparents,teachers and school authorities in understanding the negative impact of poor academic self-concept on the low academic performance of affected students. The findings of the study will help to provide information to parents, school authorities and teachers on the antecedents of low academic self-concept and academic underachievement and the possibility of sending their low academic self-concept and underachiever students to counselling clinic for therapeutic intervention that will assist them to develop coping skill in order to achieve their maximum potentials to improve their academic achievements

To students, the findings will assist them to understand the influence of poor academic self-concept on their academic performance as well as the effectiveness of cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques needed for the development of self-help to improve their self-concept and academic performance.The students who are able to gain control over their low academic self-concept after their exposure to treatments will develop self confidence in their ability to control and direct their behaviours and consequently achieve their goals especially in academic performance.

The findings of this work will be an eye opener to government and related agencies that control secondary school education such as the Kwara State Teaching Service Commission (KWTSC) and others to understand that poor academic self-concept may contribute to low academic performance amongstudents. There ishave the need to develop policy and embark onprogrammes that will enhance students' academic self-concept and academic performance.

To the community that experiences poor SSCE results on yearly basis,the findings of the study will help them in understanding the negative effects of poor academic self-concept on the academic achievement of their wards.Poor academic self-concept is one of the major silent factors

that undermine the students' academic performance which later leads to academic underachievement that is underrated by the community.

It will also serve as a reference data for counselling programme on how to improve low academic self-concept of the victim students in order to enhance their academic performance as well as to serve as valuable source of information for subsequent researchers in the same or related area(s).

1.8 Scope and Delimitation of the Study

The study was designed to examine the effect of cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques on self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis, Kwara State, Nigeria. The study investigatedthe effect of two counselling techniques (cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief techniques) on self-concept of secondary school underachievers. The study was limited to academic self-concept of SSII secondary school academic underachievers with the application of academic self-concept scale as well as administration of treatment procedures to the subjects. For effective and efficient work, the study covered three secondary schools inIlorin metropolis which comprisedpartsof three Local Government Areas (Ilorin East, Ilorin South and Ilorin West).

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the review of relevant literatures was discussed under three major subheadings: Conceptual framework, Theoretical framework and Empirical studies.

2.2 Conceptual Framework

The flow chart of the variables (figure 2.1) showing the various self-concept of underachievers and the counselling modification techniques used to manage theirmanifestation.

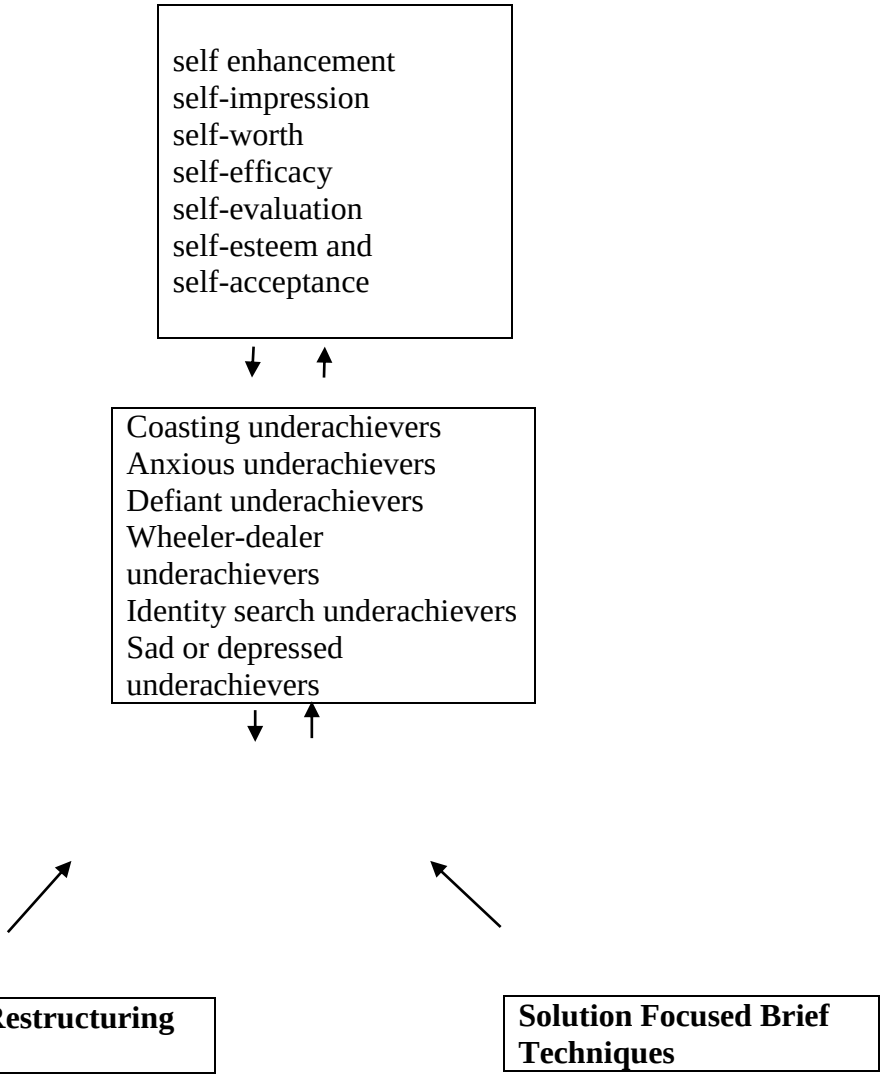


Figure 2.1 Conceptual Framework

2.2.1 Overview of self-concept

The word self-concept emanated from the term ‘self’ which is an individual who can be regarded as the perceiver of the outer world and the internal feelings.Self is how a man or woman perceives or describes a feeling of his/her own bythe use of ‘me’ which is an embodiment of past experiences and future goals (Abdulkadir, 2011). Self is the most important factor affecting

behaviour including learning. It is the factor that gives consistency and stability to behaviour (Ajoku, 1998). Therefore, self-concept is a general term used to refer to someone who thinks about or perceives himself.Self-concept is how people think about and evaluate themselves. To be aware of oneself is to have a self-concept (McLeod, 2008).Self-concept is, strictly defined, as the totality of our beliefs, preferences, opinions and attitudes organized in a systematic manner, towards our personal existence. Simply, it is how people think of themselves and how one should think, behave and act out his various life roles.Self-concept is the image that people have for themselves. This image is formed in a number of ways, but particularly influenced by one'sinteraction with important people in his life. Self-concept is people's perception or image of their abilities, their uniqueness and their limitation. At first one's self-concept is very general and changeable... As we grow older, these self-concept become much more organized, detailed, and specific (Pastorino& Doyle-Portillo, 2013). A self-concept is a collection of beliefs about one's own nature, unique qualities, and typical behaviour.

Your self-concept is your mental picture of yourself; it is a collection of self-perceptions. For example, a self-concept might include such beliefs as 'I am easygoing' or 'I am pretty' or 'I am hardworking' (Weiten, Dunn, & Hammer, 2012).The *individual self* consists of attributes and personality traits that differentiate one from other individuals (for example, 'introverted'). The *relational self* is defined by one relationship with significant others (for example, 'sister'). Finally, the *collective self* reflects one's membership in social groups (for example, 'Nigerian') (Crisp, & Turner, 2007). A person's self-concept is composed of subjective conscious and unconscious self-assessments, physical attributes, occupation, knowledge, and abilities of the person which change throughout the life span, contributing to changes in one's self-concept (Manning, 2007). Self-concept forms one'spersonal attitude.It has been noted that attitudes are usually tied-in with self-worth (self-concept). Making a bad decision or choice has strong negative effects on self-concept and a greater motivation for attitude change (Huffman, 2002). What must be notedis that people

with low self-concept often show attitudes that are not based on the way things really are, but on their own feelings of inadequacy. This makes it impossible for them to have a happy positive attitude (Addison, Antwi, and Avonokadzi, 2014). If one finds that his/her beliefs (cognitions) are contradictory (dissonant), it makes one uncomfortable and put him in a state of cognitive dissonance (Blonna, 2005).

Based on the above definitions, Self-concept is a general view about oneself across various sets of specific domains and perceptions based on self-knowledge and evaluation of values formed through experiences in relation to one's environment.That is to say, Self-concept is the way people think about themselves. It is unique, dynamic, and always evolving. This mental image of oneself influences a person's identity, self-esteem, self-image, and role in the society. As a global understanding of oneself, self-concept shapes and defines who we are, the decisions we make, and the relationships we form. Self-concept is perhaps the basis for all motivated behaviour be it personal-social or academic behaviour.Olsen, Breckler and Wiggins (2008) contend that self-concept is a disposition that a person has which represents the judgments of their own worthiness. Furthermore, Stupnisky, Perry, Renaud and Hladkyj (2013) affirm that self-concept corresponded positively to students' physical and psychological health.

Self-concept is broadly seen as the image that the person holds about himself, it usually includes: attitudes, feelings and knowledge about abilities, skills, appearance and social acceptability. It is a multi-dimensional construct that refers to an individual's perception of self in relation to a number of academic and nonacademic characteristics in which no characteristic exists in isolation, as one's self concept is a collection of beliefs about oneself. Despite differing opinions about the onset of self-concept development, researchers agree on the importance of self-concept in influencing people's behaviours, cognitive and emotional outcomes including but not limited to academic achievements (Gemeay, Behilak, Kanona, & Mansour, 2013). Therefore, self-conceptrefers to a student's perceptions of competence or adequacy in academic and nonacademic

(social, behavioural, and athletic) domains and it is best represented by a profile of self-perceptions across domains.According to Tan and Yates (2007), Self-concept is an important construct in psychology and education.The construct which is derived from the self-worth theory that proved self-concept to be associated with a wide range of performance indicators. These include sets of characteristics, attributes, qualities and deficiencies, capacities and limits, or values and relationships that the person knows to be descriptive of him/her and which he/she perceives as data concerning his/her identity (Peixoto, 2003, Jackson, et al. 2001, &Matovu, 2012). According to Taathadi (2014), when students understand themselves and view themselves ideally in real terms, they will have a positive self-concept. Conversely, when students' views of themselves are not in accordance with the ideal view, then they will be vulnerable to negative or low self- concept. Self-concept is an overall evaluative dimension of the self (Santrok, 2003). Students judge themselves comprehensively, so they obtain a clear concept. Coopersmith (1967) in Taathadi (2014) argues that self-concept can have two types of levels, there are high self-concept and low self-concept. Students who have high or positive self-concept will look at themselves that they are able to do something and doubtless that they can do anything. However, students who have negative self-esteem (low self-concept),will look down upon themselves when they failed to do well academically.They will interpret themselves as worthless individuals, feel that schooling is meaningless and hopeless, and will lead them to become academic underachievers (Mruk, 2006, p. 153).In an ideal scenario, Emmanuel, Okreke, and Anayochi (2015) concluded that students with high self-concept and high perceived academic control would have a better well-being coupled with higher rates of academic achievement.

Many students in the Nigerian Senior Secondary Schools and Colleges of Education suffer the negative effects of irrational beliefs/misconceptions which in the long run translate into low self-concept. Low self-concept means harbouring low opinion of oneself, treating oneself disdainfully, or having a poor image of oneself (Addison, Antwi, & Avonokadzi, 2014). Students

with low self-concept, and who dislike themselves rarely establish healthy relationship or communicate with others successfully and are uncomfortable with others. A student with low self-esteem who is repeatedly criticized, treated unfairly, not allowed to think or act independently, compared unfavourably with others, humiliated repeatedly in front of others or made to feel worthless and unwanted will very likely develop low self-concept and suffer feelings of inadequacy. Therefore, changing such negative thoughts and low self-concept is necessary through relevant cognitive modification technique because altering destructive thoughts will enable the person to live more effectively (Akinteye, 2011). As a result, self- conceptis a multidimensional construct, having one general facet and several specific facets, one of which is 'academic self-concept'.In general facet,self-concept hasbeen defined as confidence in one's ability to succeed in any accomplishing task. Then academic self-concept refers to students' belief that they can successfully engage in and complete courses – specific academic tasks, such as accomplishing course outcomes, demonstrating competency skills used in the course, satisfactorily completing assignments, passing the course, and meeting the requirements to continue in their majors (Jimenez–Soffa, 2006).The term 'academic self-concept' is generally defined as a person's perception of self with respect to achievement in school.Itcan be characterized by two elements. First, academic self-concept reflects descriptive (*I like Math*) as well as evaluative (*I am goodat Math*) aspects of self-perception. Second, self-perceptions associated with academic self-concept which tend to focus on scholastic competence, rather than attitudes (Franken, 1994). It is referred to as a person's perception of self with respect to achievement in school. Ngwoke, Numonde, and Ngwoke (2013) define academic self-concept beliefs as students' beliefs in their ability to perform the necessary behaviour to produce a certain outcome (for example, one has enough motivation to study hard for a test). Academic self-concept concerns judgment of one's capability based on mastery criteria. It is a sense of one's own competence within a specific frame. It focuses on own assessment of one's abilities in relation to goals and standard rather than comparison with others'

capabilities (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). A student's self-perception of academic ability or achievement will affect their school performance. Academic self-concept refers to individuals' knowledge and perceptions about themselves in academic achievement situations, that is one's self-perceived ability within a given academic area (Ferla, Valcke, &Cai, 2009). The term academic self-concept has beendefinedby Flowers, Raynor and White (2013) as an important educational and psychological construct in educational settings for several decades. They maintain further thatin general, academic self-concept is a psychological construct employed to describe a students' belief regarding their ability in a particular academic area (like biology).It refers to an individual's understanding and perceptions about themselves inacademic achievement situations.Valentine, DuBois, and Cooper (2004) argue that academic self-concept is a student's self-perception of his ability developed through specific endeavours and academic interactions. Academic self-concept is referred to by Matovu (2012) as a person's self-evaluation regarding specific academic domains or abilities. In other words, academic self-concept is how students do school work or feel about themselves as learners. Although there is no doubt that excellence in academic life demands high level of intelligence. But, in addition to intelligence, recent studies have indicated that there are other factors that can be useful predictors of academic performance. One of the factors is self-concept.

Students' Personal Measures of Combating Low Self-Concept

Self-concept is the regard which people hold of themselves and it can be low or high. It has been shown that low self-concept is widespread among students and also people with low self-concept have more emotional problems than the others do (Addison, Antwi, & Avonokadzi, 2014). To achieve higher self-concept and overcome low self-concept,Lamberton and Minor-Evans(2002)opine that differences are what make everyone so interesting and therefore students have to learn how to accept and believe in themselves.

Development of Locus of control is the perceived center of control over the events in people's lives. According toLamberton and Minor-Evans (2002),people with an internal locus of control feel that they are in control of events in their own lives and have more of a take-charge attitude and therefore relate to both higher self-concept and better physical health, On the other hand, people with an external locus of control feel that the world has not been good to them and that they have no control over the events in their lives. McLeod(2007) citing Roger (1959) maintains that "As no one else can know how we perceive, we are the best experts on ourselves". He also maintains that self-concept also means "the organized, consistent set of perceptions and beliefs about oneself". Believe in oneself of being capable of doing and succeeding in certain endeavours leads to self-concept and high self-esteem(Antwi, & Avonokadzi, 2014).

Another way of achieving high self-concept is for one to develop a winning skill. This adds to one's self-efficacy. Also developing oneself-efficacy will teach one to focus on achievements which is necessary for growth, and finally, one will begin to feel more self-respect and self-worth. Again, building high self-concept is to study confident people. By doing this, one can learn skills from others that one can apply to his or her own life (Lamberton & Minor-Evans, 2002). Also, reading biographies of people you admire and renting videos on the lives of successful people will help one with many self-concept hints.

Another step in trying to build self-concept is to stop the persistent habit of procrastination. Indeed most people tend to procrastinate, and since procrastination is the thief of time, it hurts self-concept to a great extent. To overcome the problem of procrastination, one must identify the emotions that are blocking him or her from action and deal with them. Once these emotions are overcome one's self-concept will be boosted (Asddison, Antwi, & Avonokadzi, 2014).

Yet another way of boosting one's self-concept is to find a mentor. A mentor is someone who takes you through experiences that are new to you, but which he/she (the mentor) has already been through. According to Lamberton and Minor-Evans (2002), true mentoring involves two

people communicating well on one, mostly teaching and the other mostly learning.Since mentors are not always available, in their absence the next best person one can fall on is a role model. A role model is someone one can look up to for guidance by example, but who is not necessarily actively interacting with you. Role models and mentors are people who can help you to build your self-concept.

The use of positive self-talk is another way of boosting self-concept. Positive self-talk means telling your subconscious mind that you are "OK" and doing fine". Psychologists believe that when you believe in something very strongly, through self-suggestion there is the likelihood that it would happen. This is what psychologists call the self-fulfilling prophecy, also called power of self-suggestion. By one's beliefs and the actions that follow, one fulfils the prophecy or expectation one holds about his or her future behaviour. All these make for positive self-concept in the long run (Waitley, 1993 in Lamberton & Minor-Evans, 2002).

Huffman, K. (2002) also believes that hard work also enables people to achieve goals and this builds positive self-concept. Hardiness is a learned behaviour. She maintains that "if you're not one of the hardy souls, you can develop the trait" (Addison, Antwi, & Avonokadzi, 2014)**.**This phenomenal development indicates that secondary school students experiencing low self-concept need a combination of intellectual skills, motivational qualities, and social emotional skills to succeed in school (Hamoud, El Dayem & Ossman, 2011).

Gender and Self-Concept

One factor that has been considered as having an effect on academic self-concept among students is gender. It is an important factor which influences the growth, emergence and application of self-concept because sex differences in self-concept development are well documented and generally point to reliable conclusions (Nagy, Trautwein, Baumert, Koller, & Garrett, 2006; Wilson, 2009; Mohammad, 2010).There are differences in some research findings as some researches indicate that girls have lower academic self-concept than boys.Some have

shown no gender difference in the academic self-concept of students, while others concentrate on differences in subject-specific academic self-concepts between genders (Nagy, et al., 2006; Olszewski-Kubilius& Turner, 2002). According to Mohammad (2010),numerous differences have been found between males and females in their level of self-concept during adolescence because they tend to adapt to gender stereotypes. Wilson (2009) observed that there are differences in instrumentation between the studies of academic self-concept. Three of the studies that found no differences in self-concept between genders used a general measure of academic self-concept, rather than analyze more specific subscales or subject-area domains. The final study that did not find differences only tested mathematics self-concept. However, several studies that also used general measures did find that those boys with higher academic self-concept than girls only used one subject-area domain. More conclusive than the studies that used general measures of academic self-concept were the studies that investigated gender differences in subject-specific domains. Bong (1999) in Ngwoke, Numonde and Ngwoke (2013) made several important discoveries when investigating personal factors affecting academic self-concept judgments. Girls' self-concept perceptions were more subject specific than boys, and girls in particular showed greater differentiation between verbal and mathematics subjects. Gender differences are related to developmental level. There is little evidence for differences in self-concept among elementary – aged children. Differences begin to emerge following children's transition to middle or junior high school, with girls typically showing a decline in self-concept beliefs. The various studies appear to be inconclusive.

In general, girls had higher academic self-concept in verbal areas such as language arts than boys, while boys had higher academic self-concept in Mathematical areas (Nagy et al., 2006; Olszewski-Kubilius& Turner, 2002; Plucker& Stocking, 2001). Specifically, Nagy and colleagues and Plucker and Stocking found that girls rate themselves higher in Biology, while boys rate themselves higher in Mathematics. Olszewski-Kubilius and Turner found that more than twice as

many boys than girls rated themselves higher in Math than in language arts. Lewis and Knight (2001) found that girls tended to rate themselves higher in intellectual domains (such as being 'smart'), while boys tended to rate themselves higher in school status domains (such as being a 'good student'). While Mohammad (2010) claimed that male self-concept are thought to be more impressed by goals characterized by independence and autonomy, while self-concept in female is more influenced by goals related to interdependence and sensitivity (Cross and Slater, 1995).There is no consensus in the research as to the direction and extent of gender effects on academic self-concept for students.This may be due to differing subject-area academic self-concept between genders (Wilson, 2009). But it has been revealed that girls do better in school, get higher grades and can graduate from high school at a higher level than boys (Jacob, 2002).

Based on the analysis above, Matovu (2012)summarises that in several studies on gender differences in academic self-concept, it has been reported that males and females possess different beliefs about their academic competencies, with males showing higher academic self-concept than females. Different studies have also posited that males tend to have higher academic self-perceptions in science courses while females have higher academic self-perceptions in non-science courses.Jacob,Lanza, Osgood,Eccles andWigfield(2002) highlightthat gender differences in academic self-perceptions start as early as elementary school and remain stable through adolescence to adulthood. With reference to this situation, most of the university students are adults whose academic self-concept can be highlighted in the same way. In a paper by Marsh (2006),it is highlighted that small stereotype gender differences linearly decline in mean levels of academic self-concept with age and modest differentiation between academic competencies. Also, this is the same situation in other groups defined by academic self-concept on academic achievement (Worrell, et al. 1999). Gender has been highlighted to influence academic self-concept and academic achievement in various studies done on gender, self-worth, and academic

achievement among students. A significant difference in self-concept was noted between males and females, and thus in their academic achievement (Sar-Abadani-Tafreshi, 2006).

2.2.2 Overview of Underachievers

There has been a general concern in recent time in the educational arena regarding the academic performance of underachieving students in the area of concept, causes and characteristics of these categories of students. Achievement is an end product of learning at the whole level of academic pursuitand performance are affected by various conditions existing at the time of learning as well as the conditions intervening between learning and application (Enyi, 2009). With this, academic achievement could be low or high depending on the level of performance of the learner in an academic task. It is said to be high when a student's performance is above an expected level of performance, or low when a student's performance is below an expected level of accomplishment and labeled academic underachiever(Ngwoke, Numonde, & Ngwoke, 2013).

Underachievement is complex and challenging and is a never-ending issue facing parents, educators and the community. With the growing body of literature and increasing research on students' performance and achievement, one would have thought that an agreed definition of underachievement would be easy to find.But surprisingly, educationalists find it difficult to come up with a universal definition of underachievement.The problem of a unified definition has persisted over the years.Chukwu-etu (2009) observed that defining the characteristics of the child who is labelled as an underachiever has been a difficult task for psychologists, educators and counsellors for a considerable time. Divergences of opinion among commentators on what constitutes underachievement appear to be one of the major reasons for disagreement, and different researchers may use different measures to determine who is an underachiever. For example, Gallagher (1991) points out the danger of using intelligence tests for some gifted students who are labeled underachievers because of poor academic performance. This is because less is known about their intellectual functioning. Reis and McCoach (2002) suggest that the impact of culture

on academic performance should not be ignored when considering underachievement in schools, especially for foreigners. They maintain that these students face unique barriers to achievement, such as language problems. Barbara (2005) concludes that the processes of defining underachievement, identifying underachieving students, explaining underachievement, and suggesting appropriate interventions remain controversial issues becausemany factors contribute to underachievement. Thefactors include school policies, leadership, school culture, parent attitudes, and circumstances in the home, peer influence, self-concept(low self-esteem, low self-efficacy), motivation and so forth. Underachievement continues to be of concern to communities across the world. All students have the desire to be successful in school, but some simply do not know how (Heacox, 1991).

The term underachievement is widespread in modern educational discourse, invoked most frequently in relation to a perceived failure to reach 'potential'. In other words, it means when one's performance is below what is 'expected' of him or her. On a positive note, it means that the person can be expected to perform better and has the potential to do so but is not doing so.Therefore, from the technical point of view, let us examine the definitions provided by researchers and theoreticians in Education,Sociology, Psychology and Counselling fields:Delisle and Galbraith (2002) define "underachievement as the discrepancy between intellectual ability and academic achievement" (p. 40). They defines 'intellectual ability' as that measured by intelligence tests producing an intelligent quotient (IQ) or various types of aptitudes (such as Mechanical reasoning, Analytical thinking, Spatial visualization, etc.) as measured by aptitude tests. On the other hand, 'academic achievement' is measured by class tests as well as some standardized achievement tests (such as Science, Social Studies, Language, Mathematics, etc.). Hence, underachievement is a discrepancy between one's IQ scores or aptitude test scores and scores obtained from class achievement tests. So an underachiever is one who may have average intellectual ability but below average achievement. A child who scores in the 90 percent range on

these standardized tests can be expected to excel in school, to be earning As and perhaps some Bs. Instead the child is getting less than Bs and is classified to be underachieving.Voegeli (2008) defines underachievement as characteristic of a student who has the capability to do well academically, but displays no motivation and works far below his or her potential.According to Spevak and Karnich (2001), underachievement is an emotion-based problem that applies to patterns of behaviour that occur both inside and outside of school. They understand what they need to do intellectually, but their attitude is "so what?" They blame lousy teachers, overbearing parents, and irrelevant work for their lack of motivation. While Krause and Krause (1981) view academic underachievement as a complex interaction between deficits in academic skills, such as Reading and Mathematics, deficient self-control skills, and interfering affective factors which includes personality dysfunction and anxiety.

However, the most common feature among the above definitions characterizes underachievement as a discrepancy between potential (or ability) and performance (or achievement). For the purpose of this study, one has to describe underachievers as students who exhibit a severe discrepancy between expected achievement (as measured by standardized achievement test scores or cognitive or intellectual ability assessments) and actual achievement (as measured by class grades and teacher evaluations) (Balduf, 2009). To be classified as an underachiever, the discrepancy between expected and actual achievement must not be the direct result of a diagnosed learning disability (Reis &McCoach, 2000). Therefore, underachievement is most often used to mean low academic attainment.

Nevertheless, promising definitions have contributed much in addressing the issue of underachievement. For example, many definitions of underachievement underscore the gap between potential (ability) and performance (achievement). That is to say, the inability to maximize potentials has been a common denominator in these definitions. However, while this position may offer a general definition of underachievement, the dynamics of ability and

performance must also come to play a role. Ability and performance are not static phenomena but are in constant flux, and therefore change over time. The student's performance varies at different times, and could be better depending on the degree of preparation before examinations. Yet the same student with the same amount of preparation may not perform well in examinations as at other times. The failure to perform to the optimum could be attributed to factors external to the student's intellectual and cognitive ability. Such factors could include emotional problems or behavioural/maturational issues (Chukwu-etu, 2009).

Sousa (2003) observes that underachievement is behaviour, and not an attitude or set of work habits. Be it behaviour, itcan be changed over timeand can be more directly modified as opposed to attitude. Research conducted with students in Nigeria which aimed at determining the causes of underachievement found that a major cause was behaviour problems other than deficiencies in ability or intellectual capability. However, underachievement is a pattern as complicated as the children to whom this label is applied, and some researchers believe that a more accurate way to define it is to consider its various components (Delisle& Berger, 1990). The following components are useful, according to Delisle and Berg: Underachievement is content and situation specific; those who may not be successful at school, for example, are often successful in outside activities such as sports, music or after-school jobs. Also, labelling a student as an underachiever ignores the positive outcome of those areas in which the student does succeed; it therefore makes more sense to label the area of underachievement, not the student. For example, a student may be underachieving in mathematics or sciencebut successful in Arts subjects such as Languages, Arts and Craft (Smith, 2005). Underachievement is tied to self–concept which can become a self- fulfilling prophecy. If students see themselves as failures, they may eventually place self-imposed limits on whatis possible. For students in this category, good grades are dismissed as accidents or luck but poor grades serve to reinforce a negative self-concept (Chukwu-etu, 2009). From the literature, it is evident that a universally acceptable definition of underachievement has

not been possible. However, most researchers agree that discrepancies between ability and actual performance, behavioural disruptiveness, and neurological/cognitive factors may have much to say in explaining underachievement (Delisle& Berger, 1990; Sousa, 2003).

In clarifying the complication possed by the definitions of who are underachievers at school, it can be deduced that underachievers include those students:

1. who do not perform according to expectations in a particular academic area;
2. who as a result of behaviour do not show interest/do well in their studies;
3. who do not perform well in a specific subject area(i.e. Core subjects);
4. who do have the necessary intellectual ability and still underachieve;
5. who are not limited by any form of disabilities from doing well academically at school and
6. who have been experiencing underachievementfor quiet some times(Chukwu-etu, 2009, p 90).

However, the percentage of students suffering from academic underachievement in Nigeria is quite alarming in recent times such as in examinations conducted by the West African Examinations Council (WAEC) and the National Examinations Council (NECO). To buttress this, Ali (2009) claimed that most secondary school leavers failed the May-June examinations conducted by WAEC and NECO.Of the candidates who sat for the year 2009 May/June Senior Secondary CertificateExaminations (WAEC), 84% failed. The West African Examinations Council (WAEC) report (2010) and the National Examination Council (NECO) report (2010) reported that only about 20 – 25% of the students who entered for the May/June Senior Secondary Certificate Examinations (SSCE) and June/July NECO examinations had credit passes in five subjects including mathematics and English. Also, of the candidates registered for 2013 WASCE (May/June edition), 20.04% obtained credits in English Language, Mathematics and at least three other subjects (Ogundare, 2013).This means that about 75 – 80% of the students who entered for these public examinations did not have up to five credit passes including mathematics and English

that constitute the benchmark for the award of certificate. Therefore, in this study, academic underachieving students refers to those students who consistently score below average or pass mark of 40% in school examinations. Certain factors are responsible for the low achievement of these students in schools. These may include low academic self-concept experienced by the students, low motivation, poor learning environments and others (Ngwoke, Numonde, & Ngwoke, 2013).

Types of Underachievers

There is no one type of academic underachiever. In a school, there could be several types of underachievers. Knowing that there are different types of underachievers is useful because it enables educators, parents, communities, psychologists and counsellors to understand better the underachiever. Heacox cited in Voegeli (2008, p 10-13) provides nine types of underachievers as follows:

1. **"The Rebel" –** the rebel underachievers arethose who do not see any importance in or relevance of classroom activities and assignments. They refuse to believe there is a connection between school and the outside world and have a general attitude of "I don't need this". Visions of the future are unrealistic; especially when it comes to occupations. These students also tend to be in turmoil with the adults in their life, and to keep control, they refuse to comply with the adults in their life. This kind of students are forced to go to school, by themselves they do not see the reason for schooling or the relationship between schooling and what they want to become in future. Such as a son of a local blacksmith who believes much in his father's work as meansof livelihood and his father wants him to go to school and become a medical doctor. He may not have interest in schooling because he does not see the relevance of this to the blacksmithing.
2. "**The Conformist" –** can do well in school, but decides it does not worth it. This type of students may have found out that if they do well, they will get the rewards of doing more

work for their efforts and by not doing well they won't have to do more. They feel pressure from peers, they want to blend with them and not stand out. These are the students from very rigid and authoritarian parents that always want nothing but the best from their children irrespective of their academic ability. No matter how much effort he puts up, since he cannot be the best he will be rebuked by his parents, instead of being commended and encouraged.

3. **"The Stressed Learner" –** also known as the perfectionist. A student's rise and fall depends on academic performance. When things are good, students feel great and when things aren't so good, they may feel awful. Over time this may be wearing on the students.They may stop trying to achieve out of fear for making mistakes. They are the type of students who believe that they are born to lead always. May be such a student always lead in the class as he/she believes.If he/she fails on one occasion or the other, he/she may not able to rise again out of fear of failing another time.
4. **"The Struggling Learner" –** the one who got through elementary school with little effort and did well, but hit the wall when academics became more demanding requiring more study skills. Never really having to study, these students perceive they are unsuccessful. They do not know the basics of learning, managing time, and organizing assignments. Learning disabilities may be an issue, but this student falls in the gray area of services, not being able to receive special assistance in the school. Over time, the student begins to perform below average in his or her potential to learn. This is the habit of many students; they start the school with enthusiasm to learn, they always do well but since learning is from simple to complex, when they reach higher class wherelearning become somehow tougher and abstract requiring more effort and hard work, the students' ability becomes weaker, showing less interest in learning because they perceive that knowledge has gone beyond their level.Also an able student who suddenly becomes disabled will surely suffer

a serious setback, if proper and special assistance is not rendered to him both at home and in the school, he/she may never get back on track.

5. **"The Victim" –** these are students who are unwilling to accept responsibility for lack of success in the school setting. They give every excuse in the book as to why work is not done or done in a proper manner. This is a student who may have been given too much power at an early age, watching everyone else do the work and not taking responsibility for it. This type of students are known to be over-pampered children who are always being cared for and not allowed to take any challenge. By the time they become students, they will try to find excuse for their failure through defence mechanism.
6. **"The Distracted Learner" –** is the student who has concerns or problems outside of the academic setting that affect school performance. Some of these problems could include transitions in the family, verbal victimization or physical abuse, problems with friends, or chemical abuse within the family. Stress and anxiety are prominent factors in students' life. Distraction outside school causes this type of learner not to do well in school. Perhaps the student is involved in too many extracurricular activities or has a job. There simply may not be enough time for this type of student to perform the additional task of school work. As this student gets older, his or her friendship and other personal relationships often take precedence over school. The distracted learner's personal choices seem far more important than any assignment given in the classroom setting. Problems with chemical dependency, mental illness, or sexual identity make school work irrelevant to the distracted learner. They are the type of students from broken homes, relative and non-relative guardians or students maltreated at home (over labour with domestic work or after school menial job).
7. **"The Bored Learner" –** is the one who is truly gifted and talented academically and needs more challenging activities in the academic setting due to advanced skills and abilities. These are the type of students who wait for years for curriculum to catch up with their

learning needs and by then the student has formed work habits and patterns that are lazy. Others in this category may say they are bored, but when actually they are afraid of failure. They may decide the work is too hard and choose to stay uninvolved. Whenever there is a bored student, there is a need to look carefully for the underlying cause of refrain. This type of student is known as a joker in the pack that is a local champion who has gone beyond the level of the rest students.Instead of the school to take care of his need and work within his level they mix him with the rest students, therefore he becomes a bore student.

8. **"The Complacent Learner" –** is the student who is contented with school and how learning is going for him or her. This student is comfortable in his or her skill and doesn't seem to have any academic difficulties. However, the adults around him or her believe the student could do better in the school. At a young age the student is satisfied, although the adult's goals become unrealistic for the child. As the child gets older, he or she may resist when ideas are forced on him or her, but either way the achievement pattern remains the same. In time, he or she may decide to buckle down if something of interest comes along. This isa student of controversial career whose parents forced to select a career that contradicts his/her interest and potential. Sucha student may want to become a musician (which is in line with his/her potential) but the parent forces him/her to study medicine. He/she may not likely perform well in medicine not because of academic difficulties but due to lack of interest.
9. **"The Single-Sided Achiever" –** the student who has decided that only certain classes worth his or her time and energy. One or two subjects may be of interest to this student and these are the ones that warrant his or her time. This student chooses to achieve in some classes and underachieve in others. This is a student who develops much interest in certain particular set of subjects at the expense of others. So that he will pass the focusing subjects and fail the rest.

Mandel and Marcus cited in Chukwu-etu(2009, p 90-91) andRahal (2010, p 5-7) identifies six major personalities' styles of underachievers.Each of these personality styles can be described as having a predictable pattern of behaviour and characteristics described as follows:

1. Coasting underachievers are believed to emerge at about 9-10 years. They exhibit general contentment with themselves and life, procrastinate at home and school, give up easily, show little concern about low grades, make sincere-sounding statements about their intentions, are easily distracted from school work and seem unconcerned about the future.
2. Anxious underachievers may have problems at any age and tend to show performance deficit of 10-20%. They tend to be tense and unable to relax, avoid school, excessively worried and are unrealistic about their competence and mistakes, need constant reassurance and approval, and may even become school-phobic. Marcus (2007) notes that worried or anxious underachievers are insecure, have high levels of self-doubt and experience high levels of tension.
3. Defiant underachievers are more often boys than girls before adolescence. They lose their temper easily, argue with authority figures and defy them, deliberately annoy others and blame others for their own actions or mistakes.
4. Wheeler-dealer underachievers may be impulsive, charming or intimidating, manipulative and self-seeking and intent on instant gratification. They tend to live for the moment and for immediate rewards, lie, cheat or steal, manipulate others, get into the some kind of trouble over and over again, and may even talk about becoming rich and famous.
5. Identity search underachievers are so wrapped up in trying to work out who they are that they become distracted from their work. They possess the characteristics of intense self-absorption, struggling with the question, "Who am I"? They search for the meaning of life, are intense about everything, opinionated, and determined to be independent. They take

responsibility for their own actions, behaviour and decisions and experiment with opinions, value systems, and beliefs.

6. Sad or depressed underachievers are depressed, have low self-esteem, find it difficult to make decisions and lack the energy needed to concentrate on school work. They appear apathetic, have poor appetites or overeat, sleep too much or have trouble sleeping, are low in energy and feel tired, have trouble concentrating and may feel hopeless and pessimistic.

With the above mentioned styles one would conclude that underachievers exhibit certain personality characters. They could be worried, anxious,manipulative, easygoing, lazy, unmotivated, oppositional and introspective.

Characteristics and Causes of Underachievement

The students whose performance in a learning task is below an expected level of accomplishment are referred to as academic underachievers.These set of students tend to hold false assumption that they cannot succeed in school examination without some form of help from outside (Ngwoke, Numonde, & Ngwoke, 2013). Generally speaking, they do not take school work seriously and developed maladjusted behaviours or unnecessary defence mechanism. Williams (2008) contends that usually an underachieving student will be disorganized, disinterested in school, irresponsible, lazy, have poor study skills, blame everyone else for their problems.They are found to have lower academic self-concept, lower attainment value on learning and use less effective learning strategies and either be constantly socializing when he or she should be studying, or appear to be socially isolated when other young people are out having appropriate fun. He maintains further that some underachievers "escape" to their own choices for learning, becoming immersed in a hobby, spending an inordinate amount of time reading, or wasting countless hours on video games. They have plenty of energy for those non developmental activities, but refuse to do their homework or even show up, physically or mentally, for school.

However, underachievement will be considered a problem if the work is well below grade level, has lasted more than a year, or is causing the student distress with visible symptoms of anxiety and depression. There is a clue of underachievement if there's a big gap between high standardized test scores in the past and low grades today. So these are predictions of academic success by teachers in basic school versus poor grades in the secondary school years (Vanauker-Ergle, 2003).Many studies (Berube, 1995; Garber, 2002; Greene, 1986; Harris & Coy, 2003; Kanevsky&Keighley, 2003; Natale, 1995; Rimm, 1997; Schultz, 2002a; Whitmore, 1989) focus on the importance of internal and external causes specifically related to the student and the student's peers, culture, family, social environment and school environment.Balduf (2009) contends that a student's personality characteristics such as self-concept, self-esteem, perfectionism/procrastination, and an ability or willingness to take risks also contribute to his or her underachievement. Williams (2008) explains that sometimes the youth may just be trying to avoid the "real-world" consequences of responsibility and maturity, and stubbornly making the parents miserable because they cannot "make" them be responsible, either. Sometimes, a student will not try because of a fear of failure; these students would rather abstain from academic effort than try and risk failure.Sometimes, the problem is at school, not home: boring assignments, negative peer pressure, teacher conflicts, a move to a more or less challenging school, or just a feeling that nobody at school cares.So why try?But more often, the causes of underachievement are from the home. They include:

- Conflict between parents, including divorce and separation;
- Overprotectiveness by over-competitive parents who "live" through their child;
- Over empowerment of children, denying them the security of rules and authority;
- Over-emphasis by performance-based, workaholic parents on the importance of doing well in school to the detriment of the balance of the rest of the child's life and relationships;

- Neglect because of a significant parental health or work problem, or problem with a sibling or other relative;
- Physical or emotional health problems and poor nutrition;
- Sibling rivalry and a feeling that it is futile to try to "compete" with a "star;"
- Frustration, depression and futility caused by a lack of skill by the parents in helping the child navigate through school, making smart course selections, getting extra help from teachers when needed, making career plans and so forth(Williams, 2008. p 65).

All too often, when a child underachieves, parents let their concerns get out of control. They turn up the "heat." They set more and more rigid house rules that ignite still more conflicts and rebellion by the student. Or they try to use bribes, rewards and threats when what the student really needs is self-motivation, not pressure imposed from the outside (Williams, 2008).

As it was indicated earlier thatamong the factors that contribute to underachievement are family, school and peers, Balduf (2009) maintains that peers can influence a student's academic achievement in positive or negative ways. According to Brown and Steinberg (1990), in a sample of 8,000, less than 10% were willing to admit their association with the "brain" crowd, with most preferring to align themselves with the "popular" or "normal" crowds.Therefore, school personnel should screen an underachieving student for a wide variety of physical, mental, or emotional problems before labelling and treating student's scholastic difficulties as the primary focus.

From the above discussions,one would conclude that problems of underachievement revolve round three major components such as environmental factors (school, homeand peers), student personality (self-concept) and academic performance (academic underachievement). Since self-concept takes an intermediate position, that is, a link between environment and academic achievement, it is worthy of being researched upon to know how it relates to underachievementwhich is the major attention of this study.

Gender and Underachievement

Myers (2002) defined gender as the characteristics, whether biological or socially influenced, by which people define male or female. The extent to which gender affects academic achievement of students appears not to have been resolved. Many research studies reported differently concerning academic underachievement in relation to gender. Weiss, in Chukwu-etu(2009)posits that gender differences affect underachievement with approximately 25% of females who are above-average in academic performance considered underachievers as compared to 50% of above-average males. Studiesby Silverman (1993) and Spaniath, Harlaar, & Plomin (2006) discovers that female students are more at risk than male students of undermining their talents as they strive to maintain a balance between inter-personal relationship and academic performance.Some proposed that males perform better than females in academics, some argue that the reverse is the case, and others say that the difference in performance between the two is insignificant. Research studies reported gender differences in academic achievement in mathematics and science subjects with boys performing better than girls in these subjects (Jahun & Momoh, 2001; Ezeugo & Agwagah, 2000). Again, Aiyedum and Popoola (2004) reported no significant differences in the performance of boys and girls in mathematics. Butler-Por, in Barbara, (2005) observes that more attention is given to female than male students in helping them to realize their intellectual potential due to competition between physical appearance and intellectual functioning. The fact that physical appearance and global self-worth components of self-concept decline more in female than male students after age 12 sometimes affect academic achievements or career choices and aspirations in female students. Research conducted by Jacob in Chukwu-etu (2009)finds that the interaction between parents' gender stereotypes and children's self-perception influenced performance. There is therefore the need to explore more the effect of both cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques on academic self-concept of secondary school underachieving students on the basis of gender. The problem of the study is

therefore posed as a question: what would be the effect of cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling intervention on academic self-conceptof underachieving students?

2.2.3Self-Concept and Underachievement

According to researchers, it has been noted that as students grow older their academic self-concept becomes more stable (Guay, Marsh, &Boivin, 2003). In a study by Liu and Wang (2005) it was noted that academic self-concept tends to decline from early to mid-adolescence and also extends to adulthood. Matovu (2012) explains that academic self-concept reaches its lowest point in middle adolescence. But healso finds out that academic self-concept increases through early adulthood. Academic self-concept varies as students move through grades in which their academic self-concept tends to rise in the direction of their academic achievement (Liu & Wang, 2005; Jacob, Lanza, Osgood, Eccles, &Wigfield, 2002), whereas other studies show that it tends to become weaker (Marsh, Ellis, & Craven, 2002; Marsh &Yeung, 1997). It has been discovered that academic self-concept has a relationship with academic achievement (Awad, 2007; Tan & Yates, 2007). Educationists and psychologists agreed that self-concept has a pervasive influence on a child's total development most especially learning. It has thus been postulated that a person can have either positive or negative self-concept. A person is said to have positive self-concept if the individual feels good about himself/herself or negative self-concept if he/she does not feel good about himself/herself (Olorunfemi-Olabisi, &Akomolafe, 2013). Importantly, academic self-concept is formed and developed through interactions with a student's significant others (i.e., parents, teachers, or peers) and therefore is dynamic as a student progresses through schooling.

On the question of causality between academic self-concept and academic achievement outcomes,researchers have extensively debated whether prior academic self-concept influences academic achievement or prior academic achievement causes subsequent academic self-concept (Dramanu, & Balarabe, 2013). Marsh, Hau and King (2002) considered this a "chicken and egg"

question. In an attempt at determining the direction of the relation between academic self-concept and academic achievement, literature shows that three models; (a) the self enhancement, (b)skill development and (c) the reciprocal effects have been useful (Liu, 2009; Rosen, 2010).

According to Dramanu and Balarabe (2013)'s explanation,on the self enhancement model, academic self-concept is a determinant of academic achievement. This means that academic achievement is a consequence of academic self-concept. On the contrary, the skill development proposes that academic self-concept is a consequence of academic achievement. To this model, enhancing students' academic self-concept is to improve students' academic performance (Liu, 2009). That is, academic self-concept, be it global or in relation to a specific academic domain, develops as a student gets feedback on academic work (Guay et al., 2003). An examination of these two models reveals that the direction of the causality is towards one direction. This has generated a lot of controversy among researchers. As a compromise between the self-enhancement and skill development models, the reciprocal effects model emerged. According to this model, academic self-concept and academic achievement are reciprocally related and mutually reinforcing. That is, prior academic self-concept affects subsequent academic achievement and prior achievement affects subsequent academic self-concept (Green, Nelson, Martin and Marsh, 2006; Marsh & Craven, 2006; Rosen, 2010).

However, various researchers concur with the academic self-concept's correlation with academic achievement, while poor academic self-concept correlates with academic underachievement (Marsh, 2004; Cokley, 2000). According to Ajayi, LawaniandAdeyanju (2011),a positive self-concept in terms of self-esteem and self-acceptance is the foundation for healthy personality development. If a person is balanced psychologically, there are more chances that he would perform better in academic tasks than one who is psychologically handicapped. This means a person with low self-concept is prone to low self-esteem that would lead to psychological imbalance which would hamper his/her academic achievement (Robins, Lauver, Le, Davis,

Langle, & Carlstrom, 2004).Matovu (2012) explains that self-concept in terms of self-image is a characteristic way of thinking, feeling and behaving about oneself. It may embrace attitudes, one's own interest area or opinions that affect the way one deal with different situations. He said further that it is important for students to have a good understanding of themselves and their personality, if they are to make remarkable academic achievement, but if otherwise it may lead to underachievement.

Self-concept in terms of self-impression is also defined as the collection or impressions a student makes about his/her appearance. These impressions form the cognition or the understanding in dealing with persons or things. Thus, if a student has negative impression of his ability and capability or towards certain academic pursuit he or she may stop trying to achieve academically because of his negative self-impression that no matter the effort hemakes he cannot make it (Gemeayetal., 2013). Self-concept determinants include the entire cluster of individual's biological and psychological attributes as well as behavioural and physical features with genetic origins. The genetic determinants include sex, physical structures, intellectual and non-intellectual abilities and aptitude. The physical appearances such as height, weight, body proportions, and structure of the face exert influences on others' reactions toward person and in-turn on his/her self-evaluation.

Self-concept in terms of self-worth according to Addison, Antwi, and Avonokadzi (2014), in their personality theory may be seen as a continuum from very high to very low. For Rogers cited in McLeod (2012), a person who has high self-worth has confidence and positive feelings about himself or herself, faces challenges in life, accepts failures and unhappiness, and is open with people. A person with low-self-worth may avoid challenges in life, not accept that life can be painful and unhappy at times, and will be defensive and guarded with other people. Where the self-image (the way you truly feel about yourself) is similar to the ideal self, the person can be self-actualize and there is congruence, and the person has a higher sense of self-worth.

Academic self-concept in terms of self-efficacy is shown to be a very strong predictor of academic achievement. Increased academic self-efficacy is accompanied by enhanced intrinsic motivation, the ability to sustain levels of motivation and achievement – oriented behaviour, persistence on the face of difficulties, and better problem solving. As Bandura (1997) in Ngwoke, Numonde, and Ngwoke (2013) puts it, students whose sense of efficacy was raised set higher aspirations for themselves, showed greater strategic flexibility in the search for solution, achieved higher intellectual performances, and were accurate in evaluating the quality of their performance than were students of equal cognitive ability who were led to believe they lacked such capabilities. Conversely, students with low academic self-concept inform of self-efficacy shy away from difficult tasks which they perceive as possible threats. They have low aspiration and weak commitment to the goals they choose to pursue. Low academic self-efficacy negatively affects motivation and ability tolearning which will later result to low academic achievement (Zimmerman, 2000; Chemers, Hu & Garcia, 2001; Ngwoke, Numonde, & Ngwoke, 2013).

Academic self-concept is indeed reported to be strongly related both directly and indirectly to academic achievement. Highly efficacious students enter secondary school with confidence in their ability to perform well academically. This in turn influences their performance. Students who lack academic self-concept do not perform academically like those students who have higher academic self-concept (Chemers, Hu & Garcia, 2001). As these authors explained, academic self-concept affects students' perception of their ability to cope with the pressure and demands of academic work. Highly efficacious students tend to perceive the demands of school work as a challenge rather than a threat. Challenged students are shown to have higher expectations and experience less stress, better health, better adjustment in school and greater satisfaction with school life. In addition, these students exhibit high optimism and agility which will influencetheir academic achievement.But if otherwise, academic underachievement is the result.

Therefore, if all these attributes and appearances are perceived negatively i.e. poor self-perception and poor self-evaluation, they would negatively affect one's personality structures be it academic or personal-social constructs (Ajayi,Lawani,& Adeyanju,, 2011). Mroczek and Little (2006) maintain that positive self-concept is learned through the child's environment both at home and at school and itis known as self-efficacy which is the best predictor for student academic retention and achievement.Meanwhile, if negative self-concept is acquired, it causes academic underachievement and drop out. In support of this, Bakare (1987) carried out a study in which he correlated five variables (which include academic self-concept) with academic achievement. He found significant correlation of 0.38 between academic self-concept and achievement either in positive or negative ways.

In conclusion, there is consistent evidence to support the notion that academic self-concept affects academic achievement and perseverance both directly and indirectly.One's form of concept beliefs contribute significantly to the level and quality of human functioning" (Ngwoke, Numonde, & Ngwoke, 2013). Marsh (2006) and Marsh & Martin (2011) submit that in reality, the relationship between self-concept and academic achievement is likely to be reciprocal, that is, prior academic achievement influences subsequent academic self-concept and prior academic self-concept also affects academic achievement. It follows therefore, that if an individual has a negative attitude towards a particular subject as a result of low self-concept, the individual will have low level of confidence to study and achieve poorly in such a subject. The perception of one's high self-concept has been found to influence the attitude, learning and performanceacademically, while poor self-concept has been found to negatively affect the attitude, learning and academic achievement. A student with low self-concept will have his academic performance hampered and become academic underachiever and in more serious cases may drop out of school (Njoku, 1998). Research studies have found strong relationship between the self-concept of learners and their academic performance, Olorunfemi-Olabisiand Akomolafe (2013) identify negative self-concept as one of

the most important factors responsible for academic underachievement among students. Low self-concept is a maladaptive behaviour that is of great concern to everybody that has something to do with the education system of any society. The concern for individual with low (poor or negative) self-concept emanates from the fact that it affects such individual's live socially, emotionally and academically. The impact of low self-concept on a learner is enormous as he or she performs poorly academically (Centre for Cognitive Therapy, 2007). The implication of this study is that low self-concept is likely to result in academic underachievement.

The question asked is "how could low self-concept be improved in order to achieve good academic achievement among students? Such as explained by Ngwoke, Numonde, and Ngwoke (2013) that researchers have stressed the necessity for counselling techniques, and intervention to facilitate and encourage the development of academic self-concept. In this study, academic self-concept refers to students' belief or conviction that they can successfully achieve at a required level of learning an academic task or that they can achieve a specific academic goal. To change the false beliefs and assumptions that students have which impede academic achievement, there is the need to restructure their cognitive distortion on their academic self-concept.The researcher recognizes psychological intervention of cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques to serve the purpose of helping learners to overcome the problems in question. Because both cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques have been proved by many researchers to be effective in enabling oneto alter destructive thoughts and allow him/her to live more effectively as a fully functioning person. A fully functioning person is happy and satisfied with life, and is always looking for new challenges.He/she is well adjusted, well-balanced and interested in knowing. Often such people are high achievers in school and society.

These techniques move a person from a negative attitude to a more positive attitude.In other words, from a low self-concept to high self-concept. For high academic achievement one

must change from low self-concept to high self-concept through the counselling interventions. This need to be done due to several reasons. Firstly, high self-concept helps one to build confidence and not to be afraid to meet new challenges and realities in the academic world. Secondly, boosting one'sself-concept as a student silences any negative inner voice and thirdly, one must not be perturbed by the criticism around, that is, one must focus on the most important things in life and forget the unimportant. Therefore, these treatment techniques aimed at changing attitudes, behaviour and cognitive processing.Studies have revealed the use of cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques in treating some psychological problems of learners. The need, therefore, to assist learners with low-self-concept cannot be over-emphasized. It is against this background that the researcher deems it necessary the application of cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques to address the cognitive and behavioural problems of secondary school underachievers.

2.2.4 Cognitive RestructuringTechnique

Cognitive restructuring is based on rational emotive therapy propounded by Albert Ellis who focused more on thoughts. The 1960s and 70s saw the birth of cognitive behavioural therapies (sometimes today called simply "cognitive therapies"). First,in the form of Albert Ellis's Rational Emotive Therapy (RET), later Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapy (REBT) and Arron Beck's Cognitive Behavioural Therapy (CBT) (Dombeck, 2014). These therapies are considered "cognitive" because they address mental events such as thinking and feeling. They are called "cognitive behavioural" because they address those mental events in the context of the learning theory that was the base for the old pure-behavioural therapy. In cognitive therapy the mind is taught new habits of thinking using the same old learning-theory-derived procedures that made systematic desensitization and other pure-behavioural interventions work. The basic technique that is taught in cognitive behavioural psychotherapy is something that could be called the "Analysis of Appraisal".It is usually called "cognitive restructuring" or sometimes "cognitive reframing"

instead. Anything cognitive is connected with thinking or conscious mental process. Addison, Antwi and Avonokadzi (2014) observed that in the course of thinking one will tends to think negatively or have faulty thought processes and beliefs that create problem behaviours and emotions. According to cognitive therapists such as Ellis (2000), when one finds that his/her beliefs (or cognitions) are contrary (dissonant), it makes one uncomfortable and puts one in a state called cognitive dissonance. Such negative personal thoughts can be very destructive to the individual. In essence, cognitive therapists teach their patients to become conscious of the fact that they are unconsciously appraising and judging all the various stimulus events that come their way, and then teach them to consciously take charge of that appraisal process so as to make sure that their conclusions are accurate and free of biases and mistakes (Dombeck, 2014).

Cognitive restructuring, in laymen term, is the process of learning to replace one‘s current negative thoughts with better and more beneficial thoughts. It is the process of learning a better way of speaking to one‘s self. Ellis (1962) in Ngwoke, Numonde and Ngwoke (2013)stated that human beings made themselves victims of irrational thinking and could virtually destroy themselves through irrational and muddled thinking. Ryanand Eric (2005), Salman,Esere, Omotosho, Abdullahi, &Oniyangi (2011) define cognitive restructuring as a psychotherapeutic process of learning to identify and dispute irrational or maladaptive thoughts, such as all or nothing thinking (splitting), magical thinking and emotional reasoning, which are commonly associated with many mental health disorders. Beck (1976) in Ngwoke, Numonde and Ngwoke (2013) stated that cognitive restructuring involved a process of re-orienting one’s thought process to reality, or requiring one’s mind to think truthfully, factually and logically. Cognitive restructuring also known as cognitive reframing is a technique that can help people identify, challenge and alter anxiety provoking thought patterns and beliefs (Baxter, 2010). For example, students who develop false assumption that they cannot study and pass examination on their own without help or assistance from others or cheating may not be properly motivated to study hard for examination.

Once a false assumption has been made, it will often be used as a basis for prompting behaviours that end up acting in response to the false assumption as if it were true. According to Baxter (2010), irrational thought like this and their accompanying behaviour play a big part in the onset of anxiety. According to Lamberton and Minor-Evans (2002), some people "catastrophize" or turn an irrational belief into an imagined catastrophe. Irrational beliefs then can lead to catastrophizing an event or blowing it out of proportion. The most unfortunate aspect of irrational belief is that it can become a vicious cycle and repeat itself endlessly as negative emotions turn into negative behaviours (Lamberton & Minor-Evans, 2002; Huffman, 2002).

In this study, cognitive restructuring means the process of learning to dispel faulty thinking patterns and replacing them with more profitable andgainful ones. Similarly, Burns (2006) describes cognitive restructuring as a means of changing a perception from negative interpretation to a neutral or positive one, making it less stressful. This process is also called reappraisal, relabelling, reframing and attitude adjustment. However, the most important assumption on which cognitive restructuring approach is built is the view that thought and emotions are inter-related and not separate or possess different functions (Strayhorn, 2002). Since emotions accompany thinking, Dattilio and Montano (2005), are of the opinion that a large part of an individual's thought is a biased, prejudiced and strongly evaluated type of thinking. This needs to be cognitively restructured so as to enable the individual contribute meaningfully to the society with the appropriate attitude, particularly when he begins to practice positive self-verbalization (Ogugua, 2010).The cognition shapes how people interpret and evaluate what happens to them, influences how they feel about it, and provides a guide to how they should respond. Unfortunately, sometimes their interpretations, evaluations, underlying beliefs andthoughts contain distortions, errors, or biases, or are not very useful or helpful. This results in unnecessary suffering and often causes them to react in ways that are not in their best interest. Based on theabove definitions, it is clear thatcognitive restructuring intervention programme is a systematizedpsychological intervention

which is usually employedin modifying human behaviour and beliefs. Accordingto Omegum (2003), cognitive restructuring can be used bycounsellors to effect changes in client behaviours from illogicalor irrational thoughts to logical or rational and positivethinking.

Cognitive restructuring is a set of technique for becoming more aware of thoughts and for modifying them when they are distorted or are not useful. This approach does not involve distorting reality in a positive direction or attempting to believe the unbelievable. Rather, it uses reason and evidence to replace distorted thought patterns with more accurate, believable, and functional ones (Sukumar, 2011).The cognitive restructuring theory asserts that humans are directly responsible for generating their own negative emotions and that these self-created negative emotions, over time, lead to dysfunctions such as low self-concept, stress, depression, anxiety, and even social awkwardness. According to Nwamuo (2005), CR learning theory assumes that individuals are not passive observers in their environment, rather they are active, goal oriented and capable of taking responsibility for their decisions, actions and consequently exercise control over their behaviours. CR technique involves teaching persons or individuals to reduce their negative emotional reactions by getting them to interpret situations with greater accuracy and avoid distorted thinking and think rightly. It is cognitive behavioural technique that focuses on changing a person's perceptions and irrational assumptions of self and world. Cognitive restructuring gives people new ways of thinking and talking to themselves about their own problems.This technique believes that man's maladaptive behaviour (of academic underachievement) is hinged on irrational thoughts, beliefs, self-talks or verbalizations (self-concept) (Ekennia, Otta, &Ogbuokiri, 2013).When utilizing cognitive restructuring in cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT), it helps in monitoring, cognitive distortions, vivo experience, imaginable exposure, behavioural activation and homework assignments to achieve remission (Huppert, 2009).

Cognitive Distortion

The term cognitive distortion refers to errors in thinking or patterns of thought that are biases in some way.It is also called cognitive dissonance. People become prone to cognitive distortions when under stress, because under pressure some individuals are apt to take more cognitive shortcuts resulting in less accurate and more extreme interpretation and reaction (Sukumar, 2011). Cognitive distortions can also serve the function of trying to protect individuals from harm. For example, when a depressed or anxious student thinks "I can't do it", it justifies inaction and protects the student from possible academic failure. Of course, this strategy is ultimately self-limiting and defeating, and keeps stuck in old patterns that do not work very well.The number of common patterns of cognitive distortions according to Burns (2006, p 4) that have been identified include:

1. All-or-nothing thinking: You look at things in absolute, black-and-white categories. For example, if something is less than perfect, one sees it as a total failure.
2. Overgeneralization: You view a negative event as a never-ending pattern of defeat.
3. Mental filter: You dwell on the negatives and ignore the positives. By focusing on a single negative detail and dwelling on it exclusively until one's vision of reality becomes darkened.
4. Discounting the positives: You insist that your accomplishments or positive qualities "don't count."
5. Mind reading – you assume that people are reacting negatively to you when there's no definite evidence for this;
6. Fortune-telling – You arbitrarily predict that things will turn out badly.
7. Magnification or minimization: You blow things way up out of proportion or you shrink their importance inappropriately (e.g. magnifying the negative and minimizing the positive). A form of this is called catastrophizing in which one tells oneself that an undesirable situation is unbearable, when it is really just uncomfortable or inconvenience.

8. Emotional reasoning: You reason from how you feel: that is assuming that one's negative emotions necessarily reflect the way things really are (because I feel it, it must be true) e.g. "I *feel* like an idiot, so I really must be one." Or "I don't *feel* like doing this, so I'll put it off."
9. "Should statements": You criticize yourself or other people with "shoulds" or "shouldn'ts." "Musts," "oughts," and "have tos" are similar offenders.
10. Labelling: You identify with your shortcomings. Instead of saying "I made a mistake," you tell yourself, "I'm a jerk," or "a fool," or "a loser."Personalization and blame: You blame yourself for something you weren't entirely responsible for, or you blame other people and overlook ways that your own attitudes and behaviour might have contributed to a problem(Burns, 2006, p 4).

The researcher's choice of cognitive restructuring is based on its efficacy in managing both cognitive and behaviour problems as noted by Ekennia, Otta, &Ogbuokiri (2013). According to them, cognitive restructuring learning theory assumes that individuals are not passive observers in their environment, rather they are active, goal oriented and capable of taking responsibility for their decisions, actions and consequently exercise control over their behaviours. Cognitive restructuring technique involves teaching persons or individuals to reduce their negative emotional reactions by getting them to interpret situations with greater accuracy and avoid distorted thinking and think rightly (Baker &Scarth, 2002; Salman, et al., 2011; Okwun, 2011).Cognitive restructuring was used by Ellis (1976) to effectively treat emotionally depressed patients. Utilizing cognitive restructuring intervention with youths has experienced an increasingly diverse research base, supporting the effectiveness of varied approaches with adolescents or children clients (Braswell & Kendall, 2001; Grahan, 2005). However, these researches have traditionally taken place in the out of school settings. They specifically connect cognitive restructuring with an improvement in academic self-concept, self-esteem and self-efficacy of low-achieving students in

Nigeria. The significance of cognitive restructuring for academic underachieving students derives from its potential in improving the creative potentials, independence, self-awareness, initiative taking, achievement motivation, analytical ability, interpersonal skills and personal competencies of a great number of students who would have ended up as indolent and dependent adults(Ngwoke, Numonde, & Ngwoke, 2013). There is the need to tap into the natural resources of this class of students and turn them into goal-oriented and resourceful adults.

The purpose of cognitive restructuring is to widen students' conscious perspective and thus allow room for a change in low self-concept perception to a positive one because cognitive restructuring has been used to help individuals experiencing a variety of psychological or psychiatric conditions, including low self-concept, depression, substance abuse disorders, anxiety disorders collectively, bulimia, social phobia, borderline personality disorder, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder(ADHD), and gambling just to name a few (Chronis, Gamble, Roberts, & Pelham, 2006).

Conclusively, from the forgoing it becomes clear that cognitive dissonance can be overcome through cognitive restructuring, that is, cognitive dissonance can be changed to a positive perspective through cognitive restructuring.Cognitive restructuring also leads to change in attitude, which also affects our personality and self-concept either positively or negatively. One's self-concept also shows whether he is self-actualized or not in his/her endeavours. Cognitive restructuring helps students consider any maladaptive patterns in their thinking-feeling-behaviour cycles. The students' goal is to rethink these patterns and consider more adaptive alternatives that will work better for them. Ultimately, the goal is to have the students recognize that sometimes their thoughts lead to low self-concept feelings and actions which are academic underachievement. By examining and changing the thought (belief), feelings and actions are altered in a positive direction. The shift in thinking if successful can help the students to minimize chances of future failure.

Cognitive RestructuringTechniques Template

Cognitive restructuring is the process of replacing cognitive distortion with thought that are more accurate and useful and its working template is meant to be used as a guideline to learning the process of cognitive restructuring counselling techniques.Mectcalf (2011); Hope, Burns, Hyes, Herbert & Warner (2010, p. 71);Binggeli(2014,CBT techniques, part 1) identifysix steps involved in cognitive restructuring and six types of automatic thoughts. The six steps are:

Phase 1: Joining and building rapport

To prepare the clients for the assessment the counsellor introduces himself and allows them introduce themselves to each other.Then the counsellor communicates the purpose of the assessment by asking the following questions:

- "What are your present concerns in your life?"
- "What situations are not going as well as you would like?"

Phase 2: Identification of problematic cognitions known as "automatic thoughts"

Identification of problematic cognitions called "automatic thoughts" is dysfunctional or negative views of the self, world, or future. That is who (or what) are you feeling unhappy about?

The six types of automatic thoughts are:

- Self-evaluated thoughts.
- Thoughts about the evaluations of others.
- Evaluative thoughts about the other person with whom they are interacting.
- Thoughts about coping strategies and behavioural plans.
- Thoughts of avoidance.
- Any other thoughts that were not categorized.

Phase 3: Identification and record of the cognitive distortions in the automatic thoughts.

Identify and record how you feel about the upsetting situation? Use words like sad, angry, anxious, guilty, frustrated, and hopeless. Rate each negative feeling on a scale from 1 (for the least) to 100 (for the most). For example:

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100

Not at all a little medium a lot most ever felt

(Binggeli, 2014,CBT techniques, part 1)

Phase 4: Rational disputation of automatic thoughts with the triple-column technique.

After you have identified the distortions in these thoughts, substitute Rational Responses in the right-hand column and record how much you believe each one between 0 (not at all) and 100 (completely). Make sure that your Rational Responses are convincing, valid statements that put the lie to your Automatic Thoughts. Such as:

The Triple-Column Technique Box

Automatic Thoughts	**Distortions**	**Rational Responses**
Write your negative thoughtsand estimate your belief ineach one (0-100).	Identify the distortions in each Automatic Thought.	Substitute more realistic thoughts and estimate your belief in each one (0 and 100)

(Hope, Burns, Hyes, Herbert & Warner, 2010, p. 71)

Phase 5: Development of a rational rebuttal to the automatic thoughts.

Here is outcome**.** Indicate how much you now believe each Automatic Thought between 0and 100. Once your beliefs in these thoughts are greatly reduced, indicate how much better you feel.

Re-rate your belief in each Automatic Thought from 0 to 100 and put a check in the box that best describes how you now feel:

( ) not at all better; ( ) somewhat better; ( ) quite a bit better; ( ) a lot better

Phase 6: Termination

Clients terminate when they achieve their therapeutic goals. Most counsellors allow clients to schedule follow-up sessions to aid in maintaining the progress (Mectcalf, 2011;Hope et al., 2010).

2.2.5 Solution Focused Brief Technique

Solution Focused Brief Therapy (SFBT) is one of family approaches known as system therapies which have been developed over the past 50 years. The title, solution focused brief therapy and the specific steps involved in its practise are attributed to husband and wife Steve De Shazer and Insoo Kim Berg and their team at The Brief Family Therapy Center in Milwaukee, USA(Trepper, McCollum, DeJong, Korman, Gingerich, & Franklin, 2010). Their work in the early 1980s built on that of a number of other innovators, among them Milton Erickson, and the group at the Mental Research Institute at Palo Alto (Lutz & Bodmer, 2013).Solution-focused brief counselling is derived from brief counselling therapy and it has gained great popularity since its inception due mainly to the fact that it is centrally concerned with efficiency and economy (Davis & Osborn, 2000). It is a counselling treatment that is based on over twenty years of theoretical development, clinical practice, and empirical research (De Jong & Berg, 2008). According to Kim (2003), over the past two decades, SolutionFocusedBrief Therapy (SFBT) has become a popular therapeutic model for social workers, counsellors, psychologists and other counselling professionals. Practitioners from all disciplines, especially school counsellors, have embraced solution focused brief therapy because of its flexibility, its collaborative nature, and its emphasis on client strengths. Practitioners do not need to have the answers to a client's problem because they collaborate with the client to identify the problem, define the goals, and look for solutions to meet those goals. The popularity of solution focused brief therapy has grown amongst practitioners in the U.S. and around the world,

Solution Focused Brief Therapy (SFBT) often referred to simply as 'solution focused therapy' or 'brief therapy', is a type of talking therapy based upon social constructionist philosophy. It focuses on what clients want to achieve through therapy rather than on historical problem(s) that made them seek for help (Sharry, Darmody, & Madden, 2002; Guterman, 2006).The approach focuses on the past only in order to activate conversations about resources and past successes. Predominantly, it purposefully activates and focuses conversations on the present and future.Solution-Focused Brief Therapy is different in many ways from traditional approaches to treatment. It is a competency-based model which minimizes emphasis on past failings and problems, and instead focuses on clients' strengths and previous successes. There is a focus on working from the client's understandings of her/his concern/situation and what the client might want different (De Shazer, Dolan et al., 2007). Joker and Ghaderi (2015) say solution-based counselling concentrates the individual's capabilities to change and create hope with a focus on positive points. It is target-oriented, aiming at building solutions and responses for components and problems. It is based on the fact that positive constructive change is inevitable. Therefore, the grounds which are likely to change are discussed in this method (Joker & Ghaderi, 2015). It starts from the point where the students stand. Initially, the counsellor accepts what the students say. In fact, students' needs and hopes are located at the center of attention and consultation and the counselling process is adapted to students' needs individually. The mutual performance is focused on the abilities and strengths. The solutions are sought for which can solve the problem. The basis of solution focused brief counselling approach is counsellor's trust in students to make changes in life, and utilize their own internal resources. This paper showed the techniques and method of solution focused brief approach which could help the students to recognize their weakness and strength points. It is suggested that solution focused brief group counselling is studied on other psychological aspects of students in a long-term approach, especially in schools.

Trepper, et al. (2010, p. 1-2) outline the basic tenets that inform Solution-Focused Brief Therapy as follows:

- It is based on solution-building rather than problem-solving.
- The therapeutic focus should be on the client's desired future rather than on past problems or current conflicts.
- Clients are encouraged to increase the frequency of current useful behaviours
- No problem happens all the time. There are exceptions – that is, times when the problem could have happened but didn't – that can be used by the client and therapist to co-construct solutions.
- Therapists' help clients find alternatives to current undesired patterns of behaviour, cognition, and interaction that are within the clients' repertoire or can be co-constructed by therapists and clients as such.
- Differing from skill-building and behaviour therapy interventions, the model assumes that solution behaviours already exist for clients.
- It is asserted that small increments of change lead to large increments of change.
- Clients' solutions are not necessarily *directly* related to any identified problem by either the client or the therapist.
- The conversational skills required of the therapist to invite the client to build solutions are different from those needed to diagnose and treat client problems.

Paolini (2016) summarisesthe basic tenets ofSolution-Focused Brief Counselling Technique (SFBCT) as present and future based and does not focus on historically deep-rooted issues rather it is proactive and emphasizes ways to resolve certain issues in a timely manner. It is a type of talk therapy that is student centered and focuses on encouraging students' to use their strengths and assets in order to achieve their goals (Guterman, 2006). SFBCT focuses on finding solutions rather

than emphasizing problems. Counsellors encourage students to envision their preferred future and assist them in finding ways to make their desired future a reality. Many of the techniques used in SFBCT are question based, which enables the student to create their favorable future and challenges the student to think about exceptions to perceived problems (Guterman, 2006) in an effort to resolve the issues. Counsellors who utilize SFBCT believe that change is constant and thereby helps the student to identify positive directions for change as well as continue to make changes that are in process that they hope to maintain (Hubble, Duncan, & Miller, 2010). SFBCT counsellors work to bring "small successes to awareness", motivate students to repeat and model successful choices and behaviours that elicit positive outcomes, ask students to be mindful of times when their problems are non-existent or less severe, and encourage them to be aware of what they do differently during these times as well as facilitate student's movement towards goals they have identified (Paolini, 2016).

Assumption of the Solution-Focused Brief Technique

Solution focused therapists believe personal change is already constant by helping people identify positive directions for change in their lives and to attempt to changethe current situation in the direction they wish to continue. SFBT therapists help clients construct a concrete vision of a preferred future for themselves (Guterman, 2006). These solution focused therapists viewed clients as experts on their lives and more importantly, what will be useful to them. SFBT can thus be defined as a client centered and collaborative process (Simon, and Berg, 2006).According to Burwell and Chen (2006), the foundation of this approach is the fundamental belief that people have what it takes to get what they want, and that this potential simply needs to be brought into their consciousness and set in motion. Solution-focused counselling is also known as a non-pathological approach in that the counsellor forms no preconceived notion about the nature of the problem and does not seek to understand the cause of the problem. In other words, the focus of the counselling is on where the client wants to go rather than where they have been. In order for this

to happen, the therapist/counsellor uses respectful curiosity to invite the client to envision their preferred future. Then therapist and client start attending to any moves towards that direction whether these are small increments or larger changes (Guterman, Mecias,&Ainbinder, 2005).

Working questions forSFBT therapeutic process

During the SFBT therapeutic process, questions are asked about the client's story, strengths and resourcesand especially, about any exceptions to client-perceived problems. Solution-focused brief therapy uses carefully posed questions that purposefully use communication tools from communication science that change perceptions through co-constructive language combined with collaborative goal setting, and the use of solution-building techniques that occur between therapist and client (McGee, Del Vento, &Bavelas, 2005).

The series of questions asked during the therapeutic process are:

The Miracle Question: The miracle question or "problem is gone" question is a method of questioning that a therapist or counsellor can utilize to invite the client to envision and describe in detail how the future will be different when the problem is no longer present. Also, this may help to establish goals. There are many different versions of the miracle question depending on the context and the client. A traditional version of the miracle question would go like this:

> "I am going to ask you a rather strange question [pause]. The strange question is this: [pause] After we talk, you will go back to your work (home, school) and you will do whatever you need to do the rest of today, such as taking care of your assignments, spending your leisure time well, cooking and eating dinner, do all other domestic works, watching TV, and so on. It will be time to go to bed. Everybody in your household is quiet, and you are sleeping in peace. In the middle of the night, a miracle happens and the problem that prompted you to talk to me today is solved! But because this happens while you are sleeping, you have no way of knowing that there was an overnight miracle that solved the problem. [Pause]

> So, when you wake up tomorrow morning, what might be the small change that will make you say to yourself, 'Wow, something must have happened—the problem is gone!'"? (Berg, & Dolan, 2001. p 7)

Exception Seeking Questions: Proponents of SFBT insist there are *always* times when the identified problem is less severe or absent for clients. The counsellor seeks to encourage the client to identify these occurrences and maximize their frequency. What happened that was different? What did you do that was different? The goal is for clients to repeat what has worked in the past, and support confidence in taking more and more "baby steps" towards their ideal scenes (Simon, 2009).

Scaling Questions: Scaling questions invite clients to employ measuring and tracking of their own experience in a non-threatening way. Scaling and measuring are useful tools to identify differences for clients. Goals and progress towards goals are often facilitated by subjective measuring and scaling. SFBT is famous for inviting clients to get very specific about such subjective measuring and scaling; for example, by asking questions that invite clients to establish their own polarity; and then, measure their progress--forwards and backwards--towards the more desirable pole. SFBT innovated language to make this invitation to be more internally rigorous and sound natural to clients: What is "the worst the problem has ever been?" (zero or one). What are "the best things could ever possibly be?" (ten). The client is asked to rate their current position on their own scale: Once the miracle day has been thoroughly explored, the counsellor can follow this with scales, on a scale where 0 = worst things have ever been and 10 = the miracle day, with questions such as: Where are you now? Where would things need to be for you to know that you didn't need to see me anymore? What will be the first things that will .let you know you are 1 point higher? (Greenberg, Ganshorn, & Danikewic, 2001; Guterman, 2006)

Coping questions: Coping questions are designed to elicit information about client resources that will have gone unnoticed by them. Even the most hopeless story has within it examples of coping

that can be drawn out: for example: "I can see how things have been really difficult for you, yet I am struck by the fact you get up each morning do all domestic works up to that of four adults and still do everything necessary to get to school in time. How do you do that?" Genuine curiosity and admiration can help to highlight strengths without appearing to contradict the client's perception of the problem (Guterman, Mecias, &Ainbinder, 2005).

Problem-free talk: Solution focused therapists attempt to create a judgment-free zone for clients where what is going well, what areas of life are problem-free are discussed. Problem-free talk can be useful for uncovering hidden resources, to help the person relax, or become more naturally pro-active, for example. Solution focused therapists may talk about seemingly irrelevant life experiences such as leisure activities, meeting with friends, relaxing and managing conflict. This often uncovers client values, beliefs and strengths. From this discussion the therapist can use these strengths and resources to move the therapy forward. For example; if a client wants to be more assertive, it may be that under certain life situations they are assertive. This strength from one part of their life can then be transferred or generalized to another area where new behaviour is desired (Iveson, 2002; Jones, 2008).

These carefully constructed communication processes are believed to be key components to helping client's change. Solutions emerge in perceptions and interactions between people and problems are not to be solved solely by the therapist but rather solutions are co-constructed with the client(s) (Kim, & Franklin, 2009). That is, SFBT therapists support clients to identify times in their life when things matched more closely with the future they prefer. Differences and similarities between the two occasions are examined. By bringing small successes to awareness, and supporting clients to repeat their successful choices and behaviours when the problem is not there or less severe.Therapists facilitate client movement towards goals and preferred futures they have identified.Because of these attributes, solution focused counselling has drawn great attention from

counsellors who seek a time sensitive, positive, and highly pragmatic approach to working with their clients (Greenberg, Ganshorn, & Danikewic, 2001; Milner & O'Byrne, 2002).

Based on the above explanations, it is clear that solution-focused brief therapy differs from traditional treatmentin that traditional treatment focuses on exploring problematic feelings, cognitions, behaviours, and/or interaction, providing interpretations, confrontation, and client education. In contrast, SFBT helps client develop a desired vision of the future wherein the problem is solved, explored and amplify related client exceptions, strengths, and resources to co-construct a client-specific pathway to making the vision a reality. Thus each client finds his or her own way to a solution based on his or her emerging definitions of goals, strategies, strengths, and resources. Even in cases where the client comes to use outside resources to create solutions, it is the client who takes the lead in defining the nature of those resources and how they would be useful.The researcher prefers this technique because it is designed to find solution to problems like Parent-child conflict, child behaviour problems, diabetes, domestic violence, suicide, self-harm, alcoholism, substance abuse, problem gambling, depression, anxiety, schizophrenia, delinquency, antisocial behaviour, life coaching, poor self-concept, school counselling related issues (Stephen, 2014).Pichotand Dolan, (2003) maintain that SFBT is being used to treat the entire range of clinical disorders, and is also being used in educational and business settings. Meta-analysis and systematic reviews of experimental and quasi-experimental studies indicate that SFBT is a promising intervention for youth with externalizing behaviour problems and those with school and academic problems, showing medium to large effect sizes.

Solution Focused Brief Techniques Template

The SFBCT working template is meant to be used as a guideline to learning the process of SFBCT. According to Gingerich and Eisengart (2000, p. 479);Mectcalf (2011)andSobhy and Cavallaro (2010, p. 8-10), the template provides the steps to take and questions to ask that promote

collaboration between the counsellor and client. There are suggested questions under each heading to help start the process.

Phase 1: Joining and Building Rapport

Introduce yourself and greet everyone in the room. Explain your role as a solution focused counsellor. Be friendly and curious. Here are some questions that a counsellor might use during this phase:

- My name is ____. As we begin talking, it would help me to know you if you would tell me about yourselves and things you appreciate about each other
- What brings you here today?
- How is negative self-concept a problem for you?
- Is that a problem for anyone else? How is it a problem for others?
- What effect does that have on you?

Reading or listening and clarification of clients' responses will follow.

Phase 2: Goal-Setting through Miracle Question

The counsellor works with the clients to set specific goal(s) that will be meaningful and relevant to the clients. To do this, thecounsellorexplains the importance of miracle question to the clients. The miracle question is a technique that counsellors can use to assist clients to think 'outside the square' in regard to new possibilities and outcomes for the future.Then he later asks the miracle question thus:

> "Now, I want to ask you a strange question. Suppose that while you are sleeping tonight and the entire house is quiet, a miracle happens. The miracle is that the problem which brought you here is solved. However because you are sleeping, you don't know that the miracle has happened. So, when you wake up tomorrow

morning, what will be different that will tell you that a miracle has happened and the problem which brought you here is solved?"(Sobhy & Cavallaro, 2010, p. 8-10)

Describe the differences from your point of view and what others would be doing and experiencing.

- How will things be different when the problem is solved? . . . for you? . . . for others?
- How will you know coming here is worthwhile?
- What will you be doing differently?
- What will other people notice?
- How will you know you don't have to come here anymore?

Reading or listening and clarification of clients' responses will follow.

Phase 3:Use of scaling questions

Clients will be asked "On a scale from 1 to 10, with 1 being your goals not achieved and 10, your goals completely achieved,

Researcher will ask the clients on a scale from 1 to 10.

- Where would you rate yourself today?
- Where would you like to be on the scale at the end of the term?
- Provide the group with ways you will accomplish this increase" (goal and future oriented).

Reading or listening and clarification of clients' responses will follow.

Phase 4: Researching for Exceptions and Existing Resource in Clients' Life

The counsellor engages the clients on how to notice their exception period when the problem is not there or little through exception questions and the existing resource.

Examples of Exception and Existing Resource Questions include:

- Tell me about times when the problem is less troubling or when it is not happening
- Tell me about times you felt the happiest.

- When was the last time that you feel you had a better day?
- Tell me about times when you cope better with the problem
- What is different about the times when the problem is better?
- What small changes will you notice?
- When things are tough, how do you cope
- Tell me what has worked in the past even if only a short time
- How have you dealt with similar problems in the past?
- What have you learned from previous experiences like this that might be useful in this situation?

Remember to ask for detail. What else? And tell me more (Gingerich and Eisengart 2000, p. 479). Reading or listening and clarification of clients' responses will follow.

Phase 5: Application of exception to the future for strength and solution

To project their exceptions into the future, the counsellor explains how to draw a scale from 1-10with the application of the existing resources in them.

- What will it take for that to happen more often in the future?
- Who has to do what to make it happen again?
- What is the most important thing for you to remember to do to make sure that- (the exception) has the best chance of happening again?
- What's the next most important thing to remember?

Scaling questions is a helpful way to track coaches' progress toward goals and monitor incremental change.

- Where would you rate things today?
- What number were you as the problem was at its worst?
- What will you notice if you moved up one or two numbers towards your goal?

Once a counsellor is given a number, he or she explores how that rating translates into action-talk. For example, if the client rates his or her situation at a three, the counsellor asks, “What specifically is happening to indicate to you that it is a three?”

Phase 6: Development of Presupposing Change

The counsellor needs to be attentive to positive changes (however small) that occur in their clients’ lives. Therefore, the questions of presuppose change can be useful in assisting clients to recognize such changes.

- “What’s different or better since I saw you last time?”
- “What has helped you to be able to move forward?”
- “What else helped?” (ask several times for more)
- “What difference did that make for you?”

This question invites clients to consider the possibility that change (perhaps positive change) has recently occurred in their lives.

If evidence of positive change is unavailable, the counsellor can pursue a line of questioning that relates to the client’s ability to cope.

Questions such as:

- How come things aren’t worse for you?
- What stopped total disaster from occurring?
- How did you avoid falling apart?

These questions can be followed up by the counsellor positively affirming the clients with regard to any action they took to cope and discuss how the "new-self” will be emerged.

Phase 7: Termination (compliment and task)

When the clients report that things are better, inquire about whether they think it is time to stop or take a break. If the clients decide to terminate, the following question is necessary for the reassurance of the process:

- "What did we do during our time together that you find helpful, if anything?" (Gingerich, and Eisengart, 2000, p. 479;Mectcalf, 2011: Sobhy&Cavallaro, 2010, p. 8-10).

2.3: Theoretical Frameworks

2.3.1: Cognitive Behaviour Therapy

Cognitive Behaviour Therapy (CBT) was pioneered by psychologists Aaron Beck and Albert Ellis in the 1960s (Rachman, 1997; Gale Encyclopedia of Medicine, 2008). Cognitive Behaviour Therapy is one of the major orientations of psychotherapy (Roth &Fonagy, 2005) and represents a unique category of psychological intervention because it derives from cognitive and behavioural psychological models of human behaviour that include for instance, theories of normal and abnormal development, and theories of emotion and psychopathology (Adeusi, 2013). Cognitive Behavioural Therapy (CBT) combines cognitive and behavioural therapies, and involves changing the way you think (cognitive) (negative self-concept) and how you respond to thoughts (behaviour) (poor academic achievement). CBT focuses on the 'here and now' instead of focusing on the cause of the issue, and breaks overwhelming problems into smaller parts to make them easier to deal with. These smaller parts can be described as thoughts, emotions, physical feelings and actions. Each of these has the ability to affect the other, for instance, the way you think about things (oneself and environment) can affect how you feel emotionally and physically (low self-concept) and ultimately how you behave (academic underachiever). CBT is based on the principle that individuals learn unhelpful ways of thinking and behaving over a long period of time. However, identifying these thoughts and how they can be problematic to feelings and

behaviours can enable individuals to challenge negative ways of thinking, leading to positive feelings and behavioural changes. It is possible for the therapy to take place on a one-to-one basis, with family members or as a group depending on the issue and how the individual feels most comfortable (Adeusi, 2013).

The cognitive component in the cognitive-behavioural psychotherapies refer to how people think and create meaning about situations, symptoms and events in their lives and develop beliefs about themselves, others and the world. Cognitive therapy uses techniques to help people become more aware of how they reason, and the kind of automatic thoughts that spring to mind and give meaning to things. Cognitive interventions use a style of questioning to probe for people's minds and use this to stimulate alternative viewpoints or ideas. This method is called guided discovery, and it involves exploring and reflecting on the style of reasoning and thinking, and possibilities of thinking differently and more helpfully. On the basis of these alternatives, people carry out behavioural experiments to test out the accuracy of these alternatives, and thus adopt new ways of perceiving and acting. The overall intention is to move away from more extreme and unhelpful ways of seeing things to more helpful and balanced conclusions. Such as from low academic self-concept to positive in order to bring about academic success. A Cognitive Behaviour Therapy (CBT) is a psychotherapy based on modifying everyday thoughts and behaviours, with the aim of positively influencing emotions. The general approach developed out of behaviour modification and cognitive therapy, and has become widely used to treat mental disorders. The particular therapeutic techniques vary according to the particular kind of client or issue, but commonly include keeping a diary of significant events and associated feelings, thoughts and behaviours, questioning and testing assumptions or habits of thoughts that might be unhelpful and unrealistic, gradually facing activities which may have been avoided, and trying out new ways of behaving and reacting (Keshi, Basavarajappa, & Nik, 2013).Cognitive behavioural therapy interventions in high school would mainly be concerned with helping students realize three things: how their

thought patterns affect their behaviour (how low self-concept affects their academic performance); how they can take control of these thought patterns(how to change from low to high self-concept); and how they can apply interventions to effect behaviour change, (how to apply high self-concept to elicit academic achievement) (Hall & Hughes, 1989 in Keshi, Basavarajappa, & Nik, 2013).

Utilizing cognitive behavioural interventions in middle schools may not only positively affect self-concept and academic achievement, but also reduce stress and anxiety which negatively impact peer popularity, increase depression, and exacerbate attention deficits and loneliness (Barbabasz & Barabasz, 1981 in Keshi, Basavarajappa, & Nik, 2013). Brigman & Campbell, (2003) found that cognitive behaviour therapy has a significant effect on improving the self-concept of African American and Latino students, including high school students. Sung Kim (2006) found that CBT interventions such as cognitive restructuring and cognitive self-instruction improve students' adaptive self-statements about their school and academic performance.

CBT can be useful for dealing with issues such as anger, anxiety, depression, drug or alcohol problems, negative self-concept, phobias, post-traumatic stress disorder, poor academic performance, and many others (Driessen&Hollon, 2010; Matusiewicz, Hopwood, Banducci&Lejuez, 2010; Murphy, Straebler, Cooper & Fairburn, 2010; Otte, 2011; Seligman &Ollendick, 2011).

The emphasis on cognitive or behavioural aspects of therapy can vary depending on the issue at hand. For example, the emphasis may be on cognitive therapy when treating negative self-concept on behaviour therapy when treating academic underachievement. CBT is a practical therapy.Hence,it is likely to work best when used in treating a specific issue per time as it focuses on particular problems and how to overcome them. CBT sessions may consist of a number of activities, including Coping skills, Assessments, Relaxation, Challenging certain thoughts, Thought stopping, Homework projects, and Training in communication (Longmore& Worrell, 2007; Shobola, 2008; Salman, Esere, Omotosho, Abdullahi,&Oniyangi, 2011; Adeusi, 2013).

2.3.2 Humanistic Theory of Carl Rogers

The Humanistic theory is a psychological perspective which rose to prominence in the mid-20th century in response to the psychoanalytic theory of Sigmund Freud and the behaviourism of Skinner. The theory is sometimes referred to as a "third force" as distinct from the two more traditional approaches of psychoanalysis and behaviourism (Adeusi, 2013). This theory emphasizes an individual's inherent drive towards self-actualization and creativity (Aileen Milne 2003). The theory acknowledges that an individual's mind is strongly influenced by ongoing determining forces in both the unconscious and conscious world around them, specifically the society in which they live. The focus of the humanistic perspective is on the self, and this view argues that individuals are free to choose their own behaviour, rather than reacting to environmental stimuli and reinforcers. Here, issues dealing with self-concept, self-esteem, self-fulfillment, and needs are paramount. Carl Rogers as a major spokesman in Humanistic Psychology rejects the deterministic nature of both psychoanalysis and behaviourism and maintains that people behave as observed because of the way they perceive their situation. "As no one else can know how we perceive, we are the best experts on ourselves (Rogers, 1959, 1969; McLeod, 2007). Carl Rogers (1959) believes that humans have one basic motive, which is the tendency to self-actualize (that is to fulfill one's potential and achieve the highest level of 'human-being). Like a flower that will grow to its full potential if the conditions are right, but which is constrained by its environment, so people will flourish and reach their potentials(achieve academic success) if their environment is good enough.

Rogers sees people as basically good or healthy or at the very least, not bad or ill. In other words, he sees mental health as the normal progression of life, and he sees mental physical illness, antisocial behaviours, conflicts with family, friends, siblings, or teachers and other human problems, as distortions of that natural tendency that can affect how one perceives oneself i.e. Self-concept which may in turn affect one's academic achievement. The entire theory is built on a single

—force of life which he called —the actualizing tendency. It can be defined as the built-in motivation that is present in every life-form to develop its potentials to the fullest extent possible. Rogers believes that all creatures strive to make the very best of their existence and are not just concerned with survival (Rogers, 1951 & Gladding, 1988). Rogers (1959) holds that human infants possess the following traits:

- Whatever an infant perceives is that which is defined as reality by the infant. An infant‘s perception is an internal process of which no one else can be aware of.
- All infants are born with a self-actualizing tendency that is satisfied through goal directed behaviours.
- An infant‘s interaction with the environment is an organized whole, and everything an infant does is interrelated.
- The experiences of an infant may be seen as positive or negative based on whether such experiences enhance the actualization tendency.
- Infants maintain experiences that are actualizing and avoid those that are not.

Human problem is as a result of negative socialization, conditioned positive regards (Children are accepted by parents when good and rejected when bad; development of view: ‘I ought to be good’, ‘I have to be good’; loss of touch with our true nature, that is, real self‘and actualizing tendency; and development of an Ideal self: whom we feel we should be). Rogers describes the self as a social product, developing out of interpersonal relationships and striving for consistency while the concept of actualizing tendency implies that there is an internal biological force to develop one's capacities and talents to the fullest. The ideal self and real self-involve understanding the issues that arise from having an idea of what you wish you were as a person, and having that which does not match whom you actually are as a person (incongruence). The ideal self is what a

person believes that he should be as well as imbibing what their core values should be. The real self is what is actually played out in life (Gladding, 1988; Corey, 1990 & Aileen Milne 2003).

The problem of underachievement can be seen as a product of the inability of the ideal (academic achievers) and real selves (negative self-concept) to be at congruence and also as a result of negative environment (from home, school, pears and others) that an individual is exposed to. For a person to "achieve academically", there is the need for an enabling environment that should provide them with genuineness (openness and self-disclosure), acceptance (being seen with unconditional positive regard), and empathy (being listened to and understood) either at home or in the school. These that will promote positive self-concepts in them. Without these, positive self-concepts that will bring about adequate academic performance will not develop as it should, just as a tree will not grow without sunlight and water (McLeod, 2007). In the humanistic and reflective theory of Carl Rogers (1963), he suggests that parents should use therapeutic skills of empathy to understand a child‘s needs and feelings. Parents should employ empathy to understand a child‘s needs and or feelings and reflect back on what they are feeling in order to help them grow in awareness and understanding(Adeusi, 2013).

2.3.3 Achievement Goal Approach Theory.

Achievement Goal Approach Theory (AGAT) propounded by Butler (1999), states that to achieve competence, an individual would have to avoid incompetence and aspires to attain competence. He also asserts that achievement goal theory is viewed as the predominant approach to the analysis of achievement motivation. This relates to the desire in students to achieve success in their desired goal which is academic achievement by striving to work hard, particularly in school subjects, but still believe they can succeed (positive self-concept). Students who have negative self-concept on their ability to achieve success academically need to rebuke that think rationally and restructure their belief pattern that hard work is a step in the right direction to achieving success. With this belief, positive self-concept sets in and the students begin to systematically practice the basic

concepts in the subjects taught. Therefore, with strong positive self-concept couple with dedication and hard workthe students' dream of attaining success academically becomes a reality and self-confidence is built (Oguguwa, 2010). This theory relates with the researchers actual intention of changing the negative self-concept that leads some secondary students to become academic underachievers through the application of two different counselling therapeutic processes of cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques to enhance their negative self-concept so as to improve their academic achievements.

2.3.3 Cognitive Development Theory of Jean Piaget

Cognitive development theory was developed by a Swiss psychology, Jean Piaget who pioneered the study of cognitive development in childhood.Piaget is known for studying the cognitive development in children. He studied his own three children and their intellectual development and came up with a theory that describes the stages children pass through during development (Cherry, 2012). Piaget states that adults' intellectual behaviour do not arise suddenly or abruptly but rather had their beginning in the infants' sensory-motor functioning. He asserts that intellectual development proceeds by way of assimilation, accommodation and equilibrium. Assimilation means that a person takes in information from his environment but makes certain changes in his perceptions or understanding if environmental events do not coincide perfectly with his previous formed concept about these events. This change in the previously formed concept is called accommodation while the ability to balance between the previous formed concept and new concept taken from environment is known as equilibrium. That is, a child learns from interaction with the environment through social transmission, transmission of ideas, values, system and personality concept which the child uses to form his own self-concept through formal and informal structures (Kayode, 2006). Piaget propounds that every person must pass through a sequence of developmental stages before reaching or capable of reasoning and thinking as an adult and believes

that humans are unique in comparison to animals because he has the capacity to do abstract symbolic reasoning (Cherry, 2012).

Piaget suggests that a child's thought processes and develops through four broad periods. These are:

1. Sensory-motor period (birth to 2years)
2. Pre-operational period (2-7years)
3. Concrete operational period (7-11/12years)
4. Formal operational period (11/12years and above)

Sensory-motor period (birth to 2years)

The first stage of cognitive development is sensory-motor also known as infantry stage, age (0–2 years).At this stage, the child's adaptation to his new environment does not involve extensive use of symbols or language. This means intelligence is present; there is motor activity but no symbols; knowledge is developing yet limited; knowledge is based on experiences/ interactions; mobility allows the child to learn new things; some language skills are developed at the end of this stage. The goal is to develop recognition of object permanently; achieves basic understanding of causality, time, and space, but self-concept not yet vividly formed.

Pre-operational period (2-7years)

Pre-operational stage also known as Toddler and Early Childhood (2–7 years);at this stage symbols or language skills are present; memory and imagination are developed; nonreversible and non-logical thinking; the child shows intuitive problem solving; begins to see relationships; grasps concept of conservation of numbers; egocentric thinking predominates.At this stage, the child's self-concept is newly formed through egocentrism that is self centred and that self-concept is general and highly flexible.

Concrete operational period (7-11/12years)

Concrete operational stage:Elementary and Early AdolescencePeriod(7–12 years);at this stage,logical and systematic form of intelligence; manipulation of symbols related to concrete objects; thinking is now characterized by reversibility and the ability to take the role of another; grasps concepts of the conservation of mass, length, weight, and volume; operational thinking predominates nonreversible and egocentric thinking.At this stage,the operations become available to the child and he is able to form classification, understanding, attaining concepts of numbers, quantities, weight, volume, time, movement and velocity. A child develops relationship between self-concept and achievement,De Fraine, Van Damme, and Onghena (2007) observes that the association between academic self-concept and achievement at the individual level is rather strong at the start ofhigh school since this stage marks the end of primary and beginning of secondary school.The child's self-concept is usually stronger.

Formal operational period (11/12years and above)

Formal operational stage, Adolescence and Adulthood (12 years and above); logical use of symbols related to abstract concepts; acquisition of flexibility in thinking as well as the capacities for abstract thinking and mental hypothesis testing; can consider possible alternatives in complex reasoning and problem solving (Parke, &Gauvain, 2009). This stage is characterized by the child's ability to generalize and abstract from his experiences of various sorts. He is able to formulate hypotheses from observation of events. When the adolescent has reached the stage of formal operation, verbally presented abstract arguments and concepts become the important kind of learning experience.At this period,many studies find that children have a declining academic self-concept during adolescence period due to his need for satisfying philosophy of life, but become stronger during adult(Kayode, 2006; Rosen, 2010). De Fraine, Van Damme, and Onghena (2007) prove that by the end of high school, however, this relation is much weaker, especially for girls. But as they grow older, academic self-concept may also become more stable and reliable (Guay, Marsh, &Boivin, 2003). This is in line withPastorino and Doyle-Portillo(2013)who claimed that

at tender age one's self-concept is very general and changeable... as someone grows older, this self-concept become much more organized, detailed, and specific.

2.3.4 Social Learning Theory by Albert Bandura

One of the most influential learning theories, the Social Learning Theory (SLT) was formulated by Albert Bandura. The social learning theory emphasizes the importance of observing and modelling the behaviours, attitudes, and emotional reactions of others. Thus it focuses on learning by observation and modelling. The theory originally evolved from behaviourism but now includes many of the ideas cognitivists.As a result, it is sometimes called social cognitive learning.

Basic Concepts

The Social Learning Theory also known as Observational Learning or modelling says that people can learn by watching other people perform a the behaviour. Observational learning explains the ability of children to learn behaviours by watching the behaviour of the people around them, andeventually imitating them.Theconformistunderachievers decide not to do well because they feel pressure from peers.They want to blend with them and not stand out.The theory has four basic steps.They are:

Step 1: Attention

Social Cognitive Theory implies that you must pay attention for you to learn. If you want to learn from the behaviour of the model (the person that demonstrates the behaviour), then you should eliminate anything that catches your attention other than him. Also, the more interesting the model is, the more likely you are to pay full attention to him and learn.

Step 2: Retention

Retention of the newly learned behaviour is necessary. Without it, learning of the behaviour would not be established and you might need to get back to observing the model again since you were not able to store information about the behaviour.

Step 3: Reproduction

When you are successful in paying attention and retaining relevant information, this step requires you to demonstrate the behaviour. In this phase, practise of the behaviour by repeatedly doing it is important for improvement.

Step 4: Motivation

Feeling motivated to repeat the behaviour is what you need in order to keep on performing it. This is where reinforcement and punishment come in. You can be rewarded by demonstrating the behaviour properly, and punished by displaying it inappropriately (Bandura, 2006b.).

After his studies, Bandura was able to determine three basic models of observational learning which include:

i. A Live Model, which includes an actual person performing behaviour.

ii. A Verbal Instruction Model, which involves telling of details and descriptions of behaviour.

iii. A Symbolic Model, which includes either a real or fictional character demonstrating the behaviour via movies, books, television, radio, online media and other media sources(Bandura, 2006a. p. 13).

Social learning theory talks about how both environmentalfactorssuch as school, home and peersand cognitive factors such as student personality (self-concept) interact to influence human learning and behaviour such as academic performance (academic underachievement). It focuses on the learning that occurs within a social context. It considers that people learn from one another, including such concepts as observational learning, imitation, and modelling (Bandura, 2007).

In relation withacademic achievement, Balduf (2009) states that not only external reinforcement or factors such as the student's peers, culture, family, social, and school environment can affect learningbehaviour or academic achievement. There is also what he calls intrinsic reinforcement or factors like student's personality characteristics such as self-concept, self-esteem, perfectionism/procrastination, and an ability or willingness to take risks that

contributes to his or her academic underachievement (Williams, 2008; Balduf, 2009&Bandura, 2007). Satisfaction given the verdict

2.3.5 Multimodal Theory ofAcademic Achievement (for Underachievers)

Multimodal theory of academic achievement waspropoundedby John and Helen Krause.Viewing the ways researchers have worked together studying underachievement and concluding that those who have researched underachievement should focus on specific factors and causes, and to view the problem in a broader perspective by not looking at underachievement as a single phenomenon, but coming from several angles (Griffen, 1988 in Voegeli, 2008). They view academic underachievement as a complex interaction between deficits in academic skills such as reading and mathematics, deficient self-control skills, and interfering affective factors (Griffen, 1988 in Voegeli, 2008).

In accordance with multimodal theory, Mandel & Marcus (1995) observe that how youth perform at school can be the result of many things, and quite possibly including the school itself,family, school friends and personality.Everything and everyone can playa role in academics and sometimes can be influenced by the following factors: Short and long term illness, if students miss school for a specific amount of time, he or she may fall behind with his or her studies. When the student returns, there may be a lack ofenergy and concentration and if a long-term illness persists, serious academic consequences can follow. Poor nutrition also contributes to underachievement. A study has shown the benefits of having breakfast. It gives the student the ability to think clearly. A student who is lacking essential vitamins or minerals, taking junk food, and is not eating enough will be affected academically.

Emotional factors like conflicts with family, friends, siblings, or teachers can contribute to underachievement as well. Marital problem in a family like marital conflict, illness, and accidents affecting anyone close, death in the family or a friend, family violence as well as alcohol-or drug-related problems in a family can all contribute to underachievement. The more the length and

impact, the greater the chances school performance will be affected negatively (Mandel & Marcus, 1995 in Voegeli, 2008).

Mental factors and learning disabilities also contribute to underachievement and affect learning. Youth with these types of deficits often do well in courses that do not involve their disability, but poorly in subjects that are affected by it. Mandel & Marcus(1995) conclude that intelligence contributes to a person's grade point average and academic ability, but family, school, friends, cultural, and personality have a greater influence on a student's potential. Therefore, for children to be ofhigh intelligence does not mean that they will do well academically.According to the theory underachievers take different journeys involving lack of motivation, reacting to major problems within their family, responding to difficulties with peers, and conflicts with one-self all respond differently. This may help gain understanding to why students underachieve academically (Voegeli, 2008).

2.3.6 Fundamental Psychological Needs for Students Theory

Fundamental psychological needs for student theory is trying to understand the reason why some students may choose not to achieve academically. Each student has fundamental psychological needs, and underachievement can be linked to these needs not met (Voegeli, 2008). Raffni (1993) finds that students' needs for positive se1f-worth, autonomy, competence and group relatedness significantly influence motivation to learn in the classroom.

Maslow's hierarchy of human needs is a theory in the foundation ofpsychological needs. Maslow believed individuals are driven to satisfy both their basic needs and their growth needs. He organized these two need systems into a hierarchy where satisfaction ofbasic needs generally takes precedence over satisfaction of growth needs. The elimination of deficiencies provides the foundation to his theory. This theory gives understanding to students and learning. Unless students have adequately satisfied their biological needs for food, water, sleep, and temperature regulation,

it is unlikely that they will become interested in the everyday rituals of the classroom (Raffini, 1993).

The need for safety and security is another component of Maslow's hierarchy of basic needs. It relates to students feeling safe from both physical and psychological harm before they can focus their attentions on the required activities in the classroom. Both dysfunctional families and dysfunctional classrooms can create a threat to the safety and security ofmany students. Often if a student has a parent who resorts to physical violence or emotional abuse or when a teacher resorts to hollering, ridiculing, or threatening, a student may withdraw into him/herself or act out behaviourally. Regardless of the source, a lack of safety in a student's living or learning environment can take away the energy that might be channalled toward personal growth and academic learning and achievement. Aneedforloveandbelongingisanotherneed ofMaslow'shierarchy ofbasicneeds. To avoid the feeling ofbeing isolated or alone, one must develop reciprocal relationships, and he or she must be able to identify himself/herselfas a member of a larger group. This sense ofbelonging and caring is often threatened in classrooms where students are forced to compete against each other or where peers reject others who look or act differently. The last of the needs is the need for self-esteem, known as holding a positive view of one-self. As students go through countless experiences with significant others whose actions and reactions teach them who they are and whether or not they are worthwhile and valued as a human being their personal esteem is developed (Raffini, 1993). When the four needs from Maslow's hierarchy are satisfied, students are free to focus their energies on meeting their personal growth needs. According to Maslow, these needs include both the desire to acquire cognitive knowledge and truth and the urge to appreciate aesthetic beauty and symmetry.

Self-actualization stands at the top of Maslow's hierarchy which is referring to an individual's intrinsic drive to meet his or her full potential. Having a belief in one’s own worth, he

or she can get involved in a life-long process of striving to reach and understand all that exists in the world experiences around them (Raffini, 1993).

A Perceptual View ofStudent Behaviour

Students behave according to their personal views ofthe world at any given moment and to understand another's behaviour, one may try to see the world through his or her eyes. Much of individual behaviours come from past experiences, which continue to change, and can make learning possible or a daunting experience that mar the learning exercise. By helping students to examine the broader implications of their behaviours, they can help weigh alternatives to their actions before they experience consequences. Perceptions change from moment to moment and those that relate to one's sense of identity (self-concept) command the greatest attention which significantly influence behaviours (academic achievement). Individuals (students) strive to behave in ways that are consistent with the views they hold ofthemselves. A student who believes he or she is not good at school (poor academic self-concept) behaves in such a manner (poor academic performance) to reinforce the perception and vice versa (Voegeli, 2008).

2.3.7 The Self-Determination Theory

The self-determination theorywhich dated back to the 1970s is an empirically based theory of human motivation, development and wellness. The research on the self-determination theory was truly mushroomed during the past decades (Deci& Ryan 2008). According to Areepattamannil and Freeman (2008), the self-determination theory is an approach to human motivation that highlights the importance of the psychological need for autonomy.In the self-determination theory, the focus is on qualitative rather than on quantitative differences in motivation. This means that they rather focus on the quality and type of motivation than on the amount of motivation. This finding is reiterated by Deci and Ryan (2008) when they reveal that the theory focuses on types rather than merely on the amount of motivation, paying particular attention to autonomous

motivation, controlled motivation and amotivation as a predictor of performance and well-being outcomes.

Central to the self-determination theory is the distinction between autonomous and controlled motivation (Coetzee, 2011). Deci and Ryan in Areepattamanniland Freeman (2008) state that only autonomously motivated behaviours are considered fully self-determined, because these motivations are either innate to the person or have been fully assimilated with the core 'self' through the process of integration. This type of motivation is also referred to as intrinsic motivation. Self-determination refers to the experience of freedom in initiating behaviour.This is called autonomous behaviour (Mnyandu, 2001) or intrinsic motivation.

The self-determination theory distinguishes between different types of motivation based on the different reasons or goals that give rise to an action. The self-determination theory distinguishes between three types of motivations, namely intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and amotivation (Ryan &Deci 2000; Coetzee, 2011). Both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations can be valuable to students in developing positive self-concept towards their academic pursuit, while amotivation develop negative self-concept which may in turn lead to academic underachievement.Self-determination theory heavily emphasizes the role of self-perception of competence as an antecedent of autonomous academic motivation (Ahmed &Bruinsma, 2006) or intrinsic motivation. This implies that the self-determination theory points out that for intrinsic motivation to be present in a student, the student needs to have a positive academic self-concept but if otherwise (amotivation) the student has negative self-concept (Coetzee, 2011).

2.4 Empirical Studies

Many research works have been carried out on the relationship between self-concept and academic achievement or underachievement both locally and internationally. Such asFrick, Kamphaus, Lahey, Loeber, Christ, Hart, andTannenbaum (1991) worked on academic underachievement and the disruptive behaviour disorders. Academic underachievement (AU) was

studied among 177 clinic-referred boys, reliably diagnosed as having attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) or conduct disorder (CD). Unlike previous studies, the present study assessed AU using a formula that determined the discrepancy between a child's predicted level of achievement and the actual level of achievement while controlling for regression and age effects. AU was associated with both ADHD and CD when the disorders were examined individually. However, when examined in multivariate logistic model analyses, the apparent relation between CD and AU was found to be due to its co-morbidity with ADHD. When boys with ADHD were divided into those with attention deficits only and those with co-occurring hyperactivity, findings did not support the hypothesis that the association with AU is stronger for attention deficits without co-occurring hyperactivity.

Emerick (1992)carries out his study on academic underachievement among the gifted: Students' perceptions of factors that reverse the pattern.Heinvestigated factors which had influenced the reversal of the underachievement pattern in 10 gifted students with age range 14-20 of those who moved from chronic underachievement to academic success. Results indicated that six factors were influential in reversing poor school performance. There was evidence that some gifted underachievers may respond well to interventions incorporating educational modifications which focused on individual strengths and interests.

Callaghanand Joseph (1995) carry out the study on Self-concept and peer victimization among schoolchildren. This was doneto replicate previous work in order to confirm the internal reliability and convergent validity of the Peer Victimization Scale. This is a 6-item scale which can be immersed within the Self-Perception Profile for Children.Thusreducing the saliency of the items and therefore minimising the effects of social desirability. For boys and girls, higher scores on the PeerVictimization Scalewere associated with self-concept and peer-reports of victimization as well as with lower global self-worth, poorer perceptions of competence in a variety of domains, and greater depressive symptomatology.

Also, Akinpelu (1998) who worked on a study of the academic achievement and self-concept of male and female hearing-impaired students in Nigeria. In doing so, a purposive sampling procedure was employed to elicit responses from 566 (364 males and 204 females) hearing-impaired secondary school students identified in various parts of the country. The Adolescent Personal Data Inventory (APDI) was used to measure self-concept while the respondents' Junior Secondary Certificate Examination (JSCE) results were measures of their academic achievement. The data collected were analyzed using the t-test statistical procedure. The findings revealed that male hearing-impaired students did not achieve better than their female counterparts. It was also found that the self-concept of male hearing-impaired students was not significantly different from that of female hearing-impaired students.

McCoach and Siegle (2003) examine whethergifted achievers and gifted underachievers differ intheir general academic self-perceptions, attitudestoward school, attitudes toward teachers, motivationand self-regulation, and goal valuation. The sampleconsisted of 56 gifted underachievers and 122 giftedachievers from 28 high schools nationwide. Giftedachievers and gifted underachievers differed in theirattitudes toward school, attitudes toward teachers,motivation/self-regulation, and goal valuation, butnot their academic self-perceptions. In addition, thelogistic regression analysis correctly classified over81% of the sample as either gifted achievers or giftedunderachievers using their motivation/self-regulationand goal valuation self-ratings. This study representsan important step toward quantifying factors relatedto the underachievement of gifted adolescents.

Liuand Wang, (2005) worked on academic self-concept: a cross-sectional study of grade and gender differences in a Singapore secondary school.The study aimed to determine whether there is any grade or gender effect on adolescents' academic self-concept in the Singapore context. Specifically, the cross-sectional study was conducted with Secondary 1, 2 and 3 students (N = 656) in a government co-educational school. The results established a significant main effect according

to grade with Secondary 3 students having significantly lower academic self-concept (scale and subscales) than Secondary 1 and 2 students. In addition, there was a significant main effect for gender with female students having significantly higher perceived academic effort (academic self-concept subscale) than their male counterparts.

Yu-Tan and Yates (2007) used the Rasch model to assess the unidimensionality and item-person fit of an Academic Self-Concept Questionnaire (ASCQ) that is based on the Confucian Heritage Culture (CHC) perspective. Knowledge of the relationship between academic achievement and academic self-concept is particularly useful because academic achievement is overemphasized in the CHC. ASCQ largely satisfies the Rasch model for unidimensionality. However, four items had poor infit statistics, suggesting that they do not contribute significantly to the scale hierarchy. Rasch model also confirmed the unidimensionality of the two subscales – Academic Confidence and Academic Effort. The academic self-concept scale, academic effort and academic confidence subscales were also found to be valid with students with learning disabilities. Results from this study will extend the predominantly Western based literature regarding Academic Self-Concept by reaffirming the construct of a CHC measure of academic self-concept that incorporates the values of academic effort and academic confidence.

Liu (2009) centred her study exploring changes in academic self-concept in ability-grouped English classes. Subjects for the study comprised 126 college freshmen placed into three different proficiency levels for English instruction. The academic self-concept scale used in the study composed of two subscales to measure students' academic confidence and academic effort. Statistical methods were conducted to determine: (1) whether there are any significant differences in academic self-concept among students of different ability levels at the initial stage of the grouping practise, (2) whether there are any significant changes in English Proficiency Level (EPL) students' academic self-concept during the one-year study, and (3) whether proficiency level effect on students changes in academic self-concept is significant. The results indicated that

the full sample academic confidence and overall academic self-concept significantly changed over time whereas there was no significant difference in perceived academic effort. The main level effect was found to be highly significant. Students placed in the lower ability level had significantly lower perceived academic self-concept than their average and above-average counterparts. Nonetheless, it is noteworthy that the academic confidence and overall English self-concept of low-ability students showed the largest improvement during the study while those of the high-performing students remained quite stable over time.

Yahaya, Ramli, Boon, AbdGhaffar, and Zakariya (2009) investigate the relationship among self-concepts, personality and students' academic performance in selected secondary schools. This work is to determine the relationship between self-concept and personality of students with academic achievement. The sample consists of 270 students from six secondary schools chosen by using stratified random sampling method in Kluang, Johor. The questionnaire for self-concept was modified from Tennessee Self-concept Scale that was created by Fitts (1971). Meanwhile the questionnaire for personality was modified from the Junior Eysenck Personality Inventory (JEPI) that was created by Eysenck (1967). The descriptive statistics such as frequency, percentages, mean and standard deviation were used to analyze the dominant dimension in student's self-concept. Other than that, inferential statistic such as t-test was used to analyze the difference between self-concept and personality of students according to gender. Meanwhile, Pearson correlations were used at significant level 0.05 to analyze the relationship between self-concept and personality of students with their academic achievement. The research finding showed that the dominant dimension of self-concept was family self-concept. Beside that, t-test analysis showed that there was no significance difference between dimension of self-concept and personality of students according to gender. Pearson correlations analysis showed that there were no significance relation between dimension of self-concept and personality with student's academic achievement.

Peixoto and Almeida (2010) worked on Self-concept, self-esteem and academic achievement: strategies for maintaining self-esteem in students experiencing academic failure. In the study, they analysed the strategies that underachievers used to maintain their self-esteem at an acceptable level. The participants were 955 adolescents in the 7th, 9th and 11th grades at four secondary schools in Lisbon. Three hundred and fifty-two of these students had retaken a year at least once in their school careers whilst 603 had never done so. They collected the data using both a self-concept scale and a scale for evaluating attitudes towards school. Results show that self-esteem is maintained through positive self-representations in non-academic facets of self-concept and/or by devaluing school-related competences. They also show that younger students are less likely to maintain self-esteem by devaluing the school experience.

Narimani, and Mousazadeh(2010) compared self-esteem and self-concept of handicapped and Normal Students. Statistical society of this research comprised all the handicapped boys and girls students as well as the normal students included all the sighted students aged 10-20, who were studying at Ardabil province high–schools in 85-86 school– years. 20 handicapped students (10 handicappedgirls and 10 handicappedboys) were selected randomly as a study group and 20 sighted students as a comparison group. They were tested individually with two subtests of Coppersmith, self- esteem and self-concept, beak & stiller scale at their schools. The results of multivariate variance (MANOVA) showed that there was different mean score between handicapped and Normal Students.All the results proved that the function of the sighted group individuals in self-esteem subtests was better than the handicapped. But the function of the handicapped individuals in self-concept subtests was better than thesighted students.

Ajayi, Lawani and Adeyanju (2011) on their own investigated the effects of attitude and self-concept on achievement in senior secondary school Mathematics in Ogun State, Nigeria. Two thousand and four hundred students from 60 selected schools in nine local government areas within Ogun State, Nigeria were involved, and three research instruments namely; Attitude to

Mathematics Questionnaire; (r = 0.73); Self-Concept Scale; (r = 0.71) and Mathematics Achievement Test; (r = 0.84) were used. Data were analysed using multiple regression at 0.05 level of significance. The findings show that students' attitude to Mathematics and self-concept have significant joint effect on Mathematics achievements.

Matovu (2012) investigates academic self-concept and academic achievement among university students. The academic self-concept information among university students was collected using the Liu and Wang (2005) academic self-concept scale which was composed of two sub-scales; academic confidence and academic effort scales. The study was conducted on 394 university students; males and females from different levels of study and faculties in a public university in Malaysia. MANOVA was used to analyse the collected data and the results revealed that there was a statistically significant effect of gender on academic effort and academic achievement while also a statistically significant difference was shown in faculties on academic achievement. Again a difference was noted in the interaction between gender, faculties, and levels of study on academic achievement. The Post Hoc results indicated that a statistically significant difference existed in between the faculties of Arts and Human Sciences.

Dzulkifliand Alias (2012) carried out their works on how counsellor can help students with low academic achievement their personality, mental abilities and academic performance. Based on this,a preliminary study was conducted to explore the potential relationship between personality and cognitive or mental abilities. 121 undergraduate students were administered with the STROOP task and Eysenck personality inventory. The STROOP task provided the reading interference and naming interference scores to indicate cognitive ability while the Eysenck personality inventory provided levels of Activity, Sociability, and Assertiveness to indicate Extraversion dimension of personality. The Emotionality dimension of personality was indicated by the levels of Anxiety, Unhappiness and Inferiority. The participants were grouped into high achievers and low achievers on the basis of their CGPA. Correlational analysis and independent Sample T-test revealed that

personality traits of the low and high achieving students are the same except for assertiveness. In addition there exist significant relationships between personality traits and cognitive abilities only in low achievers. The role and importance of counselling service as a helping mechanism are discussed.

Dambudzo, Lewis and Schulze (2012)investigated the relationship between learner social self-concept and academic achievement in secondary schools in Zimbabwe, and also compared social self-concepts and academic achievements on the basis of gender, age, form, school location, and type of attendance. Data was collected from 1281 adolescent learners in urban and rural government and non-government schools using questionnaires. Results confirm positive and reciprocal relationship between academic achievement and learner social self-concept. Gender stereotyping appeared to influence subject choice and performance. School type alone appeared to account for significant differences in the learners' academic achievements and social self-concepts. All the independent variables correlated positively and significantly with academic achievement and social self-concept.

Busari (2012) evaluated the relationship between gender, age, depression and academic performance among adolescents. He claims that depression is said to have a relationship with academic performance. The study was carried out among 1200 students (600 males and 600 females) in the age range 15-19 years. The instrument used for data collection was the Beck depression Inventory (21 item BDI). The analysis of data used correlation coefficient and t-test. The results showed that 26.5% of the boys and 30.7% of the girls were depressed and that depression and academic performance were significantly correlated, $r = -0.24$, $p \leq 0.000$. Also, based on results of the present study, age and academic performance were significantly correlated ($r = 0.25$, $p \leq 0.000$). In addition there was significant difference of academic performance between male and female, ($t(1) = -5.51$, $p = 0.000$).

Olorunfemi-Olabisi and Akomolafe (2013) investigated the effects of self-management technique in the enhancement of academic self-concept ofsecondary school students. Quasi Experimental research design was employed for the study. Academic Self- Concept Scale (ASCA) was used to identify students with low level of self-concept. Forty (40) students with low self-concept were identified and grouped into experimental and control groups. The experimental group was subjected to six weeks of Self-Management Training. The results showed that self-management technique significantly enhanced the academic self-concept of under achievers in secondary schools.

Gemeay et al. (2013) examinedself-concept and its relationship with the academic achievement among nursing students.A descriptive survey design was used. A total subjects of 200 students were recruited for this study, enrolled in first, secondand third year at college of health science (Nursing). Structured interviewing questionnaires were designed by the researchers tocollect the socio- demographic data such as age, educational level, marital status etc. and, Tennessee self- conceptscale that consists of 100 self-descriptive statements was adopted.Thefindings from the study show that statisticallysignificant relation was found between students' academic achievement and the self –concept level.

Dramanu and Balarabe (2013) investigated the relationship between academic self-concept and academic performance of Junior High School (JHS) students inGhana. Differences between the academic self-concept of male and femalestudents as well as students from urban and rural schools were alsoinvestigated. Participants were 756 male and 714 female JHS2 studentsrandomly selected from 24 Junior High Schools through stratified sampling.Two research instruments namely, achievement tests in mathematics, Englishlanguage, social studies and integrated science, and academic self-conceptscale with a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient (internal consistency) of0.84 were used to collect data. Pearson product moment correlationcoefficient and t-test were used in analyzing the data. The results showed apositive relationship between academic self-

concept and academicperformance of students. A significant difference was also found between theacademic self-concept of students in urban and rural Junior High Schoolswith students in urban schools recording higher scores. The educationalimplications are discussed. These include the suggestion that the actions andreactions of teachers, parents and significant others toward students shouldencourage, suggest, assure and reinforce the students that they areacademically capable and competent.

Stoeger, Suggate, and Ziegler (2013) directed their work towards identifying the causes of underachievement as a plea for the inclusion of fine motor skills. Previous research has investigated a number of variables that might explain underachievement, and recently Fine Motor Skills (FMS) has been implicated as playing an important role. We extend this work by exploring the influence of FMS and attention on under- achievement and achievement. Fourth-grade children in Germany (n = 357, age = 10.8) were tested on measures of intelligence, attention, and FMS, and teachers were asked to report grades in mathematics. Amongst other findings, analyses indicated that underachievers had lower attention and FMS and that attention mediated the relation between FMS and mathematics achievement. Overall, the current findings contribute to the growing body of evidence that FMS play an important role in underachievement and are, therefore, a candidate for inclusion in the identification processes.

Dambudzo (2014) sought to investigate the relationship between school location, type and type of attendance and self-concept and academic achievement. Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used to compute the results of a 1281 sample of secondary school learners in different school types and of varying academic ability. Results showed that there was a positive and significant correlation between school type, location and type of attendance with self-concept and academic achievement. The study concluded that school location and school type were important considerations when placing a child. Furthermore boarding schools appeared to have significant advantages in terms of academic achievement and self-concept development. Further research was

needed to uncover the characteristics and practices of schools that yielded positive results for children.

Affum-Osei, Eric,Barnie andForkuoh (2014) investigated the relationship between achievement motivation, academic self-concept and academic achievement of high school students. In addition, the study found out the students profile to ascertain the levels of achievement motivation, self-concept, and their academic achievement. A total of 120 students selected from four high schools participated in the study. The *Inventory of School Motivation (ISM)* developed by Mclnerney & Sinclair (1991) and *The Self-Concept Scale* by Cambra & Silvester (2003) were administered on the sample to assess their motivation and self-concept respectively. Percentages, and Pearson Product Moment Correlation Co-efficient were used to analyse the data. The results showed that majority of the high school students were highly motivated, had high self-concept and performed well in the Mathematics Achievement test. The study also found a significant correlation between self-concept and academic achievement. Again, there was a positive relationship between achievement motivation and academic achievement but the correlation was not significant. The study confirms the importance of achievement motivation and academic self-concept to academic achievement and concluded by making insightful suggestions and recommendations to stakeholders in education in helping students to enhance their motivation and self-concept to improve on their academic performance.

Within traditional cognitive therapy, cognitive restructuring is often used to challenge the veracity of dysfunctional thoughts. Studies revealed that cognitive restructuring has been found to be very effective in the treatment of all forms of maladaptive patterns in thinking-feeling-behaviour cycles. This is in line withOgugua (2010) who geared her work towards investigating the effects of cognitive restructuring in enhancing mathematics achievement of adolescents in secondary schools in Oshimili South Local Government Area. Two research questions and two null hypotheses guided the study. Quasi experimental research design was adopted. Through

purposive sampling, 40 pupils with poor mathematics performance from each of the four schools made up the final sample. A 50-item researcher developed mathematics achievement test was used to collect data. Data analysis was done using mean, standard deviation, t-test and ANCOVA at 0.05 levels of significance. The findings of the investigation were that cognitive restructuring technique is effective in enhancing students' mathematics achievement and also females gained higher mean achievement scores than their male counterparts when cognitive restructuring technique is adopted.

Ngwoke, Numonde and Ngwoke (2013) investigated the effect of cognitive restructuring intervention programme on academic self-efficacy of low-achieving students. Two research questions and two null hypotheses guided the study. The design of the study was quasi-experimental, non-equivalent control group, pre-test post-test involving one treatment and control group. The sample was 135 lowachieving senior secondary class two students purposively drawn from four public senior secondary schools, two from each educational zone of Yenagoa and Okolobiri in Yenagoa Local Government Area of Bayelsa State, Nigeria. These schools were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. One instrument, Academic Self-Efficacy Scale and an intervention programme, Cognitive Restructuring Intervention Package were developed, validated and used for the study. The treatment group received placebo programme on examination malpractice and prevention. The research objectives were addressed using means and standard deviation while the hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of probability using Analysis of Covariance statistic. Results showed that cognitive restructuring significantly improved academic self-efficacy of low-achieving students. There was no significant interaction effect between cognitive restructuring and gender on academic self-efficacy of low achieving students. Based on the findings, it was recommended that workshops and seminars be organized in schools to train teachers on how to use cognitive restructuring techniques in the classroom to improve the academic self-efficacy of -achieving students.

Okwun (2011) investigated the Effects of Cognitive Restructuring Skills Training (CRT) and Communication Skills Training (CST) on conflict resolution among Nigerian couples. Two behavioural techniques, CRT and CST, and a combination of the two techniques were used on conflicting subjects who had marital problems in Abia metropolitan city of Abia State, Nigeria. The study employed a 4 × 2 factorial designwith treatment strategies on the rows and gender (male and female) on the columns. A sample of 48subjects with marital conflicts were randomly assigned to CRT separately and CST and a combination of both techniques (CRT/CST) and the control groups. Each treatment group comprised twelve subjects, six of which were assigned to each of the genders (male and female).The measuring instrument:- marital happiness scale (MHS), irrational value scale (IVS) and marital communication rating scale (MCRS) were administered at pre-test, post-test and follow up sessions. The experimental groups were each exposed to six sessions of treatment in CRT, CST and six sessions for CRT/CST for a period of six weeks, while the control group was instructed on marital problems. Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) and Scheffetest were used to analyse the data obtained. Four research questions were stated and twelve null hypotheses were formulated and tested at 0.05 level of significance. The major findings indicated that,(1) the subjects used in the experimental groups and the control group had marital conflicts,(2) cognitive restructuring skills training, communication skills training and a combination of both techniques had significant effect on conflict resolution among Nigerian couples when compared with the control group,(3) none of the three techniques was better than the other as indicated in the scheffe test, (4) effects of the three therapeutic techniques at one-month follow-up were significantly different from the control group. The implications of the findings were highlighted.

Adeusi (2013) worked on efficacy of Cognitive Restructuring and Behavioural Rehearsal on Conduct Disorder in Adolescents in Special Correctional Centres in Lagos. In the study, researcher adopts an experimental research with 3 x 2 x 3 x 3 factorial design. The variables in the

study include the independent variables which consist of cognitive restructuring, behavioural rehearsal and control group. The intervening variables are gender, socio-economic status and parenting styles while the dependent variable is conduct disorder. A sample size of 90 adolescents is purposively selected. Participants are randomly assigned into experimental and control groups. The three instruments relevant to this study are: Conduct Disorder Scale, Socio-Economic Scale and Parenting Styles Scale. Eight research hypotheses are raised and tested at 0.05 level of significance. The procedure for data collection includes the pre and post tests administered to the participants.The results from the tested hypotheses are: There is no significant difference in the order of prominence in conduct disorder of cognitive restructuring and behavioural rehearsal on the basis of gender and parental SES. Others include parenting styles, age, educational level, and length of stay at the correctional centres. There are significant differences in the followings: degree of severity of conduct disorder before and after treatment, treatment of conduct disorder of participants in the two experimental groups when compared with the control group and cognitive restructuring and behavioural rehearsal on the basis of religion. Recommendations are made in the study.

Ngwoke and Numonde (2013) investigated the effect of cognitive restructuring intervention programme on test anxiety of low-achieving students. Two research questions and two null hypotheses guided the study. The design of the study was a quasi-experimental, non-equivalent control group with pretest posttest involvingone treatment group and control group. The sample of this study consisted of 135 low-achieving senior secondary class two students purposively drawn from four public senior secondary schools, two from each educational zone of Yenagoa and Okolobiri in Yenagoa Local Government Area of Bayelsa State, Nigeria. These schools were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. One instrument-Test Anxiety Inventory and an intervention programme, Cognitive Restructuring Intervention Package were developed, validated and used for the study. The treatment group was exposed to the cognitive

restructuring intervention package while the control group received placebo programme on examination malpractice and prevention. The data obtained were analysed using means and standard deviation for research objectives and ANCOVA for the hypotheses. The hypotheses were tested at 0.05 probability level. Results showed that cognitive restructuring significantly reduced test anxiety of low-achieving students. There was no significant interaction effect between cognitive restructuring and gender on test anxiety of low-achieving students. Based on the findings it was recommended that workshops and seminars should be organized in schools to train teachers on how to use cognitive restructuring techniques in the classroom to reduce the test anxiety of low-achieving students.

Ekennia, Otta, and Ogbuokiri, (2013) worked on the effect of cognitive restructuring technique and multi-component therapies in the management of nocturnal enuresis among junior secondary schools. The study adopted 3x2 factorial designs. Two research questions and three null hypotheses were formulated and tested at 0.05 level of significance. A sample of twenty seven (27) junior secondary school adolescents'students was used for the study. Two instruments, Enuresis identification questionnaire and Internal and External locus of control scale were used for assessment during pre-test, post-test and follow-up sessions. Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) and t-test statistics were used to analyze the data obtained. The findings indicated that the treatment techniques were effective in managing enuretic behaviour. The findings include that the subjects who had gained control over their enuresis behaviour due to the treatment received will develop self-confidence in their ability to control and direct their behaviours and consequently achieve their goals especially in academic performance. It was recommended for use in handling not only other enuretic students but students with other behavioural problem.

Addison, Antwi, and Avonokadzi (2014)examined the use of cognitive restructuring to overcome the problem of low self-esteem and low academic performance of students in the Dambai College of Education in the Volta Region of Ghana. Experimental research design was

used. A total of 120 respondents (students) with low self-esteem were selected using purposive sampling technique. Questionnaire and Cognitive Restructuring Intervention Package (CRIP) were developed, validated and used for the study. Descriptive statistics were used to find out the perceptions and causes of students low self-esteem. To determine the impact of cognitive restructuring on students' academic performance, cognitive restructuring intervention package was used. Independent Sample t-test was also used to test for the hypothesis. Results showed that repeated fault findings and criticisms of students' works lead to low self-esteem which affects students' academic performance, and Cognitive restructuring significantly enhanced academic performance. Based on the findings, it was recommended that this responsibility can be undertaken under the watchful eye of College Guidance and Counselling Coordinators.Therefore the Ministry of Education (MOE) and Ghana Education Service (GES) must encourage the setting up of Guidance and Counselling Units in all Colleges of Education to cater for the social and psychological needs of students' and also workshops and seminars should be organized by the Ministry and Education Service in Colleges of Education to train teachers on how to use cognitive restructuring techniques in the classroom to improve the low self-esteem and academic performance of students.

Ghamari, Rafeie, and Kiani (2015)worked on the efficacy of cognitive restructuring therapy and the appropriate methods of study in reducing test anxiety symptoms among third grade high school students in Khalkhal, Iran. The research method was quasi-experimental with pretest, posttest and control group. The population of the study was all the students in the third grade of a high school in Khalkhal city. The participants included 300 students sampled through Spiel-Berger test anxiety questionnaire and clinical interview. After determining the prevalence, 30 students who had high anxiety scores were randomly classified into two 15-subject groups in experimental group and control group. Then, data were analyzed by SPSS at two levels (descriptive and inferential). The results showed that the prevalence of test anxiety among students was 36.6%. The

results of the standard Hotelling test showed that the impact of cognitive restructuring method and study methods were significant in reducing the symptoms of test anxiety of students. Moreover, the Helmert bound contrast statistics reported that the effect of cognitive restructuring therapy in reducing the symptoms of test anxiety in students is more effective than the appropriate methods.

Awazie, Osarenren and Nwadinigwe (2015) investigated the impact of two counselling strategies on spiritual well-being and role-stress of married people in Umuahia, Abia State, Nigeria. The sample consisted of 140 married people considered to be experiencing role stress.They were made up of 83 females and 57 males. Quasi-experimental pre-test, post-test and control group design in involving the sample which was randomly assigned to three groupswas used. Cognitive Restructuring Training Programme (CRTP), Pastoral Counselling Programme (PCP) and the Control. Two validated instruments, Spiritual Well-Being Questionnaire (SWBQ) and Role Stress Questionnaire (RSQ) were administered to the three groups before and after the experimental programmes. CRTP and PCP groups were the treatment groups while the Control was the waiting group. The statistical tools used were Means, Standard Deviation and ANCOVA.Two hypotheses were formulated to guide the study and they were tested at 0.05 level of significance. The results showed that PCP and CRTP were effective on married people's spiritual wellbeing and mediated role stress. The use of both therapies is therefore recommended.

Emmanuel, Okreke, &Anayochi (2015)investigated the effects of assertiveness training and cognitive restructuring technique on self-esteem of female undergraduate victims of relationship violence in south-west Nigeria. The study used quasi-experimental design pre-test-post-test and control group.The sample for the study comprised of ninety female undergraduate students who have experienced relationship violence. They were screened using the Severity of Violence Against Women Scale (SVAWS) and selected through multi-stage sampling technique from three randomly selected Universities (Ibadan, Lagos and Olabisi Onabanjo) in South-west Nigeria. The participants were randomly assigned to treatment and control groups. The two

treatment groups were exposed to eight weeks training in Assertiveness and Cognitive Restructuring Training while participants in the control group received no training. Two validated instrument Severity of Violence Against Women Scale (SVAWS) and Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale were used. Three hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance. Data was analysed using Analysis of Covariance. There was significant main effect of treatment in the pre-post self-esteem scores of female undergraduate victims of relationship violence in the experimental and control groups ($F(2,87) = 43.884$, $P < .05$). Also, there was significant difference in the main effect of age in the pre-post self-esteem scores of female undergraduate victims of relationship violence between young and older participants ($F(2,87) = 16.808$, $P < .05$). However, that there was no significant interaction effect of age in the pre-post self-esteem scores of female undergraduate victims of relationship violence in the experimental and control groups ($F(3,86) = 0.188$, $P < .05$). Therefore, psychological intervention programmes should be put in place in universities through their counselling centres to help undergraduates rediscover their potentials and develop competence to relate intelligently with others.

The application of Solution-Focused Brief Therapy (SFBT) with students and in school settings has grown over the past 10 years and has been applied to a number of behavioural and academic problems.Sundstrom (1993)compared a single session of SFBT with a single session of Interpersonal Psychotherapy for Depression (IPT) for the treatment of depressed college students. The sample comprised 40 female undergraduate psychology students at a Midwestern university who scored in the mild to moderatelydepressed range (10–29) on the Beck Depression Inventory. Thirty-four percent of the sample met diagnostic criteria for Major Depression according to the Inventory to Diagnose Depression. Subjects were randomly assigned to the experimental or control group, and then given the battery of outcome measures. Measures included the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI), the Depression Adjective Checklists (DACL), the Rosenberg Self- Esteem Scale (SES), and the Counsellor Rating Form–Short Form (CRF-S). Treatment consisted of one 90-

minute counselling session—SFBT for the treatment group and IPT for the comparison group. Sessionswere conducted by 21 female counsellors who were licensed social workers, licensed psychologists, psychology interns, or advanced psychology graduate students.

To assure adherence to treatment protocols, clinicians participated in separate 2-hour training sessions for each condition, and all counselling sessions were videotaped and rated by research assistants who were blind to the treatment condition. A follow-up interview was conducted within a week to 10 days after treatment at which time, subjects completed the BDI, DACL, SES, and CRF-S. MANOVA analysis of pre- to post-intervention BDI and DACL scores showed that both treatment conditions produced significant positive change, and that neither treatment produced significantly better outcomes than the other. SES scores revealed no change across time for either treatment condition. Lack of significant differences between treatments in CRF-S scores indicated counsellor characteristics did not contribute differentially to treatment outcome.

Cockburn, Thomas and Cockburn (1997) evaluated the impact of SFBT on psychosocial adjustment and return to work for patients with orthopedic injuries. The study sample comprised 48 patients and their spouses, referred by an orthopedic surgeon to a rehab program designed to prepare patients for work re-entry.Subjects were randomly assigned to one of four groups, following a Solomon Four Groups design. The intervention for treatment groups 1 and 3 consisted of 6 weekly one-hour sessions of SFBT plus the standard rehab program. Treatment was implemented by the first author and followed a standard protocol (Jack Cockburn, personal communication, April 18, 1999). Control groups 2 and 4 received only the standard rehab program. Pre-test data were collected from treatment group 1 and control group 2 using the Family Crisis Oriented Personal Evaluation Scales (F-COPES). Post-test data were collected from all 4 groups using the FCOPES and the Psychosocial Adjustment to Illness Scale–Self-Report (PAIS-SR). Subjects' spouses also completed the PAIS-SR at post-test. Because pre-testing was shown to have

a consistent effect across treatments, analyses were based on ANOVAs for the post-test data only. Analysis of F-COPES data indicated significant between-groups differences on all 3 subscales used in the study. The authors concluded that patients in the SFBT groups had significantly better psychosocial adjustment and social supports than patients in the control group. Within 7 days after completion of treatment, 68% of subjects in the treatment groups had returned to work as compared to only 4%of subjects in the control groups. By 30 days after treatment, 92% of the SFBT patients had returned to work as compared to 47% of control group patients.

Also, Newsome (2005)worked on the impact of SFBT with a group of at-risk students in a junior high school. A total of 26 students participated in eight group sessions of SFBT in a junior high school located in central Ohio. Compared with pretreatment assessments, students participating in SFBT had higher scores on behavioural and social scales at post treatment and at six-week follow-up. This finding uncovered the external assessments completed by parents and teachers. Burwell and Chen (2006) applied the principles and techniques of solution-focused therapy to career counselling. After a very brief introduction of the basic features of the solution-focused counselling, they review some key theoretical principles of the solution-focused therapy, and connect these principles to career counselling context with the illustration of several solution-focused counselling techniques that are particularly applicable to career counselling intervention.

Smock, Trepper, Wetchler, McCollum, Ray and Pierce (2008) compared solution-focused group therapy (SFGT) with a traditional problem-focused treatment for level 1 substance abusers. The outcome of theresearch on the effectiveness of solution-focused group therapy is minimal, especially in treating substance abusers. In their study, clients were measured before and after treatment to determine therapeutic effectiveness. Clients in the solution-focused group significantly improved on both the Beck Depression Inventory and the Outcome Questionnaire. The clients in the comparison group did not improve significantly on either measure. Therapist

skill level and adherence to theoretical models were measured in each group to reduce confounding variables.

Kim and Franklin (2009) focused on the application of solution-focused brief therapy in schools. This review of the research literature examined the most rigorous outcome studies on SFBT conducted in schools, given its promise within this specific setting and population. In addition, effect size estimates were calculated to further examine the effectiveness, thereby providing more quantitative information for each study. This review found mixed results but SFBT did show promise as a useful approach in working with at-risk students in a school setting, specifically helping students reduce the intensity of their negative feelings, manage their conduct problems, and externalizing behavioural problems.

Cotton (2010) usedRecursive Frame Analysis (RFA) to conduct a single case investigation of Insoo Kim Berg's question utilization talk in a solution-focused brief therapy (SFBT) session. Due to lack of process research that explores how SFBT questions facilitate change the author investigated how Berg's solution language influenced a client to respond in session. The purpose of this case study was to explore how SFBT questions served as interventions to facilitate change. The research question for this study was twofold: (a) how does Berg's language influence conversation and (b) how is the client influenced by Berg's questions in a therapeutic context? The findings suggest that Berg's questions serve as interventions for change as noted by patterns in the therapeutic conversation.

Joker and Ghaderi (2015) evaluate the effectiveness of solution-based counselling to increase students` self-conception. Method of research was semi-experimental with pretest and posttest design with a control group. The study sample consisted of all high school students in Dashtestan City, Bushkan district for which 30 subjects were randomly selected and were replaced in the experimental and control groups. The experimental group received 30 sessions of solution-based group counselling. To collect data, the questionnaire of self-perception was used. Data were

analyzed by covariance test. The results showed that solution-based group counselling increased students` self-perception and its components such as self-esteem and self- admission.

2.5 Summary

This chapter has reviewed the conceptual framework of the key variables which includeOverview of Self-concept, Overviewof Underachiever,Cognitive Restructuring Counselling Technique and Solution Focused Brief Counselling Technique. Other aspects reviewed are theoretical framework such as Cognitive Behaviour Therapy (CBT), The Humanistic Theory of Carl Rogers,The Cognitive Development Theory of Jean Piaget,Social Learning Theory by Albert Bandura,Multimodal Theory of Academic Achievement,Fundamental Psychological Needs for Students Theory of Maslow's Hierarchy and The Self-determination Theory. All the theories cited have direct or indirect influence on both techniques and the problem being studied becausemost of themrecommenddifferent counselling techniques in assistinglow academic self-concept underachiever students tomanage their state of problems and restore them. Empirical framework related to the relationship between academic self-concept and academic underachievers have been reviewed. The uses of the two techniques (Cognitive Restructuring and Solution Focused Brief Counselling Techniques) for treating and managing different forms of undesirable behaviours are also reviewed.

Almost all the theories and techniques reviewed in this work arenon-African and hadbeen used and proved more effective there. For further research, the researcherwishes to apply some of these theories and techniques to treat certain undesirable behaviour among secondary school students in Nigeria to see how effective these theories and techniques would be locally. Also,of all empirical studies reviewed so far none of the researchers centred his work on either of the intended techniques to enhance the poor academic self-concept of secondary school underachievers.This makes this study unique because it combines bothcognitive restructuring and solution focused brief

counselling techniques to address the self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis, Kwara state, Nigeria.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology used to carry out the study. This include: design, population, sample and sampling technique,instrumentation, psychometric properties of the instrument, procedures for data collection and data analysis.

3.2 Research Design

The quasi-experimental, involving pre-test, post-test control groupdesignwas adopted for this study. According to Nwogu (1991), quasi-experimental designs establish cause and effect relationships. Kolo (2003) indicates that quasi-experimental design involves the manipulation of one or more independent variables but there is no random assignment to conditions. This work seeks to identify the effects of cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques on the self-concept of secondary school underachievers. In this design, the experimenter (researcher) under controlled conditions manipulated twoindependent variables which were cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief techniques and observed theireffects on self-concepts of male and female students.

The quasi-experimental design is graphically presented as follows:

Figure 1: pre-test, post-test control group design

G_1O_1 ----- X ----- O_2

G_2 O_3 ----- X ----- O_4

G_3 O_5 ---------- O_6

Where G_1 = Experimental group (Cognitive Restructuring)

G_2 = Experimental group (Solution Focused Brief Counselling Technique)

G_3 = Control group.

O_1 = Pre-test (Cognitive Restructuring)

X = Treatment

O_2 = Post-test (Cognitive Restructuring)

O_3 = Pre-test (Solution Focused Brief Counselling Technique)

O_4 = Post-test (Solution Focused Brief Counselling Technique)

O_5 = Pre-test (Control group)

O_6 = Post-test (Control group)

3.3 Population

The population of the study was made up of all the SSII underachieving students with lowself-conceptin Ilorin metropolis. However, the total number of students identified withacademic underachievement were seventy nine (79) out of which fifty (50) that had low self-concept were selected as the population for the study.

3.4 Sample and Sampling Technique

To select the sample for this study, purposivesampling procedure was used to select three (3) senior secondary schools which recordedmore academic underachievers out of fifty six (56) senior secondary schools within Ilorin metropolis.Purposive sampling technique was also used for selectingfifteen (15)low self-concept underachievers in each school, making a total number of forty five(45) samples.After the selection, the researcher assignedfifteen (15)respondents for cognitive restructuring and fifteen (15) each for solution focused brief counselling technique and control grouprespectively.

Table 3.1 Distribution of samples in tothree schools

School	Group	Treatment	No of Samples
School A	Experimental Group 1	Cognitive Restructuring Counselling Technique	15
School B	Experimental Group 2	Solution Focused Brief Counselling Technique	15
School C	Control Group		15
Total			**45**

3.5 Instrumentation

The instrument adapted for this study was Academic Self-Concept Scale (ASCS) developed by Liu and Wang (2005) to measure the level of self-concept of secondary school underachievers. The scale contained twenty(20) item questions on both academic confidence and academic effort.Items were mixed in the scale; academic confidence items taking odd numbers (1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15, 17, 19), while academic effort items took even numbers (2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20).The items included both negatively and positively worded items to avoid the same answers from the students. In the questionnaire, the students were requested to state their gender (male or female).The original copy of the instrument was designed to measure the academic self-concept students in higher institutions. Since the researcher aimedto measure the level of self-concept of secondary school underachievers, some words were modified such as lecturer to teacher, lecture to lesson, course works to class works, course mates to class mates, courses to

subjects, semester to term, and degree course to school.The psychometric of the original instrument established by Matovu (2012) were 0.795 and 0.802 for both validity and reliability of the instrument respectively

Scoring Key to Academic self-concept Scales

Each item hasfour likert points of:

SA: 4; A: 3; D: 2 and SD: 1

It contained 20 items on both *Academic confidence and Academic effort*

Academic confidence: 10 items.

1, 3, 5, 7*, 9*, 11*, 13*, 15, 17*, 19

Academic effort:10 items.

2*, 4*, 6, 8*, 10, 12, 14*, 16*, 18, 20*

Those items with asterisks will be scored in reverse dimension (see note below).

***Total score of* all items is 20:**

Each of the four likert point will be multiply by 20:

SA: 4 x 20; A: 3 x 20; D: 2 x 20 and SD: 1 x 20

Highest score: 80; Positive Self-Concept

Mean score: 40 (cut off point)

Lowest score:20; Negative Self-Concept

NOTE:An asterisk indicates that an item should be reversed scored (**SD**=1 → 4, **D**=2 → 3, **A**=3 → 2, **SA**=4 → 1).

3.5.1Validity of the Instrument

Face validity of the instrument was established by giving the adapted copies of academic self-concept scale to six lecturers in the Department of Educational Psychology and Counselling, Faculty of Education, ABU, Zaria for vetting. The inputs of these lecturers contributed to the final form of the instrument.

3.5.2 Pilot Testing of the Instrument

The pilot testing was conducted by administering copies of the instrument to twenty five (25) SSSII male and female students of Government Day Secondary School, Alore, Ilorin, Kwara State with permission obtained from the principal of the school. The school was not part of the schools selected for the main study but share the same characteristics with the selected schools.

3.5.3 Reliability of the Instrument

To determine the reliability of the instrument, a test re-test method of reliability was used. The instrument was administered twice with an interval of two weeks to the same respondents of the selected SSII underachievers from one secondary school (Government Secondary School, Alore)in Ilorin. The two sets of scores were correlated using Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient, and the r value 0.92was obtained. Thisindicatedthat the instrument is reliable.

3.6 Procedure for Data Collection

The researcher presented a letter of introduction from the Department of Educational Psychology and Counselling, Faculty of Education, ABU, Zaria to the managements of the selected schools for approval on data collection and treatments administration in the chosen schools. With the help of class teachers, school counsellors and one trained research assistant in each school, the researcher selectedacademic underachievers through the terminal and promotion examination results in their core subjects (English, Mathematics, Civic Education and Computer Science).Students who scored between(100-50)in at least three (3) of the above mentioned subjectswere counted as academic achievers while students who scored (49-00) in at least three (3) of the above mentioned subjectswere tagged as academic underachievers.

The researcher administeredacademic self-concept scale for the identification of low self-conceptunderachiever studentsand to serve as a pre-test instrument for them. The instrument was re-administered after six and seven weeks of treatments procedure to the experimental groups

respectively while the control group receivedno treatmentbefore they obtained their post-test instrument.

3.7 Treatment Procedure

3.7.1 Pre-treatment Phase

A week to the commencement of the treatment session after the schools' approval the researcher went to each of selected schools tocreate rapport with the schoolcounsellors, teachers, and other staff.One of themwaschosenas the research assistant.He familiarisdhimself with them.Also the researcher usedthe medium to assign the treatment groupin each school (school A: cognitive restructuring and school B: solution focused brief counselling)to their classes respectively and gaveeach respondent an identification number while school C was for control group.

3.7.2 Treatment Phases

Both treatment sessions lasted for the period of six and seven weeks of two sessions per week (Tuesdays for CRCT and Thursdays for SFBCT), making a total of thirteen sessions for the treatments. Each session of the treatment programme lasted between forty five minutes and one hour. In all, there were six sessions for the CRCT participants and seven sessions for theSFBCTparticipants principally to expose the two treatment groups to counselling techniques (Cognitive Restructuring and Solution Focused Brief Counselling Techniques).Below were summery review of the two treatment sessions while the full detail of the sessions were in the appendix.

3.7.3 Treatment sessions

Experimental Group 1:Cognitive Restructuring Counselling Technique (CRCT)

Week One

Session One: General Orientation to the Programme and Pre-Test Administration

- The researcher welcomed participants to the programme and introduced himself. Each participant also introduced himself.

- The researcher discussed the group expectations and the goals of the group (that is, to change their negative self-concept that leads to academic underachievement and increase academic performance).
- The researcher informed the participants that each session would involve group therapy, feedback and discussions based on previous and present sessions.
- The pre-test of academic self-concept scale was administered on participants.
- The researcher appreciated the participants for their commitment and cooperation during the session and encouraged them to attend the next session.

Week Two

Session Two: Identification of Problematic Cognitions Known as "Automatic Thoughts"

- The researcher welcomed the participants to the second session of the cognitive restructuring counselling technique.
- The participants were introduced to cognitive restructuring as a process of changing subconscious thoughts.
- The researcher explained that each participant is responsible for his behaviour because everybody has two minds, these being the conscious and the subconscious.
- The researcher therefore helped the participant to identify the problematic cognitions known as "automatic thoughts" which are dysfunctional or negative views of the self, world, or future.

- The researcher gave assignment and expressed words of appreciation and encouragement to participants to attend the next session.

Week Three

Session Three: Identification and record of the cognitive distortions in the automatic thoughts.

- The researcher welcomed the participants to the third session, and recapitulated the previous discussion.
- The assignment was also collected.
- The researcher engaged the participants on how to notice their thoughts.
- Rate each negative feeling on a scale from 1 (for the least) to 100 (for the most).
- The researcher gave assignment and expresses word of appreciation and encouragement to participants to attend the next session.

Week Four

Session Four: Rational Disputation of Automatic Thoughts with the Triple-Column Technique

- The researcher started the session by welcoming participants. The last session was reviewed, and the assignment was collected and discussed.
- The participants were occupied with the techniques of thought reconstruction, self-talk and self-monitoring among other strategies and encouraged to practise the strategies.
- The researcher explained the uses of triple-column technique as a tool that helps to get rid of negative thoughts and gave a positive frame of mind.

- The researcher gave assignment and expressed words of appreciation and encouragement to participants to attend the next session.

Week Five

Session Five: Development of a Rational Rebuttal to the Automatic Thoughts

- The researcher started the session by welcoming participants. The last session was reviewed, and the assignment collected and discussed.
- The researcher explained to the participants how to rebuke the negative thought and satisfy with rational response.
- After constant practise re-rate each negative feeling on a scale from 1 (for the least) to 100 (for the most).
- The researcher gave assignment and expressed words of appreciation and encouragement to participants to attend the next session.

Week Six

Session Six: Wrap up

- The researcher appreciated the participants for their dedication and cooperation from the beginning of the Cognitive Restructuring Counselling Technique.
- Participants were reminded and encouraged to practise the learnt techniques.
- Finally, a post-test was administered to all the participants.

Experimental Group 11:Solution Focused Brief Counselling Technique (SFBCT)

Week One

Session One: General Orientation to the programme and pre-test administration

- The researcher welcomed participants to the programme and introduced himself. Each participant also introduced himself.
- The researcher discussed the group expectations, and the goals of the group (that is, to change their negative self-concept that leads to academic underachievement and increase academic performance).
- The researcher informed the participants that each session would involve group therapy, feedback and discussions based on previous and present sessions.
- The academic self-concept scale was administered on participants.
- The researcher appreciated the participants for their commitment and cooperation during the session and encouraged them to attend the next session.

Week Two

Session Two: Goal-Setting through Miracle Question

- The researcher welcomed the participants to the second session, and recapitulated the previous discussion. Questions and answers followed.
- Then participants were asked questions on the description of the problem.
- The researcher explained the importance of miracle question to the participants, and then asked the miracle question.
- The researcher gave assignment and expressed words of appreciation and encouragement to the participants to attend the next session.

Week Three

Session Two: Use of scaling questions

- The researcher welcomed the participants to the third session, and recapitulated the previous discussion. Questions and answers followed. The assignment was also collected.
- The researcher asked the participants to the state their problems on a scale from 1 to 10

- The researcher gave assignment and expressed words of appreciation and encouragement to the participants to attend the next session.

Week Four

Session Four: Researching for Exceptions and Existing Resource in Clients' Life

- The researcher welcomed the participants to the fourth session, and recapitulated the previous discussion. Questions and answers followed. The assignment was also collected.
- The researcher engaged the participants in how to notice their exception period when the problem is not there or little through exception questions.
- The researcher enlightened the participants on how to identify their existing resources
- The researcher gave assignment and expressed words of appreciation and encouragement to the participants to attend the next session.

Week Five

Session Five: Application of exception to the future for strength and solution

- The researcher welcomed the participants to the third session, and recapitulated the previous discussion. Questions and answers followed. The assignment was also collected.
- The researcher explained how to project their exceptions into the future, by drawing through a scale from 1to10.
- The researcher asked the participants where things would need to be for them to feel that the goals of the treatment had been met or that the therapy had been successful.
- The researcher gave assignment and expressed words of appreciation and encouragement to the participants to attend the next session.

Week Six

Session Six: Development of Presupposing Change

- The researcher welcomed the participants to the third session, and recapitulated the previous discussion. Questions and answers followed. The assignment was also collected.
- The researcher asked the participants the questions of presuppose change
- If evidence of positive change is unavailable, the researcher asked questions relating to the participant's ability to cope.

Week Seven

Session Seven: Wrap up (compliment and task)

- The researcher asked question for the reassurance of the process
- Participants were reminded and encouraged to practise the learnt techniques.
- The researcher appreciated the participants for their dedication and cooperation from the beginning of the Cognitive Restructuring Counselling Technique to the end of it.
- Finally, a post-test was administered to all the participants.

3.7.4 The Post-Treatment Phase

At the end of each treatment sessions, the post-test of academic self-concept scale wasre-administered to all the respondents in the experimental and control groups. The test was collected and correlated with that of pre-test and subjected the two scores to SPSS statistical analysis in order to ascertain the effect of the treatments exercise.

3.8 Procedure for Data Analysis

Data collected from the study were analyzed using both the descriptive and inferential statistical methods. The descriptive statistics,numbers and simple percentage was used to present the demographic data.Means and standard deviation were usedto answer the research

questions.The inferential statisticsof Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was used to test all hypotheses.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULT AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presented the analysis of the data obtained from the study with the help of Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS version 24, 2016). Descriptive statistics of frequency count and percentage was used to analyse the demographic information of respondents.Mean and standard deviation was used to answer the research questions.A one-way analysis of covariance was used to test the five null hypotheses stated for the studyat 0.05 level of significant. The chapter was arranged in the following subsections:demographic data presentation,answer to research questions, hypotheses testing, summary of major findings and discussion.

4.2: Demographic Data Presentation

The data collected for this study cover the distribution of respondents into two treatment groups and one control group and also the distribution of respondents by gender. These are presented in the table below:

Table 4.1: Distribution of respondents in two treatment and one control groups

Groups	Number	Percentage

Cognitive Restructuring Counselling Technique	15	33%
Solution Focused Brief Counselling Technique	15	33%
Control	15	33%
Total	45	100%

Table 4.1 shows the distribution of respondents into three groups. The experimental groups on Cognitive Restructuring and Solution Focused Brief Counselling Techniques consisted of fifteen(15) respondents representing 33% respectively, while the third one is control group consisted of fifteen (15) respondents representing 33%.

Table 4.2: Distribution of respondents by gender

Gender	**Number**	**Percentage**
Male	25	55.6%
Female	20	44.4%
Total	45	100%

Table 4.2 above states the distribution of respondents by gender for the two experimental and one control groups. Male respondents consist of 25 (55.6%) while female respondents consist of 20(44.4%). This indicates that there were more male respondents than female respondents.The respondents were selected through their characteristics of low self-concept. Underachievers. This indicates that there were more males suffering from this problem than females.

4.3: Answer to Research Questions

Five research questions raised in chapter one were answered below using means and standard deviationand their result were presented in tables.

Research Question One: What is the effectiveness of cognitive restructuring counselling technique on self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis?

Table 4.3 Means and standard deviation of pretest and posttest mean scores on self-concept of underachievers exposed to CRCT and control

Source	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pretest score	CRCT	15	37.600	1.919
	Control	15	35.666	3.015
	Total	30	36.633	2.671
Posttest score	CRCT	15	65.800	2.455
	Control	15	39.933	2.433
	Total	30	52.867	13.371

Table 4.3 shows the pretest and posttest mean scores of subjects exposed to CRCT and that of control group. It reveals that at pretest, students assigned to receive CRCT had a higher mean score (M = 37.600, SD = 1.919) when compared to students in the control group (M = 35.667, SD = 3.015). Conversely, after intervention, students in the CRCT group had a higher mean score (M = 65.800, SD = 2.455) than control group (M = 39.933, SD = 2.433). The result suggested that the treatment had an effectiveness in favour of students exposed to CRCT.

Research Question Two: What is the effectiveness of solution focused brief counselling technique on self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis?

Table 4.4Means and standard deviation of pretest and posttest mean scores on self-concept of underachievers exposed to SFBCT and control

Source	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pretest score	SFBCT	15	36.933	2.463
	Control	15	35.666	3.015
	Total	30	36.300	2.781
Posttest score	SFBCT	15	66.000	2.927
	Control	15	39.933	2.433
	Total	30	52.966	13.517

Table 4.4 shows the mean pretest and posttest scores of subjects exposed to SFBCT and that of control group. It reveals that at pretest, students assigned to receive SFBCT had a higher mean score (M = 36.933, SD = 2.463) when compared to students in the control group (M = 35.666, SD = 3.015). Conversely, after exposure to treatment, students in the SFBCT group had a higher mean

score (*M* = 66.000, *SD* = 2.927) than control group (*M* = 39.933, *SD* = 2.433). The result suggested that the treatment had an effectiveness in favour of students exposed to SFBCT.

Research Question Three: What is the relative effectiveness of cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques on the self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis?

Table 4.5Means and standard deviation of pretest and posttest mean scores on self-concept of underachievers exposed to CRCT and SFBCT

Source	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pretest score	CRCT	15	37.600	1.919
	SFBCT	15	36.933	2.463
	Total	30	37.266	2.196
Posttest score	CRCT	15	65.800	2.455
	SFBCT	15	66.000	2.927
	Total	30	65.900	2.656

Table 4.5 reveals the mean pretest and posttest scores of students exposed to CRCT and SFBCT. It reveals that at pretest, students assigned to receive CRCT had a mean score of 37.600, and a Standard Deviation of 1.919 compared to students in the SFBCT group with a mean of 36.933 and standard deviation of 2.463. After exposure to treatment, a marginal difference was observed between the mean score of students in the CRCT group (*M* = 65.800, *SD* = 2.455) and those in the SFBCT group (*M* = 66.000, *SD* = 2.927). The result suggested that both treatments had relative effectiveness.

Research Question Four: What is the differential effectiveness of cognitive restructuring counselling technique on the self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis?

Table 4.6Means and standard deviation of pretest and posttest mean scores on self-concept of male and female underachievers exposed to CRCT

Source	Sex	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pretest score	Male	10	37.400	2.221
	Female	5	38.000	1.224
	Total	15	37.600	1.919
Posttest score	Male	10	65.400	2.716
	Female	5	66.600	1.816
	Total	15	65.800	2.455

Table 4.6 shows the pretest and posttest mean scores of male and female subjects exposed to CRCT. It shows that at pretest, male students assigned to receive CRCT had a mean score of 37.400 and standard deviation of 2.221 compared to female students with a mean of 38.000 and standard deviation of 1.224. After intervention, the mean score for male students rose to 65.400, with a standard deviation of 2.716 while the mean of the female students also increased to 66.600 with a standard deviation of 1.816. This result suggested that the treatment had an effectiveness for both male and female underachievers.

Research Question Five: What is the differential effectiveness of solution focused brief counselling technique on the self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis?

Table 4.7Means and standard deviation of Pretest and Posttest mean scores on self-concept of male and female underachievers exposed to SFBCT

Source	Sex	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pretest score	Male	7	37.571	2.439
	Female	8	36.375	2.503
	Total	15	36.933	2.463
Posttest score	Male	7	67.000	2.449
	Female	8	65.125	3.181
	Total	15	66.000	2.927

Table 4.7 shows the mean pretest and posttest scores of male and female students exposed to SFBCT. It shows that at pretest, the mean score for male students assigned to receive SFBCT was 37.571 and standard deviation was 2.439 compared to female students whose mean score was 36.375 and standard deviation of 2.503. After intervention, the mean score for male students rose

to 67.000, with a standard deviation of 2.449 while the mean score of the female students also rose to 65.125 with a standard deviation of 3.181. This outcome suggested that the treatment had an effectiveness for both male and female underachievers.

4.4Hypotheses Testing

To test the five null hypotheses stated for the study, a one-way analysis of covariance was used to control for pretest differences in subjects score on self-concept. In the following subsections, null hypotheses were stated and their result were presented in tables.

Hypothesis one: There is no significant effectiveness of cognitive restructuring counselling technique on self-concept of secondary school underachieversin Ilorin metropolis.

To test null hypothesis one, a one-way analysis of covariance was carried out and pretest mean scores of students exposed to CRCT, and that of control group were used as the covariate to control for initial differences. The result was presented in table 4.8.

Table 4.8 One-way Analysis of Covariance on Effectiveness of CRCT against a Control Group

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	5020.490[a]	2	2510.245	410.824	.000
Intercept	432.350	1	432.350	70.758	.000
Pretest	2.356	1	2.356	.386	.540
Group	4413.175	1	4413.175	722.256	.000
Error	164.977	27	6.110		
Total	89032.000	30			
Corrected Total	5185.467	29			

a. R squared = .968 (Adjusted R Squared = .966)

Table 4.8 shows a one-way analysis of covariance conducted to test the effectiveness of CRCT designed to improve underachievers' self-concept against an untreated control group. The covariate used in the analysis was the pretest score of both group. After adjusting for the covariate,

result shows there is a significant effectiveness of CRCT on self-concept of secondary school underachievers when compared to control group on post treatment scores, $F = 722.256$, $p = 0.000$. It also reveals that 96.8% of variance in post test score can be explained by the treatment. It can therefore be said that to a large extent, CRCT was effective in improving the self-concept of secondary school underachievers. Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant effectiveness of CRCT on self-concept of Secondary School Underachievers was rejected.

Hypothesis two: There is no significant effectiveness of solution focused brief counselling technique on self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis

To test null hypothesis two, a one-way analysis of covariance was carried out. The pretest mean scores of students exposed to SFBCT and that of control group were used as the covariate to control for initial differences. The result was presented in table 4.9.

Table 4.9One-way Analysis of Covariance on Effectiveness of SFBCT against a Control Group

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	5097.855[a]	2	2548.928	342.204	.000
Intercept	394.245	1	394.245	52.929	.000
Pretest	1.822	1	1.822	.245	.625
Group	4779.312	1	4779.312	641.642	.000
Error	201.111	27	7.449		
Total	89463.000	30			
Corrected Total	5298.967	29			

a. R Squared = .962 (Adjusted R Squared = .959)

Table 4.9 shows a one-way analysis of covariance conducted to test the effectiveness of SFBCT designed to improve underachievers' self-concept against an untreated control group. The covariate used in the analysis was the pretest score of both treatment and control group. After adjusting for the covariate, finding shows there is a significant effectiveness of SFBCT on self-concept of secondary school underachievers when compared to control group on post treatment scores, $F = 641.642$, $p = 0.000$. Outcome also revealed that 96.2% of variance in the post test score

can be explained by the treatment. It can therefore be said that to a large extent, SFBCT was effective in improving the self-concept of secondary school underachievers. Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant effectiveness of SFBCT on self-concept of Secondary School Underachievers was rejected.

Hypothesis three: There is no significant differentialeffectiveness of cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques on self-concept of secondary school underachieversin Ilorin metropolis.

To test null hypothesis three, a one-way analysis of covariance was also carried out. The pretest mean scores of students exposed to CRCT and that of SFBCT were used as the covariate to control for initial differences. The result was presented in table 4.10.

Table 4.10One-way Analysis of Covariance on the Differential Effectiveness of CRCT and SFBCT

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	3.781[a]	2	1.890	.254	.777
Intercept	352.169	1	352.169	47.325	.000
Pretest	3.481	1	3.481	.468	.500
Group	.688	1	.688	.092	.763
Error	200.919	27	7.441		
Total	130489.000	30			
Corrected Total	204.700	29			

a. R Squared = .018 (Adjusted R Squared = -.054)

Table 4.10 shows a one-way analysis of covariance conducted to test the differential effectiveness of CRCT and SFBCT designed to improve underachievers' self-concept. The covariate used in the analysis was the pretest score of both treatment group. After adjusting for the covariate, finding shows there is no significant differentialeffectiveness of CRCT and SFBCT on self-concept of secondary school underachievers, $F = .092$, $p = 0.763$. The result also indicated that only 1.8% of variance in the post test score can be explained by the group. It can therefore be said that to a large extent, CRCT and SFBCT were both effective with none being significantly inferior to the other in improving the self-concept of secondary school underachievers. Therefore, the null hypothesis

which stated that there is no significant differentialeffectiveness of CRCT and SFBCT on self-concept of Secondary School Underachievers was retained.

Hypothesis Four: There is no significant differential effectiveness of cognitive restructuring counselling technique on self-concept of male and female secondary school underachieversin Ilorin metropolis.

To test null hypothesis four, a one-way analysis of covariance was carried out and pretest mean scores of male and female students exposed to CRCT were used as the covariate to control for initial differences. The result was presented in table 4.11.

Table 4.11One-way Analysis of Covariance on the Differential Effectiveness of CRCT on Self-Concept of Male and Female Underachievers.

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	7.470[a]	2	3.735	.583	.573
Intercept	197.228	1	197.228	30.765	.000
Pretest	2.670	1	2.670	.416	.531
Gender	5.830	1	5.830	.909	.359
Error	76.930	12	6.411		
Total	65029.000	15			
Corrected Total	84.400	14			

a. R Squared = .089 (Adjusted R Squared = -.063)

Result on table 4.11 is a one-way analysis of covariance conducted to test the differential effectiveness of CRCT on self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers. The covariate used in the analysis was the pretest score of both male and female exposed to CRCT. After adjusting for the covariate, finding shows there is no significant differential effectiveness of CRCT on self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers, $F = .909$, $p = 0.359$. The result also indicated that only 8.9% of variance in the post test score can be explained by the gender. This means that the effectiveness of the intervention on self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers were the same. Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant differential effectiveness of CRCT on self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers was retained.

Hypothesis Five: There is no significant differential effectiveness of solution focused brief counselling technique on self-concept of male and female secondary school underachieversin Ilorin metropolis.

To test null hypothesis five, a one-way analysis of covariance was carried out and pretest mean scores of male and female students exposed to SFBCT were used as the covariate to control for initial differences. The result was presented in table 4.12.

Table 4.12 One-way Analysis of Covariance on the Differential Effectiveness of SFBCT on Self-Concept of Male and Female Underachievers

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	19.557[a]	2	9.778	1.168	.344
Intercept	178.974	1	178.974	21.382	.001
Pretest	6.432	1	6.432	.768	.398
Gender	8.242	1	8.242	.985	.341
Error	100.443	12	8.370		
Total	65460.000	15			
Corrected Total	120.000	14			

a. R Squared = .163 (Adjusted R Squared = .023)

Table 4.10 shows a one-way analysis of covariance conducted to test the differential effectiveness of SFBCT on self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers. In the analysis, the covariate used was the pretest score of both male and female exposed to SFBCT. After adjusting for the covariate, finding shows there is no significant differential effectiveness of SFBCT on self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers, $F = .985$, $p = 0.341$. The result also indicates that only 16.3% of variance in the post test score can be explained by the gender. This means that the effectiveness of the intervention on self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers were the same. Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant differential effectiveness of SFBCT on self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers was retained.

4.5 Summary of Major Findings

The findings of the study revealed that:

1. Cognitive restructuring counselling techniqueis effective in improvingthe self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis (F = 722.256, p = 0.000). This is because their mean self-concept after exposure tocognitive restructuring counselling technique significantly improved.
2. Solution focused brief counselling techniqueis effective in improvingthe self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis (F = 641.642, p = 0.000). This is because their mean self-concept after exposure tosolution focused brief counselling technique significantly improved.
3. In comparing the two techniques,significant differential effects do not exist betweencognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniquesin their effectiveness on the self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis(F = .092, p = 0.763).This is because their self-conceptmean scoresafter exposure toboth counselling techniques significantly improved
4. Significant differencedoes not exist between the self-concept ofmale and female secondary school underachievers exposed to cognitive restructuring counselling technique(F = .909, p = 0.359). This is because both sexes self-conceptmean scores weresignificantly improved.
5. Significant differencedoes not exist between the self-concept ofmale and female secondary school underachievers exposed to solution focused brief counselling technique(F = .985, p = 0.341). This is because both sexesself-conceptmean scoreswere significantly improved.

4.6: Discussions

This study aimed at finding out the effectiveness of cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief techniques on self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis. Five Null Hypotheses were formulated to guide the study. After the analysis of the data collected, the findings of the hypotheses were discussed below:

The first finding indicates that cognitive restructuring counselling technique has significant effectiveness in improving self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis. It was found that significant difference exists between the pre-test and post-test mean scores of the subjects that were exposed to cognitive restructuring counselling technique. Also, when the mean scores of the subjects exposed to cognitive restructuring technique were compared to that of the control group, significant difference was observed.This shows that cognitive restructuring counselling technique can bring about improvement in the self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis exposed to the treatment. By this the first null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant effectiveness of cognitive restructuring counselling technique on self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis was rejected.From the finding, cognitive restructuring techniques can significantly improve self-concept of secondary school underachievers. The implication of this result is that negative self-concept is amendable to psychological treatment like cognitive restructuring counselling technique.When appropriate counselling technique like cognitive restructuring is adequately applied on students with cognitive/behaviour problem like low self-concept of secondary school underachievers,they will able to amend such negative self-concept and improve their academic achievement.Therefore, it is not surprising that the group treated using cognitive restructuring technique responded better when compared with the control group. The effectiveness of the treatment could be due to the fact that the consequences of inferiority complex hitherto experienced by the subjects arising from false beliefs based on their wrong assumptions were effectively taken care of. In the same vein it is possible that the use of cognitive restructuring techniquein this study had contributed in reducing

inferioritycomplex, fear, anxiety and other inappropriate behaviours hindering academic achievement. The fact that there was a significant difference in the results of experimental and control group is an indication that the technique of cognitive restructuring used in this study was effective and could be used in modifying self-concept and other learning behaviour problems. It seems logical that poor self-concept which implies a lack of confidence in facing and mastering study materials would be related to deficiency in one of the most important areas of accomplishment for the learners' performance in school. The finding is similar to that of Addison, Antwi and Avonokadzi (2014) who claim that cognitive restructuring significantly enhances studentself-esteem and self-concept whichin turn improve academic performance.It is also in line with Nwamuo (2005) who claimed that CR technique involves teaching persons or individuals to reduce their negative emotional reactions by getting them to interpret situations with greater accuracy and avoid distorted thinking(negative self-concept) and think rightly (positive self-concept). The finding is also in line with Ngwoke, Numonde and Ngwoke (2013) who claimed that cognitive restructuring is a potential educative strategy for releasing the creative potentials, self-awareness, achievement motivation, personal competencies and interpersonal skills of at risk students who perform consistently below their natural potentials. This also correlates with that of Ogugua (2010) whofinds that cognitive restructuring technique is effective in enhancing students' Mathematics achievement. This implies that cognitive restructuring technique is effective in improving both poor academic self-concept and academic underachievement. The finding of this study is in line with Cognitive Behaviour Therapy (CBT) of Aaron Beck which says CBT combines cognitive and behavioural therapies, and involves changing the way one thinks negatively (negative self-concept) and how you respond to thoughts (poor academic achievement).It is crystal clear that this finding is real because cognitive restructuring is an effective technique under cognitive behaviour theory which it overall intention is to move away from more extreme and unhelpful ways of seeing things (negative self-concept) to more helpful

and balanced conclusions (positive self-concept) (Cooper & Fairburn, 2010; Otte, 2011; Seligman & Ollendick, 2011).

Thesecond findingspecifies that solution focused brief counselling technique had significant effectiveness in improving self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis. It was found that significant difference exists between the pre-test and post-test, mean scores of the subjects that were exposed to solution focused brief counselling technique. When the mean scores was compared with the mean scores of those in the control the difference was remarkable. This finding indicated that solution focused brief as a treatment technique is capable of improving negative self-concept. By this the hypothesis which stated that there is no significant effectiveness of solution focused brief counselling technique on self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis was rejected. This means that solution focused brief counselling technique is capable of reducing the intensity of negative self-concept of underachieverstudents. The implication of this is that negative self-concept is amendable to psychological treatment like solution focused brief counselling technique. Therefore, the finding revealed that solution focused brief counselling technique is effective in the treatment of negative self-concept among underachiever students. This agreed with the work ofJoker and Ghaderi (2015) who investigated the efficacy of solution-based counselling on improvement in self-conception. The results showed that solution-based group counselling is effective on the improvement of self-conception, self-respect and self-admission. The finding is also in line withthe work ofKim and Franklin (2009) on solution-focused brief therapy in schools after the review of the related literature concluded thatsolution focused brief counselling technique is highly effective in helping students reduce the intensity of their negative feelings (like poor self-concept), manage their conduct problems, and externalizing behavioural problems (like academic underachievement).Also, the finding is in line with the work of Taathadi (2014) who worked onthe application of solution-focused brief therapy to enhance high school students' self-esteeman

embedded experimental design. Based on this result he drew the conclusion that solution-focused brief therapy highly produces therapeutic changes in improving self-esteem (self-concept) of high school students. Also, SFBT intervention led to therapeutic changes in self counselling for students with self-esteem (self-concept) problem. It is crystal clear that this finding is real because the results proved the effectiveness of SFBT approach in tackling both cognitive and behaviour problems among school age children.SFBC has proven to be an effective technique to use to mitigate this issueof low self-concept problem.It is brief, strength based, structured, enables student to utilize his or her attributes to attain goals, helps to empower students to take ownership of their feelings, emotions, responses, and encourages them to focus on aspects of their life that they have control over (Paolini, 2016).Also, Treeper, Dolan, McCollum and Nelson (2006) suggest that SFBT is effective in primary school, secondary school and high schoolstudents. This finding corroborateshumanistic theory of Carl Rogers which acknowledges that an individual's mind is strongly influenced by ongoing determining forces in both the unconscious and conscious world around them, specifically the society in which they live. The focus of the humanistic perspective is on the self, and this view argues that individuals are free to choose their own behaviour (of reason and performing well in an unfavourable environment), rather than reacting to environmental stimuli and reinforcers but if it is negative one (like academic underachievement),it can be solved by techniques (like SFBCT) that would guild individuals in solving the problem by themselves (Aileen Milne 2003).

The third finding indicates that the two techniques (cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques) have relativeeffectiveness on the improvementof self-concept mean scores of the treated subjects.This is because both treatments improved self-concept of the two experimental subjects tremendously. It was found that significant difference existed between the pre-test and post-test mean scores of the subjects that were exposed to both cognitive restructuring and solution-focused brief counselling techniques. Also, when the mean scores of the

subjects exposed to both cognitive restructuring and solution-focused brief techniques were compared to that of the control group significant difference was observed. This showed that both cognitive restructuring and solution-focused brief counselling techniques can bring about improvement in the self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis. By this, the third null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant differential effects of cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief techniques on the self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis was retained. From the finding, both cognitive restructuring and solution-focused brief techniques can significantly improve self-concept of secondary school underachievers. The findings showed that both techniques could effectively enhance self-concept of secondary school underachievers. The implication of this result is that negative self-concept is amendable to some psychological treatments like cognitive restructuring and solution-focused brief counselling techniques.That is, when appropriate counselling techniques like cognitive restructuring and solution-focused brief counselling techniques are adequately applied on students with cognitive/behaviour problem like low self-concept among secondary school underachievers, they will able to amend such negative self-concept and improve their academic achievement. This was clearly shown when applied each technique to each experimental group separately, it was discovered that the treatments improve negative self-concept of each experimental subject tremendously. This finding is in line with Chronis, Gamble, Roberts and Pelham (2006) who claim that cognitive restructuring is to widen students' conscious perspective and thus allow room for a change in low self-concept perception to a positive one. Kim and Franklin (2009) also state that solution focused brief counselling technique is highly effective in helping students reduce the intensity of their negative feelings (like poor self-concept).

Thefourth finding reveals that cognitive restructuring counselling technique has no differential effectiveness in improving self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis because the treatment improves both sexes self-concept

tremendously. It was found that significant difference existed between the pre-test and post-test mean scores of both males and females that were exposed to cognitive restructuring counselling technique treatment. Also, when the mean scores of males and females exposed to cognitive restructuring technique were compared to that of the control group, significant difference was observed. This showed that cognitive restructuring counselling technique can bring about improvement in the self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis who were exposed to the treatment. By this, the fourth null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant effectiveness of cognitive restructuring technique on the self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis was retained,because from the finding, cognitive restructuring technique significantly improveself-concept of both male and female secondary school underachievers tremendously. The finding showed that cognitive restructuring technique could effectively enhance self-concept of secondary school underachievers irrespective of sexes. The implication of this result is that negative self-concept is amendable to psychological treatment like cognitive restructuring counselling technique.That is, when appropriate counselling technique likecognitive restructuring is adequately applied on either male or female students with cognitive/behaviour problem like low self-concept of secondary school underachievers, they will able toamend such negative self-concept and improve their academic achievement irrespective of their sexes.The finding is in line with Wilson (2009) who summarized the views of three researchers that used a general measure in studying academic self-concept and found no differences in self-concept between genders.

But the finding contradictsMatovu (2012) who contended that in several studies on gender differences on academic self-concept males and females possess different beliefs about their academic competencies with males showing higher academic self-concept than females. Though the finding of this studyproved that both of them show high improvement in their level of self-concept,the level of self-concept mean score of female is slightly higher than that of male.This

agreed with theanalysis of Liu and Wang (2005) that academic self-concept has significant main effect on gender with female students having significantly higher perceived academic effort (academic self-concept subscale) than their male counterparts. Therefore, with the application of cognitive restructuring technique the slight difference corroboratesOgugua (2010) who claims that females gain higher mean achievement scores than their male counterparts when cognitive restructuring technique is adopted. Jacob (2002) opined that it has been revealed that girls do better in school, get higher grades and can graduate from high school at a higher level than boys.

Thefifth finding agrees that solution focused brief counselling technique has no differential effectiveness in improving self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis because the treatment improves both sexes' negative self-concept tremendously. It was found that significant difference exists between the pre-test and post-test mean scores of both males and females that were exposed to solution focused brief counselling technique treatment. Also, when the mean scores of males and females exposed to solution focused brief technique were compared to that of the control group, significant difference was observed. This showed that solution focused brief counselling technique can bring about improvement in the self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis who were exposed to the treatment. By this, the fifth null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant effectiveness of solution focused brief counselling technique on the self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis was retained.From the finding, solution focused brief counselling techniques significantly improves self-concept of both male and female secondary school underachievers tremendously. The findings showed that solution focused brief counselling technique could effectively enhance self-concept of secondary school underachievers irrespective of sexes. The implication of this result is that negative self-concept is amendable to psychological treatment like solution focused brief counselling technique.That is, when appropriate counselling technique likesolution focused brief is adequately applied on either

male or female students with cognitive/behaviour problem like low self-concept of secondary school underachievers, they will able toamend such negative self-concept and improve their academic achievement irrespective of their sexes.This is in line with Milner and O'Byrne (2002) whoproved that SFBT helps clients irrespective of their sexes to develop a desired vision of the future wherein the problem is solved. But the finding does not conform with that of Sar Abadani Tafreshi (2006) who maintained that significant difference in self-concept is noted between males and females and thus in their academic achievementwhile Aryana (2010) claimed that difference in self-esteem (self-concept) can lead to difference in academic achievement between boys and girls.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1Introduction

Chapter five presents the summary of the entire research work, the conclusion drawn from the study, recommendations made,suggestions for further studies and limitations of the study are also presented.

5.2 Summary

The study investigated the effectiveness of cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques on self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis, Kwara State, Nigeria. The research report was presented in five chapters. Chapter one of the research work presented the introductory part of the study where background of the study was stated and statement of problem was examined. Five objectives were formulated with correspondence research questions and research hypotheses which were tested at 0.05 alpha level of significance and five basic assumptions. Also,the significance of the study and the scope and delimitation were not left out. Chapter two focused on the review of related literatures that covered three major areas; the conceptual framework of the key variables; the theoretical framework which examined some major theories which guided the study; and the empirical study of the past researches based on the variable of the study. Chapter three focused on the methodology of the study withquasi-experimental designadopted. Population, sample and sampling procedure were adequately explained. The instrument adapted for data collection was clearly described and detail procedure for data collection and treatment procedure were explained, followed by presentation of procedure for data analysis. Chapter four was based on the analysis of the data collected for the study. It involved demographic data presentation, hypotheses testing, summary of major findings and discussion of major findings. Lastly, chapter five presented the summary of the entire research work, contribution of the study to knowledge, conclusion drawn from the study and recommendations based on the findings. Suggestions for further study and limitation of the study were not left untouched.

5.3 Contribution of the Study to Knowledge

The study has contributed to the body of existing knowledge in the following ways:

1. Cognitive restructuring counselling technique is effective in improvingthe self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis(p = 0.000).
2. Solution focused brief counselling technique is effective in improvingthe self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis(p = 0.000).
3. In comparing the two techniques, significant differential effects do not exist between cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques in their effectiveness on the self-concept of secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis (p = 0.763).
4. Significant difference does not exist between the self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis exposed to cognitive restructuring counselling technique because both sexes self-conceptmean scores were significantly improved (p = 0.359).
5. Significant difference does not exist between self-concept of male and female secondary school underachievers in Ilorin metropolis exposed to solution focused brief counselling technique because both sexes self-conceptmean scores were significantly improved (p = 0.341).

5.4Conclusion

From the findings of this study, it can be concluded that the cognitive restructuring counselling technique had significant effectiveness in improving self-concept among secondary school underachievers due to its ability to improve on the self-concept mean scores of all the variables of subjects examined. Equally,solution focused briefcounselling technique had significant effectiveness in improving self-concept among secondary school underachievers due to its ability to improve on the self-concept mean scores of all the variables of subjects examined.

It was deduced that both techniques were highly effective in enhancingself-concept among secondary school underachievers due to their ability to improvethe self-concept mean scores of all the variables of subjects examined. It was also deduced thatboth cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques had no gender bias in their effectiveness on self-concept, that is, cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques can be effectively utilized in enhancing self-concept among both sexes.

5.5 Recommendations

The following recommendations were made based on the findings of this study.Based on the findings, the researcher recommended that:

1. School counsellors and psychologists are encouraged to use cognitive restructuring counselling technique in improving self-concept among secondary school underachievers, because of their strength in managing such self-concept among secondary school underachievers.
2. School counsellors and psychologists are encouraged to use solution focused brief counselling techniques in improving self-concept among secondary school underachieversbecause of their strength in managing such self-concept among secondary school underachievers.
3. Also,teacher should be trained by the counsellors andpsychologists on the use of cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques in enhancing the self-concept of secondary school underachieversin Ilorin metropolis.
4. School counsellors and psychologists should be encouraged to use cognitive restructuring counselling techniquetoimprove self-concept of male and female senior secondary school underachieversbecause the finding shows that thetechnique proved efficient in managing such self-concept among both sexes.
5. School counsellors and psychologists should be encouraged to use solution focused brief counselling techniquetoimprove self-concept of male and female senior secondary school

underachievers,because the finding shows that thetechnique proved efficient in managing such self-concept among both sexes.

5.6Suggestions for Further Studies

This study has enhanced expertise as more experience has been acquired. To this effect, the following are suggested for further studies:

1. The study is limited to threesecondary schools in Ilorin metropolis.It is important to replicate this empirical study for a larger population. Similar studies could be carried out in other local government areas in the state or in other states of Nigeria.
2. This study revealed the efficacy of cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques in the treatment of low academic self-concept among secondary school underachievers. Other interventions could be used either in isolation or in conjunction with the already tested and proven ones on the similar problem.
3. The present study focused on secondary school underachievers, particularly on SSII students. But similar studies could focus on other levels of students with similar problems either at primary, JSS or even at Tertiary level.
4. The counselling interventions (cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques) could be used to treat or correct other psychological and behavioural challenges, including low self-esteem, depression, substance abuse, anxiety disorders, bulimia, social phobia, borderline personality disorder, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder(ADHD), or academic underachievement itself.

5.7 Limitations of the Study

In the course of the study, a number of challenges were encountered.

The first of these was the sample identification and selection constraint. Initially it was the intention of the researcher to identify and select SSII students with academic underachievement

problems through their terminal, promotion examination results of their core subjects (English, Mathematics, Civic Education and Computer Science). But on getting to the field the present SSII students were in the first term of the academic section. Then the researcher decided to use their second and third term SSI examination results. On the selection, it has been discovered that some of the identified students were made to repeat the SSI class, while some decided to drop out. That is the reason why the number reduces to 79 for the study.

The second one was sample size constraint. Initially it was the intention of the researcher to select 30 students from each school,makinga total numbers of 90 subjects, and appoints 20 participants in each school for the two experimental groups and the remaining 10 for control group. But on getting to the field, the number of studentsfound that possessed the characteristics of academic underachievers were as followed BCSS= 32, GDSS= 24, and GHS= 23, making a total numbers of 79 academic underachievers. Then after the administration of first test (academic self-concept scale) for the identification of those with low academic self-concept, the number reduced to BCSS=18,GDSS= 17 and GHS=18, in which 15 weakest self-concept mean scores were selected in each school making a total numbers of 45 low academic self-concept underachievers as the subjects for the study. This is among the reasons why the researcher used two schools for the two treatments and the third school for control.

REFERENCES

Abdulkadir, J. T. (2011). *Introduction to human sexuality education and marital guidance*. Kontagora: Sunny-Tex Printers

Addison, A. K., Antwi, T., & Avonokadzi, I. K. (2014). Impact of cognitive restructuring on students with low self-esteem and academic performance in Dambai College of Education in

the Volta Region of Ghana. *Projournal of Humanities and Social Science (PHSS), 2*(3), 125-141. Retrieved fromhttp://www.projournals.org/PHSS.

Adeusi, S. O. (2013). *Efficacy of cognitive restructuring and behavioural rehearsal on conduct disorder in adolescents in Special Correctional Centres in Lagos State.* (Unpublished PhD. Dissertation), Department of Psychology, Covenant University, Ota

Affum-Osei E., Eric A. A., Barnie J., &Forkuoh, K. S. (2014). Achievement motivation, academic self-concept and academic achievement among high school students. *European Journal of Research and Reflection in Educational Sciences,* 2 (2), 24-37. Retrieved from www.idpublications.org

Ahmad, I., Zeb, A., Ullah, S., & Ali, A. (2013). Relationship between self-esteem and academic achievements of students: A case of government secondary schools in district Swabi, KPK, Pakistan. *International Journal of Social Science Education, 3*(2), 2223-4934

Ahmed, W., & Bruinsma, M. (2006). A structural model of self-concept, autonomous motivation and academic performance in cross-cultural perspective. *Electronic Journal of Research in Educational Psychology, 10*(4), 551-572. Retrieved fromwww.investigacion-psicopedagogica.org/revista/.../Art_10_144.pdf

Aileen M. (2003). *Teach yourself counselling*. U.S.A.: McGraw-Hill.

Aiyedum, M. K. & Popoola, A. A. (2004). Influence of sex difference of students on their achievement in secondary school. *Journal of the Mathematical Association of Nigeria, 25*(1), 109 – 113.

Ajayi, K. O., Lawani, A. O., & Adeyanju, H. I. (2011). Effects of students' attitude and self-concept on achievement in senior secondary school mathematics in Ogun State, Nigeria. *JORIND 9*(2). 1596 – 8308. Retrieved from www.ajol.info/journals/jorind

Ajoku, M. U. (1998). The concept and nature of self-concept. In C. N. Ugwuegbulam & L. N. Njoku (Edts.), *self-concept: A psycho-Counselling Perspective*. Oweri: Lasen Nigeria Ltd

Akinpelu, O. F. (1998). A study of the academic achievement and self-concept of male and female hearing-impaired students in Nigeria. *The Nigerian Journal of Guidance and Counselling, 6*(1&2), 1-10

Akinteye, A. T. (2011). *The career teacher: A pragmatic approach to professional development for teachers.* Lagos: Wealthsmith Global Services Ltd.

Ali, Y. (3rd November 2009). Presidency probes mass failure in SSSCE NECO exams.*The Nation Newspaper.* Retrieved from http://thenationonlineng.net.html

Aryana, M. (2010). Relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement amongst pre-university students. *Journal of Applied Sciences, 10*, 2474-2477. DOI: 10.3923/jas.2010.2474.2477

Areepattamannil, S., & Freeman, J. G. (2008). Academic achievement, academic self-concept, and academic motivation of immigrant adolescents in the Greater Toronto Area Secondary Schools. *Journal of Advanced Academics, 19*(4), 700-743.

Awad, G. (2007). The role of racial identity, academic self-concept, and self-esteem in the prediction of academic outcomes for African American students. *Journal of Black Psychology, 33*, 188-207.

Awazie, E., Osarenren, N.,& Nwadinigwe, P. (2015).Impact of cognitive restructuring and pastoral counselling on spiritual wellbeing and role-stress on married people in Umuahia, Abia State, Nigeria. *British Journal of Arts and Social Sciences, 19*(2), 76-90. Retrieved from http://www.bjournal.co.uk/BJASS.aspx.

Baker, L. L., & Scarth, K. (2002). *Cognitive behavioural approach to treating children and adolescents with conduct disorder.* Ontario:Children's Mental Health.

Balduf, M. (2009). Underachievement among college students. *Journal of Advanced Academics, 20*(2), 274–294

Bandura, A. (2006a.). Adolescent development from an argentic perspective. In F. Pajares & T. Urdan (Eds.), *Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents, 5:*(pp. 1-43). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.

Bandura, A. (2006b.). Going global with social cognitive theory: From prospect to paydirt. In S. I. Donaldson, D. E. Berger, & K. Pezdek (Eds.).*The rise of applied psychology: New frontiers and rewarding careers* (pp. 53-70). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Bandura, A. (2007). Much ado over faulty conception of perceived self-efficacy grounded in faulty experimentation. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 26*(6), 641-758.

Barbara, H. S. (2005). *Gifted underachievement: oxymoron or educational enigma.* Retrieved from:http://www.prufrock.com/client/client_pages/GCT_articles/Gifted_Underachievement.cfm

Baxter, D.J. (2010). *Cognitive restructuring with anxiety.* Retrieved on 2nd March, 2011 from http://forum.psychlinks.ca/cognitive.behavioure-therapy-cbt/22193-cognitive.restructuring-will.

Berg, I. K., & Dolan, Y. (2001). *Tales of solutions: A collection of hope-inspiring stories.* New York: Norton.

Berube, B. N. (Ed.). (1995). *What educators need to know about underachievement and gifted students* (Practitioners' Guide A9712).Storrs: University of Connecticut, National Research Center on the Gifted and Talented.

Binggeli, N. (2014). *CBT techniques, part 1: Cognitive restructuring*. Retrieved from http://www.w3.org/1999/xhtml

Blonna, R. (2005). *Copping with stress in a changing world.* (6th Ed.). Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Braswell, L. &Kendalll, P.C. (2001). *Cognitive-behavioural therapy with youth. In K.S. Dobson (Ed.), handbook of cognitive-behavioural therapies (2nd Ed.),*(pp. 246 – 294) New York: The Guilford Press.

Breger, K. (2008). *The developing person through the life span*. New York: NK Worth published.

Brigman, G; Campbel, C (2003). Helping students improve academic achievement and success behaviour. *Professional school counseling*.91-98.

Brown, B. B., & Steinberg, L. (1990). Academic achievement and social acceptance: Skirting the "brain-nerd" connection. *The Education Digest, 55,* 57–60.

Burns, D. D. (2006). *When panic attacks: The new drug-free anxiety therapy that can change your life.* New York: Broadway Books.

Burwell, R., & Chen, C. P. (2006). Applying the principles and techniques of solution-focused therapy to career counselling. *Counselling Psychology Quarterly, 19* (2), 189–203

Busari, A. O. (2012). Evaluating the relationship between gender, age, depression and academic performance among adolescents. *Scholarly Journal of Education, 1*(1), 6-12. Retrieved from http://www.scholarly-journals.com/SJE

Callaghan, S., & Joseph, S. (1995). Self-concept and peer victimization among schoolchildren. *Person individual Differences, 18* (1), 161-163

Chemers, M.M., Hu, L. & Garcia, B.F. (2001).Academic self-efficacy and first year college student performance and adjustment. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 93*(1), 55-64.

Cherry, K. (2012). *Jean Piaget Biography.* New York City: The New York Times Company.

Chronis, A. M., Gamble, S. A., Roberts, J. E., & Pelham, W. E. (2006). Cognitive-behavioural depression treatment for mothers of children with attention-deficit/ hyperactivity disorder. *Behaviour Therapy, 37,* 143–158.

Chukwu-etu, O. (2009). Underachieving learners: can they learn at all? *ARECLS, 6,* 84-102.

Cockburn, J. T., Thomas, F. N., & Cockburn, O. J. (1997). Solution-focused therapy and psychosocial adjustment to orthopedic rehabilitation in a work hardening program. *Journal of Occupational Rehabilitation 7*(2), 97–106.

Coetzee, l. R. (2011).*The relationship between students' academic self-concept, motivation and academic achievement at the University of the Free State.* (Unpublished M Ed. Thesis). University of South Africa

Coil, C. (2010). *Motivation underachievers (Revised and Expanded Edition)*. USA: McNaughton and Gunn, Inc.

Cokley, K. (2000). An investigation of academic self-concept and its relationship to academic achievement in African American college students. *Journal of Black Psychology, 26,* 148 - 164.

Coopersmith, S. (1967). *The Antecedents of self-esteem*. San Francisco: W.H. Freeman and Company.

Cotton, J. (2010). Question utilization in solution-focused brief therapy: A recursive frame analysis of Insoo Kim Berg's solution talk. *The Qualitative Report, 15* (1), 18-36. Received from http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR15-1/cotton.pdf

Crisp, R. J., & Turner, R. N. (2007). *Essential Social Psychologies.* London: Sage Publications.

Cross, T. & Slater, R.B. (1995). A first view of the academic performance of African Americans at three highly ranked colleges. *J. Blacks Higher Education, 7*, 76-79.

Dambudzo, I. I. (2014). An investigation into the relationship between self-concept, academic achievement of secondary school learners by school type. *Greener Journal of Social Sciences, 4* (1), 001-015. Retrieved from www.gjournals.org

Dambudzo, I. I., Lewis, A., & Schulze, S. (2012). The relationship between learner social self-concept and academic achievement. *Prime Journals, 2* (5): 259- 268. Retrieved from www.primejournal.org/PRE

Dattilio, F. M., & Montano, A. (2005). Cognitive behavioural family therapy: A Restructuring of Schemas. *Terapia Familiare, 79*, 5 – 26.

Davis, T. E., & Osborn, C. J. (2000). *The solution-focused school counsellor: Shaping professional practise*. Philadelphia: Accelerated Development.

De Fraine, B., Van Damme, J., & Onghena, P. (2007). A longitudinal analysis of gender differences in academic self-concept and language achievement: A multivariate multilevel latent growth approach. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 32*(1), 132–150.

De Jong, P., & Berg, I. K. (2008). *Interviewing for solutions (3rd Ed.).* Belmont, CA: Thomson Brooks/Cole.

De Shazer, S., Dolan, Y. M., Korman, H., Trepper, T. S., McCollum, E. E., & Berg, I. K. (2006). *More than miracles: The state of the art of solution focused therapy.* New York: Haworth Press.

De Shazer, S., Dolan, Y., Korman, H., Trepper, T., McCollum, E., & Berg I. K. (2007). *More than miracles: The State of the Art of Solution-focused Brief Therapy*. New York: Routledge.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2008). Self-determination theory: A macro-theory of human motivation, development, and health. *Canadian Psychology, 49*(3), 182-185.

Delisle, J., & Berger, S., (1990). *Underachieving gifted students.* Retrieved fromhttp://www.kidsource.com/kidsource/content/underachieving_gifted.html.

Dombeck, M. (2014). *Cognitive restructuring*. Retrieved from http://www.geminus.org/poc/view_doc.php?type=doc&id=9350

Dramanu, B. Y., & Balarabe, M. (2013). Relationship between academic self-conceptand academic performance ofjunior high school students in Ghana. *European Scientific Journal December, l9* (34), 93-104

Driessen, E., & Hollon, S. D. (2010). Cognitive behavioural therapy for mood disorders: efficacy, moderators and mediators. *Psychiatry Clinical North American.33* (3), 537–55.

Dzulkifli, M. A., & Alias, I. A. (2012). Students of low academic achievement – their personality, mental abilities and academic performance: How counsellor can help? *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science, 2*(23), 220-225

Ekennia, C. C., Otta, F. E., & Ogbuokiri, N. P. (2013). Effect of cognitive restructuring technique and multi-component therapies in the management of nocturnal enuresis among junior secondary schools. *Asian Journal of Management Sciences & Education, 2* (4), 2186-84441. Retrieved from www.leena-luna.co.jp,

Ellis, A. (2000). *How to control your anxiety before it controls you.* Charleston, SC: Citadel Press.

Emerick, L. J. (1992). Academic underachievement among the gifted: Students' perceptions of factors that reverse the pattern. *Gifted Child Quarterly, 36*(3), 140-146. Retrieved fromhttp://www.davidsongifted.org/db/Articles_id_10178.aspx.

Emmanuel, O. O., Okreke, C., & Anayochi .N. N. (2015). Assertiveness training and cognitive restructuring technique on self-esteem of female undergraduate victims of relationship violence in South-West Nigeria.*European Journal of Educational and Development Psychology, 3*(2), 15-29. Retrieved from www.eajournals.org.

Enyi, G.S. (2009). *Introduction to measurement and evaluation in universities, polytechnics and colleges of education, a professional approach.* Enugu: Linco Press Ltd.

Ezeugo, N.C. & Agwagah, U.N.U. (2000). Effects of concept mapping on students' achievement in algebra: Implication for secondary school mathematics education in the 21st century. *Abacus journal of Mathematical Association of Nigeria, 25*: 1 – 12.

Ferla, J., Valcke, M., & Cai, Y. (2009). Academic self-efficacy and academic self-concept: Reconsidering structural relationships. *Learning and Individual Differences, 19*, 499–505. Retrieved from www.elsevier.com/locate/lindif

Flowers, L. O., Raynor, J. E., & White, E. N. (2013). Investigation of academic self-concept of undergraduates in stem courses. *Journal of Studies in Social Sciences, 5*(1), 1-11

Franken, R. (1994). *Human motivation* (3rd Ed.). Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Frick, P. J., Kamphaus, R. W., Lahey, B. B., Loeber, R., Christ, M. A. G., Hart, E. L., & Tannenbaum, L. E. (1991). Academic underachievement and the disruptive behaviour disorders. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 59* (2), 289-294

Gale Encyclopedia of Medicine (2008). *The Gale Group,* Inc.

Gallagher, J. J. (1991). Personal patterns of underachievement. *Journal for the Education of the gifted, 14* (5), 221-233.

Garber, S. H. (2002, April). *Hearing their voices": Perceptions of high school students who evidence resistance to schooling*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA.

Gemeay, E., Behilak, S., Kanona, A., & Mansour, E. A. (2013). Self-concept and academic achievements among nursing students. *Life Science Journal, 10* (1), 1466-1470. Retrieved fromhttp://www.lifesciencesite.com.

Ghamari, K. H., Rafeie, S. H., & Kiani, A. R. (2015). Effectiveness of cognitive restructuring and proper study skills in the reduction of test anxiety symptoms among students in Khalkhal, Iran. *American Journal of Educational Research, 3* (10), 1230-1236.DOI: 10.12691/education-3-10-4.

Gingerich, W. J., & Eisengart, S. (2000). Solution-focused brief therapy: a review of the outcome research. *Family Process, 39* (4), 77–498.

Graham, P. (2005). Jack tizard lecture: Cognitive behaviour therapies for children: Passing fashion or here to stay? *Child and Adolescent Mental Health, 10*: 57 – 62.

Green, J., Nelson, G., Martin, A. J., & Marsh, H. W. (2006). The causal ordering of self-concept and academic motivation and its effect on academic achievement. *International Education Journal, 7*(4) 534-546.

Greenberg, G. R., Ganshorn, K., & Danilkewic, A. (2001). Solution-focused therapy: A counselling model for busy family physicians. *Canadian Family Physician, 47*, 2289-2295.

Greene, J. (2004). *The resistant learner: Helping your child knockdown the barriers to school success.* New York: St. Martin's Griffin.

Greene, L. J. (1986). *Kids who underachieve.* New York: Simon and Schuster.

Guay, F., Marsh, H. W., & Boivin, M. (2003). Academic self-concept and academic achievement: Developmental perspectives on their causal ordering. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 95* (1), 124–136.

Guterman, J. T. (2006). *Mastering the art of solution-focused counselling.* Alexandria, VA: American Counselling Association.

Guterman, J. T., Mecias, A., & Ainbinder, D. L. (2005).Solution-focused treatment of migraine headache. *The Family Journal: Counselling and Therapy for Couples and Families, 13*, 195-198.

Hamoud, S. A., El Dayem, S. A.,& Ossman, L. H. (2011). The effect of an assertiveness training programme on assertiveness skills and self-esteem of faculty nursing students.*Journal of American Science,7*(12).

Harris, H. L., & Coy, D. R. (2003). *Helping students cope with test anxiety*. Greensboro, NC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Counselling and Student Services.

Heacox, D. (1991). *Up and underachievement*. Minneapolis: Free Spirit Publishing, Inc.

Hope, D. A., Burns, J. A., Hyes, S. A., Herbert, J. D., & Warner, M.D. (2010). Automatic thoughts and cognitive restructuring in cognitive behavioural group therapy for social anxiety disorder. *Cognitive Therapy Research, 34,* 1-12.

Hubble, M.A., Duncan, B.L., & Miller, S.D. (2010). *The heart and soul of change: What works in therapy (2nd Ed.)*. Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.

Huffman, K. (2002). *Psychology in Action*. (6th Ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Huppert, J. D. (2009). The building blocks of treatment in cognitive behavioural therapy. *Israel Journal of Psychiatry, 46,* 245-250.

Iveson, C. (2002). Solution-focused brief therapy. *Advances in Psychiatric Treatment, 8,*149-157

Jackson, S. A., Thomas, P. R., & Marsh, H. W. (2001). Relationships between flow, self-concept, psychological skills, and performance. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 13,* 129-153.

Jacob, B. A. (2002). Where the boys' aren't: Non-cognitive skills, returns to school and the gender gap in higher education. *Econ. Educ. Rev., 21*: 589-598.

Jacob, J. E., Lanza, S., Osgood, D. W., Eccles, J. S., & Wigfield, A. (2002). Changes in children's self-competence and value: gender and domain differences across grades one through twelve. *Child development, 73,* 509- 527.

Jahun, I.U., & Momoh, J.S. (2001).The effect of sex and environment on the mathematics achievement of JSS 3 students in Kwara State. *Abacus Journal of Mathematical Association of Nigeria 26*(1), 53 – 58.

Jimenez-Soffa, S. (2006). *Inspiring academic confidence in classroom: an investigation of features of the classroom experience that contribute to the academic self-efficacy of undergraduate women enrolled in gateway courses.*(Unpublished Dissertation) completed at the University of Wisconsin-Madiso.

Joker1, H. & Ghaderi, Z. (2015). Effectiveness of a solution-based counselling on students' self-perception. *Educational Research and Reviews, 10*(15), 2141-2145.DOI: 10.5897/ERR2015.2332

Jones, D. (2008). *Becoming a brief therapist: Special Edition the Complete Works, Lulu.com.* Retrieved from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Solution_focused_brief_therapy

Kanevsky, L., & Keighley, T. (2003). To produce or not to produce? Understanding boredom and the honor in underachievement. *Roeper Review, 26,* 20–28.

Kayode, M. A. (2006). Theory of personality development. In J. A. Duntoye (ed.), *Developmental Psychology and Human Learning.* Ilorin: Integrity Publication.

Keshi1, K. A., Basavarajappa, &Nik, M. M. (2013). Effectiveness of Cognitive Behaviour Therapy on Depression among High School Students. *Journal of Basic and Applied Scientific Research, 3(*2), 147-158. Retrieved from www.textroad.com.

Kim, J. S. (2003). *Examining the Effectiveness of Solution FocusedBrief Therapy: A Meta-Analysis Using Random Effects Modelling.* A paper presentation at 19th National Symposium on Doctoral Research in Social Work

Kim, J. S., & Franklin, C. (2009). Solution-focused brief therapy in schools: A review of the outcome literature. *Children and Youth Services Review, 31*, 464–470. Retrieved from www.elsevier.com/locate/childyouth.

Kolo, E. D. (2003). *Basic research concept for behavioural researchers,* Zaria: Stevano Printing Press

Krause, J., & Krause, H. (1981). Toward a multimodal theory of academic achievement. *Educational Psychologist, 16*(3), 151-164.

Lamberton, L. & Minor-Evans, L. (2002). *Human Relations Strategies for Success:* (2nd Ed.). New York: Glencoe McGraw-Hill.

Lewis, J. D., & Knight, H. V. (2000). Self-concept in gifted youth: An investigation employing the Piers-Harris subscales. *Gifted Child Quarterly, 44*, 45-53.

Liu, H. (2009). Exploring changes in academic self-concept in ability-grouped English classes. *Chang Gung Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences 2* (2), 411-432

Liu, W. C., & Wang, C. K. J. (2005). Academic self-concept: a cross-sectional study of grade and gender differences in a Singapore secondary school. *Asia Pacific Education Review, 6* (1), 20-27.

Longmore, R. J., & Worrell, M. (2007). Do we need to challenge thoughts in cognitive behaviour therapy? *Clinical Psychiatry Review. 27*, 173-187.

Lutz, A., & Bodmer, A. (2013). *Learning solution-focused therapy: An illustrated guide*. Arlington, Virginian: American Psychiatric Publishing.

Mandel, H. P., & Marcus S. I., (1988). *The psychology of underachievement: differential diagnosis and differential treatment.* New York: Wiley-Inter-science.

Manning, M. A. (2007). Self-Concept and Self-esteem in adolescents. *Student Services in National Association of School Psychologists (NASP).* Retrieved from www.naspcenter.org/principals

Marcus, S. I. (2007). Personality styles of chronic academic underachievers. *Article base.* Retrieved from: http://www.selfgrowth.com.html

Marsh, H. W. (2004). Negative effects of school-average achievement on academic self-concept: A comparison of the big-fish-little-pond effect across Australian states and territories. *Australian Journal of Education, 48*, 5-26.

Marsh, H. W. (2006). *Self-concept theory, measurement and research into practise: The role of self-concept in educational psychology*. Unpublished Manuscript, British Psychology Society, 25th Vernon- Wall lecture.

Marsh, H. W., & Craven, R. (2006). Reciprocal effects of self-concept and performance from a multidimensional perspective. *Perspectives onPsychological Science, 1*, 95–180.

Marsh, H. W., & Martin, A. (2011). Academic self-concept and academic achievement relation and casual ordering. *British Journal of educational psychology, 8*, 59-77.

Marsh, H. W., & Yeung, A. S. (1997). The causal effects of academic self-concept on academic achievement: Structural equation models of longitudinal data. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 89*, 41-54.

Marsh, H. W., Ellis, L., & Craven, R. G. (2002). How do pre-school children feel about themselves? Unraveling measurement and multidimensional self-concept structure. *Developmental Psychology, 38*, 376-393

Marsh, H. W., Hau, K. T., & King, C. K. (2002). Multilevel causal ordering of academic self-concept and achievement: Influence of language of instruction English compare with Chinese for Hong Kong students. *AmericanResearch Journal, 39*(3), 727-763.

Matovu, M. (2012). Academic self-concept and academic achievement among university students. *International Online Journal of Educational Sciences, 4*(1), 107-116

Matovu, M. (2014). A structural equation modelling of the academic self-concept scale. *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education, 6(2), 185-198.*

Matusiewicz, A. K., Hopwood, C. J., Banducci, A. N., & Lejuez, C. W. (September 2010). "The effectiveness of cognitive behavioural therapy for personality disorders". *Psychiatry Clinical North American. 33*(3),657–85

McCoach, D. B., & Siegle, D. (2001). A comparison of high achievers' and low achievers' attitudes, perceptions, and motivations. *Academic Exchange Quarterly, 5*, 71-76.

McGee, D. R., Del Vento, A., & Bavelas, J. B. (2005). An interactional model of questions as therapeutic interventions. *Journal of Marital and Family Therapy, 31*, 371-384.

McLeod, S. A. (2007). *Carl Rogers.* Retrieved from http://www.simplysychology.org/cart-rogers.html.

McLeod, S. A. (2008). *Self-concept*. Retrieved from http://www.simplepsychology.org/self-concept.html

McLeod, S. A. (2012). *Carl Rogers (updated version).* Retrieved from http://www.simplysychology.org/cartrogers.html.

Mectcalf, L. (2011). *Marriage and family therapy: A practise oriented approach*. New York: Springer Publishing Company

Milner, J., & O'Byrne, P. (2002). *Brief counselling: Narratives and solutions.* New York: Palgrave.

Mnyandu, P. T. (2001). *The relations between self-determination, achievement motivation and academic achievement.* (Unpublished MA-dissertation). Pretoria: Unisa. Retrieved from http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/10500/2491/1/dissertation.pdf

Mohammad A. (2010). Relationship between Self-esteem and academic achievement amongst pre-university students. *Journal of Applied Sciences, 10*, 2474-2477. DOI: 10.3923/jas.2010.2474.2477

Mroczek, D. K., & Little, T. D., (2006). *Handbook of personality development*. London: Routledge

Murk, C. J. (2006). *Self Esteem Research, Theory and Practice: Toward A Positive Psychology of Self Esteem* (3rd Ed.). New York: Springer Publishing Company.

Murphy, R., Straebler, S., Cooper, Z., & Fairburn, C. G. (September 2010). Cognitive behavioural therapy for eating disorders. *Psychiatry Clinical. North American, 33*(3),611–27.

Nagy, G., Trautwein, U., Baumert, J., Koller, O., & Garrett, J. (2006). Gender and course selection in upper secondary education: Effects of academic self-concept and intrinsic value. *Educational Research and Evaluation, 12*, 323-345.

Narimani, M.,& Mousazadeh, T. (2010). Comparing self-esteem and self-concept of handicapped and normal students. *Procedia Social and Behavioural Sciencesm 2*m 1554–1557. Retrieved from: www.sciencedirect.com

Natale, J. A. (1995). Making smart cool. *The Executive Educator, 17,* 20–24.

Newsome, W. S. (2005). The impact of solution-focused brief therapy with at-risk junior high school students. *Children & Schools, 27*(2), 83-90.

Ngwoke, D. U., & Numonde, D. (2013). Effect of cognitive restructuring intervention programme on test anxiety of low-achieving students in Nigeria.*Journal of Educational Review, 6* (1), 74-80.

Ngwoke, D. U., Numonde, D., & Ngwoke, A. N. (2013). Effect of cognitive restructuring intervention programme on academic self-efficacy of low-achieving students in Bayelsa State, Nigeria. *Paripex - Indian Journal of Research, 2* (9): 57-60.

Njoku, L. N. (1998). Low self-concept and behaviour modification. In C. N. Ugwuegbulam and L. N. Njoku (Edts.), *Self-Concept: A Psycho-Counselling Perspective.* Oweri: Lasen Nigeria Ltd.

Nwogu, B. G. (1991). *Educational research basic issues and methodology*. Ibadan: Wisdom Publisher Limited.

Ogugua, G. U. (2010). *Effects of cognitive restructuring, on mathematics achievement of secondary school adolescents.* (Unpublished Master Thesis). Department of Guidance and Counselling Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka.

Ogundare, T. **(**April 25, 2013**).** *WAEC: Why students fail.* Entertainmentstudents, WAEC. Retrieved from http://zazawaga.wordpress.com/2013/04/25/waec-why-students-fail/

Okwun, C. K. (2011). Effects of cognitive restructuring and communication skills training on conflict resolution among Nigerian couples. *International Journal of Peace and Development Studies, 2*(6), 179-189. Retrieved from http://www.academicjournals.org/IJPDS

Olorunfemi-Olabisi, F. A., & Akomolafe, M. J. (2013). Effects of self-management technique on academic self-concept of under-achievers in secondary schools. *Journal of Education and Practise, 4*, (6). Retrieved fromwww.iiste.org

Olsen, J. M., Breckler, S. J.,& Wiggins, E. C. (2008). *Social Psychology Alive* (First Canadian Ed.). Toronto: Thomson Nelson.

Olszewski-Kubilius, P., & Turner, D. (2002). Gender differences among elementary school-aged gifted students in achievement, perceptions of ability, and subject preference. *Journal for the Education of the Gifted, 25*, 233-268.

Omoegun, O. (2003). Curbing examination malpracticethrough counselling. *The Counseling 19*(2), 120 – 131.

Otte, C. (2011). Cognitive behavioural therapy in anxiety disorders: current state of the evidence. *Dialogues ClinNeurosci 13 (4),* 413–21.

Paolini, A. C. (2016).Utilizing solution focused brief counselling with primary and middle school grades: Helping the perpetrator and the victim mitigate effects of bullying. *International Review of Social Sciences and Humanities, 10* (2), 50-60. Retrieved from www.irssh.com

Parke, R. D., & Gauvain, M. (2009). *Child psychology: A contemporary viewpoint (7th Ed.).* Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill

Pastorino, E. E., & Doyle-Portillo, S. M. (2013). *What is psychology? Essentials*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Peixoto, F., & Almeida, L. S. (2010). *Self-concept, self-esteem and academic achievement: strategies for maintaining self-esteem in students experiencing academic failure.* Lisboa, Portugal: Instituto Superior de Psicologia.

Pichot, T., & Dolan, Y. (2003). *Solution-focused brief therapy: Its effective use in agency settings*. New York: Haworth.

Plucker, J. A., & Stocking, V. B. (2001). Looking outside and inside: Self-concept development of gifted adolescents. *Exceptional Children, 67*, 535-546.

Raffini,I. P. (1993). *Winners without losers.* Needham Heights, MA: Simon &Schuster, Inc.

Rahal, M. L.(2010).*Focus on: Identifying and motivating underachievers.*Alexandria, VA: Educational Research Service.

Rathus, E. (1998**).** *Psychology.* (6th Ed.). Fort Worth, TX: Harcourt Brace: Jovanovich, College Division.

Reis, S. M., & McCoach, D. B. (2000). The underachievement of gifted students: What do we know and where do we go? *Gifted Child Quarterly, 44*, 152-170.

Rimm, S. (1997). An underachievement epidemic. *Educational Leadership, 54,* 18–22.

Robbins, S. B., Lauver, K., Le, H., Davis, S., Langley, R., & Carlstrom, A. (2004). Do psychosocial and study skill factors predict college outcomes: A Meta-Analysis *Psychological Bulletin, 130* (2), 261-288.

Rogers, C. (1959). A theory of therapy, personality and interpersonal relationships as developed in the client-centered framework. In S. Koch (Ed.), *Psychology: A Study of a Science.3: Formulations of the Person and the Social Context.* New York: McGraw Hill.

Rosen, J. A. (2010). Academic self-concept. In J. A. Rosen, E. J. Glennie, B. W. Dalton, J. M. Lennon, & R. N. Bozick (Edts.), *Non-cognitive Skills in the Classroom: New Perspectives on Educational Research.* Doi:10.3768/rtipress.2010.bk.0000.1009.

Ryan, C. M. & Eric, R. D. (2005). Cognitive emotion regulation in the prediction of depression, anxiety, stress and anger‖. *Science Direct,* 1249-1260.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 25*, 54-67.

Salman, M. F., Esere, M. O., Omotosho, J. A., Abdullahi, O. E., & Oniyangi, S. O. (2011). Effect of two psychological Techniques in improving academic performance of secondary schools students in mathematics. *Ife Psychologia, 19*(1),270 - 279

Santrock, J. W. (2003). *Adolescence: Perkembangan Remaja Edisi Keenam (Alih bahasa: Shinto B Adelar & Sherly Saragih).* Jakarta: Penerbit Erlangga.

Sar-Abadani-Tafreshi, L. (2006). *The relationship between academic achievements, Self-Esteem and Gender with Anxiety of Computer among Postgraduate of Students in University of Tabeiyat Moallem Tehran.* University of Tabeiyat Moalem, Theran, Iran.

Schultz, R. A. (2002a). Illuminating realities: A phenomenological view from two underachieving gifted learners. *Roeper Review, 24,* 203–212.

Sharry, J., Darmody, M., & Madden, B. (2002). A solution-focused approach to working with clients who are suicidal. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling, 30,* 383–399.

Shobola, A. A. (2007). The study of the effects of cognitive restructuring on cigarette smoking behaviour of undergraduate students. *Ife Psychologia, 16(1),* 187-197.

Silverman, L., K., 1993. *Counselling the gifted and talented*. Denver: Love publishing.

Simon, J. K. & Nelson, T. S. (2007). *Solution-focused brief practise with long-term clients in mental health services: "I'm more than my label"*. New York: Taylor & Francis.

Simon, J. K. (2009). *Solution focused practise in end-of-life and grief counselling.* New York: Springer Publication.

Simon, J. K., & Berg, I. K. (2006). *Solution-focused brief therapy with long-term problems.* New York: Taylor & Francis.

Smith, E. (2005). *Analysing underachievement in schools.* London: Continuum International publication Group.

Smock, S. A., Trepper, T. S., Wetchler, J. L., McCollum, E. E., Ray, R., & Pierce, K. (2008). Solution-focused group therapy for level 1 substance abusers. *Journal of Marital and Family Therapy, 34* (1), 107–120

Sobhy, M., & Cavallaro, M. (2010). *Solution-focused brief counselling in schools: Theoretical perspectives and case application to an elementary school student*. Retrieved from http://counsellingoutfitters.com/vistas/vistas10/Article_81.pdf

Sousa, D. A.(2003). *How the gifted brain learners*. California: Corwin Press.

Spaniath, B., Spaniath, F., Harlaar, N., & Plomin, R. (2006). Predicting school achievements from general cognitive ability, self-perceived ability and intrinsic value. *Intell, 34*, 363-374.

Spevak P., & Karinch, M. (2001). *Empowering underachievers: How to guide failing kids* (8-18) *to personal excellence.* Far Hills, NJ: New Horizon Press.

Stephen, M. L. (2014). *Solution focused brief therapy: What is it & what's the evidence?* Olympia, WA: Northwest Brief Therapy Training Centre. Retrieved fromwww.nwbttc.com

Stoeger, H., Suggate, S., & Ziegler, A. (2013). Identifying the causes of underachievement: A plea for the inclusion of fine motor skills. *Psychological Test and Assessment Modelling, 55* (3), 274-288

Strayhorn, J. (2002). Self-control: Theory and research. *Journal of the American Academic of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry,* 41, 7–16.

Stupnisky, R., Perry, R., Renaud, R.,& Hladkyj, S. (2013). Looking beyond grades: Comparing self-esteem and perceived academic control as predictors of first-year college students' well-being. *Learn Individual Differences, 23,* 151-157.

Sukumar, S. (2011). *How to use cognitive restructuring techniques for stress management*. Retrieved from http://www.buzzle.com/articles/how-to-use-cognitive-restructuring-techniques-for-stress-management.html

Sundstrom, S. M. (1993). *Single-session psychotherapy for depression: Is it better to focused on problems or solutions?* (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation), Iowa State University, Ames IA.

Sung Kim, N. (2006). Cognitive behavioural treatment for student's adaptation to academic majore departments and improvement of academic performances. *Elsevier Ltd, V., 11* (2), 256-262.

Taathadi, M. S. (2014). Application of Solution-Focused Brief Therapy (SFBT) to enhance high school students' self-esteem: An embedded experimental design. *International Journal of Psychological Studies, 6* (3), 96-105. doi:10.5539/ijps.v6n3p96

Tan, J. B., & Yates, S. M. (2007). A Rasch analysis of the academic self-concept questionnaire. *International Education Journal, 8*(2), 470-484. Retrieved From http://iej.com.au

Trautwein U., Ludlke O., Nagy G., & Marsh, H. (2009). How students perceive the standing of their class predicts academic self-concept. *Journal of educational psychology*, *101*(4), 853-866.

Trepper, T. S., Dolan, Y., & Nelson, T. (2006). Steve De Shazer and Future of Solution-Focused Therapy. *Journal of Marital and Family Therapy*, *32*(2), 133-139. Retrieved fromhttp://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1752-0606.2006.tb01595.x

Trepper, T. S., McCollum, E. E., DeJong, P., Korman, H., Gingerich, W., & Franklin, C. (2010). *Solution focused therapy treatment manual for working with individuals*. Hammond IN: Research Committee of the Solution Focused Brief Therapy Association.

Valentine, J. C., DuBois, D. L., & Cooper, H. (2004). The relation between self-beliefs and academic achievements: A meta-analytic review. *Educational Psychologist, 39*(2), 111–133.

Vanauker-Ergle, K. A. (2003). *Barriers to low achievers' success in the elementary classroom as perceived by teachers: a qualitative study.* (Unpublished PhD. Dissertation). University of Florida.

Voegeli, S. M. (2008). *Academic Underachievement: Understanding and Implications for Educators.* (Unpublished Master) Thesis in Guidance and Counselling: The Graduate School University of Wisconsin-Stout.

Weiten, W., Dunn, D. S., & Hammer, E. Y. (2012). *Psychology Applied to Modern Life: Adjustments in the 21st Century*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Whitmore, J. R. (1989). Re-examining the concept of underachievement. *Understanding Our Gifted, 2*(1), 7–9

Williams, S. D. (2008). Helping the underachiever. *Coaching Your Child 25*. Retrieved from http://www.showandtellforparents.com/wfdata/frame156-1002/pressrel47.asp

Wilson, H. E. (2009). *A model of academic self-concept: Perceived difficulty, social comparison, and achievement among academically accelerated secondary school students.* (Unpublished PhD. Dissertation) University of Connecticut.

Worrell, F. C., Lotto, I. K., & Perlinski, M. A. (1999). The relationship of Risk Status to Self Esteem and Perceived Life Chances. *The Journal of At-Risk Issues, 5*(2), 33-38.

Wright, J. H., & Beck, A. T. (1999). Cognitive therapies. In R. E. Hales, S. C. Yudofsky, & J. A. Talbott (Eds.) *American Psychiatric Press textbook of Psychiatry.* Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Press.

Yahaya, A., Ramli, J., Boon, Y., AbdGhaffar, M. N., & Zakariya, Z. (2009). Relationship between Self Concepts and Personality and Students' Academic Performance in Selected Secondary Schools. *European Journal of Social Sciences, 11*(2), 303-316.

Yu-Tan, J. B., & Yates, S. M. (2007). A Rasch analysis of the Academic Self-Concept Questionnaire. *International Education Journal, 8*(2). Received from http://iej.com.au

Appendix I

ACADEMIC SELF-CONCEPT SCALE

GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING SECTION, DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY AND COUNSELLING, FACULTY OF EDUCATION, AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA

Dear respondents,

The purpose of this questionnaire is to investigate the academic self-concept of secondary school underachievers and to determine the effectiveness of cognitive restructuring and solution focused brief counselling techniques in managing such behavioural problem. Your candid and

objective responses will be appreciated.Since the information gathered is solely for research work,the information you supply would be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Thank you.

SECTION A: Socio-Demographic Data

Instruction: Kindly tick (✓) as appropriate.

1. **Gender: -** male ( ) and female ( )

SECTION 'B' ACADEMIC SELF-CONCEPT SCALE

Instruction: - Kindly react to the items by putting a tick (✓) in the column to indicate your response to each statement using the rating scale below in your rating of the items:

SD - Strongly Disagree

D - Disagree

A - Agree

SA - Strongly Agree

Liu and Wang's Academic Self-Concept Scale					
S/N		**1=SD**	**2= D**	**3=A**	**4=SA**
1.	I can follow the teacher easily.				
2.	I day-dream a lot during lessons				
3.	I am able to help my classmates in their school work.				
4.	I often do my subjects without thinking.				
5.	If I work hard, I think I can get better grades.				
6.	I pay attention to the teachers during the class lessons.				
7.	Most of my classmates are smarter than I am.				
8.	I study hard for my tests.				
9.	My teachers feel that I am poor in my studies.				
10.	I am usually interested in my subjects.				
11.	I often forget what I have learned.				
12.	I will do my best to pass all the subjects this term.				

13.	I get frightened when I am asked a question by the teachers.				
14.	I often feel like quitting the school.				
15.	I am good in most of my subjects.				
16.	I am always waiting for the class lesson to end and go home.				
17.	I always do poorly in class works and tests.				
18.	I do not give up easily when I am faced with a difficult question in my subjects.				
19.	I am able to do better than my friends in most subjects.				
20.	I am not willing to put in more effort in my subjects.				

Adapted from Liu and Wang (2005)

Appendix II

Treatment Phase I:

Experimental Group 1:Cognitive Restructuring Counselling Technique (CRCT)

Week One

Session One: General Orientation to the Programme and Pre-Test Administration

- The researcher welcomed participants to the programme and introduced himself. Each participant also introduced himself/herself.
- The researcher discussed the group expectations and the goals of the group (that is, to change their negative self-concept that leads to academic underachievement and increase academic performance).
- The researcher informed the participants that each session would involve group therapy, feedback and discussions based on previous and present sessions.
- The pre-test of academic self-concept scale was administered on participants.
- The researcher appreciated the participants for their commitment and cooperation during the session and encouraged them to attend the next session.

Week Two

Session Two: Identification of Problematic Cognitions Known as "Automatic Thoughts"

- The researcher welcomed the participants to the second session of the cognitive restructuring counselling technique.
- The participants were introduced to cognitive restructuring as a process of changing subconscious thoughts.That is, cognitive restructuring technique is one of the therapeutic approaches to deal with emotions such as stress, depression, anger, anxiety,negative self-concept and academic underachievement. It helps people to have control over their negative reasoning and emotions and teaches how to manage different situations without strain. The intent was to create the awareness in the participants of the implication of negative statements about one‘s self (automatic thoughts).
- The researcher explained that each participant is responsible for his behaviour because everybody has two minds, these being the conscious and the subconscious.The conscious mind belongs to the individual in the present or current state while the subconscious mind

belongs to the individual‘s earlier or previous environment. Such asattitudes learned from one‘s parents, friends, school(s) and the home environments whichmay have negative influence on one’s thought and behaviour(i.e. academic pursuit). This is because the major cause of academic underachievement stems from within, in form of irrational thought which may lead to negative self-concept such asnegative self-statements, self-defeating thoughts, distorted thinking, and low self-esteem.All these are forms of automatic thought.

- The researcher therefore helped the participants to identify the problematic cognitions known as "automatic thoughts" which are dysfunctional or negative views of the self, world, or future. That is what are you feeling unhappy about?

The six types of automatic thoughts were:

- Self-evaluated thoughts e.g. I'm a loser because I've always been a failure.
- Thoughts about the evaluation of others e.g. my friends are good academically than me, so I can surpass them in exam.
- Evaluative thoughts about the other person with whom they are interacting e.g. really, my teacher doesn't like me and I'm a loser.
- Thoughts about coping strategies and behavioural plans e.g. I ought to be the best student in the fourthcoming exam.
- Thoughts of avoidance e.g. I've always been a loser. Why do I bother at all?
- Any other thoughts that were not categorized.
- The researcher gave assignment: mention any other automatic thoughts that usually come to your mind that have not been mentioned.
- The researcher expressed words of appreciation and encouragement the participants to attend the next session.

Week Three

Session Three: Identification and record of the cognitive distortions in the automatic thoughts.

- The researcher welcomed the participants to the third session, and recapitulated the previous discussion.
- The assignment was also collected.

The researcher engaged the participants in how to notice their thoughts. In other wordsthe counselling started by enlightening the participants on how to change their way of thinking by paying attention to their thought process. Spend some time in the day for self-reflecting on the way in which one thinks. This may seem really strange at first, but will become more natural with practice.Jot down a few notes and rate them, tracking the typical thought process. Once participants are in the habit of bringing more awareness to their thoughts, start to recognize when they are using cognitive distortions. For example, they should ask themselves these questions: Are you frequently labelling yourself as an "anxious person?" Have you been blaming family members for your academic failure? Do you put yourself down about your struggle with poor self-concept? Again, take some notes and notice how often you are falling victim to cognitive distortions.

- Rate each negative feeling on a scale from 1 (for the least) to 100 (for the most).

How do you feel about the upsetting situation (academic underachievement)? Use words like sad, angry, anxious, guilty, frustrated, and hopeless. Rate each negative feeling on a scale from 1 (for the least) to 100 (for the most). Base on the severity of that thought on your personal self-concept. For example:

Emotion	**Rating**	**Emotion**	**Rating**	**Emotion**	**Rating**
Sad	70	Anxious	75	Angry	64
Guilty	85	Depressed	90	Hopeless	80

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100

Not at all a little medium a lot most ever felt

- The researcher gave assignment:Record your negative feelings in relation to your negative self-concept on your academic underachievement – and rate each one from 0 (the least) to 100 (the most). Use words like sad, anxious, angry, guilty, lonely, hopeless, frustrated, etc.
- The researcher expressed word of appreciation and encouragement to the participants to attend the next session.

Week Four

Session Four: Rational Disputation of Automatic Thoughts with the Triple-Column Technique

- The researcher started the session by welcoming participants. The last session was reviewed, and the assignment was collected and discussed.
- The participants were occupied with the techniques of thought reconstruction, self-talk and self-monitoring among other strategies and encouraged to practise the strategies.
- The researcher explained the uses of triple-column technique as a tool that helps to get rid of negative thoughts and gave a positive frame of mind. After the participants have identified their distortions in these thoughts, they should substitute rational responses in the right-hand column and record how much they believe each one between 0 (not at all) and 100 (completely). Make sure that their Rational Responses are convincing, valid statements that put the lie to their Automatic Thoughts. Such as:

The Triple-Column Technique Box

Automatic Thoughts	**Distortions**	**Rational Responses**
Write your negative thoughts and estimate your belief in each one (0-100).	Identify the distortions in each Automatic Thought.	Substitute more realistic thoughts and estimate your belief in each one (0 and 100)

I'm so embarrassed! I should do better on the test (40).	I'm stupid!	I did fail this test, but I have passed other tests in the past. My grades overall are okay. I'm not the smartest person around, but there are certainly people doing worse than me. This specific area is hard for me; I do better in other classes. I didn't prepare for this test very well; I could perhaps improve my grades if I studied more effectively.
I'm guilty! I failed to perform better in second term exam (15).	I am a failure	Failure at one event does not mean that a person is a failure at all events. I can perform better in subsequent exams
I'm disappointed! I've always been a loser. Why do I bother at all?	I'm a loser	A failure is not a loser but a failure to try again in a better way
I'm very anxious! I ought to be the best student. As a consequence of failing to meet your impossible goals	I feel ashamed or guilty	I rather set a realizable goal of becoming a good or better student than that of best.
I feel angry! It's my entire fault that my father died. I should have been there for him more often	I feel guilty	The reason may father died has nothing to do with whether he was alone or not
I'm depressed! I feel like a loser.So I must be one	I am a very poor student	Though I'm not the smartest student in the class, there are certain people doing worse than me.

I'm hopeless! It looks like this term exam would be somehow difficult nice day outside	Surely, I would be a failure	I would rather strive to do my best to pass than to succumb to failure
I'm frustrated! Why should I bother trying to study with one of those boys? They all hate me anyway	I feel rejected	It is my negative response to someone else that causes them to react negatively to me
I'm terrified! I did not score A in the exam	I am a total failure	I am not a genius. So why should I be frustrated for not score A
I' m very sad! I score C in mathematics in the report card and that is terrible	I'm disappointed	I have failed to give proper credence to the fact that I earned As and Bs in other subjects.

Adapted from Burns, (1989)

- The researcher gave assignment:Try to perform this activity with all the negative thoughts you experience over a period of three days. Simply write down a negative thought, identify the distortion in it, followed by a more realistic way of looking at your situation. If at the end of three days, you find that you are more aware of your cognitive distortions, you are ready to proceed to the final step.
- The researcher expressed words of appreciation and encouragement to the participants to attend the next session.

Week Five

Session Five: Development of a Rational Rebuttal to the Automatic Thoughts

- The researcher started the session by welcoming participants. The last session was reviewed, and the assignment collected and discussed.
- The researcher explained to the participants how to rebuke the negative thought and satisfy with rational response eg.After they have become more comfortable in writing down and

disputing their negative beliefs, they startpracticing how to changetheir thoughts on the spot. For example, imagine that a negative thought like "I am such a failure for feeling so anxious during examination" comes to mind. Rather than writing it down, take a deep breath and think about a way to challenge this thought. You may think, "Well, that's not really true. I've achieved a lot of success in my past exam despite experiencing frequent panic and anxiety. I can still perform better in forth coming exams" Notice if you feel differently after the disputation of your negative thought (Burns, 2006).

- After constant practice re-rate each negative feeling on a scale from 1 (for the least) to 100 (for the most). Once your beliefs in these thoughts are greatly reduced, indicate how much better you feel. e.g.: Re-rate your belief in each Automatic Thought from 0 to 100 and put a check in the box that best describes how you now feel:

  ( ) not at all better; ( ) somewhat better; ( ) quite a bit better; ( ) a lot better
- Question and answer time: Participants will be encouraged to ask questions, make comments and share personal experiences learnt so far in the previous sessions.
- The researcher expressed words of appreciation and encouragement to the participants to attend the next session.

Week Six

Session Six: Wrap up

- The researcher appreciated the participants for their dedication and cooperation from the beginning of the Cognitive Restructuring Counselling Technique.
- Participants were reminded and encouraged to practise the learnt techniques.
- Finally, a post-test was administered to all the participants.

Appendix III

Treatment Phase II:

Experimental Group 11:Solution Focused Brief Counselling Technique (SFBCT)

Week One

Session One: General Orientation to the programme and pre-test administration

- The researcher welcomed participants to the programme and introduced himself. Each participant also introduced himself/herself.
- The researcher discussed the group expectations, and the goals of the group (that is, to change their negative self-concept that leads to academic underachievement and increase academic performance).
- The researcher informed the participants that each session would involve group therapy, feedback and discussions based on previous and present sessions.

- The academic self-concept scale was administered on participants.
- The researcher appreciated the participants for their commitment and cooperation during the session and encouraged them to attend the next session.

Week Two

Session Two: Goal-Setting through Miracle Question

- The researcher welcomed the participants to the second session, and recapitulated the previous discussion. Questions and answers followed.
- Then participants were asked questions on the description of the problem. Such as:
  - What brings you here today?
  - How is negative self-concept a problem to you?
  - Is it a problem to others? How is it a problem to others?
  - What effect does that have on you?

Reading or listening and clarification of participants' responses was followed.

- The researcher explained the importance of miracle question to the participants, and then asked the miracle question thus:

  "Now, I want to ask you a strange question. Suppose that while you are sleeping tonight and the entire house is quiet, a miracle happens. The miracle is that the problem which brought you here is solved. However because you are sleeping, you don't know that the miracle has happened. So, when you wake up tomorrow morning, what will be different that will tell you that a miracle has happened and the problem which brought you here is solved?"

- Describe the differences from your point of view and what others would be doing and experiencing.
  - How will things be different when the problem is solved? . . . for you? . . . for others?

- How will you know coming here is worthwhile?
- What will you be doing differently?
- What will other people notice?
- How will you know you don't have to come here anymore?

Reading or listening and clarification of participants' responses followed.

- The researcher expressed word of appreciation and encouragement to the participants to attend the next session.

Week Three

Session Three: Use of scaling questions

- The researcher welcomed the participants to the third session, and recapitulated the previous discussion. Questions and answers followed. The assignment was also collected.
- The researcher asked the participants to state their problems on a scale from 1 to 10 with 1 being your present state of negative academic self-concept and academic success not achieved and 10, your positive academic self-concept and academic achievement completely achieved.
- Where would you rate yourself?
- Where would you like to be on the scale at the end of the term?
- The researcher gave assignment:"What is the state of your academic self-concept now as well as your level of academic achievement for this term?" and "What do you hope to achieve by participating in this group for the next six weeks?"
- The researcher expressed words of appreciation and encouragement to the participants to attend the next session.

Week Four

Session Four: Researching for Exceptions and Existing Resource in Clients' Life

- The researcher welcomed the participants to the fourth session, and recapitulated the previous discussion. Questions and answers followed. The assignment was also collected.
- The researcher engaged the participants in how to notice their exception period when the problem is not there or little through exception questions.

Examples of Exception and Existing Resource Questions include:

- Tell me about times when the problem is less troubling or when it is not happening
- Tell me about times you felt the happiest.
- When was the last time that you feel you had a better day?
- Tell me about times when you cope better with the problem
- What is different about the times when the problem is better?
- What small changes will you notice?
- When things are tough, how do you cope?
- Tell me what has worked in the past even if only a short time
- How have you dealt with similar problems in the past?
- What have you learned from previous experiences like this that might be useful in this situation?

Remember to ask for details. What else? And tell me more.

Reading or listening and clarification of participants' responses will follow.

- The researcher gave assignment: Against next session, attempt to practicalisedthe learned exception and resources on your prevailing problems and give feedback next week.
- The researcher expressed word of appreciation and encouragement to the participants to attend the next session.

Week Five

Session Five: Application of exception to the future for strength and solution

- The researcher welcomed the participants to the third session, and recapitulated the previous discussion. Questions and answers followed. The assignment was also collected.
- The researcher explained how to project their exceptions into the future, by drawing through a scale from 1to10where 1 means every chance likes that of the exception will happen again next week (month, sometime in the future) with the application of the existing resources in them.
  - What will it take for that to happen more often in the future?
  - Who has to do what to make it happen again?
  - What is the most important thing for you to remember to do to make sure that __ (the exception) has the best chance of happening again?
  - What's the next most important thing to remember?
- The researcher asked the participants where things would need to be for him or her to feel that the goals of treatment had been met or that therapy had been successful.

The researcher gave assignment: A letter from the "older, wiser, self". "Imagine that you have grown to be a healthy, wise old man/women and you are looking back at this period of your life. What would this older wiser man/woman suggest to you, which has helped you get to where you are now in your academic/school goal(s)?"

- The researcher expressed words of appreciation and encouragement to the participants to attend the next session.

Week Six

Session Six: Development of Presupposing Change

- The researcher welcomed the participants to the third session, and recapitulated the previous discussion. Questions and answers followed. The assignment was also collected.

- The researcher asked the participants the questions of presupposed change.Questions such as, “What’s different, or better since I saw you last time?” This question invites the participants to consider the possibility that change (perhaps positive change) has recently occurred in their lives.
- If evidence of positive change is unavailable, the researcher asked questions relating to the participant’s ability to cope.

Questions such as:

- How come things aren’t worse for you?
- What stopped total disaster from occurring?
- How did you avoid falling apart?

These questions were followed up by the researcher positively affirming the participants with regard to any action they took to cope and discussed how the "new self” would emerge. And encouraged them to improve on positive change which is positive self-concept and good academic performance.

Week Seven

Session Seven: Wrap up (compliment and task)

- The researcher asked questions for the reassurance of the process
- Participants were reminded and encouraged to practise the learnt techniques.
- The researcher appreciated the participants for their dedication and cooperation from the beginning of the Cognitive Restructuring Counselling Technique.
- Finally, a post-test was administered to all the participants.

Appendix IV

SPSS Computation Output

```
UNIANOVA Posttest BY Group WITH Pretest
  /METHOD=SSTYPE(3)
  /INTERCEPT=INCLUDE
  /CRITERIA=ALPHA(0.05)
  /DESIGN=Group Pretest Group*Pretest.
```

Univariate Analysis of Variance

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Group	1.00	CRCT	15
	3.00	Control	15

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	5020.782[a]	3	1673.594	264.223	.000
Intercept	356.218	1	356.218	56.239	.000

Group	23.030	1	23.030	3.636	.068
Pretest	2.624	1	2.624	.414	.525
Group * Pretest	.293	1	.293	.046	.831
Error	164.684	26	6.334		
Total	89032.000	30			
Corrected Total	5185.467	29			

a. R Squared = .968 (Adjusted R Squared = .965)

```
UNIANOVA Posttest BY Group WITH Pretest
  /METHOD=SSTYPE(3)
  /INTERCEPT=INCLUDE
  /EMMEANS=TABLES(OVERALL) WITH(Pretest=MEAN)
  /EMMEANS=TABLES(Group) WITH(Pretest=MEAN) COMPARE ADJ(LSD)
  /PRINT=ETASQ DESCRIPTIVE HOMOGENEITY
  /CRITERIA=ALPHA(.05)
  /DESIGN=Pretest Group.
```

Univariate Analysis of Variance

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Group	1.00	CRCT	15
	3.00	Control	15

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
CRCT	65.8000	2.45531	15
Control	39.9333	2.43389	15
Total	52.8667	13.37196	30

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

F	df1	df2	Sig.
.011	1	28	.916

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Pretest + Group

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	5020.490[a]	2	2510.245	410.824	.000	.968
Intercept	432.350	1	432.350	70.758	.000	.724
Pretest	2.356	1	2.356	.386	.540	.014
Group	4413.175	1	4413.175	722.256	.000	.964
Error	164.977	27	6.110			
Total	89032.000	30				
Corrected Total	5185.467	29				

a. R Squared = .968 (Adjusted R Squared = .966)

Estimated Marginal Means

1. Grand Mean

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

		95% Confidence Interval	
Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
52.867[a]	.451	51.941	53.793

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Pretest score = 36.6333.

2. Group

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

			95% Confidence Interval	
Group	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CRCT	65.911[a]	.663	64.551	67.271
Control	39.822[a]	.663	38.463	41.182

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Pretest score = 36.6333.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

(I) Group	(J) Group	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]

		Mean Difference (I-J)			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CRCT	Control	26.089*	.971	.000	24.097	28.080
Control	CRCT	-26.089*	.971	.000	-28.080	-24.097

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Contrast	4413.175	1	4413.175	722.256	.000	.964
Error	164.977	27	6.110			

The F tests the effect of Group. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

```
UNIANOVA Posttest BY Group WITH Pretest
  /METHOD=SSTYPE(3)
  /INTERCEPT=INCLUDE
  /CRITERIA=ALPHA(.05)
  /DESIGN=Group Pretest Group*Pretest.
```

Univariate Analysis of Variance

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Group	2.00	SFBCT	15
	3.00	Control	15

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	5108.357[a]	3	1702.786	232.267	.000
Intercept	349.241	1	349.241	47.638	.000
Group	3.383	1	3.383	.461	.503
Pretest	3.881	1	3.881	.529	.473

Group * Pretest	10.501	1	10.501	1.432	.242
Error	190.610	26	7.331		
Total	89463.000	30			
Corrected Total	5298.967	29			

a. R Squared = .964 (Adjusted R Squared = .960)

```
UNIANOVA Posttest BY Group WITH Pretest
  /METHOD=SSTYPE(3)
  /INTERCEPT=INCLUDE
  /EMMEANS=TABLES(OVERALL) WITH(Pretest=MEAN)
  /EMMEANS=TABLES(Group) WITH(Pretest=MEAN) COMPARE ADJ(LSD)
  /PRINT=ETASQ DESCRIPTIVE HOMOGENEITY
  /CRITERIA=ALPHA(.05)
  /DESIGN=Pretest Group.
```

Univariate Analysis of Variance

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Group	2.00	SFBCT	15
	3.00	Control	15

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
SFBCT	66.0000	2.92770	15
Control	39.9333	2.43389	15
Total	52.9667	13.51751	30

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

F	df1	df2	Sig.
.230	1	28	.635

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Pretest + Group

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	5097.855[a]	2	2548.928	342.204	.000	.962
Intercept	394.245	1	394.245	52.929	.000	.662
Pretest	1.822	1	1.822	.245	.625	.009
Group	4779.312	1	4779.312	641.642	.000	.960
Error	201.111	27	7.449			
Total	89463.000	30				
Corrected Total	5298.967	29				

a. R Squared = .962 (Adjusted R Squared = .959)

Estimated Marginal Means

1. Grand Mean

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
52.967[a]	.498	51.944	53.989

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Pretest score = 36.3000.

2. Group

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

Group	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
SFBCT	65.941[a]	.715	64.475	67.408
Control	39.992[a]	.715	38.526	41.458

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Pretest score = 36.3000.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
SFBCT	Control	25.949*	1.024	.000	23.847	28.051
Control	SFBCT	-25.949*	1.024	.000	-28.051	-23.847

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Contrast	4779.312	1	4779.312	641.642	.000	.960
Error	201.111	27	7.449			

The F tests the effect of Group. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

```
UNIANOVA Posttest BY Group WITH Pretest
  /METHOD=SSTYPE(3)
  /INTERCEPT=INCLUDE
  /CRITERIA=ALPHA(.05)
  /DESIGN=Group Pretest Group*Pretest.
```

Univariate Analysis of Variance

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Group	1.00	CRCT	15
	2.00	SFBCT	15

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	13.255[a]	3	4.418	.600	.621
Intercept	358.570	1	358.570	48.697	.000
Group	9.161	1	9.161	1.244	.275
Pretest	1.119	1	1.119	.152	.700
Group * Pretest	9.474	1	9.474	1.287	.267
Error	191.445	26	7.363		

Total	130489.000	30
Corrected Total	204.700	29

a. R Squared = .065 (Adjusted R Squared = -.043)

```
UNIANOVA Posttest BY Group WITH Pretest
  /METHOD=SSTYPE(3)
  /INTERCEPT=INCLUDE
  /EMMEANS=TABLES(OVERALL) WITH(Pretest=MEAN)
  /EMMEANS=TABLES(Group) WITH(Pretest=MEAN) COMPARE ADJ(LSD)
  /PRINT=ETASQ DESCRIPTIVE HOMOGENEITY
  /CRITERIA=ALPHA(.05)
  /DESIGN=Pretest Group.
```

Univariate Analysis of Variance

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Group	1.00	CRCT	15
	2.00	SFBCT	15

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
CRCT	65.8000	2.45531	15
SFBCT	66.0000	2.92770	15
Total	65.9000	2.65681	30

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

F	df1	df2	Sig.
.185	1	28	.671

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Pretest + Group

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared

Corrected Model	3.781[a]	2	1.890	.254	.777	.018
Intercept	352.169	1	352.169	47.325	.000	.637
Pretest	3.481	1	3.481	.468	.500	.017
Group	.688	1	.688	.092	.763	.003
Error	200.919	27	7.441			
Total	130489.000	30				
Corrected Total	204.700	29				

a. R Squared = .018 (Adjusted R Squared = -.054)

Estimated Marginal Means

1. Grand Mean

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

		95% Confidence Interval	
Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
65.900[a]	.498	64.878	66.922

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Pretest score = 37.2667.

2. Group

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

			95% Confidence Interval	
Group	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CRCT	65.747[a]	.709	64.293	67.201
SFBCT	66.053[a]	.709	64.599	67.507

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Pretest score = 37.2667.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

					95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CRCT	SFBCT	-.306	1.008	.763	-2.375	1.762
SFBCT	CRCT	.306	1.008	.763	-1.762	2.375

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Contrast	.688	1	.688	.092	.763	.003
Error	200.919	27	7.441			

The F tests the effect of Group. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

```
UNIANOVA Posttest BY Gender WITH Pretest
  /METHOD=SSTYPE(3)
  /INTERCEPT=INCLUDE
  /CRITERIA=ALPHA(.05)
  /DESIGN=Gender Pretest Gender*Pretest.
```

Univariate Analysis of Variance

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Sex	1.00	Male	10
	2.00	Female	5

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	8.542[a]	3	2.847	.413	.747
Intercept	68.163	1	68.163	9.884	.009
Gender	.910	1	.910	.132	.723
Pretest	.073	1	.073	.011	.920
Gender * Pretest	1.073	1	1.073	.156	.701
Error	75.858	11	6.896		
Total	65029.000	15			
Corrected Total	84.400	14			

a. R Squared = .101 (Adjusted R Squared = -.144)

```
UNIANOVA Posttest BY Gender WITH Pretest
  /METHOD=SSTYPE(3)
  /INTERCEPT=INCLUDE
  /EMMEANS=TABLES(OVERALL) WITH(Pretest=MEAN)
  /EMMEANS=TABLES(Gender) WITH(Pretest=MEAN) COMPARE ADJ(LSD)
  /PRINT=ETASQ DESCRIPTIVE HOMOGENEITY
  /CRITERIA=ALPHA(.05)
  /DESIGN=Pretest Gender.
```

Univariate Analysis of Variance

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Sex	1.00	Male	10
	2.00	Female	5

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

Sex	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Male	65.4000	2.71621	10
Female	66.6000	1.81659	5
Total	65.8000	2.45531	15

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

F	df1	df2	Sig.
.767	1	13	.397

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Pretest + Gender

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	7.470[a]	2	3.735	.583	.573	.089
Intercept	197.228	1	197.228	30.765	.000	.719
Pretest	2.670	1	2.670	.416	.531	.034
Gender	5.830	1	5.830	.909	.359	.070
Error	76.930	12	6.411			
Total	65029.000	15				
Corrected Total	84.400	14				

a. R Squared = .089 (Adjusted R Squared = -.063)

Estimated Marginal Means

1. Grand Mean

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
66.023[a]	.694	64.510	67.536

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Pretest score = 37.6000.

2. Sex

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

Sex	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Male	65.354[a]	.804	63.603	67.105
Female	66.692[a]	1.141	64.205	69.179

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Pretest score = 37.6000.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

(I) Sex	(J) Sex	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Male	Female	-1.338	1.403	.359	-4.395	1.719
Female	Male	1.338	1.403	.359	-1.719	4.395

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Contrast	5.830	1	5.830	.909	.359	.070
Error	76.930	12	6.411			

The F tests the effect of Sex. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

```
UNIANOVA Posttest BY Gender WITH Pretest
  /METHOD=SSTYPE(3)
  /INTERCEPT=INCLUDE
  /CRITERIA=ALPHA(.05)
  /DESIGN=Gender Pretest Gender*Pretest.
```

Univariate Analysis of Variance

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Sex	1.00	Male	7
	2.00	Female	8

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	19.593[a]	3	6.531	.716	.563
Intercept	175.871	1	175.871	19.267	.001
Gender	5.007E-5	1	5.007E-5	.000	.998
Pretest	6.463	1	6.463	.708	.418
Gender * Pretest	.036	1	.036	.004	.951
Error	100.407	11	9.128		
Total	65460.000	15			
Corrected Total	120.000	14			

a. R Squared = .163 (Adjusted R Squared = -.065)

```
UNIANOVA Posttest BY Gender WITH Pretest
  /METHOD=SSTYPE(3)
  /INTERCEPT=INCLUDE
  /EMMEANS=TABLES(OVERALL) WITH(Pretest=MEAN)
  /EMMEANS=TABLES(Gender) WITH(Pretest=MEAN) COMPARE ADJ(LSD)
  /PRINT=ETASQ DESCRIPTIVE HOMOGENEITY
  /CRITERIA=ALPHA(.05)
  /DESIGN=Pretest Gender.
```

Univariate Analysis of Variance

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Sex	1.00	Male	7
	2.00	Female	8

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

Sex	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Male	67.0000	2.44949	7
Female	65.1250	3.18198	8
Total	66.0000	2.92770	15

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

F	df1	df2	Sig.
.650	1	13	.434

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Pretest + Gender

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	19.557[a]	2	9.778	1.168	.344	.163
Intercept	178.974	1	178.974	21.382	.001	.641
Pretest	6.432	1	6.432	.768	.398	.060
Gender	8.242	1	8.242	.985	.341	.076
Error	100.443	12	8.370			
Total	65460.000	15				
Corrected Total	120.000	14				

a. R Squared = .163 (Adjusted R Squared = .023)

Estimated Marginal Means

1. Grand Mean

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
66.051[a]	.749	64.420	67.683

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Pretest score = 36.9333.

2. Sex

Estimates

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

Sex	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Male	66.819[a]	1.113	64.394	69.243
Female	65.284[a]	1.039	63.020	67.547

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Pretest score = 36.9333.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

(I) Sex	(J) Sex	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Male	Female	1.535	1.547	.341	-1.835	4.905

Female	Male	-1.535	1.547	.341	-4.905	1.835

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable: Posttest score

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Contrast	8.242	1	8.242	.985	.341	.076
Error	100.443	12	8.370			

The F tests the effect of Sex. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.