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Implementation and evaluation of a social skills training program for preadolescents.

Don Philipp Sugai
University of Massachusetts Amherst

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The Implementation and Evaluation of a Social Skills Training Program for Preadolescents

A Dissertation Presented
By
DON PHILIPP SUGAI

Submitted to the Graduate School of the University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of DOCTOR OF PHILOSOHY
May 1978
Department of Psychology
IMPLEMENTATION AND EVALUATION OF A SOCIAL SKILLS TRAINING PROGRAM FOR PREADOLESCENTS

A Dissertation Presented

By

DON PHILIPP SUGAI

Approved as to style and content by:

Patricia A. Wisocki, Chairperson of Committee

J. Gregory Olley, Member

Vonnie McLloyd, Member

Ronald Frederickson, Outside Member

Norman F. Watt, Department Head
Department of Psychology
This dissertation is dedicated to my parents Gilbert and Anna Sugai and to my family.
Acknowledgments

I would like to acknowledge the members of my committee, Dr. Ron Frederickson, Dr. Vonnie McCloyd and Dr. J. Gregory Olley for their cooperation and scholarly advice and guidance. A special word is in order for my academic and research advisor, Dr. Patricia Wisocki, who, in addition to chairing this dissertation committee, has provided unfailing support throughout my graduate training for my academic and clinical growth. As my advisor and friend, she is, in part, deserving of credit for this current accomplishment, for, certainly, her reassurances and, generally, gentle prodding, underscore its completion.

My appreciation is extended to the school administrators, principal, teachers, parents and children in the Hampshire school district without whose cooperation this study would not have been possible. Also, thanks to Bob Kankel, Sue Frederick, Lisa Gaudet and Larry Kilroy who, as research assistants, contributed a great deal of their time and scholarly efforts to this project; and to Elliot Phillips, who spent many a laborious hour scoring and organizing the voluminous amounts of data.

A special thanks goes to my parents and family whose faith and encouragement helped bring about an end to what, at times, was a seemingly endless task. Also, I extend my appreciation and gratitude to all my friends who supported and honored me and allowed me to humor them in return, as well as to my fellow members of the Midnight Shift and
Tsunami whose music has taught me that no matter what my calling in life, "when your feet say dance, you just can't refuse."

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ABSTRACT

The Implementation and Evaluation of a Social Skills Training Program for Preadolescents: A Preventative Approach

May 1978

Don Philipp Sugai

B.A., University of Southern California
M.S., Ph.D., University of Massachusetts, Amherst

Directed by: Professor Patricia A. Wisocki

The purpose of this study was to implement and evaluate a preventative oriented social skills training package designed specifically for normal preadolescent youngsters. The primary goals of this program were (a) to insure that participating children receive basic instruction in social skills; (b) to encourage the on-going socialization process at home, at school, and other environments; (c) to support existing agencies of socialization by sharing information and the mechanisms of social instruction; and, (d) to make available to children, parents, and school personnel counseling on specific or unique social skills related problems.

Generally, the Social Skills Training Program for Preadolescents (SSTP-P) is a preventative/intervention package comprised of several instructional techniques including small and large group format, modeling, role playing, programmed social reinforcement, corrective feedback, and covert behavior rehearsal. The areas of
instruction included social norms and expectations, general communicative skills, both verbal and non-verbal, and training in assertiveness for peer, status-difference, mixed-sex, and group interaction. The intervention, incorporated as part of a school curriculum, ran for twelve including sixteen hours of group instruction and four hours of evaluation.

Subjects included fourth and fifth graders from three elementary schools - one school as the experimental group, another school as the placebo group, and the third as a pure control group. Groups were matched on the basis of geographical location, socio-economic status, and the age and sex of the subjects. Furthermore, pretest results on four dependent measures showed no difference between groups.

Results indicated that the SSTP-P was successful in several areas relevant to pro-social development. Significantly positive gains were noted both on a cognitive level, as measured by two self report instruments (the Jesness Inventory and the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale), and on a behavioral level, as measured by two other instruments, a self report behavioral questionnaire (the Social Events Questionnaire) and by a specific behavioral observation (a handraising frequency count). An additional measure, a third party attitude and behavior rating scale (the Pupil Rating Form) yielded supportive data. Thus, the Social Skills Training Program for
Preadolescents was successful in improving the pro-social attitudes and enhancing the social skills of this normal, preadolescent population.
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1. Mean handraising frequency over treatment weeks
CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

A Review of the Literature

In a general way, the term "social skills" refers to the performance of behavior in social interactions. More specifically, a concise definition of "social skills" tends to vary with the populations referred to, the environment in which the interaction occurs, and the desired outcome of the interaction. However, there are three factors that are common to most definitions of "social skills" and, as such, offer operational guidelines.

Perhaps the most important factor concerns the mechanisms of interpersonal communication. In this sense, we refer to explicit (verbal) and implicit (non-verbal) modes of communication, and the extent to which a communicator can effectively incorporate both modes into an interaction.

A second factor is the communicator's ability to convey a variety of positive and negative feelings in the context of social interaction, with only a minimal, if any, loss of social reinforcement. Thus, "the socially skillful individual is attuned to the realities of the situation (interaction) and is aware when he/she is likely to be reinforced for his/her efforts" (Hersen & Bellack, 1975, p. 5).

The third factor takes into account the "social
consequences" of the behavior that evolve in an interaction. This sequence of behaviors includes the "actions emitted by the individual together with the reactions that he elicits from the environment" (Libet & Lewinsohn, 1973). Thus, the individual is considered to be socially skillful when his behaviors (discriminative stimuli) elicit desirable responses. Eventually, these sequences of social behavior and socio-environmental responses become a tested format for interaction that the individual can add to his repertoire of social skills.

For our purposes, "social skills" will refer to repertoires of social behaviors, including both implicit and explicit modes of communication, that when applied to social interactions will tend to elicit social reinforcement and encourage positive interaction outcome. Furthermore, to be socially skillful implies the extent to which an individual can effectively draw on his repertoire of social behaviors to accommodate the endless variety of social situations in which interaction is essential.

The roots of social skills research, as defined here, extend into the works of Thibaut and Kelley (1959), Watzlawick, Beavin and Jackson (1967), Rosenfeld (1965, 1966) in the areas of interpersonal communication and the components of interaction. While not dealing directly with the area of social skills, this research did study and underscore those components of communication and
interaction, namely implicit and explicit communication, that were essential to establishing and maintaining social contact. In doing so, these investigators offered empirical support and established definition for important social behaviors.

In a more definitive way, Stevenson (1959), one of the first investigators to emphasize the importance of "general relationship skills," suggested that one of the more important therapeutic goals was the development and improvement of interactional behaviors. Furthermore, Stevenson felt that these skills were not only important in the resolution of interactionally-oriented problems, but that they were crucial to an individual's satisfactory life situation.

In recent years, the general public's interest in books dealing with social skills related issues and primarily those focusing on deficits in social, interaction skills has been significant. The popularity of these books which approach the topic of social skills from the "How to..." or "Do it yourself" perspective, appears to indicate a widespread recognition of the importance of social and communicational ability (Boch & Goldberg, 1974; Bower & Bower, 1976; Fensterheim & Baer, 1975; Smith, 1975). Furthermore, this trend not only enhances existing speculation and hypothesis concerning the need to educate and train individuals in social behaviors, but also makes
clear the existing need to better understand the processes involved in the development and acquisition of social skills and the nature of social skills deficits.

A major effort to investigate social skills and the effects of skills deficits is documented in a series of studies by Zigler and Phillips (1960, 1961a, 1961b, 1962) who concluded that a relationship existed between deficits in social interpersonal maturity and psychiatric disorder. Furthermore, these researchers investigated the extent to which lack of social competence and social effectiveness had psychological impact on the individual. For example, in one study (1961a), working with schizophrenic patients, it was reported that individuals of varying social competence exhibited different types of psychiatric symptoms, and determined a correlation between types of symptoms and various degrees of pre-morbid social competence. These authors also concluded that the extent of social competence prior to the onset of psychopathology was positively related to the individual's ability to recover from the disorder and successfully adjust to normal life patterns.

Earlier studies by Cameron (1954), investigating psychotic ideation and communicational patterns, attributed the cognitive and linguistic disorders of the schizophrenic to deficits in social skills, specifically in the area of role taking and empathic abilities. Similar conclusions
relating the etiology of the psychopath's deviant thinking and behavior style to social deficiencies have evolved from a number of other studies (Cough, 1948; Sarbin, 1954; Sullivan, 1954).

Additional research (Lewinsohn, Weinstein & Alper, 1970) also suggests that insufficient or inadequate social skills development may be an important antecedent condition for the development of depressive behaviors. Libet and Lewinsohn (1973) further found that depressed psychiatric patients displayed deficits in social skills relative to normal populations. McFall and Twentyman (1973), in working with non-assertive college students, found that social inability contributed to immediate stress and an increased likelihood for future pathology.

Several investigators have pursued a related area of treatment oriented research and reported successful use of social skills training in rehabilitating juvenile delinquents (Sarason & Ganzer, 1971); psychiatric behavior problems (Goldstein, 1973; Hersen, et al., 1974), sexual dysfunction (Hersen & Eisler, 1976), and alcoholism (McFall & Lillesand, 1975). Successful results have also been reported with less severe emotional problems. College-aged male and female subjects who reported that social anxiety significantly disrupted their daily functioning were successfully treated by social skills training methods (Caldwell, Calhoun & Humphreys, 1976;
Curran, 1975; Curran & Gilbert, 1975; Twentyman & McFall, 1975).

In a related area, it is important to consider childhood psychopathology and how it is effected by social skills deficits. Strain, Cooke and Apolloni (1976) claim that 14% to 30% of all children who have been described as deviant, atypical, troubled and "problem" have been characterized as such primarily because of poor social performance. A number of studies (Heinstein, 1969; Gilbert, 1957; Woody, 1964) have investigated the problem of childhood social withdrawal and have arrived at similar conclusions.

These researchers concur that social withdrawal in children is the result of either a deficient social repertoire or inappropriate social performance. Furthermore, there is agreement that the ramifications of childhood social withdrawal are quite serious. First, and most obvious, it is often regarded as deviant and pathological behavior with all of the unfortunate implications of these labels. Second, evidence seems to indicate that social withdrawal is causally related to developmental delays that can extend into adulthood (Rardin & Moan, 1971). These delays can occur in cognitive (Bonney, 1971; Hartup, 1970) as well as social functioning (Ausubel, 1958; Piaget & Inhelder, 1969). Third, a substantial body of research had indicated a positive correlation between childhood
social withdrawal and adult psychopathology. Furthermore, studies by Atthowe and Krasner (1968), Gutride, Goldstein and Hunter (1973) and Schaefer and Martin (1966) have found social withdrawal to be a chronic condition with withdrawn and apathetic schizophrenics with etiology extending into childhood and young adulthood.

It is important to note, however, that the nature of the correlations is still an issue of controversy; that is, whether or not childhood social withdrawal is an immediate etiological factor in adult psychopathology or whether it is merely characterological early pathology. This issue aside, there still remains an important point upon which there is agreement; namely, that the withdrawal reaction is a developmentally disruptive one and, as such, requires attention (Birren, 1944; Bower, Shellhamer & Daily, 1960; Frazee, 1953; Robins, 1966).

Thus, it appears that social skills are an important and necessary area of an individual's knowledge. Furthermore, in the case of social skills deficits, the importance of social skills training as a therapeutic device is confirmed and supported by most of the research conducted to date.

Given that a relationship exists between social deficits and psychopathology (including both neurotic and psychotic disorders), it appears that preventative counseling/therapy, as a means of educating individuals in appropriate social behaviors and successful social
interaction, would serve to (a) reduce the likelihood of pathology, (b) reduce the severity of pathology if it occurs, and (c) encourage and aid in the treatment and recovery from pathological disorders. These points will be addressed and developed in greater detail in a later section.

Typically, the individual receives social instruction as part of his/her mental and psychological maturation process. In most situations, the child's parents, teachers, siblings and peers serve as instructors and social role models. However, a number of variables can intervene and traumatize this "normal" socialization process. These include: (a) the death or absence of a parent, which could eliminate a necessary role model, especially in the areas of sex-role and hetero-social behaviors. Such a situation would leave to chance both the existence of and access to a new source of instruction and role modeling. (b) The inability or unwillingness of a parent(s) to instruct and model appropriate social behaviors. Included here is the possibility that a parent might teach inappropriate and improper social behaviors as the result of his/her own social deficits. Kohlberg (1958), in discussing the etiology of antisocial behavior of adolescents, cited a tendency by the parents of there children to be arbitrary, inconsistent and frustrating in their child rearing practices. (c) The failure of normal socialization
and social skills training methods to have effect due to inhibitions caused by "handicaps". This point is most obvious with the chronic handicaps, mental retardation, debilitating illness and severe emotional disturbance. However, it is also true for individuals (youngsters) who are too fat, too skinny, too tall, too short, etc., for whom the social instruction and role models are available but who are inhibited from social experimentation and practice by sensitivities to their personal features. This situation is similar for those individuals who might be sensitive to their racial and ethnic backgrounds or their family's socio-economic status, their own academic standing, etc. Here again, no guarantee exists that these individuals would be furnished with a proper atmosphere in which they could practice and experiment with social behaviors and in which their idiosyncratic sensitivities could be addressed and dealt with.

A number of studies have isolated "traumatized" social development as being an etiological factor in social deviancy. Hewitt and Jenkins (1946), in studying a population of juvenile delinquents, attributed some of their problems to poor social skills development in the formation of relationships with older people, particularly with those in positions of authority. McCord and McCord (1960) examined "flaws" in the socialization process which they concluded to be associated with the origins
of psychopathy in adolescents and young adults. These "flaws" included extreme childhood neglect, ill treatment, and an unstable home environment. Finally, Bowlby (1962) claimed that the death of a parent or parents during childhood was another "socialization experience" associated with later depression. Specifically, Bowlby states that 6% of the general population experience adult depression due to the loss of a mother before the age of 14 and 5.7% of the population for the loss of a father before the age of 14.

Several other studies, although not focusing on the etiology of errant socialization, offer strong evidence as to the importance of parents in the psycho-social development of the child. Hoffman and Saltzstein (1967) and Yarrow and Scott (1972) concur that parental nurturance, particularly maternal nurturance, is instrumental in the child's development of pro-social behavior. An explanation of this relationship focuses on two main points. First, nurturant parents provide a warm and supportive environment in which the child can learn and practice social behaviors. Second, the nurturant parents serve as models for socially desirable attributes such as consideration, kindness, and empathy.

In a study of altruistic behavior in children, Hoffman (1975) concluded that children incorporate and imitate their parents' altruistic behaviors and attitudes.
Specifically, the study indicated that children greatly identify with the same-sexed parent in the values they placed on the altruistic ideals of caring, helping and consideration. Similar findings were made in studies assessing the parents role in the development of generosity and compassion in children (Rutherford & Mussen, 1968).

Socialization and the Preadolescent

As indicated by Blair and Burton (1951): "The strains and conflicts of adolescent...(social)...adjustment may be lessened by adequate provision for sound personal and social integration during later childhood...(preadolescence) (p. 206)." Thus, in considering the virtues of a preventative program for social skills training, as opposed to the existing notion of social skills training as a treatment procedure, the preadolescent population seems best suited for planned social skills instruction.

In developing a rationale stressing the importance of a social skills training program for the preadolescent aged population, it is necessary to briefly review three theoretical constructs of psycho-social development. The three theories of Piaget (1965), Erikson (1950), and Kohlberg (1969) have a common regard for the importance of the preadolescent years for social and emotional development and maturation.
The term "preadolescent" refers to the 9 to 13 year old age group, at the fifth through seventh grade educational levels. Piaget and Inhelder (1969) described preadolescence as an important transformation period, marking the end of childhood and the onset of preparations by the youngster for adolescence. During this period, a new structure of thought is formed that serves as a natural developmental culmination of the sensori-motor structure and the groupings of concrete operations. This new structure is significant in that it is instrumental in opening new perspectives into later stages of psychological development; that is, affective and social impulses of adolescence are dependent upon this preadolescent structure.

Specifically, the child, at this stage of his/her development, becomes aware of and is able to integrate all the relationships in play for a given perspective. Thus, tole taking, empathy and new levels of moral reasoning become active in the child’s repertoire of pro-social behaviors. Piaget calls this phenomenon "decentering", or a moving away from egocentrism.

In describing the transitional, preadolescent phase, Piaget and Inhelder claim that the individual is at the rudimentary stages in the creation of ideas and the formation of values including the concept of social justice and of rational, aesthetic and social ideals. Similarly, Piaget (1965), in discussing the development of moral judgment,
which he associated with social development, indicated that two moralities are prescribed for the child by society. Developmentally, the first, the morality of constraint, concerns the one-way relationship between the child as the subordinate and the adult as the dominant person. At this time, it is emphasized that the parents should be very dominant, very impressive and excellent providers to insure complete and successful development in this stage.

At a later developmental stage, when the child's awareness transcends familial boundaries and he becomes aware of the society around him, the morality of cooperation emerges and partially replaces the morality of constraint. At this stage, peers and other agents of socialization, in addition to the family, become important sources of social-moral role models. This transition in social-moral awareness from the morality of constraint to the morality of cooperation demonstrates the importance of this developmental era, as it also takes place during preadolescence. Furthermore, Piaget has stressed the importance and necessity of successful social development at this stage. That is, he claims that incomplete development at any stage of development will serve to interfere with the total development of the individual.

The second theoretical orientation, developed by Erikson (1950, 1968) is a comprehensive analysis of the
socialization process. Erikson claimed the entire life cycle of an individual can be divided into eight psycho-social stages. Each stage of development is centered around a primary issue of socialization (i.e., basic trust versus basic mistrust; autonomy versus shame and doubt; initiative versus guilt; industry versus inferiority; identity versus stagnation; and, ego integrity versus despair). Consequently, successful psycho-social development and maturation are contingent upon the extent to which the individual is able to resolve these issues at each succeeding stage.

Preadolescence, as defined earlier in this section, coincides with the latter part of Erikson's fourth stage and the beginning of the fifth stage. During the fourth stage, the child is ready to learn and form attachments with new role models (teachers, and other adults); and he becomes capable of fuller cooperation with others. An indirect result of these transitions involves crucial development of the individual's emotionality.

The issue presented by this developmental stage is called by Erikson "industry vs. inferiority". Successful development through this stage gives the child a sense of his ability to work at tasks, both individually and in cooperation with others. If things do not go well, the child develops a sense of inferiority (Elkin & Handel, 1972, p. 58).
The fifth stage, which Erikson considered to be the most critical in his analysis of socialization, is most concerned with the issues of adolescence. However, there is overlap in psycho-social development between the fourth and fifth stages. Thus, at the onset of stage five, the individual begins to integrate tole models, values, norms, beliefs and emotional feelings in such a way that an identity begins to emerge. Erikson claimed that successful resolution of the primary issue of this period, "identity versus role diffusion", is instrumental in the development of an individual's sense of self and his relationship to society (i.e., as a social being).

Thus, in much the same way as the individual develops from the morality of constraint into the morality of cooperation in the Piagetian model, the individual, according to Erikson, progresses through the fourth and fifth stages of the socialization process. In both theories, there is an important focus on the necessity of successful development (resolution of issues) through these stages in order that psycho-social maturation can occur.

A third theory, developed by Kohlberg (1969), is derived from Piaget's stages of development, and stresses the intricate interrelationship between social thinking and the development of moral judgment. Kohlberg classified moral development into six "definite and universal" stages,
each of which is substantially different from the preceding stages and portrays more highly differentiated cognitive structures of moral reasoning with each successive stage. A brief description of each stage from Campagna and Herter (1975) follows:

Stage 1: Focuses on avoidance of negative physical consequences.

Stage 2: Focuses on a system of exchange and need satisfaction.

Stage 3: Emphasizes conformity to stereotypes of "nice" behavior, meeting with social approval.

Stage 4: Emphasizes the adherence to law and maintenance of a social order.

Stage 5: Focuses on changes in law to recognize both individual rights and social utility.

Stage 6: Focuses on the predominance of individual decisions of conscience in accord with self chosen ethical principles.

Furthermore, Kohlberg divided these six stages into three major levels, the preconventional (stages 1 and 2), the conventional (stages 3 and 4), and the postconventional (stages 5 and 6).

It is the conventional level which becomes dominant during the individual's preadolescent years. During this level of development, the individual (a) becomes concerned
with conforming to the existing social order, and (b) confronts the issues of supporting, maintaining and justifying this order (Kohlberg & Gilligan, 1971). Thus, according to each of these theorists, preadolescence is a time when the individual first becomes aware and involved with social issues and social expectations.

It is necessary to detail two points of Kohlberg's theory that are particularly relevant in isolating the preadolescent years as crucial to psycho-social/moral development. The first point is that arrest in moral development can occur at any of the three levels and is directly related to the extent to which social adjustment can occur. This point supports an earlier claim that string and responsible guidance (parental, teachers and peers) can contribute to successful moral development and social adjustment.

The second point arises from a study by Checkley (1959) who reported that the onset of sociopathy (being synonomous with psychopathy) usually takes place between the ages of 10 and 13, ages that correspond to the first stage of Kohlberg's conventional level. Such anti-social behavior, it is suggested, is due in large part to arrest in moral development at the transition ages between the preconventional and conventional levels, or, by our definition, during preadolescence. Once again, focus must be drawn to the importance of successful moral and
and psycho-social development during the preadolescent years, a point upon which the theories of Piaget, Erikson, and Kohlberg agree.

A review of the current literature yields three additional findings that further indicate that the preadolescent population is most suitable for a program of social skills instructions. First, the research of Maw and Maw (1975), using 18 self report measures of social adjustment, competence, and maturity, suggests that a positive relationship exists between curiosity and the extent of social adjustment with fifth grade youngsters. It has been suggested that the development of social skills is critical in the emergence of curiosity at a social level. In turn, the "social" curiosity becomes a primary motivation for the further development of social abilities. Thus, these authors concluded that because of the relationship between social maturation and social curiosity, the extent of social maturation and the quality of interpersonal relationships is contingent upon the individual's level of social skills and abilities.

In a second study, Flavell et al. (1968), in investigating role taking in middle childhood (preadolescence) and in adolescence, found that boys and girls in the nine through eleven year age range first become aware of the utility of role taking in social interactions. These findings corroborate Piaget's theory
of cognitive development and the preadolescent's awareness of social relationships and interaction strategies.

A third study, Girdus and Wolf (1975) examined different age groups (mean ages 5.5, 7.4, 9.5 and 20.5 years) for their ability to encode social cues; that is, to recognize social stimuli accurately. The results indicated that of the non-adult age groups, the 9.5 year old age group was best able to encode social cues and, consequently, to "activate stored memories" of past interactions from which a social response to the cue could be called. Thus, given that this age group, which corresponds with our preadolescent grouping, was best able to discern and recognize social cues, it seems that this population would be most appropriate for a program that would instruct and shape social behaviors.

**Educational Model versus Treatment Model**

In considering an educational/preventative approach, the primary rationale is that if an individual were to receive proper and extensive training in social behaviors (that is, social skills training) before a deficiency in these abilities might have psychological consequence, then those consequences might be eliminated or diminished. From reviews of studies dealing with psychopathology and etiologically related social skills deficits, Hersen and Eisler (1975) and Twentyman and McFall (1974) designated
three main problem areas of social development and maturation. It is these problem areas that would serve as foci in the development of the educational package of social skills training.

1. Some individuals with poor social skills seem to have a lack of initiative or motivation to act socially, that is, an inability or fail re to initiate and/or sustain an interaction. This inability might include a lack of assertiveness or inhibition and anxiety due to real or perceived social incompetence, and a general lack of appropriate social skills.

2. Some individuals with poor social skills seem to have an inability to elicit positive social reinforcement from others. This deficit might include inappropriate or aversive behaviors as part of a limited social repertoire, the absence of appropriate positive social behaviors that would tend to elicit social reinforcement, and/or the presence of anxiety that would tend to inhibit appropriate social interaction and reinforcement exchange. Also in this category, is the individual who has an inability to reinforce others for social behaviors, which, in most interactions, would extinguish incoming reinforcement and interaction.

3. Some individuals with poor social skills seem to be unaware of the rules of interaction, or suffer
from anxiety which would inhibit expression of these rules. In discussing the "etiquette of interaction," Argyle (1969) specified eight areas that are essential to establishing and maintaining a successful social interaction (Mortensen, 1973, p. 200). These are as follows:

a. The content of the interaction: Both participants must agree as to the nature of the interaction. For example, "agreement on the game being played ... the topic of conversation or the nature of the activity in other respects."

b. Dimensions of the relationship - I. Role relationships: Participants must agree and subscribe to their respective role in the interaction; for example, "if one is a teacher, the other must be the pupil; if one is an interviewer, the other should be an interviewee." The participants "must agree on the definition of the situation and be prepared to play socially defined parts in it."

c. Dimensions of the relationship - II. Intimacy: Participants must either seek a similar level of intimacy or agree to a compromise level. Clearly, participants pursuing opposing degrees of intimacy will find the interaction to be uncomfortable and awkward.

d. Dimensions of the relationship - III. Dominance:
The degree to which each participant actively tries to dominate or command the interaction is inversely related to the extent to which interactional equilibrium will be established.

e. Sequences of behavior: Responses and initiations by participants must be sequentially appropriate.

f. Timing of speech: "There must be smooth synchronizing of speech in a conversation, so that most of the time is occupied and there are no long silences, and there are also no interruptions."

g. Emotional tone: "While interaction can proceed between two people who are in different emotional states, this is not a stable state of affairs; probably interaction will cease or a change of emotional state will take place."

The importance of including social emotional guidance and development as part of the educational process was first addressed by Sandiford (1936) and Prescott (1938). It was their contention that this type of education was necessary for the total intellectual, emotional and social development of the child (Strain, Cooke & Apolloni, 1976). A number of investigators (Beatty, 1969; Lyon, 1971; Weinstein & Fantini, 1970) have revived the theories of Sandiford and Prescott. It is their opinion that youngsters who are the products of the current educational system
which places a minimal emphasis on social and emotional education, have only reached a mid-point in their intellectual and social development. Borich (1971) furthere supports this position and stresses that this social-emotional ability is central to an individual's success in adapting to and "making it" in society.

In recent years, there has been growing interest in the role of the school, teachers, and school peers in the social development of the child. A number of researchers are currently involved in analyzing these nonfamilial socializers and the extent of their role in the psycho-social development of the individual. Mussen and Eisenberg-Berg (1977), although acknowledging the absence of long term data in these areas, suggest that not only do peers and teachers serve the important functions of models and sources of reinforcement, but in addition, the latter takes an active role in "assigninig responsiblity and stimulating the development of their student's role-taking and moral reasoning skills (p. 164)."

One example of a program that recognizes the social-developmental impact of teachers is that of the Educational Environments, Incorporated (Sheppard, Shank & Wilson, 1973). The program, a nonprofit educational research and development center for preschool, kindergarten and elementary school-aged youngsters, trains its teachers in the instruction of social behaviors. Primary focus of this instruction is in
the development and shaping of pro-social behaviors and
the extinction of undesirable and disruptive behaviors
for younger children in the classroom.

Other advances have been made in the area of affective
education, that is, in the development of programs which
have been specifically designed to integrate academic
and emotional growth. Some of these pioneering efforts
include Ojemann's *A Teaching Program in Human Behavior and
Mental Health* (n.d.); Randolph and Howe's *Self Enhancing
Education* (1966) and Dinkmeyers' *Developing Understanding
programs attempt to fill what is considered to be a serious
void in our educational system. However, none of these
or similar programs have been widely accepted within the
system nor have they been accorded any priority status
(Dinkmeyer, 1974). Difficulties with the efficiency of
the implementation of these programs and the lack of strong
data to support them appears to account for this reluctance
on the part of school administrators and curriculum
directors.

**Summary**

It is important to emphasize that individuals who
are undergoing either inpatient or outpatient psychotherapy
as an indirect result of social deficiencies or traumatized
socialization comprise a surprisingly large percentage of
the reported incidences of psychopathology. However, there are probably numerous others who have, at some time or another, suffered from varying degrees of stress due to social anxiety. Although it is not clear as to the extent to which this anxiety has disrupted or disturbed these individuals, it does appear that a carefully designed and implemented program of social skills instruction would be beneficial.

It would not be the goal of such a social skills training program to relieve parents and other agencies of socialization of their role in the social development of the child. Instead, such a program would serve (a) to encourage the on-going socialization process at home, at school, and elsewhere; (b) to support existing agencies of socialization by sharing information and mechanisms of social instruction; (c) to insure that most children receive basic instruction in social skills, and (d) to make available to children and parents counseling on specific or unique social skills-related problems.

As the previous discussion indicates, the social skills training program that has a structured, behaviorally-oriented methodology for the instruction and refinement of social behavior, has potential for the development of social behaviors for a "normal" preadolescent population. The thrust of this preventative program would be twofold. First, it is a preventative program based on existing
research concerning the relationship between social skills deficits and the various neurotic and psychotic manifestations of psychopathology. It is important to note that social skills training programs already exist. However, these programs are based on a treatment approach and, as such, have been designed to accommodate individuals with specific social skills deficits, usually after the manifestation of psychopathology. Data are not available concerning social skills training programs that are based on an educational model, despite supportive research evidence. Thus, one purpose of this study is to provide some necessary data in support of an educational/preventative approach to social skills training.

Second, the Social Skills Training Program was designed specifically for a preadolescent population. According to a number of social-developmental theorists described previously, a program designed to accommodate the level of social maturation of the preadolescent is likely to be most effective in encouraging a sound psycho-social development.

The immediate research question addressed by this study concerns the ability and extent to which this intervention package can develop and enhance the pro-social attitudes and level of social skills of a normal, preadolescent population. Specifically, it is hypothesized that youngsters in the experimental group will show greater
improvement on post-test measures than youngsters in
placebo and no-contact control groups. An assessment of
pre and post-test scores on a number of dependent
measures and a between groups comparison of post-test
scores should provide this information.

In terms of longer range goals, as part of a separate,
longitudinal study, it is hypothesized that youngsters
who have been part of the intervention program will
demonstrate more successful psycho-social development, as
manifested by competency in social interaction and extensive
social skills development than the children in the control
groups. However, this aspect of the investigation is not
part of the present study.
Design. The experimental design employed in this study was a $2 \times 2 \times 3$ factor design with two between groups and one within groups comparison. The independent variables were the schools - an experimental group (the Chesterfield Elementary School), the placebo group (the Goshen Elementary School), and a no-contact control group (the Westhampton Elementary School); the sex of the subject, and the pre and post-test conditions (a repeated measures factor). The dependent variables were pre and post-test results on the Jesness Inventory and the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale, and scores on the Pupil Rating Form. In addition, a weekly sampling was used for the Social Events Questionnaire, and a bi-weekly sampling was used for the handraising frequency count.

Subjects were divided by schools for two reasons: first, it allowed for more efficient implementation of the Social Skills Training Program for Preadolescents (SSTP-P) package, and increased accessibility to teachers and counselors involved in the program; second, it meant that the data collected were not biased by interaction between the youngsters, teachers, and staff personnel given the three different experimental manipulations.

The subjects groups were matched on the basis of age, sex, geographical and socio-economic factors. A pre-test analysis indicated that there was no significant difference
between the three groups in their performance on four of the dependent measures: the Jesness Inventory, the Piers-Harris Scale, the Social Events questionnaire, and the Pupil Rating Form.

Subjects. The subject pool included 58 students from the fourth and fifth grades of three schools in a rural area of Massachusetts. The schools are small and geographically isolated from each other, but they share a common administrative superintendent, health and guidance personnel, and a school psychologist. The socio-economic status of the families of these youngsters was lower-middle to middle class with primary occupations split between agricultural, white collar, and blue collar jobs in the nearby communities of Northampton and Amherst. The familial and ethnic backgrounds of the youngsters were across schools. The populations of these schools had never previously participated in psychological or educational research.

The experimental group was comprised of 16 youngsters from Chesterfield Elementary School; the placebo group was comprised of 16 youngsters from the Goshen Elementary School; and the control group consisted of 26 youngsters from the Westhampton Elementary School. Exact numbers of participants varied on a day to day basis as a result of absenteeism or disciplinary action, thus affecting the total number of subjects in each of the
different weekly pre- and post-tests. The division by sex between subjects was even for all schools. Subjects ranged in age from 9 to 12 years, and were divided evenly for all schools.

Materials. The educational materials consisted of the Social Skills Training Program for Preadolescents (Appendix A), which is comprised of several treatment/instructional variables (group instruction, contingent social reinforcement, modeling, role playing, corrective feedback, and covert behavior rehearsal). The manual provided a framework for the implementation of the program and was used in the organization and development of the instruction plan. The lesson plans developed for each class meeting are included in the manual.

Five assessment instruments were used to evaluate the effectiveness of the Social Skills Training Program for Preadolescents (SSTP-P) in improving the individual's social abilities and self concept with regard to social-developmental issues. The first two instruments are standardized self report written tests providing relevant data on a variety of socially related measures.

The first instrument was the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale (The Way I Feel About Myself) (Piers & Harris, 1963). This scale is a short, self report assessment instrument specifically designed for children. Previous research has indicated that test scores correlate
highly with socially effective behavior (Cox, 1966) and social desirability (Millen, 1966). Furthermore, answers to the Piers-Harris Scale provide a wide variety of information about self measures of behavior, popularity, anxiety, happiness, and satisfaction.

Reliability measures based on test-retest procedures with a four month lag resulted in coefficients of .72 and .76 for both boys and girls in the third and sixth grades, respectively. This figure was judged satisfactory for this type of personality instrument. Validity figures of .43 and .31 were obtained for correlations between test results and teacher and peer ratings, with significance at the .01 level.

The second instrument was the Jesness Inventory (Jesness, 1962). This inventory is a brief, self report instrument designed for youngsters between the ages of 8 and 18 years. This inventory yields information about ten personality traits including social maladjustment, immaturity, aggression, withdrawal, and social anxiety.

Reliability measures based on odd-even analysis were .84, .83, .62, and .65 for the scales most relevant to this program, namely, social maladjustment, alienation, withdrawal, and social anxiety, respectively. Test-retest reliability figures over an 8 month period ranged from .70 to .79 (Jesness, 1969).
A third self report instrument, the Social Events Questionnaire (Appendix B) was specifically designed for this study. The questionnaire was presented every two weeks to gather on-going data of the program's effectiveness and to provide information on the frequency and types of social activities that the youngsters were involved in.

The fourth assessment item, the Pupil Rating Form (Appendix C) was also used in pre and post evaluations. The form, which was filled out by the subject's teachers, is an observer's assessment of a youngster's in-class interactional skills and participation in class activities. Ten relevant measures of social-interactional ability were used: leadership, self-assertion, popularity, presentation, sociability, adjustment, confidence, attention, group participation and inhibition.

The last method used to evaluate the youngsters' progress is social skills was a biweekly time sampling of handrasing in the classroom as representative of a student's willingness to participate in class activities. This measure is described in detail in the procedure section.

Experimenters. Four senior psychology undergraduate students (two male, two female) were chosen to participate in the study as research assistants. They aided in the collection of all test data and served as instructors and role models during the program. In preparation, the assistants were
assigned a number of readings, including the SSTP-P Manual, to familiarize them with the theory, rationale and design behind the program. Furthermore, the assistants were given ten hours of training in specific instructional methods and test administration over a three week period.

Preliminary procedures. After securing the initial approval of the district school superintendent to conduct this research in the three schools, it was necessary to acquire the approval of each of the town's school committees. With the aid of the superintendent and the common principal of the three schools, special school committee meetings were called for each town.

A presentation of the proposed study was made and a discussion of the time and personnel costs and gains for each school followed. After a serious discussion in each session, consent was given. The next step was to meet with the teachers that were to be involved with the program and testing to secure their cooperation. With the backing of the superintendent, the school committees and the principal, this was a relatively easy task. In most cases, teachers were anxious to see the implementation of this program and to find out the results.

The final step was to acquire written parental permission for the youngsters to participate in the program. A letter explaining the nature of the program and a consent
form was sent to all parents and an "information line" was established and manned by program staff personnel for one week to handle additional inquiries. Consent rates for each school were as follows: Chesterfield (experimental group) - 81%, Goshen (placebo group) - 80%, and Westhampton (control group) - 84%. Provisions were made over the pre-test, intervention, and post-test phases to accommodate those children not participating in the program. In a few instances, the children, themselves, chose not to participate.

Pre-test phase. In an effort to maintain consistency in the administration of the pre-test materials, a standard pattern and strategy was jointly designed by the research assistants and principal investigator. All pre-testing for the Chesterfield and Goshen schools (experimental and placebo groups) was performed in the first week of the twelve week program. The days and times of the testing were identical for these two schools. The children in the Westhampton school (no contact control group) were tested one week later.

Specifically, two research assistants, one male and one female, administered the Jesness Inventory at the Chesterfield school on Monday afternoon of the first week. A second pair of assistants did the same at the Goshen school. On Thursday afternoon of the same week, the Piers-Harris Self Concept Scale was administered to the
students and the Pupil Rating Form was given to the teachers at both schools. The same procedures were followed the next week at the Westhampton school.

After completion of the pre-test phase, one week was allowed to elapse before introducing the SSTP-P. During this period, the tests were scored and the data analyzed to determine if the groups were statistically similar in their test performance.

**Periodic assessments.** Two assessment procedures were on-going during the program phase of the study. The first, the Social Events Questionnaire (Appendix B), which took approximately five minutes to complete, was administered by the teachers every Monday morning at the beginning of the school day. The rationale for administering the questionnaire at this time was that the weekend and social events during the weekend would presumably still be fresh in the minds of the youngsters.

The second measure, the handraising frequency count, was taken by the teachers during the first 15 minutes of the Thursday afternoon sessions. The frequency count was made every two weeks starting with the first week of the program. Specifically, the teachers took a timed-sampling of the number of handraises by each student during a review discussion of the previous sessions materials. To do this, the teacher indicated with a mark on a mimeographed class seating chart every time a student raised his/her hand.
**Intervention: the experimental group.** Actual training and instruction with the SSTP-P Manual was begun in the third week of the 12 week program. In total, the program of instruction continued for eight weeks with 16 class sessions. Classes were held at 2:05 PM on Monday and Thursday afternoons. Each instruction period was 53 minutes long, the normal length of the school's class periods.

For a chronological/sequential breakdown of the instructional topics covered during the eight week period please refer to the manual. The first two sessions were used to discuss (a) personal hygiene and dress, and their role in social acceptance, and (b) the rules of communicational etiquette (i.e., the rules of interaction). This constituted Part 1 of the SSTP-P.

Part II of the program, the Skills of Verbal Interaction, was the topic of the next nine class sessions. Three sessions were devoted to assertiveness in peer interactions, assertiveness in status-difference interactions, and assertiveness in mixed-sex interactions.

Next, Part III, the Skills of Nonverbal Interaction, was introduced. Two class sessions were used to familiarize the students with nonverbal communication and the role it played in daily communication. Particular attention was paid to the roles of interpersonal proximity, eye contact, orientation and posture, facial gestures, and hand and arm
gestures. Finally, one session was devoted to each of the primary applications of nonverbal communications in social interactions. These are the areas of mutual attention and response, interpersonal attitude and feedback, and illustrations. The exact details of the intervention program and presented in Appendix A.

At the conclusion of the program, a final session was held to discuss the program and what it meant to the youngsters. The session was also used to solicit ideas and criticisms from the students and to thank them for their participation.

The placebo program. The placebo program was implemented at the Goshen Elementary School. In the place of the SSTP-P, the program personnel led and participated in class discussions of social studies and American history. So as not to disrupt the lesson plans and invade the jurisdiction of the teachers involved, discussion topics were arranged and coordinated with them. Thus, the placebo program was designed to supplement the teacher's on-going program of instruction.

The timetable and logistics of the placebo program were identical to that of the experimental group. The discussion class met on Monday and Thursday afternoons for 50 minutes over and eight week period. The only major departure from the schedule of the experimental groups was in the time of the class meeting: 1:00 P.M. instead
of 2:00 P.M. A number of factors including differing class and course schedules, teacher cooperation and the availability of the research assistants necessitated this arrangement.

It is important to stress that the primary variable, the amount of input and participation by the research staff was consistent over both schools. Thus, an attempt was made to keep the extent of contact between the students of each school and the staff personnel approximately the same. Therefore, the singular, major difference between the placebo and experimental groups was the content of class discussion and instruction.

The control group. The no-contact control group was seen for a total of four class sessions, two each for pre-testing and post-testing. Aside from these sessions, there was no additional contact between the students of the Westhampton school and the research personnel.

The post-testing phase. Post-testing of the experimental and placebo groups was done during the twelfth week of the program. The procedures and timetables used were identical to those used for pre-testing. Post-testing for the no-contact control group students took place the following week.
CHAPTER III

RESULTS

It was hypothesized that the youngsters in the experimental group would show greater improvements on post-tests over pre-test results than either the placebo or control groups. To assess the results of the SSTP-P intervention, analyses of variance were performed on the five dependent measures: the Jesness Inventory, the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale, the Social Events Questionnaire - analyzed in two sections, the handraising frequency count, and the Pupil Rating Form - analyzed in two sections. For each of these dependent measures, a $2 \times 2 \times 3$ (pre/post evaluation by sex of subject by experimental condition/school) analysis of variance was completed. Error terms for all analyses were based on all the data. Additional analyses were performed on specific, significant analysis of variance data to determine the source(s) of variance. For these analyses, the Fisher's Least Significant Difference (LSD) (Carmer & Swanson, 1973) was used. The Fisher's LSD is a conservative, robust, post-hoc method of multiple comparisons.

Results will be reported in subsections beginning with the pre-test results for all of the dependent variables. Post-test results will include presentation of data on all relevant subscales.

Pre-tests. An analysis of variance of the pre-test data
was used to determine if the subjects in the three experimental conditions performed similarly on the five dependent variables. Results indicated that there was no statistical difference in the responses of the students from the Chesterfield, Goshen and Westhampton schools on four of the dependent measures: the Jesness Inventory \((F(2,50) = 1.69, p > .10)\), the Piers-Harris Scale \((F(2,54) = .062, p > .10)\), the Social Events Questionnaire - Part 1 \((F(2,53) = .477, p > .10)\), and Part 2 \((F(2,53) = 1.66, p > .10)\), and the Pupil Rating Form - Part 1 \((F(2,53) = 1.56, p > .10)\) and Part 2 \((F(2,53) = .14, p > .10)\).

Baseline/pre-test results for the handraising frequency count were significantly different \((F(1,27) = 7.06, p < .02)\) in a comparison of the experimental \((\bar{X} = 3.68)\) and placebo \((\bar{X} = .94)\) groups. Handraising frequency counts were not taken at the no-contact control group school.

**The Jesness Inventory.** The cell means for the Jesness Inventory are presented in Table 1. The results of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) are presented in Table 2 and show several significant results. These are the pre-post main effect \((F(1,51) = 17.19, p < .001)\), the school by pre-post interaction \((F(2,51) = 2.95, p < .07)\), the pre-post by scale interaction \((F(4,204) = 7.19, p < .001)\), the pre-post by school by scale interaction \((F(8,204) = 1.69, p < .001)\), the scale by school interaction \((F(8,204) = 3.86, p < .001)\), and a scale by sex of subject interaction
(F(4, 204) = 6.9, p < .001). Of these results, two of the interactions are of particular interest to this study.

Insert Tables 1 and 2 about here

It is important to note that the results for the pre-post by school interaction showed a positive trend. However, this result is noteworthy because the direction of the difference scores was consistent with pre-test hypotheses that the experimental group would show greater improvement on these scores than either the placebo or control groups.

In an examination of the five relevant Jesness Inventory scales in the pre-post by school by scales interaction, it appears that three scales account for the major sources of variance. Cell means (see Table 1) and difference scores for the scales of alienation, withdrawal and social anxiety indicate that, whereas students in the placebo and control groups either improved very little or, in some cases, showed some regression, the students in the experimental group improved on their previous scores. Of these three scales, the most significant improvements were noted on the scales of social anxiety (LSD = 2.06 < 2.47, p < .05) and social maladjustment (LSD = 2.06 < 5.54, p < .05).

The two additional Jesness Inventory scales, social
### Table 1

Cell Means for the Jesness Inventory

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRE-TESTS</th>
<th>Experimental group</th>
<th>Placebo group</th>
<th>Control group</th>
<th>marginal</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Maladjustment</td>
<td>21.00 15.71</td>
<td>20.50 17.37</td>
<td>13.71 12.27</td>
<td>16.30</td>
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<tr>
<td>Immaturity</td>
<td>20.78 15.57</td>
<td>13.87 15.37</td>
<td>17.07 14.54</td>
<td>16.29</td>
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<td>Alienation</td>
<td>14.22 8.86</td>
<td>9.50 7.50</td>
<td>14.14 8.91</td>
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<tr>
<td>Withdrawal</td>
<td>11.67 13.29</td>
<td>15.00 10.50</td>
<td>12.36 13.73</td>
<td>12.74</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
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<th>POST-TESTS</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immaturity</td>
<td>17.89 16.43</td>
<td>16.00 14.87</td>
<td>16.14 13.27</td>
<td>15.70</td>
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<tr>
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<td>10.11 11.00</td>
<td>13.62 11.50</td>
<td>11.50 11.82</td>
<td>11.58</td>
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<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
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Table 2
Analysis of Variance for the Jesness Inventory

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<tr>
<th>Source</th>
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<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
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<td>Sex of subject (X)</td>
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<td>209.78</td>
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<td>.049</td>
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<td>3.06</td>
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<tr>
<td>Error</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pre-post (P)</td>
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<td>215.14</td>
<td>17.19</td>
<td>.001</td>
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<td>.062</td>
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<tr>
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<td>.009</td>
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<td>3.35</td>
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<td>n.s.</td>
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<td>10.22</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>8.83</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
withdrawal and immaturity, although both improved for the experimental condition, were not clearly distinguishable from improved scores of the placebo and control groups. 

The Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale. An analysis of variance of student responses on the Piers-Harris, presented in Table 3, yielded a number of significant results: a pre-post main effect \( (F(1,54) = 8.53, p < .005) \), a school by sex of subject interaction \( (F(2,54) = 3.48, p < .038) \), a pre-post by school interaction \( (F(2,54) = 4.30, p < .018) \), a school by scale by sex of subject interaction \( (F(8,216) = 3.03, p < .003) \), and a pre-post by school by scale interaction \( (F(8,216) = 2.33, p < .02) \).

Of these results two of the more relevant items were selected for additional analysis.

An examination of the pre-post by school interaction cell mean, presented in Table 4, using Fisher's LSD, indicated that results were strongly in accord with pre-experimental hypotheses. Collapsing data over the individual scales, improvement by the experimental group over pre-test scores was significant \( (LSD = 2.21 < 2.66, p < .05) \) and not significant for either the placebo \( (LSD = 2.21 > .38, p > .05) \) or the control groups \( (LSD = 2.21 > 1.67, p > .05) \).
**Table 3**

Analysis of Variance for Piers-Harris Scale

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<th>F</th>
<th>Prob</th>
<th>F Exceeded</th>
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<td>Error</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>Sub-scales (T)</td>
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<td>0.25</td>
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<td>1.43</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>4.15</td>
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</table>
In the pre-post by school by scale interaction, the individual scales were examined to determine the major sources of variance. Results for three of the five scales were largely in accord with expectations. On the primary scale of self concept, students in the experimental group showed significant improvement over their pre-test scores ($LSD = 1.06 < 4.13, p < .05$) whereas students at both the placebo and control group schools had non-significant post-test scores that were lower than their pre-test scores. The experimental group also showed significant improvement on two other self concept related scales of anxiety ($LSD = 1.41 < 1.62, p < .05$) and popularity ($LSD = 1.41 < 1.73, p < .05$) (see Table 4).

The Social Events Questionnaire. For the purposes of statistical analysis, the Social Events Questionnaire was divided into two parts and will be reported separately in this section. Part one includes rating scale questions one through nine of the questionnaire and part two includes numerical answer questions 10, 11, and 12 (see Appendix B).

Part 1. The analysis of variance is presented in Table 5 and reveals a number of significant results for student responses to part one of the Social Events Questionnaire. Specifically, these results included a
<table>
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<th>Placebo group</th>
<th>Control group</th>
<th>marginal</th>
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<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>60.75</td>
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<td>14.00</td>
<td>13.37</td>
<td>15.00</td>
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<td>Attributes</td>
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<td>5.28</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>5.25</td>
</tr>
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<td>Anxiety</td>
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<td>Popularity</td>
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<td>6.90</td>
<td>6.50</td>
<td>7.50</td>
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<table>
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<th>Control group</th>
<th>marginal</th>
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<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self confidence</td>
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<td>46.25</td>
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<td>15.00</td>
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<td>Attributes</td>
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<td>6.14</td>
<td>4.75</td>
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<td>Anxiety</td>
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<td>8.71</td>
<td>8.37</td>
<td>10.50</td>
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<td>8.62</td>
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<tr>
<td>n</td>
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<td>8</td>
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</table>
marginally significant week (pre-post) by sex of subject interaction ($F(1,33) = 3.89, p < .06$), a week by question (item) interaction ($F(9,297) = 6.29, p < .001$), a question main effect ($F(9,297) = 5.62, p < .001$), a question by school interaction ($F(18,297) = 1.69, p < .039$), a question by sex of subject interaction ($F(9,297) = 3.27, p < .001$), a week by question by school interaction ($F(18,297) = 1.78, p < .033$) and a week by question by sex of subject interaction ($F(9,297) = .86, p < .007$).

Insert Table 5 about here

Of the significant results mentioned, only the week by question by school interaction is of particular relevance to the experimental hypothesis. An examination of difference scores taken from the cell means in Table 6 seems to indicate that four out of the ten items account for most of the reported variance. These four items will be reviewed individually.

Insert Table 6 about here

Question 1 - "In the last week, I have been playing with other kids." On this item, the experimental group registered a significant improvement ($LSD = .61 < 1.62, p < .05$) whereas, neither the placebo nor the control groups
Table 5
Analysis of Variance for
Social Events Questionnaire - Part One

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Source</th>
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<th>F</th>
<th>Prob F Exceeded</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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Table 6
Cell means for the Social Events Questionnaire - Part One *

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<th>Control group</th>
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<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
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<td>2.00</td>
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<td>2.67</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>2.54</td>
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</table>

* see Appendix B for item materials
showed such improvement.

Question 6 - "I am speaking up and letting adults (parents, teachers and others) know what I am thinking." On this item, the experimental group (LSD = .61 < .80, p < .05) improved significantly more than either the placebo or control groups.

Question 7 - "I am speaking up and letting other kids (boys) know what is on my mind." When difference scores were collapsed over the sex of the subject, results showed that the experimental group made the greatest improvement. Of particular interest, though, were the responses by sex. Responses by boys at all three schools showed little change between pre and post-test scores. However, girls at all three schools showed some improvements, with the experimental group girls (\( \bar{X}_{\text{post}} - \bar{X}_{\text{pre}} = 1.25 \)) improving more than either the placebo (\( \bar{X}_{\text{post}} - \bar{X}_{\text{pre}} = .80 \)) or control group (\( \bar{X}_{\text{post}} - \bar{X}_{\text{pre}} = .43 \)) girls.

Question 8 - "I am speaking up and letting other kids (girls) know what is on my mind." With results collapsed over the sex of subject variable, the experimental group students (LSD = .61 < 1.41, p < .05) showed significant improvement while students in the placebo (\( \bar{X}_{\text{post}} - \bar{X}_{\text{pre}} = -.16 \)) and control groups (\( \bar{X}_{\text{post}} - \bar{X}_{\text{pre}} = -.16 \)) showed decreases. In an examination of responses by sex, boys and girls in the experimental group improved more than their counterparts in the placebo or control groups. In particular, the
experimental group boys ($\bar{X}_\text{post} / \bar{X}_\text{pre} = 1.83$) showed more improvement than the girls ($\bar{X}_\text{post} / \bar{X}_\text{pre} = 1.00$).

**Part 2.** An analysis of variance was performed on this data and revealed a number of significant results. These results included a school main effect ($F(2,33) = 5.99, p < .006$), a question main effect ($F(10,330) = 2.74, p < .003$), and a marginally significant week by question interaction ($F(10,330) = 1.75, p < .07$). There were no significant results that were of particular relevance to the experimental hypothesis. The data are presented in Tables 7 and 8.

---

Pupil Rating Form. While students at all three schools were rated using the entire Pupil Rating Form (see Appendix C), only specific items that were relevant to a measure of social attributes and skills were chosen for analysis. To facilitate the statistical evaluation of these data, analyses were performed in two parts and will be reported as such in this section. Part one contains four items for which a higher score was indicative of improvement. Part two contains six items for which a lower score was indicative of improvement.

**Part one.** An analysis of variance on this data yielded two significant results: an item by sex of subject
Table 7
Analysis of Variance for the Social Events Questionnaire - Part Two

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<td>n.s.</td>
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<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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Table 8

Cell means for the Social Events Questionnaire - Part Two

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<td>5.57</td>
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interaction ($F(3,159) = 3.43, p < .018$), and an item by sex of subject by school interaction ($F(6,159) = 4.52, p < .001$). A third result, a school main effect ($F(2,53) = 2.72, p < .08$), was only marginally significant. There were no significant results that were of particular relevance to the experimental hypothesis. The data are presented in Tables 9 and 10.

Insert Tables 9 and 10 about here

Part two. Table 11 indicates the results of an analysis of variance performed on these data. There was a significant main effect for items ($F(5,265) = .859, p < .001$), a week by sex of subject interaction ($F(1,53) = 4.07, p < .049$), an item by sex of subject interaction ($F(5,265) = 3.59, p < .004$), a week by item interaction ($F(5,265) = 2.37, p < .04$), a week by item by school interaction ($F(10,265) = 2.53, p < .006$), and a week by item by sex of subject interaction ($F(5,265) = 3.33, p < .006$).

Insert Table 11 about here

Of these results, the week by item by school interaction provides the data most relevant to this study. An examination of cell means and the scores on the various
## Table 9

Cell means for the Pupil Rating Form - Part One

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<thead>
<tr>
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<td>Inhibition</td>
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<td>3.37</td>
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Table 10
Analysis of Variance for
the Pupil Rating Form - Part One

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Table 11

Analysis of Variance for
the Pupil Rating Form - Part Two

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pre and post-test measures, presented in Table 12, suggests that three of the six items contributed to most of the variance. In all three cases, results were in accord with pre-experimental predictions. That is, the experimental group demonstrated the most positive gains of all the experimental populations. Please refer to Appendix C for the scoring criteria for each of there items.

For item one, leadership, students in the experimental group ($LSD = .36 < .51, p < .05$) showed significantly greater improvement than students in the placebo and control group. In the latter case, students were rated more negatively on the post-test than on the pre-test.

On item two, self-assertion, experimental group students ($LSD = .36 < .93, p < .05$) were rated higher than placebo group students ($\bar{X}_{pre} - \bar{X}_{post} = -.38$) who were rated lower than on their pre-tests. Control group students ($\bar{X}_{pre} - \bar{X}_{post} = .09$) showed only a slight improvement that was not statistically significant.

On the final item, presentation, a measure of assertiveness, the experimental group ($LSD = .36 < .36, p < .05$) showed significantly greater improvement than either the placebo ($\bar{X}_{pre} - \bar{X}_{post} = .18$) or control groups ($\bar{X}_{pre} - \bar{X}_{post} = .15$).
pre and post-test measures, presented in Table 12, suggests that three of the six items contributed to most of the variance. In all three cases, results were in accord with pre-experimental predictions. That is, the experimental group demonstrated the most positive gains of all the experimental populations. Please refer to Appendix C for the scoring criteria for each of these items.

Insert Table 12 about here

For item one, leadership, students in the experimental group (LSD = .36 < .51, p < .05) showed significantly greater improvement than students in the placebo and control group. In the latter case, students were rated more negatively on the post-test than on the pre-test.

On item two, self-assertion, experimental group students (LSD = .36 < .93, p < .05) were rated higher than placebo group students ($\bar{X}_{pre} - \bar{X}_{post} = -.38$) who were rated lower than on their pre-tests. Control group students ($\bar{X}_{pre} - \bar{X}_{post} = .09$) showed only a slight improvement that was not statistically significant.

On the final item, presentation, a measure of assertiveness, the experimental group (LSD = .36 < .36, p < .05) showed significantly greater improvement than either the placebo ($\bar{X}_{pre} - \bar{X}_{post} = .18$) or control groups ($\bar{X}_{pre} - \bar{X}_{post} = .15$).
Table 12

Cell means for the Pupil Rating Form - Part Two

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRE-TEST</th>
<th>Experimental group</th>
<th>Placebo group</th>
<th>Control group</th>
<th>marginals</th>
</tr>
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<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
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<td>3.28</td>
<td>2.75</td>
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<tr>
<td>Assertion</td>
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<td>2.14</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.62</td>
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<td>2.12</td>
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<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>4.25</td>
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<tr>
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<td>2.85</td>
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<tr>
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<td>2.67</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>3.13</td>
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<tr>
<td>n=</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
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Handraising frequency count. An analysis of variance was performed on the handraising frequency data collected for the experimental and placebo groups, and is presented in Table 13. Three results were significant: a school main effect ($F(1,27) = 16.9, p < .001$), a week main effect ($F(3,81) = 5.27, p < .002$) and, of most importance, a week by school interaction ($F(3,81) = 2.71, p < .05$).

Fisher's LSD was used to analyze the cell means and difference scores for the week by school interaction. Results, which are presented in Table 14, were in line with expectation. As indicated in Figure 1, students in the experimental group had higher handraising frequencies than the placebo group over all observation trials, they also improved significantly more over trials. The Fisher's comparison of the first and last week's handraising frequencies shows that there was significant improvement by the experimental group ($LSD = 2.06 < .05$), while the change for the placebo group students ($LSD = 2.06 > .32, p > .05, \text{n.s.}$) was not significant. However, because the groups were unequal to begin with, conclusions from these data are necessarily limited.
Table 13
Analysis of Variance for the Handraising Frequency Count

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Prob F Exceeded</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental condition  (S)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>356.60</td>
<td>16.95</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex of Subject (X)</td>
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<td>14.23</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SX</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>45.22</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Error</td>
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<td>21.03</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Pre-post (P)</td>
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<td>22.74</td>
<td>5.27</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11.68</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>.051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PX</td>
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</tr>
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<td>PSX</td>
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<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>4.31</td>
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Table 14
Cell means for the Handraising Frequency Count

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<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 2</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Week 4</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Week 6</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>5.71</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Week 8</td>
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<td>7.14</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>0.75</td>
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<tr>
<td>marginals</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n=</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>31</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
FIGURE 1

Mean handraising frequency over treatment weeks

- CHESTERFIELD (EXP'L)
- GOSHEN (CONTROL)
CHAPTER IV
DISCUSSION

The present study was conducted to test the effects of an educationally oriented program of social skills training for normal preadolescent youngsters as compared with a placebo discussion group and a no-contact control group. It was hypothesized that this program would establish or improve existing social skills on both behavioral and cognitive levels to a greater degree than that obtained by subjects given a placebo treatment and no treatment.

Results on the two social attribute inventories, the Jesness Inventory and the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale, suggest that the experimental subjects given the Social Skills Training Program for Preadolescents significantly improved their scores on pro-social measures while reducing scores on asocial and anti-social measures. Responses by the experimental group to the Jesness Inventory indicated a significant decrease in reported alienation, social withdrawal and social anxiety.

The most substantial decrease was in the area of social anxiety, the cognitive component which has been repeatedly demonstrated to be most responsible for social alienation and withdrawal (Curran, 1975; Gilbert, 1975).

It is not surprising, then, that a decrease in social inhibition would be accompanied by an increase in pro-social
tendencies. Results on the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale demonstrate this relationship. On a measure of social anxiety, similar to that of the Jesness Inventory, a significant decrease was noted while other scales of popularity, social behavior and self-concept showed improvement. Thus, on a cognitive level, after the presentation of the educational program, experimental subjects thought of themselves as being more socially involved and more popular with other youngsters.

The reduction in socially related anxiety as described and the increased disposition towards social activity is reflected by responses on the Social Events Questionnaire. For subjects in the experimental group, there was a significant increase in assertiveness, both in informal and the more structured social situation. Youngsters who participated in the experimental program were more assertive with adults, as well as with other children according to their own reports. Similarly, these youngsters also reported that they felt more at ease in classroom situations, both in asking and answering questions.

These self-report data are further substantiated by the increased frequency of handraising as reported by the student's teachers. Students in this group displayed handraising frequencies which were significantly greater ($p < .05$) than the placebo group. This increase was also significant over time trials between groups, suggesting
a cumulative effect of training and practice in assertiveness and social awareness (ie., verbal and nonverbal social feedback). Comparisons of pupil ratings by the teachers of the three populations supported these self-report and behavioral observations. The experimental group students received higher ratings on measures of leadership, self-assertion, popularity and presentation.

Clearly, the statistics indicate that the experimental group showed the greatest improvement over pre-test scores. Results indicate that change was effected on both a cognitive level of functioning as well as on a behavioral level. The nature of this change involved both a reduction of anti-social and asocial characteristics as well as an improvement of pro-social characteristics.

There were a number of sub-scales and questionnaire items on which there was little or no difference between the three schools. These included the social withdrawal and immaturity sub-scales on the Jesness Inventory, the behavior and attributes sub-scales of the Piers-Harris Scale, and the confidence, inhibition and attention items on the Pupil Rating Form. The significant differences that did occur were all in accord with the experimental hypothesis. Furthermore, it should be noted that there were significant, predicted results on all of the dependent measures.

In addition to the results which directly addressed
the hypothesis, there was an interesting and unexpected finding. Specifically, there were significant sex effects in both the pre-post comparisons within the subject groups and between subject groups for several of the dependent measures. Responses to the Jesness Inventory, the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale, the Social Events Questionnaire, and the Pupil Rating Form were effected by the sex of the subject. For each of the three populations, girls tended to score or be rated significantly higher than boys on both the pre-tests and the post-tests. Furthermore, girls in the experimental group tended to show greater improvement over time than did the boys. This finding is in line with popular expectations of girls as more "mature" and "serious" than boys of the preadolescent age group. Early research on sex factors and socialization (Deutsch, 1944; Douvan & Kaye, 1956) support this observation, suggesting that the younger girl's dependency on her parents and her willingness to adopt their expectations of her account for this "mature" behavior. Conversely, these researchers claim that the boy's strivings for independence interfere with appropriate and expected social conformity. However, it is important to point out that very little current, empirical data exists against which to compare these data.

During the program, girls did tend to be more serious about the class. They generally volunteered to answer
questions and to participate in role playing more often than the boys. Also, the girls were more inclined to keep their workbooks/diaries up to date and were more reliable in completing homework assignments. However, given that girls in the placebo and control groups also fared better than the boys in their groups, evidence does seem to indicate that for this age group, girls tend to be somewhat more psycho-socially sophisticated than boys.

Several factors which might have improved this study became apparent both during and after completion of the intervention program. Most important of these factors were the difficulties encountered in trying to hold and maintain interest levels during the class sessions. As depicted in Figure 1, illustrating the handraising frequencies over the span of the program, the instructional content and procedures, in the first two weeks of training, were still novel and cultivated the interested of the students. However, in the third and fourth weeks, it appeared that the novelty of this "new" class began to decline and interest, according to the number of handraises and observations by staff, was waning. In response, the program staff reorganized the structure of the class by (a) decreasing the time spent on any one topic or technique, (b) increasing the pace of the class (ie., doing more and different activities), and (c) increasing the emphasis placed on the
small group format which provided far more direct contact be ween staff and students and increased the amout of interaction between students. Response by the students to these changes was almost immediate. There was a rapid increase in participation and enthusiasm for the classes. The handraising frequencies for the fifth and sixth weeks tends to reflect this observation.

Although not implemented in this study, there are several other features which might have been successful in increasing interest and, possibly, improving the overall effect of the SSTP-P. The use of such visual aids as films, television, puppet theater, etc. as part of an instructional package for this type of program has recently been suggested by a number of investigators (Durlak & Mannarino, 1977; Stone, Hinds & Schmidt, 1975).

The teachers connected with the program suggested that the class be held only once a week, but extended over a longer period of time. This expansion would allow the youngsters more time to adequately integrate these newly developed or refined social behaviors into their existing social repertoires. It would also allow the youngsters and staff to deal with more and varied issues of both a developmental and personal nature. Thus, the program could become more personalized as to the needs of the children and their skill in acquiring new behaviors.

The teachers generally felt that they would have liked
to play a greater role in the program. For reasons of experimental design and assessment purposes, the teachers agreed to be excluded from participation in the program. However, the teachers were an invaluable aid in the assessment procedures and in providing on-going feedback concerning the observable effects of the program on the youngsters. Clearly, more teacher input would have helped in personalizing the program and in expediting the program's assimilation into the school curriculum. Thus, it would be important to include the teachers in the design and implementation of future programs.

As mentioned earlier, additional means of data collection and different types of data would be an important addition to this program. As discussed, a measure of observable negative behaviors would be helpful in assessing the effect of this program's capacity to reduce asocial or anti-social behaviors. Frequency counts of such behaviors as arguing, fighting, interruptions and other types of disruptions would be useful.

Another source of empirical data would be a measure of frequency, style and content of social reinforcers used by the children with adults and other children. This type of data would provide important information as to the development and sophistication of communicational feedback skills. These skills have already been demonstrated to be essential to the development of effective communication.

The effect of the SSTP-P intervention on the experimental subjects can be attributed to several important aspects of the program. First, the program was designed to meet the needs and expectations of these preadolescent youngsters. Care was taken to integrate issues and everyday problems that were relevant and appropriate to the age and level of these youngster's psycho-social development. In keeping with this intent, opinions and examples of topic material were solicited from the boys and girls and were utilized as a basis for modeling and behavior rehearsal skits.

A second important feature of this program is that it was intended to be enjoyable. The primary goal of the SSTP-P was to be educational and therapeutic, but the element of enjoyment was always a consideration in program design and implementation. This approach maintained interest levels and increased cooperation both in class and on homework assignments. The tone of the lectures and classroom dialogue and the non-competitive structure of class interactions contributed to this spirit. Verbal reports from the teachers in the experimental school indicated that the class was a popular one.

Another feature of this program was the importance placed on the training and use of communicational
reinforcers. It became evident in the early weeks of the program that these youngsters responded very well to verbal and nonverbal cues of reinforcement. However, it also became apparent that a number of the students did not adequately incorporate similar cues effectively and/or appropriately into their daily interactions. Thus, specific instruction in encoding and decoding verbal and nonverbal cues of reinforcement became an important part of each day's lesson plan. Observations over the week of the program indicated that the students were becoming more proficient in the use of communicational reinforcements and in providing feedback to other communicators. Unfortunately, empirical data on the use of reinforcements and feedback were not collected.

It is also important to mention that the instructional procedures used in the program seemed well suited for this population. The short lecture session at the beginning of each class was ideal for the introduction of and review of program material. It also allowed for dialogue and interaction in a large class format and provided a setting for role playing and modeling. In the small group format, the techniques of modeling, role playing and behavior rehearsal were easily learned by the youngsters. These techniques became popular with the students and contributed to sustaining interest and cooperation.

Finally, one of the strongest features of this program
was the ease with which it was assimilated into the elementary school curriculum. The instruction of research assistants for this project, which included the instructional techniques as well as readings and discussions, required approximately ten hours of preparation. This suggests that the possibility of training paraprofessionals and school personnel to implement a similar program is a viable one. Furthermore, the actual time spent by the children in the program, which totaled 18 hours over a ten week period, was considered, by the school administrators, to be a minimal time investment in light of the potential benefits of the program.

Conclusion

It appears that a prevention oriented program of social skills training could be an important addition to our existing educational structure. A program like the Social Skills Training Program for Preadolescents (SSTP-P) is an attempt to integrate psycho-social and affective development with intellectual growth. This study, in particular, is seen as an explorational endeavor (a) to assess if a program of this nature can be justified in terms of its short and long term effects, and (b) to promote the desing of an efficient and effective intervention. Within this framework, this study was successful in providing an empirically-based foundation for further research and development of a prevention oriented program for social skills training.
Footnotes

1 Concrete operations refers to lower order, basic logic involving such processes as classification, seriation and correspondences relating directly to objects and not to verbally stated hypothesis.

2 A lower score of the Jesness Inventory is indicative of a lower asocial or anti-social rating.

3 Because a lower score is equated with a more positive rating, the \((\bar{X}_{pre} - \bar{X}_{post} = \_\_\_\_\_\_\_)\) formula was used to increase the efficiency of analysis.
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MANUAL FOR
THE SOCIAL SKILLS TRAINING PROGRAM
- PREADOLESCENTS -

DON P. SUGAI

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY
UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS, AMHERST
DECEMBER, 1976
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OBJECTIVE

The purpose of this social skills training program is to supplement and encourage those naturally occurring socialization processes of the family, the school, and other agents of social development. It is also intended that this program provide a forum for the objective discussion of issues related to psycho-social development. Thus, this program can be most functional when employed as a central coordinating element; that is, when it draws from and contributes to the processes of the primary agents of socialization in the formulation and implementation of an effective program of social skills development.
The operational definition of social skills as it applies to this program refers to the repertoires of social behaviors that, when applied to social interaction, will tend to elicit social reinforcement and encourage a positive interaction outcome. In addition, the skills include the ability of the individual to effectively incorporate his/her social behavior repertoire into a variety of social situations in which interaction is essential.

A large body of research stressing the relationship between social skills deficits and psychiatric disorder has already earmarked social skills as a crucial and necessary component of an individual's knowledge. To date, the importance of social skills training as a psycho-therapeutic device has been consistently confirmed (Zigler and Phillips, 1960, 1962; Argyris, 1965, 1969; Libet and Lewinsohn, 1973). However, given the consensual importance of social-behavioral proficiency with regard to successful psycho-social maturation, it is surprising that more emphasis has not been directed towards social skills training as part of the on-going developmental process, particularly with pre-adolescent youth.

It would appear that a program of this nature is a logical response to the void created by existing social
skills training programs. Two points serve as rationale in support of this claim. First, this proposed program approaches social skills training from an educational perspective focusing on a preventative oriented type of instruction as opposed to the current treatment/therapy model which is employed after the individual has already begun to manifest interpersonal behavioral disorders.

The second point emphasizes the value of social skills training that is chronologically accurate in regards to the individual's developmental process. The preadolescent age group was chosen for instruction because the developmental theories of Piaget and Inhelder (1969), Erikson (1950), and Kohlberg (1969) stress the importance of social development during the ages of nine through thirteen years.

Thus, this program offers in-depth instruction in social-interpersonal skills from an educational perspective. Care has been taken to formulate a program that not only addresses the specific and immediate needs of the preadolescent-aged youngster, but will also equip him/her with a useful and adaptive means by which to respond to novel and ever-changing social situations. Furthermore, the staff and facilities of the program are available to aid in establishing useful informational exchange between parents, school personnel, and other concerned agencies with regard to specific social-developmental issues.
BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES

Immediate effects: It is expected that upon completion of this social skills training program, the student will:

1. demonstrate an ability to be more assertive in interactions with others (i.e., peers, parents, other adults)
   a. to be more critical, yet constructive, when necessary;
   b. to be able to actively pursue personal interests where communicating is essential.

2. overcome most forms of social anxiety by reducing inhibition due to real or perceived feelings of interpersonal (social) incompetence.

3. demonstrate an ability to be a more effective communicator via the mastery of basic rules of interpersonal communication.

4. become more sensitive and tolerant of others as the result of increased, frank communication.

Long term effects: It is expected, in the years following completion of this program, that students/individuals will:
A Theoretical Basis

The social skills training program is intended to be an addition to already existing social environments from which the individual learns and develops social behaviors and in which he can experiment with these behaviors. It is this experimentation by the developing individual with the social environment that has attracted behaviorally oriented theorists and researchers in increasing numbers over the last two decades.

Beginning with the works of Miller and Dollard (1941) investigating theories of social learning and learning through imitation and Skinner's (1948, 1953) theories of social behavior, up to the current adherents of the social learning approach (e.g., Hefferline, 1962; Lazarus, 1963; Lundin, 1969; Ullman & Krasner, 1965), a scientifically based effort has been made to analyze and understand the development and metamorphosis of social behavior. In addition, the early 1960's gave rise to the pioneering efforts of Wolpe (Wolpe, Salter, & Reyna, 1964) and other behavior therapists in developing behaviorally oriented therapy techniques for social oriented disorders.

In reviewing the literature concerning behaviorally oriented research into social development, social skills
1. develop an ability to adapt to or contend with novel or crisis situations involving interpersonal communication abilities (i.e., with bosses, colleagues, spouses).

2. develop an ability to communicate personal problems, sources of anxiety, or interpersonal tension with appropriate others before problems get out of hand.

3. demonstrate to others, by example, the importance of social communicational skill.
and social deficits, a consistency of experimental design becomes evident and serves as a basis for this social skills training program. Two points that underscore the previous research become salient. The first point was made by Hersen and Bellack (1974) who said that the "most outstanding feature of the behavioral...(approach) ... in general, is its one-to-one relationship between diagnosis and treatment... (as differentiated from the)... traditional approach in which there frequently exists a vague and undefined relationship between the diagnostic process and the ensuing therapy (pg. 3)."

In this program, this first point is applied to our conceptualization of social skills training, in which a one-to-one relationship exists between the assessment and targeting of significant, critical, and fundamental interactional skills and the instruction and shaping of social behavior repertoires in order that these skills may be attained.

The second point emphasizes the importance of sound, scientific, and empirical assessment procedures. Specifically, with regard to this program, accurate assessment of social development serves two purposes: (a.) to measure and assess the extent of social development as a pre-and post-evaluation of program effectiveness, and (b.) to assess the individual's progression through the various
components of the program. This second point will be addressed in greater detail in a later section.

Thus, in adhering to a behavioral orientation, this program will attempt to encourage and facilitate social development in a manner that is both scientific and sensitive to the environment and needs of the preadolescent youth involved in this program.
Instructors and Aides

The staffing of the social skills training program is comprised of a program instructor and a variable number of teaching assistants, depending on the number of students in the program. Several criteria are offered as being important in the selection of the program instructor. These include: (a.) familiarity with social learning theory and the behaviorally oriented instructional techniques to be employed in this program; (b.) familiarity and sensitivity to the specific social, cultural, and economic environments from which the youngsters in the program come; (c.) skills in administering a program such as this; and (d.) an ability to work with youngsters.

The duties of the instructor involve the implementation of the training program and the coordination of aides and other personnel (school officials) in the process. Specifically, the responsibilities of the program instructor are as follows:

1. to organize and coordinate testing and assessment procedures for pre- and posttests.

2. to select aides and direct the ensuing education of the aides in the theories behind and structure of the program.

3. to educate the aides in the techniques and methods of social skills instruction, and to supervise their performance during the program.
4. to lecture and/or lead classroom discussions.

5. to serve as an administrator within the school system. This involves keeping communication open with parents, counselors, teachers and other school personnel.

6. to serve as a resource person for the students' parents and school personnel if difficulties or questions arise.

In addition to the program instructor, aides are a necessary part of the program staff. There should be approximately one aid for every four or five students enrolled in the program. Criteria for aide selection should include: (a.) familiarity and sensitivity to the specific social, cultural, and economic environments in which they will be working; (b.) an ability to work with youngsters; and (c.) some familiarity with the theory and mechanisms of a social learning approach. To facilitate this last point, two books are recommended that provide excellent background and source material. These are:


The primary duty of the program aide is to work directly with the students by translating lecture and discussion materials into a variety of learning techniques, and supervising student participation in these activities. Specifically, the responsibilities of the program aide include:

1. assisting in the administration of all test and assessment procedures.

2. implementing techniques of social skills instruction directly with the students.

3. serving as a monitor, as well as a resource person for students who are having difficulty, and with whom students can discuss issues and personal questions.

4. soliciting and identifying relevant problem situations as noted by the students.
Instructional Methods and Formats

Several techniques and formats comprise the instructional package for this social skills program. These methods were chosen for their applicability to youngsters and congruency with a behavioral training format.

Lecture and discussion format

The instructor will begin each new unit of instruction with a lecture covering the materials within that unit. The lecture is intended to familiarize students with the details of one segment of social behaviors and to lay the groundwork for active student participation in learning this material.

A class discussion serves as an immediate follow-up to the lecture and allows students to (a.) ask specific questions about material that they are unsure of; (b.) provide alternative views on material they may not agree with; and (c.) present relevant and common problem situations that will provide material for other procedures. This discussion session should include the instructor and aides in addition to the students.

Small group format

The rationale for using a small group format is twofold. First, "in...(smaller)... groups of three to
five, students have a chance to relate anecdotes, express feelings, and receive and give support... Students will frequently share with two or three what they will not share in a larger group (Hrouska & Popper, 1974, p. 7)."

Second, the small group format allows the instructor and aides to supervise closely training techniques to insure the proper use and integration into classroom activities. Furthermore, this close supervision allows for immediate corrective feedback and social reinforcement.

**Social reinforcement**

Social reinforcement, by definition, refers to "a conditioned reinforcing stimulus mediated by another individual within a social context (Sulzer & Mayer, 1971)." Research has consistently demonstrated that social reinforcement is an effective mechanism in the development and shaping of behavior (Ferster, 1958; Keller & Schoenfeld, 1950; Rheingold, Gewitz, & Ross, 1959). In this program, the instructor and aides will employ social reinforcement to reward and emphasize positive (i.e., successful) selection and portrayal of social behaviors. Furthermore, students will be instructed in the use of social reinforcement and encouraged to reinforce each other socially for appropriate social behaviors in and out of the classroom. Social reinforcement, in this case, primarily takes the form of verbal reinforcement (e.g.,
"that was good", "that was very nicely done", "excellent", "you're getting much better") and nonverbal signals of approval, including smiles and head nods.

Modeling

From a very early age, we are reinforced for imitating and appropriate behavior of others, usually parents and other adults. Thus, these adults serve as models from whom we can learn new behaviors, to increase the frequency of "positive" behaviors and to extinguish "negative" behaviors (Bandura, 1968). Similarly, teachers, older children, and peers become important models for the developing youngster (Bandura, Grusec, & Menlove, 1967; Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1964; Lundin, 1969).

In this program, the instructor and aides serve as models for social behaviors. Specifically, the instruction staff will develop skits portraying common types of social interactions that will incorporate the social behaviors being instructed. Each skit will elaborate on the cues and signals that elicit responses, and the type of social behaviors that will appropriately serve as those responses. Typically, an appropriate social behavior will be one that is socially reinforced, because it effectively responds to a social cue. Thus, by observing the models, the student will develop an understanding and behavioral rendition of these social
cues and social responses. The student should then be prepared to practice these behaviors that he/she has observed and imitate the social interactions of the model(s) through the use of role-playing.

**Role-playing**

Role-playing, also referred to as behavior rehearsal, structures the practice or imitation of social behaviors that have been modeled (Wolpe, 1973). Primarily, during role-playing, the student assumes the role of the model and attempts to imitate the same social behaviors he/she has been observing. Initially, the model (the instructor or aide) will coach the student in imitating the behavior by providing corrective feedback and social reinforcement. Furthermore, by having students role-play a behavior that was previously unfamiliar to them, they are encouraged to experience the operational value of that behavior in terms of social reinforcement. Thus, reinforcer sampling (Wisocki, 1976) may also occur.

**Corrective feedback**

In using corrective feedback (Gutridge, Goldstein, & Hauter, 1973; McFall & Lillesand, 1975), the instructor points out the flaws or discrepancies in the students' imitation of the behavior, and describes the appropriate behavior. Corrective feedback can take the form of verbal
and nonverbal instruction, modeling, and monitoring of video tapes. Thus, through the use of corrective feedback, the students' performance begins to approach the behaviors that have been modeled. Corrective feedback together with social reinforcement play an important role in shaping the behaviors that the student is learning.

**Covert behavior rehearsal and reinforcement**

Covert rehearsal and reinforcement (Cautela, 1970) will serve as a regular component in in-session practices and homework assignments. This procedure is to be employed when the student displays competency during in-session rehearsal of the newly learned behaviors correctly in response to the appropriate cues two or three times in succession during in-session behavior rehearsal.

The student will be presented with several brief, written scenes that incorporate the target social behavior as part of a common social interaction. Furthermore, the scene will include appropriate and agreed upon (by staff and students) social reinforcement by one of the "imaginary" interactors that is contingent upon the use of the target social behavior in the interaction. The student will be instructed to imagine his friends, parents, teachers, and other adults as the other person(s) in the interaction.
Thus, the student will rehearse, in imagination, the behavior he has been practicing in the classroom. In addition, the student will be socially reinforced by the other interactor(s) in the imaginary scene for his successful integration of the newly learned behavior into the social interaction. The covert social reinforcement will consist of the same types of reinforcers described in the previous section on social reinforcement. Covert rehearsal and reinforcement should be practiced several times daily (three to five times) including initial in-session supervision of the covert rehearsal procedure.

Class workbook and diary

Beginning with the first week of instruction, students should be encouraged to keep notes of material covered during class sessions. These notes can be kept in a workbook format (college exam bluebooks serve the purpose) and are used for reviews of class material, for homework, and for in-class assignments. In addition to providing the student with a digest of the instructional material, it can also help in personalizing the social skills training program by allowing students to include personally relevant examples of lesson material.

Word of the week

After the first week of instruction, a series of
"word of the week" features will be added to the program. One day each week a word will be introduced in the class lecture that students would include in their workbooks as the "word of the week". These vocabulary words will be relevant to the material being covered during a particular week, and will serve to highlight a particular theme of the social skills curriculum. The procedure for introduction of the word of the week should include a brief definition of the term and examples of its usage. In addition, students should be encouraged to use these words during the week and to look for examples of the word's characterization in their school, home, and play environments.
THE SOCIAL SKILLS TRAINING PROGRAM

- PREADOLESCENTS -
PART I: SOCIAL NORMS AND VALUES

Social norms are definitions of expected behavior(s) in specified situations that are established and maintained by social groups. Thus, in any social group or society, there exist social norms that reflect expectations of dress, language, social interactions, and conduct (Akers, 1973). Generally, the failure to present oneself or perform within the socially designated limits of those norms is viewed as social deviancy and the extent of deviance is related to the degree that one's behaviors fall outside of these limits.

Social values, on the other hand, serve as a more general guideline, as a philosophical basis upon which definitions for normative behaviors are established. Thus, social values can best be understood as social-philosophical trends of thinking, whereas social norms are the behavioral concommitants of these current trends. Accordingly, lack of familiarity or grasp of social values is often manifested in behaviors that are not in agreement with social norms, and therefore, are considered socially deviant. An individual may not be in ideological agreement with current social values, but this does not necessarily imply deviancy, for his behaviors can still be within the limits of social norms.

In designing a training program focused on establishing and developing social behaviors, it becomes clear that the
first order of business is to orient the program and all those involved in it to an understanding of the social norms and values that will play an important role in shaping the program. Furthermore, a fusion of the social norms and values as construed by the adult staff of the program and a sensitivity to the views of the students in the program serve as an excellent basis from which to begin social skills training.

Previous research indicates that a lecture and discussion format is an effective method for education of students in the areas of social norms and values (Bullis, 1952; Ojemann, 1955; William, 1966). This format will be used to launch the training program by focusing on three areas that are particularly subject to social norms and values -- hygiene (including dress), etiquette, and the rules of interaction.
Lesson 1: Personal Hygiene and Dress

A class discussion on hygiene and dress is a convenient starting point for the program. Initially, it will give the students and the staff the opportunity to interact on a topic that everyone should be familiar with, which should serve to encourage participation in discussion. Allow students time during instruction to enter notes into their class notebooks.

Instructional procedure

Personal hygiene.
1. Define personal hygiene and provide examples (e.g., cleanliness, grooming, brushing your teeth).
2. Solicit examples from the class.
3. Discuss examples and how the topic of personal hygiene relates to social acceptance (e.g., "Would you rather talk with/be friends with a person who looks/smells dirty or who is not neat?")

Dress code.
1. Define what is meant by the term "dress code".
2. Solicit examples of types of dress codes (e.g., school codes, at church, at home).
3. Discuss with the class the school's dress code (e.g., "Why are dress codes necessary in school?" "What might happen if there were no dress codes?")
Assignment

1. Please discuss personal hygiene at home with your parents. Add two more examples of hygiene to your list of class examples.

2. Set up an imaginary dress code for:
   a. people working in a department store
   b. people working in a restaurant; or
   c. teachers in your school.

   Explain why you chose this dress code for these people.
Lesson 2: Etiquette and the Rules of Interaction

The "etiquette" described in this lesson plan is intended to include such things as common courtesies and socially proper behavior. The main thrust of this lesson plan, however, is in the area of communicational etiquette, otherwise known as the rules of interaction. Specifically, these rules serve to "create regular patterns of interactions, so that the behavior of other people is ...(somewhat)...predictable, and social encounters proceed more smoothly" (Argyle, 1969, p. 85). Familiarity and an understanding of these rules by the student will prepare him/her for the next section of social skills training, which deals with verbally oriented social interactions. Primarily, these rules include Argyle's first level requirements for verbal interaction--agreement on the content of the interaction, timing of verbalizations, and synchronizing speech between participants. These are in addition to the etiquette oriented rules that pertain to interruptions, attention to speaker(s), termination of interaction, etc.

A more complete list of the rules of interaction and conversational etiquette has been taken, in large part, from a list of areas that Argyle (1966) specified as being essential to the synchronization and coordination of an interaction. These are:
1. Rules concerning adherence to the content (topic) of the interaction:
   a. agreement on the topic of discussion.
   b. how to change the topic appropriately.
   c. how to introduce topics.

2. Rules concerning the mechanics of conversation:
   a. the timing of speech.
   b. avoid long pauses.
   c. avoid interruptions.

3. Responses and initiations should be sequentially appropriate:
   a. respond to the immediate initiation.
   b. respond and address other initiations before making a new initiation.

4. Rules concerning interaction and role relationships:
   a. how to speak with a parent, teacher, or other adult.
   b. when is formality and intimacy appropriate?

Additional rules of etiquette in conversation can be found in numerous books dealing with communicational etiquette in our society, for example:


PART II: THE SKILLS OF VERBAL INTERACTION

Communications that accompany our daily interactions with others occur implicitly as nonverbal and paralinguistic signals and cues as well as explicit verbal interplay. Recent investigations into dyadic and group interactions have indicated the importance of competence in both the implicit and explicit communications forms (Argyle, 1966; Condon & Ogston, 1966; Sugai, 1975; Watzlawick, Beavin, & Jackson, 1967). The remainder of this program will emphasize the various aspects of both communication forms, separately and in combination. Thus, in this section, we will deal with verbal interactional skills under the general classification of assertiveness, which will include such integrants as diplomacy and tact. The final section, Part III, of this instructional program will cover implicit communicational skills and their relationship to verbal communication.
ASSERTIVENESS

By definition, assertiveness refers to the ability to be able to communicate thoughts and feelings in an honest and candid manner. Recently, behaviorally oriented researchers (Fensterheim, 1972; Lazarus, 1971; Salter, 1949; Weinman, Gelbart, Wallace, & Post, 1972; Wolpe, 1958; Wolpe & Lazarus, 1966) have focused on assertiveness as an important therapeutic goal, and have indicated deficiencies in assertiveness to be related to a large and varied number psychological complaints. Two primary benefits have been cited as arising from increased assertiveness: (a.) Wolpe (1958, 1969) claimed that assertiveness was functional in inhibiting psychosocially based anxiety that might occur during interactions; and (b.) that greater assertiveness on the part of any individual would tend to increase the likelihood for social and material reinforcement.

In returning to our educational format for social skills development, the training of assertiveness is useful in teaching youngsters to express a variety of feelings, ranging from resentment and hostility to the more positive feelings, such as joy and affection. In addition to relating assertiveness to this spectrum of emotions, it will be necessary to focus our training on four specific areas—peer interaction, mixed-sex interactions, atatus-difference interactions, and group interactions.
Each of the following units will cover one of the above four interactional groupings. Each unit will concentrate on instructional procedures for assertive training with a specific grouping. Furthermore, units are arranged in a hierarchial fashion such that the more simple interactions, like peer interactions, will be covered first. The rationale for this format is based on the importance of establishing success experience both in the learning process and in the in-vivo social experimentation.
UNIT 1: ASSERTIVENESS IN PEER INTERACTIONS

Lesson 3: Introduction

The next several paragraphs offer an example of the instructor's introduction of Assertiveness in Peer Interactions. A step-by-step instructional procedure, which includes the example introduction follows:

Today we are going to talk about the kinds of things that happen, and sometimes don't happen, when you get together to talk or hang around with your friends here in school, at home, and with other kids that are your age. These kids that I'm talking about are your peers, which means that they are around your age and have a home and family life a little like yours. So (name) everyone else in this room is your peer; just as you, (name), are (name)'s peer, okay?

Now, today we want to talk about what happens when you get together with your friends and other kids your age and things happen when they do something that you really like, or you really get mad about. Sometimes you might scream and yell; you might run away; you might want to fight; or you just might forget about the whole thing. We're going to talk about how to say what is on your mind to another kid or group of kids so that you feel better or good about what happened without getting
into a fight or losing a friend. You might even want to tell a friend that he or she is a good friend and that you really like being his or her friend. For example, here's something that happens sometimes that will show you what I am talking about. Pretend that you are standing in line for lunch and someone "cuts" in front of you.

FIRST AIDE: "Hey, Tom, come up here in line!"
SECOND AIDE: (as Tom) "Oh, good, I hate waiting in line."
YOU: (might say) "If you cut, I'm going to tell on you."
(and seem like a big cry baby) or
YOU: (might say) "If you don't get out of here, you'll be sorry!" (and maybe get into a fight) or, you might not say anything and feel stupid or maybe feel like a "chicken". But what you should say is something like this:

YOU: "Hey, Tom, it's not fair to me or anyone else if you cut. The line isn't that long. Tomorrow you should rush to lunch like we did."

Another example would be something like this. Pretend that a friend of yours or a classmate painted a picture or made something that you really like.

AIDE: (as other student) "Hey, look at my painting!"
YOU: (might say) "Yeah, it's OK." or
YOU: (might say) "I can do better than that!" or
YOU: (might say) "Aw, that's really dumb."
But what you should say to keep him/her a friend, or maybe to make a new friend is:

YOU: "That's really nice. How did you do that?" or maybe, YOU: "Wow, I really like that. Could you show me how to do it?"

Do you all know what I mean? What are some other situations like this?

Instructional procedure

1. Define assertiveness and provide examples.
2. Define peer interaction and provide examples.
3. Provide examples of assertiveness in peer interactions (e.g., assertiveness in expressing anger, sadness, joy, affections, and other emotions and thoughts).
4. Demonstrate examples of both successful assertiveness and failure in being assertive.
5. Have the class participate in developing a list of common problems and situations involving peer interactions in which assertiveness would be useful (9 to 12 examples).
6. Have the class rank the list of examples for difficulty and extent of risk involved--1 for easy situations, 2 for moderately difficult situations, and 3 for difficult situations. A suggested list of examples of assertiveness in peer interactions divided into three degrees of difficulty appears in Appendix A.
Assignment

Ask the students in class to observe their peers at home or in other classes at school and to write down examples in which the boy/girl was assertive or should have been assertive. Instruct the students to include the outcome of the interaction in their write-ups.
Lesson 4: Rehearsal of Assertiveness in Peer Interactions--Easy and Moderately Difficult Situations

This lesson plan is the second in a series of three lesson plans dealing with the topic of assertiveness in peer interactions. Before starting today's lesson plan, check to see if there are any questions or confusion about the previous plan. For the sample list of peer interactions in which assertiveness would be useful, please refer to Appendix A.

Word of the week
"Assertive(ness)"

Instructional procedure

1. Have the staff members role play one example from both the easy and moderately difficult situations taken from the class list. Portray both the proper use of assertiveness and the consequences of failing to be assertive.

2. Introduce the notion of social reinforcement as related to the proper use of or lack of assertiveness.

3. Invite class discussion on the skits (role-played examples). Include discussion on the social reinforcers used and their role.

4. Divide the class into small groups, each with its own staff supervisor for rehearsal of the easy situations.
5. Start by having students rehearse the same example role played by the staff earlier in the large class format. Follow with discussion.

6. Use behavior rehearsal with the remaining examples from the easy category of the list of situations. Incorporate corrective feedback and social reinforcement as instructional techniques.

7. Continue these procedures until students display competence in being assertive in these mock situations, showing successful performance in two or three practice situations. Question students to see if any confusion or uncertainty exists.

8. Repeat this procedure for the rehearsal of the moderately difficult situations (Steps 4 through 7).

Assignment

Upon completion of this lesson, students should be assigned scenes to practice covertly. Each student should perform this assignment by him/herself at home or in school. The procedure for this method is described in detail on page 120. An example of a scene for this lesson for the moderately difficult situation is shown in Appendix B.
Lesson 5: Rehearsal Assertiveness in Peer Interactions—The Difficult Situations

This lesson plan is the last in a series of three lesson plans dealing with the topic of assertiveness in peer interactions. Before starting today's plan, please check to see if the students have any questions about material covered earlier. Also, as a reference, a sample list of peer interactions in which assertiveness would be useful is provided in Appendix A.

Instructional procedure

1. Have staff members portray an interaction from the difficult category of the class list. Portray both the appropriate use of assertiveness and the consequences of failing to be assertive.

2. Discuss both the inappropriate and the proper response with the class. Point out the advantages of being properly assertive and include the notion of social consequence and reinforcement.

3. Break into the small group format for behavior rehearsal of the difficult category from the class list.

4. Start by having students rehearse the same example role played by the staff earlier in the large class format. Follow with discussion.

5. Use behavior rehearsal with the remaining examples from the difficult category of the list of situations. Incorporate corrective feedback and social
reinforcement as instructional aids.

6. Continue these procedures until students display competence in being assertive in these mock situations. Question students to see if any confusion or uncertainty exists.

7. Upon completion of the last set of social interactions, the instructor can open the class to a discussion on assertiveness and peer interactions. This time can be used to (a.) review interactions with which there might have been some difficulty, (b.) solicit examples of unique and/or personal problems encountered in peer interactions (perhaps by anonymous suggestion forms), and (c.) "play a game" involving impromptu skits in which students can be rated for degree of competency in being appropriately assertive.

Note: Examples 11 and 12 in the sample list of peer interactions involve interactions with groups of peers, as opposed to the dyadic peer interactions. Inhibition and anxiety which might be brought on by peer interactions might be compounded in group interactions, and thus, contribute to the difficulty of these situations.

Assignment

Have students rehearse additional situations of the difficult category each day. Covert rehearsal would be
appropriate for this assignment and can be done at home. Students should be provided with written examples of these situations for rehearsal. An example of a scene from this lesson that can be used with covert rehearsal appears in Appendix B.
Lesson 6: Introduction

Status-differences generally refer to the hierarchical structures that develop within groups, according to which status level is attributed to an individual or group of individuals. These status-differences are derived from such variables as the extent to which an individual is held in esteem or affection, an individual's power based on his ability to influence others, and on an individual's age and authority (Argyle, 1969). Thus, in working with the preadolescent population in this program, the primary status-difference interactions that we will focus on are the child-adult type. These child-adult interactions include interactions with parents, teachers, counselors, and other adults. Although interactions with parents are probably the most frequent and of greater consequence, other adults have been included in this section because research from several sources has concluded that preadolescent children tend to generalize social relationships from their parents to other adults (Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswik, Levinsohn, & Sanford, 1950; Arghle, 1969; Mussen, Conger, & Kagan, 1967).

The next several paragraphs offer an example of the instructor's introduction of Assertiveness in Status Difference
Interactions, the focus of the next three lesson plans.
A step-by-step instructional procedure, which includes the sample introduction, follows.

This week we're going to start talking about how you talk or say things to your parents, your teachers, or other adults that you might see from time to time. As I'm sure you know, you can't really talk to adults just like you talk to other kids. Can you explain why this is so?

Now, what makes talking to adults different from talking with your peers is that they are of a different status. This means that they are in a position of authority, and that they are the ones who are in control of things. Because of this, we are expected to treat them with more respect than we usually do with other kids. For example, if an adult does or says something to you that you are not happy with, you can't jump or scream and tell him/her that you're going to tell his/her mother. That's silly! But, there are ways that you can tell the adult that you are upset or mad in a manner that is acceptable. For example, let's say that your mother didn't want you to go to a party at your friend's house
because she wants you to take care of your younger brother or sister. You want to tell her that it's important for you to go to the party, and that you've been waiting a long time for this party. So, pretend that you're sitting at home at the dinner table and this happens:

MOTHER: "Sally/Bob, I want you to stay home tonight and take care of Susie."

YOU: (might say): "Oh, that's not fair. I'm always watching Susie," which might make your mother mad or start an argument or maybe make Susie feel bad.

YOU (might say): "What, again? Golly, I wanted to go to that party. Why can't Susie stay by herself?" which might get you into trouble or start an argument. OR, you might run off to your room crying or angry. But, what you ought to say is:

YOU: "Oh, Mom, I've been waiting for that party for a long time and I really wanted to go. I don't mind watching Susie, but this party is special." Which would be the nicest way to tell your Mom just how you are feeling? Your chances of being able to go are probably a little better than if you started arguing or making a big fuss.
Now, do you understand the kind of situations that I am talking about? Why don't you give me some examples of problems that you'd like to be able to discuss or things that you'd like to be able to say to your parents, teachers, or other adults.

Word of the week
"Interaction(s)"

Instructional procedure

1. Review the definition of assertiveness.
2. Define what is meant by status-difference and provide examples of status-difference interactions.
3. Demonstrate examples of both successful assertiveness and failure in being assertive in these situations.
4. Have the class participate in developing a list of common problems and situations involving child-adult interactions in which assertiveness would be useful (9 to 12 examples).
5. Have the class rank the list of examples for difficulty and extent of risk involved—1 for easy situations, 2 for moderately difficult situations, and 3 for difficult situations. A suggested list of examples of assertiveness in status-difference interactions divided into the three degrees of difficulty appears in Appendix C.
Assignment

Ask the students in class to write down three additional examples of status-difference (child-adult) interactions in which assertiveness would be useful. The assignment should include one example from the home environment, one example from the school environment, and one from within the community.
Lesson 7: Rehearsal of Assertiveness in Status-Difference Interactions—Easy and Moderately Difficult Situations

This is the second in a series of three lesson plans dealing with the topic of assertiveness in status-difference interactions. Before beginning this lesson, check to see if there are any questions or confusion about the previous lesson. For the sample list of status-difference interactions, please refer to Appendix C.

Instructional procedure

1. Have the staff members role-play one example from both the easy and moderately difficult situations taken from the class list. Portray both the proper use of assertiveness and the consequences of failing to be assertive.

2. Invite class discussion on the skits (role-played examples). Include discussion on the social reinforcers used and their role.

3. Divide the class into small groups, each with its own staff supervisor for rehearsal of the easy situations.

4. Start by having students rehearse the same example role played by the staff earlier in the large class format. Follow with discussion.
5. Use behavior rehearsal with the remaining examples from the easy category of the list of situations. Incorporate corrective feedback and social reinforcement as instructional techniques.

6. Continue these procedures until students display competence in being assertive in these mock situations, showing successful performance in two or three practice situations. Question students to see if any confusion or uncertainty exists.

7. Repeat this procedure for the rehearsal of the moderately difficult situations (Steps 3 through 6).

Assignment

Students should rehearse additional situations of the easy and moderately difficult categories each day. Covert rehearsal is an appropriate procedure for this assignment and can be done at home. Students should be provided with written examples of interactional situations for rehearsal. An example scene for this lesson to be used with the technique of covert rehearsal appears in Appendix D.
Lesson 8: Rehearsal of Assertiveness in Status-Difference Interactions--The Difficult Situations

This lesson plan is the last in a series of three lesson plans dealing with the topic of assertiveness in status-difference interactions. Before starting today's plan, check to see if the students have any questions about material covered earlier. Also, as a reference, a sample list of status-difference interactions in which assertiveness would be useful is provided in Appendix C.

Word of the week
"Tact(ful)"

Instructional procedure

1. Have the staff members portray an interaction from the difficult category of the class list. Portray both the appropriate use of assertiveness and the consequences of failing to be assertiveness.

2. Discuss both the inappropriate and the proper response with the class. Point out the advantages of being properly assertive and include the notion of social consequences and reinforcement.

3. Break into the small group format for behavior rehearsal of the difficult category from the class list.

4. Start by having students rehearse the same example role played by the staff earlier in the large class format. Follow with discussion.
5. Use behavior rehearsal with the remaining examples from the difficult category of the list of situations. Incorporate corrective feedback and social reinforcement as instructional aids.

6. Continue these procedures until students display competence in being assertive in these mock situations, showing successful performance in two or three practice situations. Question students to see if any confusion or uncertainty exists.

7. Upon completion of the last set of interactions, the instructor can open the class to a discussion on assertiveness and status-difference interactions. This time can be used to (a.) review interactions with which there might have been some difficulty, (b.) solicit examples of unique and/or personal problems encountered in status-difference interactions, and (c.) "play a game" involving impromptu skits in which students can be rated for degree of competence in being appropriately assertive.

Assignment

Have students rehearse additional situations of the difficult category each day. Covert rehearsal would be appropriate for this assignment and can be done at home.
Students should be provided with written examples of these situations for rehearsal. An example of a scene from this lesson that can be used with covert rehearsal appears in Appendix D.
UNIT 3: ASSERTIVENESS IN MIXED-SEX INTERACTIONS

Lesson 9: Introduction

Although the importance of mixed-sex interaction does not become fully evident until adolescent sexuality, it is generally regarded that the psychosocial groundwork for a smooth transition into sexuality begins to develop at a much earlier age. Bossard and Boll (1966), Kenniston (1970), and Kraemer (1974) have indicated that, whereas sex-role development begins early in childhood and progresses through pre-adolescence, it is in the era of the transition between pre-adolescence and adolescence in which both physical and behavioral manifestations of sexuality first become apparent. Thus, mixed-sex interactions between youngsters in the pre-adolescent ages without emphasis on overt sexuality can serve as an important aid in heterosexual social development. Furthermore, Hersen and Eisler (1975), in working with psychiatrically normal young men, have indicated that lack of social competence in heterosexual social skills was a major factor contributing to their social anxiety and heterosexual dysfunction.

The purpose of this unit is to encourage heterosexual social interaction, both as a preparation for the rapid development of physical and behavioral heterosexuality
during early adolescence, and to expand the scope of the pre-adolescent's peer interactions. Although these mixed-sex interactions are a sub-group of peer interactions and may have been touched upon in that unit, the importance of social skills in heterosexual interactions warrants this additional attention. Thus, the focus will be on mixed-sex interactions with minimal emphasis on sexual issues and primary emphasis on casual mixed-sex communication.

In beginning this unit of instruction, the instructor should make clear to the class the purpose of this unit. Because of sensitivity or, possibly, ignorance on the part of the students to issues concerning sexuality (which should become more meaningful to them during early adolescence), the instructor should stress the goals of increasing the scope of peer interactions to include both boys and girls. Here is an example of the introduction to this unit. A step-by-step instructional procedure, which includes the example introduction, follows.

Today, we are going to talk, again, about peer interactions similar to the peer interactions we worked on several weeks ago. If you remember, peer interactions means talking and hanging around with other kids your age, like your classmates and other friends. So, when we talk about peer interactions, we are talking about guys speaking with other guys,
which happens a lot; girls speaking with other girls, which happens a lot; and guys speaking with girls and girls speaking with guys. Does that happen a lot?

What kinds of things do you talk about, and what stops you from talking with guys/girls even more?

Well, for the next week or so, we will not work on dating or dancing or anything like that. We will work on helping everybody become better friends with everyone else, both guys and girls, and to try to get rid of the problems that get in the way of these friendships. You know, everybody here can learn things and share things with everybody else, and it doesn't matter if we're talking about boys or girls—men or women. But the only thing that sometimes stops us is not knowing how to talk to another person, boy or girl. Here is an example of what I mean. Mary needs to borrow a pen because hers ran out of ink. There are no other girls sitting close by and she can't get out of her seat during class. Mary doesn't want to ask the boys next to her because she is shy, but she has to.

Now, why is Mary so shy? Is it hard for girls in your class to talk to boys? Can someone give me an example of this type of situation or problem for boys?

...(if not, the instructor should furnish an appropriate example)...You see, things would be a lot easier and you might have more friends if you didn't let things
like this bother you. So, let's see what we can do to improve the situation.

**Instructional procedure**

1. Define what is meant by mixed-sex interactions and provide common examples.

2. Demonstrate examples of both successful assertiveness and failure in being assertive in these situations.

3. Have the class participate in developing a list of common problems and situations involving mixed-sex interactions in which assertiveness would be useful (9 to 12 examples).

4. Have the class rank the list of examples for difficulty and extent of risk involved—1 for easy situations, 2 for moderately difficult situations, and 3 for difficult situations. A suggested list of examples of assertiveness in mixed-sex interactions divided into the three degrees of difficulty appears in Appendix E.

**Assignment**

Ask the students in the class to write down an example of a mixed-sex interaction between youngsters that they have seen on television or in the movies in which assertiveness was an issue. Have them describe the interaction, the outcome of the interaction, and relevant consequences and social reinforcements.
Lesson 10: Rehearsal of Assertiveness in Mixed-Sex Interactions—Easy and Moderately Difficult Situations

This is the second in a series of three lessons dealing with the topic of assertiveness in mixed-sex interactions. Before beginning with this lesson, check to see if there are any questions or confusion about the previous lesson. For the sample list of mixed-sex interactions, please refer to Appendix E.

Word of the Week
"Relevant (to be)"

Instructional procedure

1. Have the staff members role play one example from both the easy and moderately difficult situations taken from the class list. Portray both the proper use of assertiveness and the consequences of failing to be assertive.

2. Invite class discussion on the skits (role-played examples). Include discussion on the social reinforcers used and their role.

3. Divide the class into small groups, each with its own staff supervisor for rehearsal of the easy situations.

4. Start by having students rehearse the same example role played by the staff earlier in the large class format. Follow with discussion.
5. Use behavior rehearsal with the remaining examples from the easy category of the list of situations. Incorporate corrective feedback and social reinforcement as instructional techniques.

6. Continue these procedures until students display competence in being assertive in these mock situations, showing successful performance in two or three practice situations. Question students to see if any confusion or uncertainty exists.

7. Repeat this procedure for the rehearsal of the moderately difficult situations (Steps 3 through 6).

Assignment

Students should rehearse additional situations of the easy and moderately difficult categories each day. Covert rehearsal is, again, an appropriate procedure for this assignment and can be done at home. Students should be provided with written examples of interactional situations for rehearsal. An example for this lesson to be used with the technique of covert rehearsal appears in Appendix F.
Lesson 11: Rehearsal of Assertiveness in Mixed-Sex Interactions--The Difficult Situations

This lesson plan is the last in a series of three lesson plans dealing with the topic of assertiveness in mixed-sex interactions. Before starting today's plan, check to see if the students have any questions about material covered earlier. Also, as a reference, a sample list of mixed-sex interactions in which assertiveness would be useful is provided in Appendix E.

Instructional procedure

1. Have the staff members portray an interaction from the difficult category of the class list. Portray both the appropriate use of assertiveness and the consequences of failing to be assertive.

2. Discuss both the inappropriate and the proper response with the class. Point out the advantages of being properly assertive and include the notion of social consequences and reinforcement.

3. Break into the small group format for behavior rehearsal of the difficult category from the class list.

4. Start by having students rehearse the same example played by the staff earlier in the large class format. Follow with discussion.
5. Use behavior rehearsal with the remaining examples from the difficult category of the list of situations. Incorporate corrective feedback and social reinforcement as instructional aids.

6. Continue these procedures until students display competence in being assertive in these mock situations, showing successful performance in two or three practice situations. Question students to see if any confusion or uncertainty exists.

7. Upon completion of the last set of interactions, the instructor can open the class to a discussion on assertiveness and mixed-sex interactions. This time can be used to (a.) review interactions with which there may have been some difficulty, (b.) solicit examples of unique and/or personal problems encountered in mixed-sex interactions, and (c.) "play games" involving impromptu skits in which students can be rated for degree of competence in being appropriately assertive.

Note: Examples 11 and 12 in the sample list of peer interactions involve interactions with groups of peers, as opposed to the dyadic peer interactions. Inhibition and anxiety which might be brought on by peer interactions might be compounded in group interactions, and thus, contribute to the difficulty of these situations.
Assignment

Have students rehearse additional situations of the difficult category each day. Covert rehearsal would be appropriate for this assignment and can be done at home. Students should be provided with written examples of these situations for rehearsal. An example of a scene from this lesson that can be used with covert rehearsal can be found in Appendix F.
PART III: THE SKILLS OF NONVERBAL INTERACTION

When we speak to another person, we automatically rely on a repertoire of nonverbal signals to illustrate or emphasize what is being said. It is generally agreed that coordination between verbal components and nonverbal cues must exist in order that communication be optimally effective (Argyle, 1969; Ekman & Friesen, 1967; Speer, 1972; Sugai, 1975; Watzlawick et al., 1967).

Watzlawick et al. (1967) elucidated the importance of nonverbal cues in providing feedback and information exchange between persons, emphasizing that the process was continual and crucial to the meaning of the verbal message. Similarly, Spear pointed to nonverbal cues as a means by which a person could convey affective information. Further evidence acknowledges the importance of the role of nonverbal cues as guidelines for interaction and in defining communicator relationships. Condon and Ogston (1966) and Kendon (1967) have described nonverbal and paralinguistic techniques that fulfill the regulatory function of indicating changes in speaker-listener roles.

Implicit (nonverbal) communications have been demonstrated to be closely related to simultaneously occurring verbal communications. Generally, the nonverbal component of the communication should be corroborative of the verbal component. Inconsistencies between the two
modes of communication are likely to result in misunderstandings, ineffectiveness of the message, communicational double-binds, and, in its most extreme and chronic forms, convey psychological imbalance (Bateson, et al., 1956; Schuham, 1967). Thus, in addition to identifying important nonverbal cues and gestures, it is equally necessary to recognize the functional relationships between nonverbal and verbal communications. Argyle (1969) distinguishes three functions or "links" between implicit and explicit modes of communication:

1. Mutual attention and responsiveness: Each interactor must signal continuously his attentiveness and responsiveness to the other:

2. Interpersonal attitude and feedback: Interactors must signal their attitudes and intentions towards the other. In addition, speakers need continuous feedback about how their utterances are being received;

3. Illustrations: Gestures accompany speech to describe it in various ways.

This section of the social skills training program will focus on nonverbal communication and its relationship with verbal communication. Specifically, this section will be comprised of three units, each concentrating on one of
the functions of implicit communication (as described by Argyle). Within each unit, the various types of interactions examined in the section on verbal skills will be covered and will serve as interactional situations to which nonverbal cues and gestures can be applied.
UNIT 1: IMPORTANT NONVERBAL CUES

Lesson 12: Introduction to Nonverbal Communication

Five important communicational areas were selected for inclusion in this program. It is important that the instructor and aides understand the role of each cue and are familiar with the extent these roles fluctuate with variations of the cue. To provide a guideline as to how these cues should be used, a brief description and explanation concerning each one follows. Additional information and research findings concerning nonverbal communication that might prove of interest to the program staff may be found in:


The first unit in this section identifies and explains five nonverbal cues and their roles to the students. Lesson 12 introduces the general area of nonverbal communication, and then elaborates on two specific cues—interpersonal proximity and eye contact. Lesson 13 follows with a consideration of three additional nonverbal cues—orientation and posture, facial gestures, and hand and arm gestures. Explanations of all of these cues should be based on the descriptions included in the two lesson plans and/or additional research material.
Word of the week
"Nonverbal communication"

Instructional procedure (introduction to nonverbal communication)

1. Introduce the general notion of nonverbal communication and provide some common examples (e.g., handshaking, waving, winking, head nodding, etc.)

2. Discuss the importance of nonverbal communication in daily interaction. Illustrate this point by role playing a common situation both with and without nonverbal communications.

3. Ask the class to discuss the situation that was just demonstrated and list the differences between the two presentations.

4. Solicit additional examples of nonverbal communication from the class and draw up a list of these (approximately 15 to 20 examples).

5. Introduce the notion that there are different types of nonverbal communication based on, among other things, the purpose of the cue and the physical origin of the cue. Then, begin to talk about some of these types of nonverbal communication.

Note: The instructional procedure for both interpersonal proximity and eye contact is identical and will therefore be listed following both descriptions.
Interpersonal proximity. Existing studies have consistently reported the use of interpersonal proximity as an "instrumental affiliative act" capable of conveying communicator attitudes (Mehrabian & Ksionzky, 1970; Rosenfeld, 1965; Sommer, 1967). Specifically, Mehrabian (1967) and Weiner and Mehrabian (1968) formulated an immediacy hypothesis that indicated that the more immediate the inter-personal proximity (i.e., the smaller the distance), between a communicator and the addressee, the greater the amount of liking conveyed. Hall (1966) detailed four zones of interpersonal proximity with regard to levels of intimacy between communicators: 0 to 1.5 ft. for intimate, 1.5 to 4 ft. for personal, 4 to 10 ft. for social-consultive, and 10 ft. plus for public interactions. These findings applied to communicators that are of the North American culture and included standing and sitting distances.

Eye contact. Visual interaction and its function as a nonverbal cue has been the subject of extensive research. Some of these investigations most relevant to this section are concerned with the role that eye contact plays in transmitting communicator attitude. Studies by Mehrabian (1969), Mehrabian and Ksionzky (1970), and Exline, Et al. (1965) have found that increased eye contact between correspondents was characteristically indicative of greater positive attitude. Conversely, decreasing amounts of eye contact were characteristically associated
with neutral and/or negative attitude. Thus, the importance of eye contact as an indicator of social accessibility (Kendon, 1967) in addition to communicator attitude, establishes this as one of the more important nonverbal cues.

**Instructional procedure** (continued)

1. Define the term interpersonal proximity (or eye contact) and provide an explanation of the term's use.

2. Use illustrations, by means of modeling and role playing, to demonstrate the use of this cue. Furthermore, contrast the use and absence of this cue in common interactions. Discuss this contrast.

3. Have students select examples of nonverbal cues from their lists that are similar to this type of a nonverbal cue.

4. Have students discuss the role of these cues in their daily interactions.

**Assignment**

Observe other students at school and people at home and write down the ways that they are communicating nonverbally (in addition to those items already discussed in class). Indicate what the purpose was in using these cues, that is, what role did they play?
Lesson 13: Additional Nonverbal Cues

This is the second in a series of two lessons describing the five major nonverbal cues. Before starting this lesson, check to see if there are any questions or if confusion exists about the previous lesson. As in Lesson 12, for the three types of nonverbal cues to be discussed there is a similar instructional procedure. This procedure will follow a brief description and explanation of each of the three nonverbal cues.

Orientation and posture: Orientation is a measure of the degree to which a communicator is turned towards or facing an addressee (Mehrabian, 1969). Research results suggest that "directness of orientation... reflects the degree of communicator attitude toward the addressee (Mehrabian, 1968)." That is, the more direct the orientation between correspondents (i.e., the more that they are facing each other), the more positive the attitude of the communicator. The converse of this relationship is also true, that is, the more indirectly the correspondents are facing each other, the more negative the attitude of the communicator (Rosenfeld, 1965).

In focusing on posture as a nonverbal cue, we refer to the degree to which a communicator leans (i.e., forward lean, upright position, and a backward lean). James (1932)
first indicated that a correlation existed between 
lean and communicator attitude. Later research 
(Mehrabian, 1968; Mehrabian and Williams, 1969) offered 
more detailed analyses of these correlations. Specifically, 
Mehrabian found that for standing and seated communicators, 
a forward lean conveyed a positive attitude and that a 
backward lean communicated a more negative attitude. 
Similarly, neutral attitude, that is, ambivalence towards 
the addressee, was defined in terms of an upright posture 
with neither forward nor backward lean. 

**Facial gestures:** The face is generally considered to 
be the most expressive part of the body. Not only do 
speech and eye contact emanate from the face, but the 
face is often the center of attention for communicators, 
and is closely observed during interaction. Among other 
things, facial gestures communicate interpersonal attitudes 
including liking, sympathy, and indifference. Other 
common facial gestures can communicate happiness, surprise, 
sadness, fear, anger, disgust, contempt, and interest 

**Hand and arm gestures:** The second most expressive and 
visible nonverbal cues, following facial gestures, are 
hand and arm gestures. Although Argyle (1969) points out 
that hands and arms are not attended to as much as the 
face, he does indicate that they play a distinct role 
and are nonetheless important. Two of the functions of
hand and arm gestures are to illustrate verbal communication
by accompanying and augmenting what is being said (i.e.,
by resembling or representing objects or spatial
relationships that are being discussed), and to convey
and emphasize emotional states (i.e., by clenching a
fist in an argument or throwing hands up in the air in
frustration).

Instructional procedure

1. Define the term orientation and posture (or
   facial gesture or hand and arm gestures) and
   provide an explanation of the term's use.

2. Use illustrations, by means of modeling and
   role playing, to demonstrate the use of this
cue. Furthermore, contrast the use and absence
of this cue in common interactions. Discuss
this contrast.

3. Have students select examples of nonverbal
cues from their lists that are similar to this
type of nonverbal cue.

4. Have students discuss the role of these cues
   in their daily interactions.

Assignment

Assign students to watch a television show at home
with the sound off. Have them write a synopsis of what
happened on the screen during that time based entirely
on what they saw. They should include reference to some specific nonverbal cues covered in today's lesson plan that helped them figure out what was going on in the show.
UNIT 2: THE PRIMARY USES OF NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION

Lesson 14: Mutual Attention and Responsiveness

In order that an interaction can be maintained, it is necessary that each communicator/interactor continuously signal that he is attending and responding to the other. Nonverbally, these signals take the form of personal orientation, proximity, eye contact, and facial gestures. Furthermore, in many situations, the content of the response (i.e., whether the communicatee is responding positively or negatively to the other) is secondary to the importance of the communicator's impression that he is being attended to.

The instructor will introduce the issue of nonverbal attention and responsiveness emphasizing the importance of these functions in maintaining an interaction. In all likelihood, the students will already be aware of these nonverbal cues and gestures, though not necessarily proficient in being able to encode (transmit) or decode (receive) them. Thus, the purpose of this unit is (1) to make the students aware of which nonverbal cues and gestures are most important in everyday interactions, (2) to provide some training in both encoding and decoding these signals, and (3) to integrate nonverbal and verbal communications. The next several paragraphs offer an example of the instructor's opening statement for this unit.
Today, we're going to talk about something that we all do and see others do. Let me show you what I mean: imagine that I am walking downtown and I run into an old friend...(the instructor and an aide act out a meeting between two friends with the proper nonverbal coordination of the interaction). Now, did anyone notice anything special or different about this meeting?...(the instructor and an aide act out a meeting between two friends with improper nonverbal cues and gestures that fail to display attentiveness and responsiveness). Now, what things did you notice that were wrong with our meeting?

The things that you have noticed as missing or wrong are important nonverbal signals that we all give out and pick up from others when we talk with them. As you have noticed, it is important to look at others, to speak towards others, and to let others know that you are listening when you are having a conversation. The reasons that these signals are important are that they tell the other person that what they are saying is important to you, and that you enjoy talking with them, that you respect them, and that you want them to listen to you and respect what you have to say. Are there any questions about what I am talking about?

Word of the week
"Peers"
Instructional procedure

1. Define the term mutual attention and responsiveness in terms of their roles in communication.

2. Provide an example through role playing of both mutual attention and responsiveness incorporating nonverbal cues from each of the five groups discussed in previous lessons.

3. Discuss the example with the class. Focus on the ways that different types of nonverbal cues conveyed mutual attention and responsiveness.

4. Act out some interaction skits in which one of the essential signals (interpersonal proximity, eye contact, orientation, posture, facial gestures, hand and arm gestures) has been neglected or used improperly. Have the class identify or describe what was wrong with the interaction. Provide the correct usage of the nonverbal signals. Discuss the examples.

5. Have the class develop a list of situations in which mutual attention and responsiveness are essential components. Include examples involving peer interaction, mixed-sex interaction, status-difference interaction, and group interaction.

6. Break into the small group format for behavior rehearsal. Practice the situations taken from the class list.
7. Pay particular attention to developing awareness and fluency in the use of the five nonverbal cues used earlier.

Assignment

Observe an interaction between two people at home (your mother and father, sister and brother, or friends). Write down the different types of nonverbal cues they use to let each other know that they are listening and responding. In these situations, do you think more is being communicated verbally or nonverbally? Explain.
Lesson 15: Interpersonal Attitude and Feedback

Interpersonal attitudes refer to the way we feel about others and the way we feel about ourselves and how we are able to communicate these feelings. It is important that we communicate our attitude and intentions toward others nonverbally as it is sometimes the case that inhibitions and/or politeness do not allow accurate verbalization of these feelings. Furthermore, proper coordination of verbal and nonverbal conveyance of attitude and intentions contributes to a meaningful and succinct communication (Sugai, 1975; Speer, 1972; Rosenfeld, 1966).

Similarly, feedback refers to the continuous process by which the way a person is received is communicated to another interactor. Thus, in providing nonverbal feedback in interactions, a participant is continuously informing the other as to whether or not he is being understood, as to whether or not there is agreement with what is being said, or if there is some immediate reaction (i.e., anger, surprise, sadness, etc.) to what has just been said. Thus, both interpersonal attitude and feedback are means by which feelings and intentions are conveyed, with the latter being a more immediate response to specific interactional content (Argyle, 1969).
This unit demonstrates the importance of communicating interpersonal attitude and feedback as a means of maintaining and encouraging interaction, as well as providing for honest, yet tactful expression of interpersonal feelings. An example of the instructor's introduction to this unit is provided below, followed by a more detailed instructional procedure.

A lot of times, when we are talking with a friend, something is said that can make us angry or happy or surprised. At other times, we may feel these ways even before talking to another person, like if we get up out of the wrong side of the bed, or maybe if something happened earlier between the two of you. In any case, it is important that you let the other person know about these feelings, but in a way that would be honest and as nice as possible. Would anybody like to explain why it is important that you let the other person know how you are feeling?...Well, there are three good reasons. First, if you let the other person know your feelings, it might help each of you understand what the other is saying a little better. Second, if you let someone know what's going on inside of your mind, it might help you feel a little better than by keeping it inside of you and to yourself. The third reason is that
by letting someone know how you are feeling, it will make the things you say more meaningful and important. For instance, pretend that (name) is a friend of mine, whom I really like and haven't seen in a couple of months:

INSTRUCTOR: (in a disinterested voice, glum face and slouched posture)
"Hi, _____ . It's really nice to see you again."

Tell me, if you were my friend, would you believe that I was really happy to see you or even be with you? Now, let's try the same situation again, this time I'll do it the way it should be done. (Repeat the same phrase in a happier tone of voice, with smiles, eye contact and an upright posture.)

Did you notice which nonverbal signals I used to let (name) know that I was happy to see him? I looked at him, I faced him, I talked to him, and I used face and hand signals like smiling and shaking his hand. Are there any questions about what I am talking about?

Instructional procedure

1. Define interpersonal attitude and feedback in terms of their roles in communication.

2. Provide an example through role playing of interpersonal attitude and feedback incorporating nonverbal cues from each of the five groups discussed in previous lessons.
3. Discuss the example with the class. Focus on the ways that different types of nonverbal cues conveyed interpersonal attitude and feedback.

4. Act out some interaction skits in which one of the essential signals (interpersonal proximity, eye contact, orientation, posture, facial gestures) has been neglected or used improperly. Have the class identify or describe what was wrong with the interaction. Provide the correct usage of nonverbal signals. Discuss the examples.

5. Have the class develop a list of situations in which interpersonal attitude and feedback are essential components. Include examples involving peer interaction, mixed-sex interaction, status-difference interaction, and group interaction.

6. Break into the small group format for behavior rehearsal. Practice the situations taken from the class list.

7. Pay particular attention to developing awareness and fluency in the use of the five nonverbal cues discussed earlier.

Assignment

Find pictures in magazines and newspapers of people nonverbally communicating interpersonal attitude and feedback. Provide a caption for each picture that conveys the essence of the nonverbal message being given. Bring these into the class for a scrapbook and discussion.
Lesson 16: Illustrations

Illustrations refer to that group of nonverbal cues and signals that serve to emphasize what is being said. Hand and arm gestures are primarily involved in illustrations and function as continuous accompaniment to verbal communication. Furthermore, Ekman and Friesen (1967) offer six categories of nonverbal illustrations:

"batons, movements which time out, accent or emphasize a particular word or phrase; ideographs, movements which sketch a path or direction of thought; deictic movements, pointing to a present object; spatial movements, depict a spatial relationship; or kinetographs, movements which depict a bodily action. A last type of illustrator, would be pictographs, which draw a picture of their referent." (Argyle, 1969, p. 73)

Although nonverbal gestures are used to illustrate verbalizations from an early age and are rapidly acquired through imitation, the intent of this unit is to emphasize the value and importance of nonverbal illustrations. Thus, the goal of this unit is (1) to make students aware of the role of nonverbal illustrations in their daily interactions, and (2) to encourage the development and use of nonverbal illustrations as part of a nonverbal repertoire. An example of the instructor's introduction to this unit follows:
What we are going to discuss and work on during the next week is something that we all do but may not know that we are doing it. I'm talking about hand and arm signals that describe what we are talking about; these are called nonverbal illustrations. For instance, if I were telling you about a fish that I caught last week, I would probably say that he was about a foot long (give appropriate hand gesture). If I were talking about how big my dog is, I would probably say that he was almost full grown (give appropriate hand and arm gesture). If I were angry and wanted to tell you that I wasn't going to put up with any arguing, I would probably say it like this: "That's it, I'm not going to argue about this!" (slamming fist down on the table).

In all the situations I just described, I used my hands and arms to help get the message across, to describe what I was saying or meant. I'm sure that you can give me lots of examples of these types of signals or gestures. Who would like to give me an example that they can think of?... Now look what would happen if I didn't use hand and arm gestures while I was talking (repeat earlier examples without gestures). It probably wasn't much fun to listen to me, or you may not have been sure of just how
big the fish was, or how big my dog was. Are there any questions about what I am talking about?

Word of the week
"Reinforcement"

Instructional procedure

1. Define illustrations in terms of their role in communication.

2. Provide an example through role playing of illustrations incorporating nonverbal cues from each of the five groups discussed in previous lessons.

3. Discuss the example with the class. Focus on the ways that different types of nonverbal cues conveyed illustration.

4. Act out some interaction skits in which one of the essential signals (interpersonal proximity, eye contact, orientation, posture, facial gestures, hand and arm gestures) has been neglected or used improperly. Have the class describe or identify what was wrong with the interaction. Provide the correct usage of nonverbal signals. Discuss the examples.

5. Have the class develop a list of situations in which illustration is an essential component. Include examples involving batons, ideographs, deictic movements, spatial movements, kinetographs, and pictographs.
6. Break into the small group format for behavior rehearsal. Practice the situations taken from the class list.

7. Pay particular attention to developing awareness and fluency in the use of the five nonverbal cues discussed earlier.

Assignment

A project that would be fun for students and a way to demonstrate skill with nonverbal illustrations would be for students to develop and present short (1 to 2 minute) commercials featuring a common food or household item. Students should be encouraged to use the verbal and nonverbal skills that they have been practicing to entice other students in the class to "buy" or "use" their product. Since this is the last instructional period, a time should be arranged with the class's teacher during which students can perform their commercials.
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SUGGESTED HIERARCHY OF EXAMPLES OF PEER INTERACTIONS IN WHICH ASSERTIVENESS WOULD BE USEFUL

Level 1 - Easy situations

1. You know somebody (a friend) is cheating on a test, and you feel that you ought to say something to him/her.

2. A friend of yours (or another kid) has said something about you that makes you unhappy.

3. A good friend of yours borrows some books (money, records) and you want them back.

4. You see another boy or girl (same sex) during lunch (or in between classes) that you like and you would like to know better.

Level 2 - Moderately difficult situations

5. Another kid cuts in front of you in the school lunch line.

6. There's a new kid in school who looks lonely, so you want to invite him/her to join you and your friends for lunch.

7. A classmate does a nice art project (or scores high on a test) and you want to tell him/her that that was good, and to show you how to do it.

8. You hear two of your friends arguing and you want to be able to help stop the argument.

Level 3 - Difficult situations

9. A friend of yours wants to borrow some money for an ice cream (anything) and you don't want to give it to him/her.

10. Some kids you know are going to the Dairy Queen (a party, a dance) but they didn't ask you, and you would really like to go.
11. Some other kids in class are making noise or bothering you, and you are having trouble paying attention to what the teacher is saying.

12. You accidently bump somebody, or step on their toe, or trip them and they think that you did it on purpose, but you really didn't.
APPENDIX B

Lesson 4: Scene for Covert Behavior Rehearsal and Reinforcement

You are walking to the cafeteria for lunch when you notice the new guy/girl (same sex) in school walking by himself/herself. You want to try to make the new boy/girl feel welcomed, so you decide to invite him/her to sit with you at lunch. You walk up to him/her and say? "Hi! My name is ______. I guess you must feel a little weird (shy, scared) being new and not knowing anybody. Listen, why don't you have lunch with me and I can tell you some things about the school and kids here, OK?"

The new student, ______, smiles and tells you that that would be nice. You are glad that you did what you did, and ______'s smile tells you that you did the right thing.
APPENDIX C

SUGGESTED HIERARCHY OF
EXAMPLES OF STATUS-DIFFERENCE INTERACTIONS IN
WHICH ASSERTIVENESS WOULD BE USEFUL

Level 1 - Easy situations

1. Your teacher compliments you on an art project (high score on a test) that you did.

2. You are on the school dance committee and have to ask your principal for permission to use the gym for the dance.

3. You don’t understand a math problem that your teacher has been discussing and you want to go up to him after class to ask for some help.

Level 2 - Moderately difficult situations

4. You disagree with your teacher on a question that he marked wrong on your test and you want to make your point to him.

5. Your father scolded you for something that you feel wasn’t your fault and you want to say so.

6. Your mother prepared one of your favorite dishes for dinner and you want to let her know that you are appreciative.

Level 3 - Difficult situations

7. There is a special party/dance coming up soon and you want to buy a new dress/record, but don’t have enough money. You want to ask your parents to help you out.

8. You have been waiting a month for a particular television show, but your father wants to watch a different show. You at least want to let him know how much you desire to see this show.

9. Your uncle has been playfully teasing you, but you don’t really like it very much and want to let him know that.
APPENDIX D

Lesson 7: Scene for Covert Behavior Rehearsal and Reinforcement

Your mother prepared ______, one of your favorite desert snacks. You know it took a lot of work and you appreciate it and you want your mother to know that. After dinner you are in the kitchen with your mom and you say: "Gee, Mom, you know that ______ is one of my favorites, and tonight's was really good. Thanks!"

Your mother smiles and tells you that she likes to cook things you like because you (you children) are special to her. She pats you on the shoulder and returns to her work. You feel really good and "warm" all over.
APPENDIX E

SUGGESTED HIERARCHY OF
EXAMPLES OF MIXED-SEX INTERACTIONS IN WHICH
ASSERTIVENESS WOULD BE USEFUL

Level 1 - Easy situations

1. There's a new boy/girl in school and you notice that he/she is kind of confused looking for a classroom.

2. You're playing a game (volleyball, etc.) and you want to ask a boy/girl to join your team.

3. You are downtown waiting for your mother to come out of a store and a boy/girl that you recognize from school is walking towards you.

Level 2 - Moderately difficult situations

4. A girl/boy in your class borrowed a pen from you but didn't return it. You want to ask to get it back.

5. You need a book for a report that you are writing, but you notice that it has been checked out by a boy/girl that you don't know very well. You want to ask him/her when he/she will be done with it.

6. There's a girl/boy in your class that you think is interesting (funny, smart, etc.) and you want to know her/him better.

Level 3 - Difficult situations

7. You are sitting on the bus and a girl/boy from one of your classes sits down next to you. You want to start a conversation.

8. There's a boy/girl in school who, you've heard, has been saying some bad things about you, and you want to find out if this is true.

9. You are having a party but forgot to invite one of your classmates - a boy/girl that you would like to come. You want to ask him/her after class.
APPENDIX F

Lesson 11: Scene for Covert Behavior Rehearsal and Reinforcement

(for girls) There's a boy in your class that your friends have told you has been saying some bad things about you (that you're stuck up, that you're a liar, etc.) You are surprised because you have always kind of liked him, so you want to straighten this out. After class, you catch him as he is walking out of the room: "Excuse me, ________, I've heard that you might have said some things about me that hurt my feelings. Since I think of us as friends, I'd like to know if this is true."

(the boy) tells you that he doesn't remember saying anything like that, and that if he might have given somebody the wrong impression, that he was sorry. He tells you that he also thinks of you as a friend and that he wouldn't say things like that. You feel relieved knowing that you have just saved a friendship, and thank him for being straight (honest) with you. You know that you have done the right thing, and you both feel a little better and closer as friends.
Using the same example, here is a situation for covert behavior rehearsal in which the consequence of being assertive is a negative one. Included in this scene is a suggested reply for a negative consequence situation.

(for girls) There's a boy in your class that...

--repeat first paragraph of example--

...I'd like to know if this is true."

(the boy) gets angry and tells you to mind your own business and to leave him alone. You reply,"OK, _________. I'm sorry I bothered you, but, you know, I thought that we were friends. If I did something wrong, it would help to let me know what I did. Why don't we just leave it for now and maybe talk about it later on, OK? Bye."
APPENDIX B: THE SOCIAL EVENTS QUESTIONNAIRE

NAME ___________________________________  DATE __________________
SCHOOL __________________________________  GRADE _________________

DIRECTIONS: Please answer the following questions by circling the most appropriate/correct number. For questions 10, 11 and 12, just put the appropriate number (your best guess) in the blank.

1. In the last week, I have been playing with other kids.

   1 2 3 4 5
   very some about a little a
   little the more great
   same than usual deal

2. I am talking with and discussing things with my parents.

   1 2 3 4 5

3. I think my parents understand me - my thoughts and feelings.

   1 2 3 4 5

4. I think that other kids understand me - my thoughts and feelings.

   1 2 3 4 5

5. I think my teachers understand me - my thoughts and feelings.

   1 2 3 4 5

6. I am speaking up and letting adults (parents, teachers and others) know what I am thinking.

   1 2 3 4 5

7. I am speaking up and letting other kids know what is on my mind.
   boys: 1 2 3 4 5
   girls: 1 2 3 4 5
8. I feel comfortable asking questions in class.
   1       2       3       4       5

9. I feel comfortable answering questions in class.
   1       2       3       4       5

10. This past week, about how many conversations with other kids did you
    a) participate in with boys:____ with girls:____
    b) start with boys:____ with girls:____

11. This past week, about how many conversations or discussions did you
    a) participate in with your parents:____
       with your teachers:____
    b) start with your parents:____
       with your teachers:____

12. How many people would you call friends (someone that you can talk with?)
    a) other kids: boys____ girls____
    b) adults:____
### APPENDIX C: PUPIL RATING FORM

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