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Assertiveness/Social Skills

Training for Children:

A Classroom Approach

by

Glory Pollen and Linda Root

A Thesis

Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
through the School of Social Work
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the Degree
of Master of Social Work

in

School of Social Work
University of Windsor
Windsor, Ontario

1983

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Assertiveness/Social Skills
Training for Children:
A Classroom Approach

by

Glory Janice Pollen

Linda Marie Root

Faculty of Graduate Studies

University of Windsor

1983

793900

RESEARCH COMMITTEE

Dr. L. E. Buckley - Chairperson

Professor M. Harman - Member

Professor S. Goerzen - Member

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to conduct and assess the effectiveness of an assertiveness/social skills program.

The sample included 52 fourth grade students from two different schools selected in consultation with the Windsor Separate School Board, Windsor, Ontario. A classroom of 30 students in one school became the treatment group. From the other school a classroom of 22 students constituted a control group. Classroom groups were led by a professional social worker.

The literature review provided an overview of how children acquire and utilize behaviours. The discussions considered social influences, developmental processes and the school's potential impact on the child.

Four hypotheses were developed to assess the overall effectiveness of the program and provide structure to the research process.

A statistical analysis on the sample's premeasured indicators showed that the control group and the treatment group were homogeneous. Both groups were administered pre and post self-report scales (Children's Assertive Behavior Scale). Both teachers also completed for each child a pre and post behavioural scale (Teacher's Ratings of Children's Assertive Behavior Scale).

The treatment group received 12 contact hours of assertiveness training. After completion of these 12 hours and post-tests, 4 hours of similar training were offered to the control group. Statistical

analysis of the post-test measure indicated a significant difference between the treatment group and the control group as reflected by their improved assertive skills score. Data also confirmed a statistically significant difference between males and females in their self-report behavioural measures. This was demonstrated in both pre and post-test measures. Students' self-report ratings and the teachers' ratings of the students' behaviour revealed no significant difference. The scores from the teachers' ratings showed a significant improvement in the students' overall assertive scores after the students' participation in an assertiveness training program.

Results further suggest the classroom group approach proved to be a viable method of conducting a social skills development program. Findings further demonstrated that all class members benefitted from this program.

Researchers conclude that an assertiveness/social skills training program is an effective means for grade school children to learn and apply social skills. Recommendations were made in three areas: social work practice in the school setting; social work profession; and further research.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In a society that has evolved as complex as ours, it has become essential for children to learn about and understand the characteristics of their social world and the basics of human relationships. According to Stephens, in order to deal effectively with rapidly changing social conditions, it has become necessary to teach children social skills and concepts which at one time were acquired in less direct ways (Cartledge and Milburn, p. vii).

The researchers used a competency - based approach to explore the use of assertiveness training as a means of facilitating the development of social skills in fourth grade students. In reference to competence models, Wine (1981) writes:

Humans are seen as growing, changing, learning, and in continuous interaction with their environments. While defect models tune their users to the observation of pathology, the users of competence models are more likely to be alert to positive behavior and capacities in individuals. In intervention, helping professionals who espouse competence models are likely to generate broadly based programs intended to be widely helpful to a number of people in a community. When used in individual work, these models lend themselves to helping individuals build skills and competencies for dealing with their world, rather than to the identification, understanding, and elimination of defects. People are seen as at least potentially capable of setting goals, identifying needs, and developing skills that will allow them to cope more effectively with stress, to interact more effectively with others as well as to lead more productive lives (pp. 24-25).

Rather than an emphasis on defects or pathology, competence models encourage more broadly based, optimistic views of the nature

of humans, reflecting the view that mankind is able to grow, develop and function effectively.

The purpose of this study was to conduct and assess the effectiveness of an assertiveness/social skills program with fourth grade students. An initial review of the professional literature found a scarcity of articles related to assertiveness training with children.

Chapter II will provide an overview of how children acquire and utilize behaviours, taking into consideration social influences, developmental processes and the school's potential impact on the child.

The research design, hypotheses and methodology will be further clarified in Chapter III. The design of the assertiveness training program developed by the researchers will be outlined in Chapter IV followed by an analysis of the findings in Chapter V. Conclusions and recommendations of the study will be presented in the final chapter.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

An initial review of the literature found a dearth of studies involving assertiveness training with children. A search of the psychological and social work abstracts found the following references to articles investigating the effectiveness of assertiveness training with children: Amatea and Anderson, 1976; Bornstein et al, 1977; Barone and Rinehart, 1978; Michelson and Wood, 1980; and McCullagh, 1981.

The reported effectiveness of assertiveness training as a method of developing social skills in children was the original stimulus prompting the researchers' interest in this study.

Five major areas are emphasized in this chapter. They include a general overview of the assertiveness processes, social influences, the development of the middle-aged child, the learning models, and the relevance of these concepts to professional social work.

General Overview

In this section, several approaches to the concept of "assertiveness" will be discussed.

Sundel and Sundel are helpful in giving the reader an understanding of assertiveness by viewing behaviour as occurring on a continuum. At one end are aggressive behaviours, at the other are passive behaviours, with assertiveness taking the middle range. Nonassertive individuals are frequently described as meek, passive, or easily manipulated; aggressive people are described as hostile

or arrogant; assertive individuals are described as active, honest and direct (Sundel and Sundel, p. 10).

Assertive behaviour involves the honest and direct expression of both positive and negative feelings in inter-personal transactions, and is based on the premise that people have certain rights which they are fully entitled to exercise (Rimm and Masters, p. 81; Wolpe and Lazarus, p. 38).

Lange and Jakubowski provide the following reasons for acting assertively:

- ...It increases one's control over oneself, which feels good.
- Second, assertion eventually results in greater feelings of self-confidence which reduces insecurity and vulnerability.
- Third and very importantly, assertion rather than aggression results in closer, more emotionally satisfying relationships with others.
- Fourth, while it is true that assertion will mean that sometimes individuals will not achieve their objectives and "win", assertion maximizes the likelihood that both parties can best partially achieve their goals and get their needs met (p. 13).

Assertive behaviour differs markedly from aggressive and non-assertive behaviour. The aggressive person attempts to accomplish goals at the expense of others and hurts others by failing to treat them with respect (Alberti and Emmons, p. 16).

People often confuse assertion with aggression. Aggression involves directly standing up for personal rights and expressing thoughts, feelings and beliefs in a way which is often dishonest, usually inappropriate and always violates the rights of the other person (Bower and Bower, p. 90).

Aggression can occur when a person has been nonassertive for

a period of time, allowing his/her rights and feelings to be violated, with the result that hurt and anger build to the point that the person finally feels justified in expressing his/her feelings and aggressively standing up for his rights.

At other times, people act aggressively as a way to prevent themselves from becoming nonassertive. Aggression may be due to an over-reaction based on past emotional experiences, that are unresolved. Lastly, aggression may result from the belief that this form of behaviour is the only way to get through to another person (Lange and Jakubowski, pp. 27-30).

Winning becomes the goal and may mean winning at any cost: humiliating, degrading, belittling, or overpowering other people (Cammaert and Larsen, p. 138).

At the other extreme, is passive or nonassertive behaviour. Lange and Jakubowski (1970) state:

Being nonassertive involves violating one's rights by failing to express honest feelings, thoughts, and beliefs and consequently permitting others to violate oneself, or expressing one's thoughts and feelings in such an apologetic, diffident, self-effacing manner that others can easily disregard them (p. 10).

By being passive you are not respecting your own needs.

In describing unassertive individuals, Salter, in his book, Conditioned Reflex Therapy, points to the fact that they behave in the same way no matter how important or how trivial a situation may be.

They're the last to enter, and the last to leave an elevator. They are always apologetic. They are

explored, toiling at tedious tasks. They poison themselves with resentment for years before asking for a wage increase. They are pathetic with waiters, hackers, and salesmen, and they have as much difficulty with their mother-in-law. As one of them put it, "I've been refusing second portions all of my life". They constantly fear that they are inconveniencing people and attracting attention (p. 49).

Nonassertiveness may be situational or general. Situational nonassertiveness refers to the behaviour of individuals who are generally adequately adjusted but who have difficulty in asserting themselves in specific contexts. General nonassertiveness on the other hand, refers to the behaviour of individuals who are non-assertive in almost all of their daily interactions (Alberti and Emmons, pp. 14-20).

Assertive behaviour is:

...that complex of behaviors, emitted by a person in an interpersonal context, which express that person's feelings, attitudes, wishes, opinions and rights of the other person(s). Such behavior may include the expression of such emotions as anger, fear, caring, hope, joy, despair, indignance, embarrassment, but in any event is expressed in a manner which does not violate the rights of others. Assertive behavior is differentiated from aggressive behavior, which, while expressive of one person's feelings, attitudes, wishes, opinions or rights, does not respect those characteristics in others (Alberti and Emmons, p. 210).

Within such a definition, the dimensions of intent, behaviour and effects are considered, taking into account the socio-cultural context.

There are several key components which contribute to assertive behaviour. The verbal components of assertive behaviour include

refusing unwanted requests, asking for favours, asking questions, expressing opinions, complimenting others and requesting behaviour changes. Voice tone, inflection and volume are also important (Eisler, Miller and Hersen, 1973, p. 297; Rathus, 1973, p. 59).

The nonverbal components include eye contact, appropriate facial expression, and body posture such as distance to the person, facing the person, or leaning forward to convey interest (Serber, 1972, p. 180).

The components of aggressiveness include, shouting, demanding, taking over the conversation and physical violence or force.

Nonassertiveness includes denying one's rights, not accepting compliments, fearing to speak up, poor eye contact, inappropriate facial expression such as smiling when angry or upset, and nonassertive body posture such as turning away and maintaining too much distance (Galinsky et al, p. 367).

The practice of facilitating assertive behaviour (also referred to as "assertive therapy," "social skills training," "personal effectiveness training," "assertiveness training" or "AT"), involves teaching the differences among assertive, passive and aggressive behaviour; helping individuals identify situations in which it pays to be assertive and developing skills through practice (Lange and Jakubowski, p. 2).

Assertiveness training is a method of teaching assertiveness based on principles of learning theory applied to understanding and changing unacceptable and inappropriate behaviour (Sundel and Sundel, p. 10).

Assertiveness training with children is a means of helping the young person to develop effective social skills, become appropriately assertive and gain a greater sense of worth as a person (Palmer, 1982).

The process of assertive behaviour training involves at least three elements, including:

Skills training, in which specific behaviors are taught, practiced, and integrated into the trainee's behavior repertoire;

Anxiety reduction, which may be achieved directly (e.g. through desensitization or other counter-conditioning procedures), or indirectly, as a by-product of skills training;

Cognitive restructuring, in which values, beliefs, cognitions, and/or attitudes may be changed by insight, exhortation, or behavior achievements (Alberti, p. 21).

The intent of such training is to provide children with skills to assert themselves when they feel it would be in their best interests. Once such assertion skills have been gained, such responses reflect choice and not automatic agreement.

Since assertion, even when appropriate, may have unfortunate repercussions, assertion training needs to suggest the risks as well as the benefits. Too, assertion training with children should not be done without the knowledge and co-operation of significant others (e.g. parents, teachers). This is of paramount importance for two reasons. First, when the child acquires newly developed responses directed towards parents or teachers, the child may meet with negative consequences. Thus, without the support of significant others a serious ethical breach may be committed. Second, with the parent and teacher expecting some changes or having an awareness of

this possibility, generalization and durability will be enhanced (Hassett et al, 1978, p. 433).

Aggressive behaviour commonly results in hurting others although it achieves the sender's goals; nonassertiveness results in feelings ranging from sympathy to contempt for the sender and guilt and anger for the receiver for achieving his goals at the expense of the sender. In contrast, appropriately assertive behaviour in the same situation would be honest and self-enhancing for the sender, whereby neither person is hurt, and it is likely both will succeed (Alberti & Emmons, p. 17).

Social Influences on the School-aged Child

Raising children in modern society is a challenging and diversified task, a subject of global concern. Social standards differ widely, not only among cultures but also from family to family and from time to time within cultures and families (Talbot, 1976, p. 59). Yet, there appear to be salient components of the socialization-education-training process during the middle years of childhood.

Socialization as used here may be defined as "the process by which the young human being acquires values and knowledge of his group and learns the social roles appropriate to his position in it" (Goode, 1964, p. 10).

The family is the single social unit in our society in which learning how to learn begins (Brodey, 1977, p. 64). It is inextricably interwoven with all other systems, assuming primary responsibility for socialization into the culture and thus is

delegated major responsibility to ensure the survival of man (Anderson and Carter, p. 105).

Lidz finds the family performs the following interrelated functions (Lidz, pp. 44-46). For children, the family provides physical care, nurturance and directs their personality development. For society, the family takes responsibility for enculturating new members. Lidz suggests "it is possible that these functions which are fundamental to human adaptation cannot be fulfilled separately at all and must be fused in the family" (Lidz, p. 45).

Feldman and Scherz take the position that technology and industrialization have disrupted the traditional family functions that provided for socialization needs of its members. Other institutionalized provisions must then be created to substitute for or augment the family.

Schools supplement learning conducted within the family; clinics, hospitals, rest homes and other facilities provide health care; foster care is available for children who cannot be provided with needed care at home; family counseling is extended when parent-child relationships indicate the need for the intervention; juvenile courts assist with severe problems needing control (Feldman and Scherz, p. 53).

For the child, the school classroom constitutes a social situation without parallel. Ordinarily a pupil spends approximately 8,000 hours in elementary school between kindergarten and the end of the eighth grade. Except for sleeping, no other activity will claim as much of his/her time.

Cartledge and Milburn (1978) state:

Although considered to be a major socializing institution, and as such the purveyor of not only academic skills but social behaviors and attitudes as well, schools have historically placed little emphasis upon formal social skill instruction. It appears, however, that the development of certain prerequisite social skills may be crucial to the academic student (p. 33).

No doubt social behaviors are taught on an informal basis, but they should be systematically integrated within the academic curriculum. (Michelson and Wood, p. 242). Cooke and Apolloni (1976), in reviewing the status of social-emotional education in American schools, conclude that the system has actually been

negligent in its attention to systematic methods and strategies for enhancing the social-emotional dimensions of child development. The teacher, like the parent, is a powerful and influential person in the child's life and, as such, serves as a model for social behaviors. In addition, the teacher shapes the child's social behaviors, intentionally or not, through the process of reinforcement. Studies of teachers attitudes and behavior suggest that social behaviors on the part of the student are an important determinant of how the teacher interacts with the child (Cartledge and Milburn, p. 19).

While parents and teachers are among the most significant others with whom the middle-aged child comes into contact, they are not the only ones with whom young people interact. Peers are important, too.

Peers are close friends who are often of the same age and background and have similar interests. They are more than casual acquaintances and peer groups often have their own codes of behaviour or rules for conduct, speech and/or dress (Bensman and Roseberg, p. 79).

Peer relations affect the cause of socialization as profoundly as any social events in which children participate. Peer acceptance and popularity play important roles in the socialization of the child.

Peers are needed for self-esteem, and serve as criteria for the measurement of the child's own success or failure. More specifically, the peer group can assist the child in achieving necessary developmental tasks, such as getting along with age-mates, developing a rational conscience and value system, achieving personal independence and learning appropriate social attitudes (Havighurst, pp. 48-59).

Development

The middle years of childhood, ages 7 to 11, are the years for development of a sense of competence or mastery over self, social relationships, ideas and concepts, as well as over the technology and ways of one's culture. Development, herein, refers to socio-psychological development, "an integration of constitutional and learned changes which make up an individual's ever-developing personality" (Maier, p. 3).

This developmental period is characterized by three significant outward pushes. There is the thrust of the child out of the home and into the peer group, the physical thrust into the world of games and work requiring neuromuscular skills, and the mental thrust into the realm of adult concepts, logic, symbolism and communication (Havighurst, p. 25). In particular this involves going to school, but it also includes activities such as Cub Scouts, Brownies, church-affiliated groups and more informal associations with neighbourhood children.

Maier (1969) discusses the theories of Erik H. Erikson, Jean Piaget, and Robert R. Sears. The theories deal with distinctly separate but complementary approaches to personality development of the child:

- * the psychoanalytic, with its emphasis upon emotional or affective processes, both conscious and unconscious, as the basic motivational forces.
- * the investigation of cognitive functioning and its stress on an individual's intellectual conquest of his life experiences.
- * the exploration of learned behaviour, with its reliance on behavioural manifestations (p.6).

Each theory contributes a part to an understanding of the developmental tasks and problems facing the middle-aged child.

Erikson used the concept of "industry" to describe the child's main concern at this stage of development: Industry involves acquiring practical skills and adapting socially. The child's energy is directed towards relating to and communicating with those who are most significant, his peers. A sense of accomplishment for having done well, being the smartest, strongest, best, or fastest are the goals toward which he strives (Maier, p. 54). The child wants and needs his peers for it is with the peer group that he can test himself and grow to mastery in social relationships with equals (Anderson and Carter, 1978, p. 152). Friends of his parents and parents of his friends assume a new importance. The child seeks out other adults to identify with, because his parents can no longer entirely meet the child's needs in this area. His

neighbourhood and school become significant social determiners for him, and newcomers become intriguing and important discoveries (Maier, p. 56). Erikson emphasizes that many of the child's later attitudes toward work and work habits are related to the degree of a successful sense of industry which has been fostered during this period (Maier, p. 57).

Piaget's theory of development is a cognitive one, focusing largely on the nature and development of the child's mental processes and concepts relative to concrete objects and ideas such as those dealing with space, time, causality, logic and morality (Nadien, p. 30).

During the concrete operations period, 7 to 11 years of age, the child achieves a new level of thought, operational thought, which refers to the mental capacity to order and relate experience to an organized whole (Maier, p. 136). The child becomes capable of logical thinking with respect to concrete objects.

Increased capacities for remembering and discriminating enables the following cognitive advances with respect to concrete objects: (1) mental problem-solving; (2) classifying objects - assigning them to categories on the basis of certain common properties; and (3) comprehending the notion of reversibility - that certain processes or things can not only be combined, as occurs in addition, but can also be uncombined, as occurs in subtraction (Nadien, p. 32).

Mastery of the ground rules of life seems important to the child at this phase of development; learning the morality of co-operation or agreement is vital. In investigating the development of moral judgement in the child, Piaget discovered that

children of this age are quite occupied with justice and accept arbitrary or expiatory punishment as warranted. As they grow older the idea of retribution connected to the offending act and its natural consequences is favored. Grasp of the schema for moral judgement forms the basis for organized social relations (Anderson and Carter, p. 154).

Sears describes the middle-aged child's development through the phase of secondary motivational systems: extra-familial learning.

By the time the child is ready for school, he is ready to learn from his wider social environment. A system of behaviour which will guide him for limited periods in his new and wider social environment has been acquired and this environment assumes a major share in further socializing him (Maier, p. 194). The teacher becomes a significant social influence and a resource of dependency for the child. Dependency on family members is modified during this stage, both in manner and intensity, and is gradually replaced by his/her dependency on his peer group. The manner and quality of this dependency rests upon his previous, learned experiences (Maier, p. 195). Patterns of positive and negative attention-seeking are perpetuated in his interactions with his peers. Sears cautions, if negative patterns such as teasing, exhibitionism, or practical joking, are not checked, they can remain an integral part of the adult personality.

As the child expands beyond the realm of his family and home, he must exhibit strong indication of a conscience.

His new and wider environment helps him to achieve more comprehensive, internal values as well as to

achieve social, religious, and eventually political and economic values. All acquisitions of later value judgements are based on his earlier incorporations of his parents' behavior and what he has learned from his parents' teaching. Ordinarily, the child wants to be like his parents in order to receive and to maintain their gratifying acceptance (Maier, p. 196).

To conclude, Sears views child development as a consequence of learning: as the child behaves, he develops. The child's behaviour is the product of his immediate social experiences of being brought up. Consequently, child development is the visible product of the parental child-rearing efforts.

The prevailing theories of child growth and development have stressed individual needs, changing processes within the child, and mechanisms of individual adaptation to challenge and stress. The middle-aged child needs to go to school and to develop relationships with peers. The child needs to develop a sense of competence and a conviction that she/he can master her/his world.

The child must successfully master the school's basic requirements of reading, writing and mathematics. Second, the child has to be successful in some minimal number of peer-valued talents. Third, the child continues to require desirable models for identification and modeling purposes. Too, the child needs the opportunity to match his attributes to the standards that society has declared to be the sex role ideal.

Only Erikson considered sex differences as an essential variable in the child's development. For Sears, it is the environmental response to maleness and femaleness which defines differences in

the developmental path of a boy or girl. Cognitive development, according to Piaget, remains asexual (Maier, p. 227).

The needs of children vary with their age and their context of growth. Jerome Kagan cites the

opportunity to practice maturing capacities and to obtain locally valued talents, to believe one is valued and to identify with role models who are regarded as powerful, talented, and virtuous and finally, protection from excessive irregularity and dissonance of values (Kagan, p. 96-97)

as being vital developmental needs of the child in modern society.

The greatest number of children referred to child guidance clinics and school special services are between the ages of eight and eleven, and are most often described in a word, as immature.

The writers have summarized from Anderson and Carter (pp. 154-155)

the following reasons for referral:

- * Poor school performances. Achievement of mastery of cultural technology does not measure up to the standards of school and/or parents. The child's school behaviour disrupts his/her learning or the learning of others.
- * Symptoms not unusual in a younger child but not expected at this age. Some of these are incontinence, fears, short attention span, hyperactivity, day-dreaming, and not assuming expected responsibility.
- * Social inferiority. This might be the isolated child or the child who consistently associates only with younger children.

Difficulties of the middle-aged child include direct or indirect manifestations of anxiety, often showing up in relation to school. Manifestations include obsessions, compulsions, irrational

fears, breakdown in school attendance, difficulty in coping with school work as well as with social relationships at school :

(Barker, 1971, pp. 25-26).

Learning Models

The development of assertive behaviour like most behaviour, can be explained to a large extent in terms of learning. This section is intended to familiarize the reader with these principles of learning.

Behaviour and the environment affect each other. When we act, we change the environment. When we act, the environment changes us. This process called learning is not only an important ability, but is as well, pervasive to development (Watson and Tharp, p. 2).

A useful working definition of learning is

the process by which an activity originates or is changed through reacting to an encountered situation, provided that the characteristics of the change in activity cannot be explained on the basis of native response tendencies, maturation or temporary states of the organism (e.g. fatigue, drugs, etc.) (Hilgard and Bower, p. 2).

This definition illustrates concern for

- (a) the person - environment relationship
- (b) the question of how behaviour originates and how it changes as a result of the person - environment interaction
- (c) the necessity for specifying "reaction" as observable behaviour
- (d) the necessity for representing measurable aspects of situations
- (e) the necessity of a reliable system for detecting change (Levy, 1970).

Throughout the course of life the individual is said to be learning and unlearning various ways of behaving and perceiving in accordance with the demands of the situation and self-set standards. Problems can occur, for example, when learning is incomplete, when behaviour that is learned in one setting is inappropriately employed in another, when a set of behaviours is personally satisfying but disruptive of other's attempts at adaptation or when adaptive skills have never been acquired (Karoly, p. 196).

Much of our behaviour is either learned or modified by learning. Through learning we acquire knowledge, language, attitudes, values, manual skills, fears, personality traits, and insights into ourselves. Accordingly, the discovery of the laws of learning can be viewed as one of the key avenues to understanding the reasons for our actions (Jelle and Ziegler, p. 189).

Although there is no generally accepted comprehensive theory of learning, the literature offers three theoretical frameworks - the respondent, the operant and the social learning. These models form the foundation for understanding the learning process (Wodarski, p. 154).

Basic to the respondent framework, commonly referred to as classical conditioning is the belief that the simultaneous appearance of two stimuli in the environment instills in us a conditioned (learned) response (O'Connell and O'Connell, p. 154).

The leading proponent of the second conditioning model is

B. F. Skinner, who calls this approach operant conditioning, as demonstrated by the fact that animals learn also by operating on their environment as well as responding to it (O'Connell and O'Connell, p. 154).

Operant conditioning differs from respondent (classical) conditioning in that most responses are not considered to be elicited by stimuli.

Unlike Skinner, who is almost entirely concerned with learning by direct experience, the social learning theory, places primary emphasis on the role of observational learning in behavioural acquisition (Gewirtz, p. 61). The leading social learning theorist, Bandura, (1971), contends that:

virtually all learning phenomena resulting from direct experience occur on a vicarious basis by observing other people's behavior and its consequences for them! The capacity to learn by observation enables people to acquire large, integrated patterns of behavior without having to form them gradually by tedious trial and error (p. 12).

The social learning theory as discussed by Bandura sees reinforcement as a facilitator rather than as a necessary condition for learning. It seeks to account for factors other than consequences of a response that can influence behaviour. Social learning theory thus introduces higher cognitive processes as viable concepts for social work practice (Wodarski, p. 155).

In summary, all three frameworks capture parts of the learning process. The respondent focuses on the association between events, the operant emphasizes the antecedents and consequences and their relationships in controlling behaviour, and the social learning

delineates cognitive processes and their role in the learning of new behaviours (Wodarski, p. 155).

Relevance to Social Work

By definition, social work

...seeks to enhance the social functioning of individuals, singly and in groups, by activities focused upon their social relationships which constitute the interaction between man and his environment. These activities can be grouped into three functions; restoration of impaired capacity, provision of individual and social resources, and prevention of social dysfunction (Boehm, p. 275).

Social functioning includes the activities that are essential to satisfying relationships in the variety of social experiences of day-to-day living. Interaction among individuals, groups and social systems in an on-going process creates a problem in social functioning. An individual functions in a socially acceptable manner when his/her activities result in satisfying experiences in everyday living (Skidmore and Thackeray, p. 19). The enhancement of social functioning wherever the need for such enhancement is either socially or individually perceived, is the ultimate goal of social work.

Regarding school social work, Costin (1981) writes

Social workers in schools pursue the objectives common to all social work practice. In doing so, they translate and extend the common base of social work into a specialized practice that takes place in a primary institution for developing the potential of children (p. 36).

School social work is an application of social work principles and methods to the major purpose of the school. The objectives center on helping students attain a sense of competence, a readiness for

continued learning, and an ability to adapt to change (Encyclopedia of Social Work, p. 1238). School social work must be viewed as an integral part of an interdisciplinary approach to understanding and helping children, enabling them to realize their potential through successful growth and learning, both in the intellectual, the emotional and social realm. Within this broad context, school social work services can often cover a wide range of professional activities (Kreskey, p. 20).

Growth or change is not something that the worker can impose, regardless of skill; he can only offer help and, within limits, establish an environment conducive to the process (Nilsson, p. 97). The school social worker works with the student, on an individual basis, as a member of a small group, within the context of his/her family or by a combination of these methods. The school social worker may also work with classes of children within the mainstream of the school population, extending to them emotional health and personality growth towards an effective and self-fulfilling quality (Kobak, 1977, p. 16). This classroom approach could be a preventative mental health one providing training not only to children who are vulnerable and problematic, but to all children in one class.

Michelson and Wood maintain that it is not sufficient merely to teach children basic academic skills and expect them to develop to their fullest potentials: Interpersonal and social skills play an important part in the individual's quality of life (Hersen, et al, p. 7).

Phillips (1978) suggests that if needed social skills are not learned, "current problems will remain and later ones will be more

likely to develop or become exacerbated. For instance when social skills are learned, at whatever time in life, they are a basis for present adequacy and preventive of future inadequacy (Phillips, p. 141). Prevention as Phillips views it is a "succession of 'nows' and 'laters' with each being important in its own right and at its own time" (Phillips, p. 141).

The reported effectiveness of assertiveness training as a mode of intervention with children should not be overlooked as being both a preventative and remedial measure (Chittendon, Lange and Jakubowski, Michelson and Wood).

The classroom is an ideal medium for learning assertion skills since members can provide a supportive environment as they stimulate, encourage and modify individual attempts toward assertive behaviour (Galinsky et al, p. 374). Additionally, the classroom approach provides the child with an abundant supply of models, role-play partners, and feedback (Rose, 1977).

Helping the young person to develop effective social skills, become appropriately assertive and gain a greater sense of worth as a person is well within keeping of the goals of professional social work. The literature indicates that one of the most succinct ways to increase social skills is to proceed through assertiveness training (Craighead, et al., pp. 363-365).

This chapter provided an overview of how children acquire and utilize behaviours. The discussion takes into consideration social influences, developmental processes and the school's potential impact on the child.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter will discuss the setting and the assertiveness training program researched. The research design, hypotheses, and operational definitions will be stated. The population and sample, the data collection methodology, the instrument and the data analysis will be presented. Finally, the limitations of the study will consider the limiting factors inherent in the design and methodology.

Setting

This research project provided an assertiveness/social skills training group experience for an entire fourth grade class in an elementary school. The study was carried out through work with two grade four classrooms in two different schools selected by the staff of the Windsor Separate School Board.

The treatment group received 12 consecutive, one-hour sessions over a six-week period. The control group experienced a similar program of four one-hour sessions over a two-week period following the completion of the treatment group and post-tests.

Written permission for the researchers to use the schools selected was granted by Mr. Donald Diabaldo, Superintendent of Special Services for the Windsor Separate School Board (See Appendix A).

Research Design of the Project

Within the classification system developed by Tripodi, Fellini and Meyer for research, this study is identified as exploratory research. The requirements of this study are stated:

Exploratory studies are empirical research investigations which have as their purposes the formulation of a problem or questions, developing hypotheses or increasing an investigator's familiarity of a phenomenon or setting for more precise future research. Relatively systematic procedures for obtaining empirical observations and/or for the analysis of data may be used (Tripodi, et al, 1969, p. 49).

The sub-type of this research is defined as combined exploratory-descriptive study. The details of this study are as follows:

Combined exploratory-descriptive studies are those exploratory studies which seek to thoroughly describe a particular phenomenon. The purpose of these studies is to develop ideas and theoretical generalizations. Descriptions are in both quantitative and qualitative form. Sampling procedures are flexible and little concern is usually given to systematic representativeness (Tripodi, et al, p. 49).

One purpose for conducting this research project as an exploratory-descriptive study was to increase the researchers' familiarity with assertiveness training as a means of intervention with elementary school age children. Also, the results of this study hopefully will lead to more precise research with even larger populations, divergent settings and varying age groups.

HYPOTHESES

The following hypotheses were developed:

- * A student's participation in an assertiveness/social skills training program will increase that student's likelihood of choosing more appropriate behavioural responses.
- * The gender of the student will predict the likelihood of choosing behavioural responses which score significantly higher on the overall CABS (pre and post CABS).

- * A teacher will rate a student differently than will that student rate him/herself.
- * The teacher's choice of rating a student after the student participated in an assertiveness/social skills program will indicate a more assertive score.

Operational Definitions

"An operational definition of a concept delineates all the specific procedures that are required for describing a particular concept so that it can be measured" (Tripodi, 1980, p. 191).

In order to test the hypotheses, the variables were operationally defined as follows:

1. Children's Assertive Behavior Scale The total absolute score (all sub-tests) received on CABS. This absolute score represents an initial assertiveness score. Scores could range from 0 to 54. The higher the score, the greater the child's level of unassertiveness. Conversely, the lower the score, the greater the child's assertiveness.
2. Passive Score The score calculated from the Passive sub-test (PACABS) of the CABS. The score could range from -54 to -1. This refers to the child's deficiency in assertive responses due to a passive repertoire.
3. Aggressive Score The score calculated from the Aggressive sub-test (AGCABS) of the CABS. The score could range from +54 to 1. This refers to the child's deficiency in assertive responses due to an aggressive repertoire.

4. Assertive Behaviour This behaviour enables a person to express feelings, stand up for his/her rights and those of others, state his/her opinions and thoughts without abusing or taking advantage of others.
5. Assertive Training This training method teaches social skills that include learning how to express behaviours inherent in assertiveness.
6. Self-Report A paper-pencil instrument (CABS) completed by the child to identify his/her own behavioural response which best represents his/her reaction to various social situations.

Population and Sample

The population for this research was all grade four children in the elementary schools within the Windsor Separate School Board. The total number of grade four children registered at 47 schools for 1982-83 school year as reported by the Windsor Separate School Board was 1,299.5.

The type of sampling procedures was availability or accidental sampling. Probability techniques were not utilized for selecting the sample and therefore it must not be assumed that the sample represents the population. Non-probability samples are suited to exploratory studies where investigators are merely interested in obtaining as much unique data on a research question as possible (Seaburg, p. 86).

The researchers approached the Windsor Separate School Board requesting that the school board officials designate two grade four classes at two different schools. The researchers requested that these schools be similar in student population, neighbourhoods served, and that the teachers at the classes to be selected have similar years of teaching experience.

A flip of the coin determined which of the two schools was to act as the pre-post testing control group and which was to be the site of the treatment group. The specific classes used in the sample will not be named to protect the confidentiality of the participants. The decision is in keeping with the policy of the Windsor Separate School Board (see Appendix A). The total sample size was 52 students in two fourth grade classrooms; 30 students in one classroom became the treatment group and 22 students in another classroom constituted the control group.

Data Collection Methodology

The data collection methodology was dependent on the population studied, resources available and the research problem.

The choices were a behaviourally designed Self-Report Instrument for Children (CABS) (Appendix D), and the Teacher's Ratings System (TRCABS) (Appendix E) which was a version of CABS.

Both instruments were validated for use by Michelson and Wood, 1978, hereafter referred to by initials only.

CABS

The CABS measured general and specific social skills and covered many socially relevant situations which have been identified (M & W) as problematic for children.

Also, CABS (M & W) self-report scales were administered to the students in the presence of one researcher, who was available in case of any misunderstandings or questions. A weakness in this form of data collection rests with the child's possible inaccuracy and subjectivity in representing actual behaviour, making the validity of his/her self-observations open to question.

TRCABS

The second measure employed was the Teacher's Rating Scale (TRCABS) which provided useful information for assessing assertive skills by a significant other in the child's environment.

This procedure's advantages lie in its practicality and socially valid assessment strategies for large groups of children. A major weakness is that the assessment relies on the social judgments of adults in a child's environment. Accuracy and functional utility of the ratings may also be lacking with this type of assessment procedure.

The demographic data required to describe the participants was collected through the students' school records. The researchers were able to obtain the child's sex, marital status of parents, birth order of the child, the number of children in the family, the employment status of the parents and the number of

school placements the child has had to date.

Data Collection Instrument

The CABS data collection instrument (Appendix D) utilized in this research project consisted of a 27 item inventory. Item categories consisted of assertive content areas dealing with a variety of assertive situations and behaviours such as giving and receiving compliments, complaints, empathy, making requests, learning to say "no", initiating, maintaining, and ending conversations.

The Children's Assertive Behavior Scale (CABS) which was developed by Woods and Michelson (1978) is a behaviourally designed self-report instrument for children which measures general and specific social skills and covers numerous situations relevant to children.

Response categories for each CABS item were designed to vary along a scrambled continuum of passive-assertive-aggressive responses. For each item there are five possible choices of answers; the respondent was to choose one which best represents the subject's behaviour in that situation.

The five possible answers, were very passive, passive, assertive, aggressive and very aggressive. This continuum provided three scores indicating an overall score as well as those types of non-assertive behaviour used for various content areas, ie, passive or aggressive (M & W). Overall, the CABS showed acceptable psychometric properties for clinical and research utility.

A second instrument used to collect data was the teacher's

version of the CABS, called TRCABS (Teachers Rating of Children's Assertive Behavior Scale) (see Appendix E) (Wood and Michelson, 1978). It consists of 27 social skills-items from CABS to which the teacher answers how a child would respond to another child of his/her same age regarding social situations presented.

Michelson et al found that the scores on the TRCABS (teachers) correlated significantly with CABS (students) total score. Although the correlations were low, the wide range obtained (0.09 - 0.82) suggested that it might be due to some teacher's inability to report accurately children's assertive behaviour rather than a problem with the scale per se.

Data Analysis Procedure

The population was described using the following demographic datum: sex of the child, marital status of parents, employment status of parents, birth order of child, number of children in the family and number of schools the child has attended to date. Measures of central tendency were calculated for number of children in the participants family, birth order of child and number of schools the child attended. Frequency distributors were used to describe sex, employment status, and marital status. These were put in tables.

CABS is an interval scale. Interval measurement not only classifies and rank orders properties of variables but places them on an equally spaced continuum (Bostwick and Kyte, p. 101).

The hypotheses were tested by using a "t test" procedure which tests for significant difference between means. The confidence level was set at .025 for a two tailed test. The relationship of the various variables and test scores were examined using chi-square.

The data analysis was carried out by computer using the Statistical Analysis System (S.A.S.) (Helwig and Council, 1979).

Limitations of Study

The following limitations occur in this study:

- * Limited by the administration's choice of schools and pre-determined size of classroom.
- * The dearth of research on assertiveness/social skills training programs with children forced the researchers to borrow concepts from adult assertiveness training program.
- * Limited to the choice of assessment measures implemented as a result of the lack of research in this area with children.
- * The utilization of teachers in this research to rate a child's social skills relies on the social judgement of adults in the child's environment. Controversy exists regarding the accuracy and utility of teacher's ratings. Greenwood et al, (1976) report that teachers' ratings are accurate measures of students' social skills, while Rinn and Markle, (1979) conclude that the utility of teachers' ratings of students' social behaviours has not yet been demonstrated.

Summary

This chapter discussed the setting, the population and sample utilized in this research. The methodological procedures used were presented and limitations of these procedures were discussed.

CHAPTER IV

PROGRAM DESIGN

Although the literature is replete with manuals for adult assertiveness training, Dr. Pat Palmer (1977) has authored the only assertiveness training books for children the researchers were able to locate: Liking Myself (ages 5-9) and The Mouse, the Monster and Me (ages 8-12). The program described herein was based upon concepts borrowed from Dr. Palmer's work and common elements from several adult assertiveness training models.

The content of this program and illustrations of student involvement will be described in this chapter utilizing a meeting-by-meeting outline. Student names have been changed to ensure anonymity.

The Initial Meeting

The researchers' goals for the session included helping the students recognize and understand the proposed purpose and goals of the "Social Skills Class" -- to learn new skills or ways to better get along with people. The leader also introduced herself, explained her own expectations and introduced classroom rules. Each student then took turns introducing himself by name and stating something of interest about himself. Only one student, named Wayne, did not participate verbally and as his turn approached to speak, a few students sitting close to where the leader was standing, whispered Wayne's name to the leader and added that Wayne does not speak out

in class. The researcher did not draw attention to Wayne but, rather said hello back to him as though he had given his name and proceeded to move on to the next child. The researcher purposefully maintained eye contact with each student as he/she introduced himself/herself.

The leader then defined and gave examples of assertive and aggressive behaviour. The students viewed the film, Hopscotch (Churchill Films, 1972) which portrays a young child trying out both assertive and aggressive behaviours in his attempt to make friends. The children learned to pick out examples of aggressive and assertive behaviours in the film and to note the consequences of those behaviours.

Following the discussion of the film, folders were passed out to each student which were to remain in the classroom until the end of the social skills program at which time the students would be allowed to take them home.

Two work sheets entitled "Ways to make friends: the aggressive way" and "the assertive way" were distributed (Appendix G). The students were instructed to draw a picture or write a short story based on what they had learned from the film about ways to make friends.

For homework, the students were asked to collect pictures of activities such as sports, family gatherings, pictures or drawings of talents, skills and special qualities such as playing instruments,

dancing, painting and singing; pictures of all different kinds of people: different sexes, ages, races, sizes and occupations. The pictures were to be added to the folder, to be used later on in a collage.

Towards the end of this first meeting a boy said to the leader, "I am aggressive", recognizing that it was at times a problem for him and that he hoped to learn a more assertive way to behave, particularly at school during recess.

The Second Meeting

The first quarter of this meeting and the subsequent meetings were set aside as a time for the students to share their observations of the behaviour of others and bring to the next meeting their impressions of whether the behaviour was assertive, aggressive or passive. There was a review of the terms aggressive and assertive behaviour and passive behaviour was defined. For clarification, the leader modelled assertive, aggressive and passive responses of someone wanting a piece of gum from someone who has a package of gum:

- Assertive: Could I please have a piece of that gum?
- Aggressive: Hey, give me some of that gum!
- Passive: I sure wish I had some gum....

The students were very eager to participate in role-playing and acted out, in pairs, aggressive, assertive and passive responses to similar situations. The students clearly understood the terms aggressive, assertive and passive and were encouraged to develop an awareness of the importance of eye contact, body posture, and

tone of voice in their role-playing.

During the role-playing, John, a student, passed a note to the leader that was addressed to another child. The note began with, "I hate you...". A discussion about this followed, without using names, wherein another student identified the note as being an aggressive note. The class suggested ways the author of the note might express in a more assertive way just what was on his/her mind and concluded that sending an aggressive note was "a mean and lousy thing to do".

The Third Meeting

During the first quarter the students shared their observations of aggressive, assertive and passive behaviour. Two components of assertive behaviour, eye contact and voice tonation, were discussed and modelled and the students were given an opportunity to practice them.

The leader read, from the book I Have Feelings (Berger, 1977), to the class. This book covers seventeen different feelings, both good and bad, and the situations that precipitate each one. Each feeling is presented by a situation, the feeling that results and finally by an explanation of that feeling. This was presented to provide an opportunity for the students to think about and talk about not only the feelings described in the book but other feelings as well --- death of pets, fear of parents' divorcing.

A work sheet titled "My Special Feelings" (Appendix G) was distributed to each child, filled out by the student and then

added to his/her folder. The students were eager to write down what made them happy, sad, angry, disappointed, proud, etc. Some students shared their descriptions with their peers while others preferred to remain private.

The Fourth Meeting

Scripts were given to students in informally assigned groups for the purpose of role-playing various responses to situations that are frequently problematic for the middle-aged child. Each row, in turn, went to the front of the class. One child was selected by the leader to read the situation aloud to the class and presenters read a possible behavioural response with a range from aggressive to passive. Classmates identified the most assertive response to the situation and discussion served to clarify the reasons for that particular selection.

The leader encouraged the students to have eye contact with his/her peers from the front of the classroom. While the students initially felt nervous or embarrassed with this activity, after one or two turns it was apparent to the leader that the students were eager to volunteer and that they also found considerable pleasure in this "game". It was of significance to the leader that Wayne role-played and read aloud to the class despite whispers that, "Wayne doesn't read out loud".

The Fifth Meeting

The theme of the fifth session was identifying personal strengths and talents. Following the sharing time, the students

viewed the film The Pound Theory.

In this animated fable, storks-in-training learn why every baby they'll deliver is different, but just as valuable as any other. A stuffy flight instructor and his star student tour the factory where babies are custom-made to match the families to which they'll be delivered. The instructor and student explore the "virtues room" where each baby receives exactly one pound of asserted "virtues" such as honesty, intelligence, good looks, athletic ability, etc. Skeptical at first, the student begins to understand that everyone is blessed with desirable traits, but those "virtues" are not always obvious. The film is designed to encourage viewers to recognize the good qualities in themselves and others. (Michael Creadman Film Co.)

The discussion following the film indicated all but five students were able to describe their own "pound of virtue" - personal strengths and talents. Three of the students verbalized their concern that they had been short-changed, that they did not have a "full measure" of virtue. Classmates responded readily as well as supportive to their concern by providing descriptions of their strengths and talents; leaving the three students feeling more positive about themselves. The leader spoke individually with the two remaining students regarding their self-concept.

The Sixth Meeting

The objective was to help the students develop skill in giving and receiving compliments. This required helping the students learn how to give and receive an honest and sincere compliment. The sixth, seventh and eighth meetings were focused on the topic "compliments".

The leader began the sixth meeting with a relaxation exercise, introduced the topic "compliments" and modelled ways to give a compliment.

Leader: I feel a little shy or nervous about this so I am going to try to relax. I want to act assertively so I'm going to remember to have eye contact and a nice sounding voice. I am going to say something honest, something I really mean, and say it right to the person.

Leader to Melissa: Melissa, I really like the blouse you are wearing today.

Melissa: Thank you.

The leader asked the class if anyone wanted to "practice" with the leader before role-playing with another student. Five students chose to role-play with the leader while the remainder of the class observed and reported what they saw.

All of the students participated by role-playing with a partner both giving and receiving a compliment. The discussion following this role-playing centered around the student's feelings about giving someone a compliment or receiving one.

The leader noted that male students selected male partners exclusively; similarly, female students chose female partners.

The Seventh Meeting

The aim of this meeting was to give the students additional practice in giving and receiving compliments. One of the students, Carol, gave the leader a list of role-playing partners who wanted to exchange compliments in front of the class. All of the students in the class had signed up on Carol's list. Again male students

had male partners; female students had female partners. The role players received encouragement, support, and feed-back from classmates. Occasionally, applause went to the student(s) making more insightful remarks such as, "David, something I like about you is you're a good sport; you don't get mad when our team loses in baseball, I wish I was more like that".

The leader asked for a male and female student to volunteer to role-play and, after the giggling subsided, Cheryl and Chris came to the front of the classroom to model how to give and receive a compliment with a student of the opposite sex. Other students wanted a turn once Cheryl and Chris broke the ice. Since there were 7 girls and 22 boys in this classroom, the girls acquired considerable practice and thoroughly enjoyed the attention from the boys.

The class discussed how it felt to exchange compliments with a student of the opposite sex. Many students indicated they felt "funny" at first but still felt "good" saying something about themselves from someone.

For homework, the students were asked to think about who they could pay a compliment to at home, to further practice, and then to report their experiences at the next meeting.

The Eighth Meeting

The students shared their homework experiences in paying compliments to family members. Generally, the student's targets were suspicious, wanting to know if the student was looking for

some money or feeling ill. There was a great deal of laughter and humour in this part of the meeting as the students demonstrated to the rest of the class how they went about their assignment.

Julie to her Aunt Gail: I really love the way you curl your hair

Aunt Gail to Julie: What's with you? I had this perm three months ago!

Cathie to her mother: Gee Mom, that's a nice dress you're wearing.

Mother to Cathie: Ha! I've had this thing for five years.

The students were reminded that compliments must be honest and sincere and were advised to let their family members know what they have been learning at school. The students noted that they initially felt peculiar paying a compliment to an adult but "once they got used to it, it was an okay thing to do".

Sharon was at the front of the classroom, about to select a role play partner when the school principal, Mr. Smith happened to come into the classroom to deliver some tapes. Sharon indicated she wanted Mr. Smith for a partner and with a little help from her classmates he very gallantly agreed.

Sharon to Mr. Smith: Gee Mr. Smith, I really like your haircut.
Mr. Smith (kissing her on the cheek) said "thank you".

The class applauded and Sharon and her classmates benefitted from this exchange with not only an adult, but an authority figure.

The Ninth Meeting

The objective was to help the students understand that making requests or asking for things in a reasonable, responsible and assertive way is acceptable and even good. The leader modelled passive,

aggressive and assertive ways of asking for things and asked for volunteers to role play similar situations.

Passive way:

Barb to friend: I sure wish I could go to the store with you.

Paul to friend: I wish I could play with your racing car.

Aggressive way:

Gail to friend: I'm going to the store with you!

Brian to friend: Give me a turn with that racing car!

Assertive way:

Melissa to friend: Can I go to the store with you?

Mark to friend: That's a great racing car, can I have a turn playing with it?

The students were cautioned that asking for something, even in an assertive way, may not always bring the desired results and that this is true for adults as well as children (Palmer, p. 8).

The students were advised that they have the right to say no to unreasonable requests. For instance, it is okay to say no to someone who asks to borrow your new record album if you don't want to lend it.

The kinds of situations where saying no is appropriate were named by the students during a class discussion:

When people ask you to do something illegal such as break windows, steal penny candies from the store, smoke cigarettes, take drugs; when people ask you to do something against your beliefs such as being mean to animals, lying, cheating; when people ask you to do things your parents would not want you to do.

The leader introduced a "Saying No" game (Palmer, 1977) to provide practice in saying "no" in certain situations.

Instructions: Sometimes it feels funny just to say "No". It helps to practice with a friend or family member. Take turns asking favours of each other - just pretending. Let the answer always be "No". Try saying "No" in different ways. Share with each other how it feels to say "No". Help each other learn to say "No." assertively - firmly but without hurting the other person (p. 47).

The students selected a partner; they practiced saying "No" together and later described how it felt to "ask" as well as how it felt to say "no". Generally, the students found it more difficult to say "no" to their partners than to ask for something. Saying "no" became easier as they practiced and became more confident with hearing themselves say "no".

The Tenth Meeting

The purpose of this meeting was to give the students additional practice in role-playing assertive responses in a variety of social situations. Scripts were used. In addition, the leader asked the students, "What would you say when--?", and described a number of situations in which the students would be required to respond (Thoft, p. 197). The students responded to each of the situations. The following is an example: "What would you say when you knock on your neighbour's door trying to sell a chocolate bar?" A number of students responded and the class provided feed-back and suggestions about how the response might be improved.

The leader and students discussed plans for termination of the social skills class.



The Eleventh Meeting

The leader intended to devote the final two meetings to evaluating the program, discussing various aspects of the course and terminating the sessions. This meeting was interrupted by students leaving periodically to participate in track and field. Too, a young second grade student came into the classroom unannounced to show her pet bird to the class. Consequently, the leader's agenda was unexpectedly modified.

The Final Meeting

Popsicles from the leader's and treats that students brought from home were shared. The students viewed the film Hopscotch again (Churchill Films, 1972) which served as a review of the assertiveness concepts learned during ~~the~~ course. Students reported what they liked best about the classroom experience:

liked being together, talking about life, using scripts, watching films, practicing compliments and working on folders.

No one reported anything they did not like about the social skills class. The students indicated they would like another program next year. Good-byes were said and the leader dealt with students' feelings around termination.

This chapter provided the design, content and illustrations, of the assertiveness training program developed by the researchers for use with fourth grade schoolchildren.

CHAPTER V
DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter will describe the sample used for this study and test the homogeneity between the treatment and control groups. The four research hypotheses will be statistically tested and accepted or rejected. Pre and post assertive behaviour scores will be correlated with specific family demographic variables. A summary of research findings will be presented.

Sample Described

The sample of this study consisted of 52 children who were in grade four at two of the 47 elementary schools within the Windsor Separate School Board.

A test of homogeneity between the treatment group and control group was performed with an ANOVA on the premeasure scores.

As seen in Table 1 the two groups did not statistically differ on any of the premeasures (CABS).

Collectively, the age of the children ranged from 9.0 years to 10.5 years, with a mean age of 9.6 years. The number of siblings in the participants' families ranged from 0 to 4, with a mean of 1.5. The number of schools attended ranged from 1 to 7 schools, with the mean number being two.

Table 2 illustrated that there were twice as many males (66.7%) as females (33.3%) in the treatment group, whereas in the control group 40.9% were males and 59.1% were females.

Table 3 showed the treatment group with an equal percentage

of "eldest child" (36.6%), the "middle child" (16.7%) and the "only child" (10.1%) made up the remainder of the birth order. In the control group 41% of the birth order was comprised of the "youngest child" with the "eldest child" (27.2%) and "middle child" (27.2%) having equal percentages. The "only child" made up the remainder (4.6%) of the total.

Table 4 illustrated marital status of the child's parents. Within the treatment group 73.3% were married, 26.7% separated and 0% widowed. The control group had 68.2% married, 22.7% separated and 9% widowed.

Table 5 described mothers' employment outside of the home. In the treatment group 83.3% of the mothers were employed and 16.7% not employed. The control group showed 54.6% employed and 45.4% unemployed.

The father's employment status is seen in Table 6. The treatment group showed 30% employed, 66.7% unemployed and 3.3% of fathers' employment status as not known. In the control group 77.3% of the fathers were employed, 4.5% not employed and 18.2% employment status not known.

As seen in Table 7, no significant correlations were obtained between the children's assertiveness behaviour score (Pre-Post CABS) and the family demographic data. The CABS scores obtained were independent of the demographic data.

Analysis of Mean Scores For Both Instruments - (CABS AND TRCABS)

In this section, the researchers examined the mean score for

both instruments, CABS and TRCABS. Both pre and post-test scores are presented and described. The mean scores indicate the degree of passive, aggressive and overall assertiveness present in the respondent's behavioural repertoire. Both treatment and control group data is presented for both males and females.

The CABS and TRCABS generates three scores: a passive score, which is the sum total of the minus answers; an aggressive score, which is the total of the positive scores; and a total score, which is the absolute value of the passive (negative) and aggressive (positive) values. The total score can be considered the degree of unassertiveness present in the respondents' behavioral repertoire (Michelson and Wood, 1982, p. 7).

Children's Assertive Behavior scale (CABS)

As seen in Table 8, males in both the treatment and control group scored higher than females on the aggressive subscores. The same held true for the total CABS. There was little difference in passive subscores between males and females in the treatment and control group.

Mean post-test CABS scores for treatment and control groups (Table 9) showed males in both treatment and control groups scored higher than the females, in the aggressive subscore and in the total CABS. Both males and females scored relatively the same in the passive subscore.

Teacher's Ratings of Children's Assertive Behavior Scale (TRCABS)

Mean pre-test TRCABS scores for treatment and control groups (Table 10) showed the teachers rating male in both the treatment and control group higher on the aggressive subscore than the females. Male passive subscores and overall TRCABS scores were again higher

than the female ratings.

Table 11 described post-test scores (TRCABS). The aggressive subscore showed the teachers rated males higher in the aggressive subscore for both control and treatment groups. The males' overall ratings were higher than the females'. Teachers rated the males higher on the passive subscores in both treatment and control groups as compared to the females.

Findings Related to the Research Hypotheses

A t-test of significant difference was utilized in order to determine significance between pre and post-test scores on the overall CABS (Children's Assertiveness Behavior Scale). Because directionality was implied, a two-tailed test was used and significance was set at the .025 level.

Hypothesis:

The participation of students in an assertiveness/social skills training program will increase his/her likelihood to choose assertive behavioural responses.

Research Findings

The t score obtained for overall CABS was $t(50) = -6.08$, $p = .0001 < .025$. Therefore, the hypothesis was accepted. It can be stated that the child's participation in an assertiveness/social skills training program increased the child's likelihood to choose assertive behavioural responses.

Hypothesis:

The gender of the student will predict the likelihood of choosing behavioral responses which score significantly higher on the overall CABS (pre and post CABS).

Research Findings

The t score obtained for overall CABS w t (50) = -3.16, $p = .0027 < .05$. Therefore, the hypothesis was accepted. It can be stated that the gender of the student predicts the likelihood of the student to choose behavioural responses which score significantly higher on the overall CABS (pre and post).

The mean pre-test CABS score for females was 13.78; for males the score was 21.31. The male mean score was higher than the female mean score. Similar results were obtained for the mean post-test CABS score; females scored 9.96 and males scored 15.24.

Hypothesis:

A teacher will rate a student differently than that student rates him/herself.

Research Findings

The t score obtained for overall pre-test CABS score was $t(50) = 1.47$, $p = .15 > .025$. Therefore, the hypothesis was rejected. There is insufficient evidence to substantiate the hypothesis. The mean difference pre-test CABS score (Teacher's rating - Student's rating) was 2.21 which implies that the teacher rated the student marginally higher than the student rated him/herself. Similar results were obtained for the post-test CABS score, i.e. $t(50) = 1.53$, $p = .13 < .025$. The mean difference post-test CABS (Teacher's rating - Student's rating) was 2.15. Teachers again rated the student marginally higher than the student rated him/herself.

Hypothesis:

The teacher's choice of rating a student after the student had participated in an assertiveness/social skills program will indicate a more assertive score.

Research Findings

The t score obtained for overall TRCABS was $t(29) = 6.73$, $p = .0001 < .025$. Therefore, the hypothesis was accepted. It can be stated that the teacher's choice of rating a student after the student has been exposed to an assertiveness training program indicated a more assertive score.

Summary

This chapter statistically described the research samples and tabled the quantitative data. A test of homogeneity indicated the two groups were statistically similar on the CABS premeasures. The effectiveness of the assertiveness/social skills training program was demonstrated using self-reports of the children and behavioural ratings by teachers. Three of the four hypotheses were accepted after statistical testing was completed. It was found that the child's likelihood of choosing assertive behavioural responses to social situations increased after participating in an assertiveness/social skills program. Furthermore, the gender of the student predicts the likelihood of a student to choose behavioural responses which score significantly higher on the overall CABS (pre and post). The teacher's choice of rating a student after the student's participation in the program indicated a more assertive score. There was no significant difference between the child's self-report measures and the teacher's ratings of the student's behavioural response. After the students

participated in the assertiveness/social skills program, the teacher's rating of the student showed significant improvement.

TABLE 1

Anova of the Premeasures on Overall CABS

Variables	F-Ratio	d.f.	P Value
Pre-passive	.66	19,27	.82
Pre-aggressive	2.01	19,27	.06
Pre-CABS	1.94	19,27	.0556

TABLE 2
Distribution of the Treatment and Control
Groups by Gender

Gender	<u>Treatment</u> n (%)	<u>Control</u> n (%)
Male	20 (66.7)	9 (40.9)
Female	10 (33.3)	13 (59.1)
Total	30 (100)	22 (100)

TABLE 3
Distribution of the Treatment and Control
Groups by Birth Order

Birth Order	Treatment n (%)	Control n (%)
Eldest Child	11 (36.6)	6 (27.2)
Middle Child	5 (16.7)	6 (27.2)
Youngest Child	11 (36.6)	9 (41.0)
Only Child	3 (10.1)	1 (4.6)
Total	30 (100)	22 (100)

TABLE 4
Distribution of the Treatment and Control Groups
by Parents' Marital Status

Parents' Marital Status	Treatment n (%)	Control n (%)
Married	22 (73.3)	15 (68.2)
Separated	8 (26.7)	5 (22.7)
Widowed	0 (0)	2 (9.1)
Total	30 (100)	22 (100)

TABLE 5
Distribution of the Treatment and Control Groups
by Mothers' Employment Outside of Home

Mothers' Employment	Treatment n (%)	Control n (%)
Employed	25 (83.3)	12 (54.6)
Not Employed	5 (16.7)	10 (45.4)
Total	30 (100)	22 (100)

TABLE 6
Distribution of the Treatment and Control Groups
by Fathers' Employment Outside Home

Fathers' Employment	Treatment n (%)	Control n (%)
Employed	9 (30.0)	17 (77.3)
Not Employed	20 (66.7)	1 (4.5)
Not Known	1 (3.3)	4 (18.2)
Total	30 (100)	22 (100)

TABLE 7

Pre-Post CABS Scores Correlated with Family Demographic Data

Family Demographic Data	Pre-CABS			Post-CABS		
	χ^2	df	P Value	χ^2	df	P Value
Marital Status	9.39	6	.15	3.86	6	.70
Birth Orders	6.46	9	.69	16.48	9	.06
Employed Mother	5.52	3	.14	.94	3	.86
Employed Father	9.38	6	.15	5.75	6	.45

*P value \leq .05

TABLE 8
Mean Pre-Test Score (CABS) for Treatment and Control Groups

Pre-Test Scores	Treatment		Control	
	M (\bar{x})	F (\bar{x})	M (\bar{x})	F (\bar{x})
Passive Subscore	-10.55	-10.8	-11	-8.3
Aggressive Subscore	10.4	6.1	11.2	3.08
Total CABS	20.9	16.9	22.2	11.38

TABLE 9
Mean Post-Test Score (CABS) for Treatment and Control Groups

Post-Test	Treatment		Control	
	M (\bar{x})	F (\bar{x})	M (\bar{x})	F (\bar{x})
Passive Subscore	-7.05	-6.8	-8.89	-7.0
Aggressive Subscore	5.75	2.8	9.44	3.23
Total CABS	12.8	9.6	20.67	10.23

TABLE 10

Mean Pre-Test Score (TRCABS) for Treatment and Control Groups

Pre-Test	Treatment		Control	
	M (\bar{x})	F (\bar{x})	M (\bar{x})	F (\bar{x})
Passive Subscore	-15.25	-14.2	-10.78	-5.62
Aggressive Subscore	11.25	.3	11.56	7.76
Total TRCABS	26.5	14.5	22.3	13.38

TABLE 11

Mean Post-Test Score (TRCABS) for Treatment and Control Groups

Pre-Test	Treatment		Control	
	M (\bar{x})	F (\bar{x})	M (\bar{x})	F (\bar{x})
Passive Subscore	-11.4	-3.8	-8.56	-4.62
Aggressive Subscore	7.6	1	12.22	8.30
Total TRCABS	19	4.8	20.78	12.92


CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to conduct and assess the effectiveness of an assertiveness/social skills program suitable for use with elementary school children. Four hypotheses were developed to assess the overall effectiveness of the program and provide structure to the research process. An accidental sampling procedure was utilized whereby officials from the Windsor Separate School Board designated two classes from two schools. The research design of the project was exploratory - descriptive. The testing instruments were developed and validated by Michelson and Wood, 1978.

Major Research Findings

These findings will be received in the same order as they are presented in Chapter V. The sample's premeasured indicators showed that the control group and the treatment group were homogeneous. Statistical analysis of the post-test measure indicated a significant difference between the treatment group and the control group as reflected by the improved assertive skill score of the treatment group. Data also declared a significant difference existed between males and females in their self-report behavioural measures. This was true for pre and post-test measures. Self-report ratings and the teachers' ratings of the students' behavioural responses revealed no significant difference. The scores for the teachers' ratings showed a significant improvement in the students' overall assertive score after participation in the assertiveness/social skills program. No



statistically significant correlations were obtained between the children's assertiveness behaviour score and the demographic data.

Results illustrated the classroom group approach was an effective method for teaching an assertiveness/social skills program.

Recommendations

The following recommendations should be read within the context of this specific research and its limitations as discussed in Chapter III.

- * A social worker working within the school system should consider assertiveness/social skills training as a possible remediation technique for correcting deficiencies in social behaviour.

- * The social work profession as a whole should be made aware of the effectiveness of assertiveness/social skills training programs for children.

- * The social work profession should consider the classroom system as a viable setting for group services with children.

- * The social work profession should incorporate the assertiveness/social skills program into their repertoire of intervention techniques for the following reasons: cost efficiency, time effectiveness and the goal achievement possibilities for social skills development.

- * The assertiveness/social skills training program should be provided in the early part of the school year to enable the

child to have the opportunity to maintain and practice those skills learned.

* Future research should investigate the relationship between a child's academic performance and a child's level of assertiveness.

* Subsequent research should examine the appropriateness of an assertiveness/social skills training program with special need groups such as central processing disabled children and physically disabled children.

* Future research should investigate the relationship between a child's self-report and an adult's behavioural observations in other natural settings, such as family, teams and recreational groups.

* Additional research should investigate what specific elements of this program were most responsible for its effectiveness.

* Future studies should investigate the maintenance of program gains through the use of follow-up studies, evaluating the durability and usefulness of program techniques.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Statements of Limitations



APPENDIX B

Parent Consent Forms

APPENDIX C

Permission to Use CABS



APPENDIX D

Children's Assertive Behavior Scale

CABS

CHILDREN'S ASSERTIVE BEHAVIOR SCALE

INSTRUCTIONS

You are going to answer some questions about what you do in various situations. There are not any "right" or "wrong" answers. You are just to answer what you would really do. For example, a question might be:

"What do you do if someone does not listen to you when you are talking to them?"

You have to choose the answer which is like what you usually do. You would usually:

- a. Tell them to listen.
- b. Keep on talking.
- c. Stop talking and ask them to listen.
- d. Stop talking and walk away.
- e. Talk louder.

From these 5 answers, you decide which one is most like the one you would do if the someone in the question was another youth.

Now circle the letter for each question. After you have marked your answer for the question, go on to the next one. If you cannot understand a word, question, or answer, then raise your hand and you will be helped. Remember to answer honestly about how you would act.

There is no time limit, but you should answer as quickly as possible.

1. Someone says to you, "I think you are a very nice person."

You would usually:

- a) Say "No, I'm not that nice."
- b) Say "Yes, I think I am the best!"
- c) Say "Thank you."
- d) Say nothing and blush.
- e) Say "Thanks, I am really great."

2. Someone does something that you think is really great.

You would usually:

- a) Act like it wasn't that great and say, "That was alright."
- b) Say "That was alright, but I've seen better."
- c) Say nothing.
- d) Say "I can do much better than that."
- e) Say "That was really great!"

3. You are working on something you like and think is very good. Someone says, "I don't like it."

You would usually:

- a) Say "You're a dummy!"
- b) Say "I think its good."
- c) Say "You're right," although you don't really agree.
- d) Say "I think this is great; besides what do you know!"
- e) Feel hurt and say nothing.

4. You forget something you were supposed to bring and someone says, "You're so dumb! You'd forget your head if it weren't screwed on!"
You would usually:
- Say "I'm smarter than you any day; besides what do you know!"
 - Say "Yes, you're right, sometimes I do ~~act~~ dumb."
 - Say "If anybody's dumb, it's ~~you!~~"
 - Say "Nobody's perfect. I'm not dumb just because I forgot something!"
 - Say nothing or ignore it.
5. Someone you were supposed to meet arrives 30 minutes late, which makes you upset. The person says nothing about why they are late.
You would usually:
- Say "I'm upset that you kept me waiting like this."
 - Say "I was wondering when you'd get here."
 - Say "This is the last time I'll wait for you!"
 - Say ~~nothing~~ to the person.
 - Say "You're a jerk! You're late!"
6. You need someone to do something for you.
You would usually:
- Not ask for anything to be done.
 - Say "You gotta do this for me!"
 - Say "Would you please do something for me?", and then explain what you ~~want~~.
 - Give a small hint that you need something done.
 - Say "I want you to do this for me."

7. Someone asks you to do something which would keep you from doing what you really want to do.

You would usually:

- a) Say "I did have other plans, but I'll do what you want."
- b) Say "No way! Find someone else."
- c) Say "O.K., I'll do what you want."
- d) Say "Forget it, shove off!"
- e) Say "I've already made other plans, maybe next time."

8. You see someone you would like to meet.

You would usually:

- a) Yell at the person and tell them to come over to you.
- b) Walk over to the person, introduce yourself, and start talking.
- c) Walk over near the person and wait for him to talk to you.
- d) Walk over to the person and start talking about great things you have
- e) Not say anything to the person.

9. Someone you haven't met before stops and says "hello" to you.

You would usually:

- a) Say "What do you want?"
- b) Not say anything.
- c) Say "Don't bother me. Get lost!"
- d) Say "Hello," introduce yourself, and ask who they are.
- e) Nod your head, say "hi" and walk away

10. You know that someone is feeling upset.

You would usually:

- a) Say "You seem upset; can I help?"
- b) Be with them and not talk about their being upset.
- c) Say "What's wrong with you?"
- d) Not say anything and leave them alone.
- e) Laugh and say "You're just a big baby."

11. You are feeling upset, and someone says "You seem upset."

You would usually:

- a) Turn your head away or say nothing.
- b) Say "It's none of your business!"
- c) Say "Yes, I am upset, thank you for asking."
- d) Say "It's nothing."
- e) Say "I'm upset, leave me alone."

12. Someone else makes a mistake and someone blames it on you.

You would usually:

- a) Say "You're crazy!"
- b) Say "That wasn't my fault; someone else made the mistake."
- c) Say "I don't think it was my fault."
- d) Say "Wasn't me, you don't know what you're talking about!"
- e) Take the blame or say nothing.

13. Someone asks you to do something, but you don't know why it has to be done.

You would usually:

- a) Say "This doesn't make any sense, I don't want to do it."
- b) Do what they ask and say nothing.
- c) Say "This is dumb, I'm not going to do it!"
- d) Before doing it you say "I don't understand why you want this done."
- e) Say "If that's what you want," and then do it.

14. Someone says to you they think that something you did was terrific.

You would usually:

- a) Say "Yes, I usually do better than most."
- b) Say "No, that wasn't so hot."
- c) Say "That's right, because I'm the best."
- d) Say "Thank you."
- e) Ignore it and say nothing.

15. Someone has been very nice to you.

You would usually:

- a) Say "You have been really nice to me, thanks."
- b) Act like they weren't that nice and say, "Yea, thanks."
- c) Say "You have treated me alright, but I deserve even better."
- d) Ignore it and say nothing.
- e) Say "You don't treat me good enough!"

16. You are talking very loudly with a friend and someone says, "Excuse me, but you are being too noisy."

You would usually:

- a) Stop talking immediately.
- b) Say "If you don't like it, get lost!" and keep on talking loudly.
- c) Say "I'm sorry, I'll talk quietly," and then talk in a quiet voice.
- d) Say "I'm sorry," and stop talking.
- e) Say "Alright," and continue to talk loudly.

17. You are waiting in line and someone steps in front of you.

You would usually:

- a) Make quiet comments such as, "Some people have a lot of nerve." without actually saying anything directly to the person.
- b) Say "Get to the end of the line!"
- c) Say nothing to the person.
- d) Say loudly, "Get out of this line you creep!"
- e) Say "I was here first; please go to the end of the line."

18. Someone does something to you that you don't like and it makes you angry.

You would usually:

- a) Shout "You're a creep, I hate you!"
- b) Say "I am angry, I don't like what you did."
- c) Act hurt about it but not say anything to the person.
- d) Say "I'm mad. I don't like you!"
- e) Ignore it and not say anything to the person.

19. Someone has something that you want to use.

You would usually:

- a) Tell them to give it to you.
- b) Not ask to use it.
- c) Take it from them.
- d) Tell the person you would like to use it, and then ask to use it.
- e) Make a comment about it, but not ask to use it.

20. Someone asks if they can borrow something of yours, but it is new and you don't want to let them use it.

You would usually:

- a) Say "No, I just got it and I don't want to lend it out; maybe some other time."
- b) Say "I really don't want to, but you can use it."
- c) Say "No, go get your own!"
- d) Give it to them even though you don't want to.
- e) Say "You're crazy!"

21. Some people are talking about a hobby you really like and you want to join and say something.

You would usually:

- a) Not say anything.
- b) Interrupt the people and immediately start telling them how good you are at this hobby.
- c) Move closer to the people and enter into the conversation when you have a chance.
- d) Move closer to the people and wait for them to notice you.
- e) Interrupt the people and immediately start talking about how much

22. You are working on a hobby and someone asks, "What are you doing?"

You would usually:

- a) Say "Oh, just something," or "Oh, nothing."
- b) Say "Don't bother me. Can't you see I'm working."
- c) Keep on working and say nothing.
- d) Say "It's none of your business!"
- e) Stop working and explain what you were doing.

23. You see someone trip and fall down.

You would usually:

- a) Laugh and say "Why don't you watch where you are going?"
- b) Say "Are you alright, is there anything I can do?"
- c) Ask "What happened?"
- d) Say "That's the breaks!"
- e) Do nothing and ignore it.

24. You bumped your head on a shelf and it hurts, someone says "Are you alright?"

You would usually:

- a) Say "I'm fine, leave me alone!"
- b) Say nothing and ignore them.
- c) Say "Why don't you mind your business!"
- d) Say "No, I hurt my head; thanks for asking."
- e) Say "It's nothing, I'm OK."

25. You made a mistake and someone else is blamed for it.

You would usually:

- a) Say nothing.
- b) Say "It's their mistake!"
- c) Say "I made the mistake."
- d) Say "I don't think that person did it."
- e) Say "That's their tough luck!"

26. You feel insulted by something someone said to you.

You would usually:

- a) Walk away from them, but don't tell them you feel upset.
- b) Tell them not to do it again.
- c) Say nothing to the person, although you feel insulted.
- d) Insult them back and call them a name.
- e) Tell them you don't like what they said and tell them not to do it again.

27. Someone often interrupts you when you're speaking.

You would usually:

- a) Say "Excuse me, I would like to finish what I was saying."
- b) Say "This isn't fair; don't I get to talk?"
- c) Interrupt the other person by starting to talk again.
- d) Say nothing and let the person continue to talk.
- e) Say "Shut up, I was talking!"

APPENDIX. E

Teacher's Questionnaire

TRCABS

TEACHER/PARENT QUESTIONNAIRE OF YOUTH'S BEHAVIOR

Described in this questionnaire are various situations and possible responses that a youth would use. From your observations over the past 2 months, please select the response that best describes the youth's usual response to the given situation. Please consider each situation and its alternative responses in an accurate and objective manner. You will be asked to answer how the youth would react to another youth. Complete confidentiality will be maintained and all information will be used strictly for research purposes. Therefore, it is essential that your answers are based specifically upon the youth's behavior.

DO NOT WRITE ON THE TEST

WRITE ON THE ANSWER SHEET ONLY

Please return this questionnaire with your answer sheet.

1. Someone says to the youth, "I think you are a very nice person."

The youth would usually:

- a) Say, "No I'm not that nice."
- b) Say, "Yes I think I am the best!"
- c) Say, "Thank you."
- d) Say nothing and blush.
- e) Say, "Thanks, I am really great."

2. Someone does something that the youth thinks is really great.

The youth would usually:

- a) Act like it wasn't that great and say, "That was alright."
- b) Say, "That was alright, but I've seen better."
- c) Say nothing.
- d) Say, "I can do much better than that."
- e) Say, "That was really great!"

3. The youth is working on something they like and think is very good.

Someone says "I don't like it."

The youth would usually:

- a) Say, "You're a dummy!"
- b) Say, "I think its good."
- c) Say, "You're right," although you don't really agree.
- d) Say, "I think this is great; besides what do you know!"
- e) Feel hurt and say nothing.

4. The youth forgets something they were suppose to bring and someone says, "You're so dumb! You'd forget your head if it wasn't screwed on!"

The youth would usually:

- a) Say, "I'm smarter than you any day; besides what do you know!"
 - b) Say, "Yes, you're right, sometimes I do act dumb."
 - c) Say, "If anybody is dumb, it's you!"
 - d) Say, "Nobody's perfect. I'm not dumb just because I forgot something!"
 - e) Say nothing or ignore it.
5. Someone the youth was suppose to meet arrives 30 minutes late, which makes the youth upset. The person says nothing about why they are late.

The youth would usually:

- a) Say, "I'm upset that you kept me waiting like this."
 - b) Say, "I was wondering when you'd get here."
 - c) Say, "This is the last time I'll wait for you!"
 - d) Say nothing to the person.
 - e) Say, "You're a jerk! You're late!"
6. The youth needs someone to do something for them.

The youth would usually:

- a) Not ask for anything to be done.
- b) Say, "You gotta do this for me!"
- c) Say, "Would you please do something for me?" and then explain what you want.
- d) Give a small hint that you need something done.
- e) Say, "I want you to do this for me."

7. Someone asks the youth to do something which would keep him from doing something they really wanted to do.

The youth would usually:

- a) Say, "I did have other plans, but I'll do what you want."
- b) Say, "No way! Find someone else."
- c) Say, "O.K., I'll do what you want."
- d) Say, "Forget it, shove off."
- e) Say, "I've already made other plans, maybe next time."

8. The youth sees someone he would really like to meet.

The youth would usually:

- a) Yell at the person and tell them to come over to them.
- b) Walk over to the person, introduce themselves, and start talking.
- c) Walk over near the person and wait for them to talk to the youth.
- d) Walk over to the person and start talking about great things the youth has done.
- e) Not say anything to the person.

9. Someone the youth has not met before stops and says "hello" to the youth.

The youth would usually:

- a) Say, "What do you want?"
- b) Say, "Don't bother me. Get lost!"
- c) Not say anything.
- d) Say, "Hello", introduce himself, and ask who they are.
- e) Nod their head, say "Hi", and walk away.

10. The youth knows that someone is feeling upset.
The youth would usually:
- a) Say, "You seem upset; can I help?"
 - b) Be with them and not talk about their being upset.
 - c) Say, "What's wrong with you?"
 - d) Not say anything and leave them alone."
 - e) Laugh and say, "You're just a big baby."
11. The youth is feeling upset, and someone says, "You seem upset."
The youth would usually:
- a) Turn away or say nothing.
 - b) Say, "It's none of your business."
 - c) Say, "Yes, I am upset, thank you for asking."
 - d) Say, "It's nothing."
 - e) Say, "I'm upset, leave me alone."
12. Someone else makes a mistake and someone blames it on the youth.
The youth would usually:
- a) Say, "You're crazy."
 - b) Say, "That wasn't my fault; someone else made the mistake."
 - c) Say, "I don't think it was my fault."
 - d) Say, "Wasn't me, you don't know what you're talking about!"
 - e) Take the blame or say nothing.

- ✓ 13. Someone asks the youth to do something, but the youth doesn't know what has to be done.

The youth would usually:

- a) Say, "This doesn't make any sense, I don't want to do it."
b) Do what they ask and say nothing.
c) Say, "This is dumb, I'm not going to do it!"
d) Before doing it you say, " I don't understand why you want this done."
e) Say, "If that's what you want," and then do it.

- > 14. Someone says to the youth they think that something the youth did was terrific.

The youth would usually:

- a) Say, "Yes, I usually do better than most."
b) Say, "No, that wasn't so hot."
c) Say, "That's right, because I'm the best."
d) Say, "Thank you."
e) Ignore it and say nothing.

15. Someone has been very nice to the youth.

The youth would usually:

- a) Say, "You have been really nice to me, thanks."
b) Act like they weren't that nice and say, "Yea, thanks."
c) Say, "You have treated me alright, but I deserve even better."
d) Ignore it and say nothing.
e) Say, "You don't treat me good enough!"

16. The youth is talking very loudly with a friend and someone says, "Excuse me, but you are being too noisy."

The youth would usually:

- a) Stop talking immediately.
 - b) Say, "If you don't like it, get lost!", and keep on talking loudly.
 - c) Say, "I'm sorry, I'll talk quietly", and then talk in a quiet voice.
 - d) Say, "I'm sorry" and stop talking.
 - e) Say, "Aright" and continue to talk loudly.
17. The youth is waiting in line and someone steps in front of them.

The youth would usually:

- a) Make a quiet comment such as, "Some people have a lot of nerve," without actually saying anything directly to the person.
- b) Say, "Get to the end of the line!"
- c) Say nothing to the person.
- d) Say loudly, "Get out of this line you creep!"
- e) Say, "I was here first; please go to the end of the line."

18. Someone does something to the youth that the youth doesn't like and it makes the youth angry.

The youth would usually:

- a) Shout, "You're a creep, I hate you!"
- b) Say, "I'm angry, I don't like what you did'."
- c) Act hurt about it but not say anything to the person.
- d) Say, "I'm mad. I don't like you!"
- e) Ignore it and not say anything to the person.

19. Someone has something that the youth wants to use.

The youth would usually:

- a) Tell them to give it to you.
- b) Not ask to use it.
- c) Take it from them.
- d) Tell the person you would like to use it, and then ask to use it.
- e) Make a comment about it, but not ask to use it.


20. Someone asks if they can borrow something of the youth's, but it is new and the youth doesn't want to let them use it.

The youth would usually:

- a) Say, "No, I just got it and I don't want to lend it out; maybe some other time."
- b) Say, "I really don't want to, but you can use it."
- c) Say, "No, go get your own!"
- d) Give it to them even though the youth doesn't want to.
- e) Say, "You're crazy!"

21. Some people are talking about a hobby the youth really likes, and the youth wants to join in and say something.

The youth would usually:

- a) Not say anything.
 - b) Interrupt the people and immediately start telling them how good the youth is at this hobby.
 - c) Move closer to the people and enter into the conversation when the youth has a chance.
 - d) Move closer to the people and wait for them to notice.
 - e) Interrupt the people and immediately start talking about how the youth likes the hobby.
- 

22. The youth is working on a hobby and someone asks, "What are you doing?"

The youth would usually:

- a) Say, "Oh, just something." "Oh, nothing."
- b) Say, "Don't bother me, can't you see I'm working."
- c) Keep on working and say nothing.
- d) Say, "It's none of your business!"
- e) Stop working and explain what they were doing.

23. The youth sees someone trip and fall down.

The youth would usually:

- a) Laugh and say, "Why don't you watch where you're going?"
- b) Say, "Are you alright, is there anything I can do?"
- c) Ask, "What happened?"
- d) Say, "That's the breaks!"
- e) Do nothing and ignore it.

24. The youth bumps their head on a shelf and it hurts. Someone says, "Are you alright?"

The youth would usually:

- a) Say, "I'm fine, leave me alone!"
- b) Say nothing and ignore them.
- c) Say, "Why don't you mind your own business!"
- d) Say, "No, I hurt my head, thanks for asking."
- e) Say, "It's nothing, I'm O.K."

25. The youth makes a mistake and someone else is blamed for it.

The youth would usually:

- a) Say nothing.
- b) Say, "It's their mistake!"
- c) Say, "I made the mistake."
- d) Say, "I don't think that person did it."
- e) Say, "That's their tough luck!"

26. The youth feels insulted by something someone said to them.

The youth would usually:

- a) Walk away from them, but don't tell them they feel upset.
- b) Tell them not to do it again.
- c) Say nothing to the person, although the youth feels insulted.
- d) Insult them back and call them a name.
- e) Tell them they didn't like what they said and tell them not to do it again.

27. Someone often interrupts the youth when they're speaking.

The youth would usually:

- a) Say, "Excuse me, I would like to finish what I was saying."
- b) Say, "This isn't fair, don't I get to talk?"
- c) Interrupt the other person by starting to talk again.
- d) Say nothing and let the other person continue to talk.
- e) Say, "Shut up, I was talking!"

APPENDIX F

Answer Key to CABS

Answer Key to Children's Assertive Behavior Scale

1.	a=-2,	b=+2,	c= 0,	d=-1,	e=+1
2.	a=-1,	b=+1,	c=-2,	d=+2,	e= 0
3.	a=+2,	b= 0,	c=-2,	d=+1,	e=-1
4.	a=+1,	b=-2,	c=+2,	d= 0,	e=-1
5.	a= 0,	b=-1,	c=+1,	d=-2,	e=+2
6.	a=-2,	b=+2,	c= 0,	d=-1,	e=+1
7.	a=-1,	b=+1,	c=-2,	d=+2,	e= 0
8.	a=+2,	b= 0,	c=-1,	d=+1,	e=-2
9.	a=+1,	b=-2,	c=+2,	d= 0,	e=-1
10.	a= 0,	b=-1,	c=+1,	d=-2,	e=+2
11.	a=-2,	b=+2,	c= 0,	d=-1,	e=+1
12.	a=+2,	b= 0,	c=-1,	d=+1,	e=-2
13.	a=+1,	b=-2,	c=+2,	d= 0,	e=-1
14.	a=+1,	b=-2,	c=+2,	d= 0,	e=-1
15.	a= 0,	b=-1,	c=+1,	d=-2,	e=+2
16.	a=-2,	b=+2,	c= 0,	d=-1,	e=+1
17.	a=-1,	b=+1,	c=-2,	d=+2,	e= 0
18.	a=+2,	b= 0,	c=-1,	d=+1,	e=-2
19.	a=+1,	b=-2,	c=+2,	d= 0,	e=-1
20.	a= 0,	b=-1,	c=+1,	d=-2,	e=+2
21.	a=-2,	b=+2,	c= 0,	d=-1,	e=+1
22.	a=-1,	b=+1,	c=-2,	d=+2,	e= 0
23.	a=-2,	b= 0,	c=-1,	d=+1,	e=-2
24.	a=+1,	b=-2,	c=+2,	d= 0,	e=-1
25.	a=-2,	b=+2,	c= 0,	d=-1,	e=+1
26.	a=-2,	b=+1,	c=-1,	d=+2,	e= 0
27.	a= 0,	b=-1,	c=+1,	d=-2,	e=+2

Milelson and Wood, 1978

The CABS generates three scores; a passive score, which is the sum total of the minus answers; an aggressive score, which is the total of the positive scores; and a total score, which is the absolute value of the passive (negative) and aggressive (positive) values. The total score can be considered the degree of unassertiveness present in the respondent's behavioural repertoire.

APPENDIX G

Feelings Exercise

My Special Feelings



I am happy when _____


I feel angry when _____

I like to _____

I feel silly when _____

I am glad when _____

I feel safe when _____

 I feel sad when _____

I am proud of _____

I am worried about _____

I feel lonely when _____

I am excited when _____

I feel scared when _____

I love _____



Giving compliments

Assertive

Ways to make friends

Aggressive

Relax

Criticism

Making requests

How and when to say no

Receiving compliments

Eye contact

Passive

Good posture

Pleasant sounding voice

Ways to Make Friends

The Aggressive Way

The Passive Way

The Assertive Way-

APPENDIX H

Thank You Letters to Parents

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VITAE AUCTORIS

Glory J. Pollen was born on August 9, 195], in Windsor, Ontario. Her secondary education was completed in 1971 at Riverside High School. In 1974 she obtained a Bachelor of Arts degree in Psychology from the University of Windsor, Windsor, Ontario.

Upon graduation she worked for Children's Services, Ministry of Community and Social Services both as a Child Care Worker (1974-1978) and a Supervisor in a Juvenile Detention Centre (1978-1980). She then was assigned a position with Adult Services, Family Benefits Branch of the same Ministry in the position of Field Worker.

In 1981 she received a leave of absence from the Ministry to return to the University of Windsor and graduated with her Bachelor of Social Work degree in 1982. She expects to graduate in 1983 with her Master of Social Work degree.

She is currently employed as a Social Worker with Vocational Rehabilitation Services, Ministry of Community and Social Services in Chatham, Ontario.

VITAE AUCTORIS

Linda Marie Root (nee Gibson) was born on October 15, 1951, in Windsor, Ontario. She attended David Maxwell Public School and W. F. Herman Collegiate in Windsor. In 1969 she entered the Bachelor of Social Work program at the University of Windsor and graduated in May, 1973.

Following graduation she was employed at the Children's Aid Society of the County of Essex until she resigned in November, 1974 to raise her family. Her learning and professional growth continued during the years at home through her involvement in a variety of community and school-related activities. From September, 1980 to May, 1982 she worked on a volunteer basis, with children within the Windsor Separate School System whose behaviour interfered with classroom functioning and who had been identified as needing help with social skills development. She was employed as a social worker handling after-hours emergency calls in a combined service to the Children's Aid Society of the County of Essex and Roman Catholic Children's Aid Society for the County of Essex from May, 1982 to May, 1983.

In September, 1982 she entered the Master of Social Work program at the University of Windsor. She expects to graduate in the fall of 1983.