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Substance abuse prevention : effects of a developmentally based psychological education curriculum.

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SUBSTANCE ABUSE PREVENTION:
EFFECTS OF A DEVELOPMENTALLY BASED
PSYCHOLOGICAL EDUCATION CURRICULUM

A Dissertation Presented

By

KATHLEEN J. PHILLIPS

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

May 1980

Education

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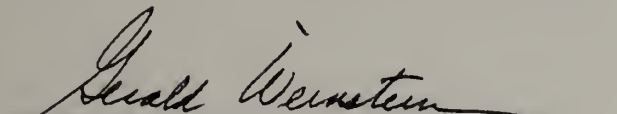
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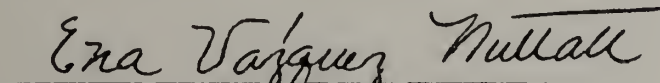
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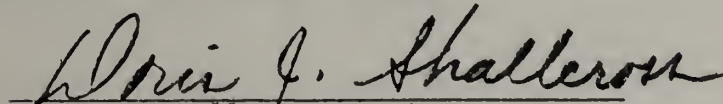
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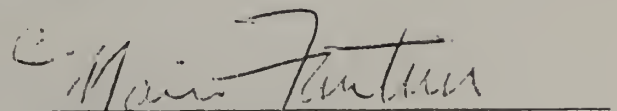
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ABSTRACT

Substance Abuse Prevention:
Effects of a Developmentally Based
Psychological Education Curriculum

May 1980

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One approach to substance abuse prevention is psychological education curriculum. However most attempts to apply this approach have not been solidly based in theory or carefully evaluated. This study sought to evaluate the effects of a psychological education curriculum based upon a developmental theory of self-knowledge and designed to foster human development and prevent substance abuse.

The literature covering studies of psychological education approaches to substance abuse prevention, the application of developmental theory to psychological education in general and developmentally based psychological education approaches to substance abuse prevention were reviewed.

The study hypothesized that there would be differences in self-knowledge, self-esteem, drug attitude and drug use between 12 to 14 year old students who experienced a curriculum entitled "Decisions and Consequences" (DCC) and those who did not. Four rural junior high school classes in Maine were evaluated. DCC was taught approximately

once a week to test classes by teachers trained to use the curriculum. Comparable classes following existing curriculum were used as controls.

The study used two designs. The pretest-posttest experimental-control group design was used for Group 3 which was composed of students assigned randomly from a common population. Data obtained were analyzed using analysis of covariance. The remaining sample groups, Groups 1, 2, and 4, were already assembled and so the quasi-experimental non-equivalent control group design was used. Where appropriate, the data was analyzed by gain score analysis and/or analysis of covariance. In addition pretest and posttest mean scores for the test and control class in each sample group were compared using the t ratio.

Results were mixed and seem to be effected by variations in the characteristics of each sample group and variations in treatment conditions.

Group 1 test class students were familiar with psychological education and were taught by an experienced psychological educator. The school administration actively supported psychological education. For this group test class self-knowledge remained stable. The control class self-knowledge decreased, $t = 2.74$, $p = .029$. Self-esteem scores increased more for the test class than for the control class, $F = 3.959$, $p = .055$. No changes occurred in drug attitudes and the test class students remained non-drug users.

In Group 3, test class students were not familiar with psychological education and had a moderately experienced psychological educator. For this group, test class self-knowledge remained stable while control

class self-knowledge declined. The difference between the two classes was significant, $F = 4.424$, $p = .04$. No other differences occurred between the classes.

The Group 4 test class was composed of "problem" students taught by an inexperienced psychological educator. Self-knowledge declined in both test and control classes. The test class decrease was significant $t = 4.05$, $p = .005$. Drug use remained low for the test class and increased for the control class, $t = -3.07$, $p = .005$. No changes occurred in self-esteem or drug attitude.

The Group 2 test class had an inexperienced psychological educator and involved a new guidance program taught in an open space and often disturbed by nongroup members. No changes occurred in this group.

A discussion of this study in relation to existing psychological education approaches to substance abuse prevention was presented. The intervention studied was one of a small percentage of such approaches that has been carefully evaluated. The theory base used was unique to the field of substance abuse prevention and somewhat unique to the field of psychological education. The present study indicated that a developmental approach shows promise for achieving some of the goals of psychological education such as increasing self-esteem and inhibiting drug abuse.

Recommendations for future study were made.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

In the fall of 1976 the Maine State Department of Educational and Cultural Services sponsored a substance abuse prevention curriculum based upon a developmental theory of self knowledge. The Self Knowledge Alcohol and Drug Abuse Prevention Curriculum, later renamed Decisions and Consequences, was written for use at the junior and senior high school level and tested by seven teachers in the spring of 1977. Verbal and written comments of students and teachers plus some measured changes in student self-esteem indicated that use of the curriculum was worth pursuing (Phillips, 1977). In 1977-78 the curriculum was implemented in several Maine junior high schools. This study is a systematic evaluation of the effectiveness of that curriculum.

Statement of the Problem

Millions of persons every year use and abuse a wide variety of substances capable of altering their behavior, sensations and/or perceptions (Non-medical Use of Psychoactive Substances, 1976). Many experts state that this problem can be solved only when its underlying causes are addressed. They argue that persons who abuse drugs and

The development of the "DCC" and part of this study was supported by the Division of Human Development and Guidance Resources (now the Unit for Alcohol and Drug Education); Maine State Department of Educational and Cultural Services, Augusta, Maine 04333.

other substances do so because many of their personal and social needs are not being met (Norem-Hebeisen and Lucas, 1977; Nowlis, 1975). Can programs be designed to help persons fulfill their needs in constructive rather than destructive ways? In the last ten years several educational curricula have been tried out which seek to foster human development and thereby prevent substance abuse; however, few of these have been solidly based in theory or carefully evaluated (Goodstadt, 1974; Randall and Wong, 1976; Schaps, DiBartolo, Palley and Chargin, 1978). This study seeks to determine the effects of a psychological education curriculum for substance abuse prevention based upon a developmental theory of self-knowledge. Specifically it will evaluate the effects of the curriculum upon student self-knowledge, self-esteem, drug attitude and drug use.

Definition of Terms

Substance abuse. Although some literature assumes substance abuse to be any illicit use of drugs or alcohol this study will take a broader view. Substance abuse is defined as the physically and/or psychologically self-destructive use of any substance capable of altering behavior, sensation and/or perception including but not limited to tobacco, alcohol, marijuana, amphetamines, barbituates, hallucinogens and heroin. The phrase "drug abuse" is often used synonymously in the literature with substance abuse and in this study will be used as an equivalent for substance abuse.

Prevention. The concept of prevention, developed in the field of

public health, is divided into three levels: primary--aimed at persons not yet diseased; secondary--aimed at persons in the early stages of infection; and tertiary--aimed at persons in advanced stages of infection. By conceptualizing infection as abusive use of drugs, primary prevention can be defined as efforts aimed at keeping non-users from becoming users and helping occasional users to revert to non-use or at least keeping them from progressing to heavy use (Bratman and Suffet, 1975). Prevention in this study will refer to primary prevention only.

Psychological education. Psychological education refers to any learning opportunities designed deliberately to help persons explore their personal knowledge, that is, the conscious experiences of their thoughts, feelings and actions in relationship to self and others, in order to foster psychological development as described in terms of humanistic psychology and/or structural developmental theory.

Psychological education can include but is not defined by techniques such as magic circle, active listening, values clarification and human relations "exercises." It is variously known as affective, humanistic and/or confluent education.

Curriculum. Curriculum is a written design for intended learnings which includes educational goals and experiences organized in logical sequences.

Developmental theory. Developmental theory refers to cognitive structural developmental theory, theory which describes human development in terms of a series of stages of cognition about self and the world which

are invariant, hierarchical, nonreversible and universal and are characterized by increasing complexity, adequacy, integration and universalizability. Development is postulated to occur as the interaction of internal thought structures with the physical and social environment through assimilation and accommodation (Alschuler, Evans, Tamashiro and Weinstein, 1975; Kohlberg, 1969; Loevinger, 1976; Piaget, 1967).

Self-knowledge theory. Self-knowledge as used in this study will refer to the Self-Knowledge Theory as described by Alschuler, Evans, Tamashiro and Weinstein in 1975.

Self-knowledge theory is a structural developmental theory of how people conceive of and give meaning to their personal experiences. The theory proposes that the verbal reports of experience reflect to some extent people's immediate, private experiences and the mental structures and operations which mediate those experiences. From studying such verbal reports four basic forms or stages have been identified of how people describe what they experience and know about themselves. These stages occur in a hierarchical sequence. They are the (a) elemental, (b) situational, (c) internal patterned and (d) process stages.

People who view their experience from the elemental stage tend to describe only discrete, concrete elements of a single event. These elements are things like observable actions, vital statistics, the content of conversations, simple thoughts such as hopes, wants, remembrances and gross emotions like happy, sad, mad, good or bad. These elements are reported without much sense of cohesiveness, often juxtaposed or serially ordered. No explicit connections or causal relation-

ships are made between elements. Reports of the various elements are frequently connected by "ands" and almost never by "because" or "so."

Typical examples of elemental self-knowledge reports are:

"I was six years old."

"My mother yelled, 'Do you want lunch?'"

"My father had to have an operation and every night I cried and we had a dog then and I remembered when he came back home and he hugged me."

People at the situational stage can describe a single situation cohesively. They convey a sense of a whole situation which includes not just concrete elements but internal responses as well, which include emotions, sensations and complex thoughts.

Explicit causal connections are made between internal and external elements of the situation. Words like because, since, so are used to indicate causes and consequences within or associated to a particular situation.

Typical examples of situational self-knowledge reports are:

"The first thing I felt was fear mostly because of not knowing what to do."

"I was elated that they came."

"Breaking the swimming record was very important to me because it was, in a way, justification for the agony of training. It also made my father proud of me and I was pleased that I could do that for him."

At the internal patterned stage people can describe stable internal responses, that is, emotional states, personality traits or internal attitudes which are typical responses to a class of situations, situations which have common observable characteristics. They see beyond a single situation and can generalize about their internal

responses to types of experiences. Typical examples of internal pattern self-knowledge reports are:

"I am impulsive in most interpersonal situations."

"The kind of strength I derived from happy childhood experiences has given the confidence to help others and not to be frightened by other people's strength and confidence."

"Whenever I'm in trouble I always get scared."

People at the process stage describe conscious actions they take on their internal responses. At the situational and internal pattern stage, people can report their internal responses to situations or classes of situations, but only at the process stage can they describe actions they take to control, influence, modify or develop these internal responses. In other words, people at this stage not only describe how they respond internally but can also verbalize about the processes they use to manage these internal responses.

Typical examples of process self-knowledge reports are:

"When I feel discouraged and alone, I withdraw, renew my own sense of accepting me, and then go on."

"I had to work hard in therapy to get in touch with my feelings and to learn how to express and share them with others."

These four stages do not directly correspond to particular ages. Adults may be at any stage. However, since development follows a hierarchical, invariant sequence most children tend to be elemental and most adolescents tend to be situational.

Decisions and Consequences Curriculum. The curriculum to be evaluated in the study is the Decisions and Consequences Curriculum. The curriculum is organized into three sections, each using a psychological

education approach with self knowledge theory as a base: (a) the initial section is designed to establish a positive classroom atmosphere in which the middle set of activities can take place, (b) the middle part concentrates on helping students examine some of their experiences in order to learn more about who they are and what they want out of life, (c) the final set of activities helps students to consider situations which offer self-constructive alternatives to substance abuse. A copy of the curriculum is in Appendix A.

Activities and questions in the curriculum are specifically designed for students who can think at the elemental and situational levels. Most activities center upon specific situations and help students to name their thoughts, actions and feelings and to make causal connections between various elements related to the situation and to their own internal responses. In considering alternatives to substance abuse the focus is on alternative situations rather than alternative responses to a particular situation.

Self-esteem. Coopersmith (1967) defines self-esteem as "the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself; it expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval and indicates the extent to which the individual believes himself capable, significant, successful and worthy" (pp. 4-5).

Drug use. Drug use as defined for this study is the use of one or more of the following substances: cigarettes, beer, wine, hard liquor, marijuana, hashish, amphetamines, barbituates, heroin and/or hallucin-

ogens.

Drug attitude. For the purposes of this study drug attitude is attitudes toward drug use as measured by the Horan and Swisher Drug Attitude Scale (Horan and Swisher, 1968; Swisher, Warner and Herr, 1972).

Problem significance. Exploring the effects of a developmentally based psychological education curriculum for substance abuse prevention is significant for at least four reasons: (a) it provides evaluative data on the psychological education approach to substance abuse prevention, an approach which is widely argued to be effective but for which little evidence of effectiveness exists; (b) more specifically, it provides evaluative data on a developmentally based psychological education approach to substance abuse prevention, data which are virtually non-existent; (c) it contributes to the evaluation of the assumption held by some theorists that psychological education should be grounded in a developmental theory base; and (d) it provides some direction for the development of future substance abuse curricula. Each of these aspects of the significance of the study will be discussed in detail below.

There has been much discussion about the relative effectiveness of various strategies for substance abuse prevention. Helen Nowlis outlines the four major sets of assumptions about drug use which leads to four general strategies for prevention: (a) moral-legal; (b) disease or public health; (c) psycho-social and (d) socio-cultural (Nowlis, 1975). The moral-legal model assumes that use of certain

drugs has a dangerous effect on individuals and society, undermining the work ethic and promoting irrational behavior among other things. Laws must be enacted and enforced to counteract these dangers. Abuse is seen as any use of illicit drugs. In contrast, the disease or public health model assumes drugs can be injurious to physical and/or mental health and that treatment and protection must be devised to counteract them. Both models emphasize the effects of drugs and largely ignore the role that individuals and social context play in drug use. The legal model distinguishes between legal and illegal drugs. Abuse is the use of illicit drugs. The medical model considers drugs in terms of the degrees of physical and mental harm they produce. Abuse is use which causes unacceptable degrees of injury. Prevention strategies relying on the first model aim at punishment and threats of punishment; strategies based on the second model focus on treatment and containment of users and both models lead to strategies which present information about the dangers of drugs and assume that such information will inhibit abuse.

In contrast to these two models which emphasize the role of the drug, the psycho-social model emphasizes the role of the individual. The social context is also considered to influence this behavior and its meaning. The socio-cultural model overlaps with the psycho-social model. Both focus more on people and context than on drugs. However, while the psycho-social model emphasizes the individual, the socio-cultural model stresses the influences of social and cultural conditions which mediate the significance and meaning of using drugs and can

create personal stresses which lead to drug abuse. Both of these models view abuse as behavior which serves a purpose for the individual but which ultimately results in self-destruction. One model emphasizes individual causes of behavior while the other focuses more on social causes. Prevention strategies which grow out of these models reflect this focus. The psycho-social model suggests attention be given to the personal and social needs of the individual and gives rise to strategies which seek to help the individuals assess themselves and make decisions about their behaviors. The socio-cultural model leads to strategies which concentrate on changing or adapting the social context so that it becomes more responsive to the individual and his/her needs.

Prevention strategies can take many forms including police surveillance, television commercials, lectures, therapy groups and programs which offer alternatives to drug use such as Outward Bound or Transcendental Meditation. The scope of this study does not include such approaches but focuses instead on educational curricula strategies.

There are two general categories of prevention curricula: informational curricula and psychological education curricula. Curricula derived from the first two models emphasize information about drugs, explaining the function and effects of various drugs and sometimes including moral "preaching" and "scare" techniques. Curricula from the third model focus on psychological education, perhaps combined with drug information; this often includes discussion and analysis of values and behaviors, decision making, problem solving and focus on helping individuals meet their personal and social needs. Educational curri-

ricula are less likely to evolve from the fourth model since it is concerned with changing or adapting social context. However many psychological education curricula have as one aim "humanizing" the school or classroom environment which is an attempt to change social context. In addition, curricula have been developed which do not specifically address abuse prevention but which are seen as alternatives to drug use, such as outdoor education, job training projects, meditation training.

Experts advocate psychological education curricular approaches over information ones (Dohner, 1972; Gordon, 1972; NIDA, 1977; Norem-Hebeisen and Lucas, 1977; Nowlis, 1975; Webb, Egger and Reynolds, 1978). Evidence from evaluation studies and psychological theory support their position. Many assessments conducted in the early 1970's showed that while informational curricula frequently changed students' knowledge about drugs they did not change drug attitudes or drug use behaviors and often had a counterproductive effect of provoking and/or increasing drug use (deLone, 1972; Goodstadt, 1974; Stuart, 1972; Swisher and Crawford, 1971; Tennant, Weaver and Lewis, 1973; Virgilio, 1971). On the basis of these findings the Federal Government in April 1973 declared a moratorium on the production of drug information. Up to that time federal efforts in abuse prevention had concentrated heavily on informational strategies. Drug education theorists recommended a more psycho-social/sociocultural approach and in February 1974 the moratorium was lifted. New federal guidelines were issued which stressed presenting the complexity of the problem, the inconsistency of

societal norms about the use of drugs, the variables related to drug effects, positive role models for youth and alternatives to drug use (NIDA, 1977).

However it is not sufficient justification to advocate psychological education curricula in the place of informational curricula just because the latter have proven inadequate. There are theoretical grounds; the theory proposes that people use and abuse drugs for a reason: to meet some personal and/or social need(s) in their lives. The informational approach is inadequate because it ignores "that people take drugs because they want to, that drug use serves some function, gives them some satisfaction in some area of their lives..." (Nowlis, 1975, p. 55).

Research supports this postulated cause of drug abuse. The following factors correlate highly with substance abuse: poor relationships with parents (Anker, Milman, Kahan and Valenti, 1971; O'Dowd, 1973), use of drugs by parents and peers (Kandel, 1973), depression, despair, hopelessness, low expectations of success, low feelings of acceptance and capability (Braucht, Brakarsh, Fallingstad and Berry, 1973; Mellinger, Somers and Manheimer, 1975), poor school achievement and behavior (Smith and Fogg, 1975), lack of ego integration, poor sense of self, poor interpersonal relationships (Brook, Kaplan and Whithead, 1974; Cohen, White and Schoolar, 1971). While none of these studies are definitive, for they are limited by methods, sample and/or definition of substance abuse; they can be considered as indicators of the causes of drug abuse. Norem-Hebeisen and Lucas (1977) cate-

gorize these implied causes into two major themes: personal development and quality of social support system. The broad categories correspond to the theorized causes of drug abuse: unfulfilled personal and social needs.

Psychological education curricula are advocated in place of informational curricula because they address the theorized causes of drug abuse. The goals of such curricula are to help students to constructively meet personal and social needs. Unfortunately only limited research has been conducted to evaluate the effects of psychological education curricula directed specifically at substance abuse (Randall and Wong, 1976). Does it prevent drug abuse? Does it help students develop personally and socially? The broad significance of this study is that it evaluates a psychological education curriculum and contributes to understanding the effectiveness of the approach.

More specifically the study is significant in that the psychological education curriculum approach to be evaluated has a developmental base. Many pose the need for a developmentally based approach to psychological education (Mosher and Sprinthall, 1970; Skovholt, 1977; Weinstein, 1975) and some have specifically argued for a developmentally based psychological education approach to drug education (Alschuler, Phillips and Weinstein, 1977; Norem-Hebeisen and Lucas, 1977; Nowlis, 1975). These experts contend that nondevelopmentally based approaches are largely a haphazardly sequenced collection of practices with imprecise goals such as "becoming aware of oneself" or "becoming more open." Many of these methods are derived from humanis-

tic psychology theories such as those of Maslow, Rogers and Perls but the derivation is more often than not implicit so that the procedures rather than the theory dictate what become rather nebulous goals. The assumption of those who pose a need for a developmental theory base to psychological education is that a foundation in a clearly articulated theoretical conception of human development leads to an explicit sequence of precise goals and approaches geared for particular levels of development.

Whether the foundations of psychological education should rest in developmental theory is as yet an unanswered question. Few studies exist which assess developmentally based curriculum (Briskin, 1974 cited in Randall and Wong, 1974). Most evaluations of psychological education curricula specifically applied to drug abuse have focused on non-developmentally based curricula, primarily collections of values clarification and other humanistic psychology techniques (Randall and Wong, 1976). This study is significant for it begins to provide much needed evaluation data on the effectiveness of developmentally based curricular approaches to drug abuse prevention. This study does not compare a developmental approach to one which is non-developmentally based but it will add indirect evidence which can be used in examining the assumptions of those who argue that psychological education should be developmentally based.

Finally this study by using systematic evaluation will be able to provide reliable data that could be used as a basis for making decisions about future drug education curricula.

Limitations

External validity issues. Results are limited to rural Maine junior high school students. The generalizability of the study will be to similar populations.

Except in one sample group true experimental design is not possible because subjects could not be assigned randomly to experimental and control groups.

The characteristics and treatment conditions of each sample group vary, particularly in terms of teacher experience with psychological education.

Internal validity issues. The Self Knowledge Experience Recall has not been tested for internal consistency or temporal stability. It may be unclear whether changes in scores are due to fluctuations in temporal stability of the test or to actual changes in an individual's self knowledge.

Organization of the Study

The study consists of five chapters. Chapter I presents an introduction to the study, statement of the problem, definition of terms, significance of the study, limits of the study, and organization of the study. Chapter II reviews the relevant literature. Chapter III describes in detail the design, measurements, samples and procedures used in the study. Chapter IV presents the evaluation data. Chapter V presents conclusions, discusses the study in relation to similar studies

and recommends future research.

CHAPTER I I

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The purpose of this review of the literature is to provide a context within which the outcomes of the evaluation of the Decisions and Consequences Curriculum can be placed. It covers two major areas directly related to the purpose of the study.

The study provides evaluation of the effectiveness of a psychological education substance abuse curriculum which is developmentally based. Consequently the review first provides an extensive examination of psychological education approaches to substance abuse prevention in order to determine the quality, nature and effectiveness of such approaches. The second section of the review looks at application of developmental theory to psychological education in general and to drug education in particular, again assessing the quality, nature and effectiveness of such programs. The review is summarized and conclusions are drawn.

Psychological Education Approaches To Substance Abuse Prevention

Psychological education approaches to substance abuse have been advocated by many (Dohner, 1972; Gordon, 1972, NIDA, 1977; Norem-Hebeisen and Lucas, 1977; Nowlis, 1975; Webb, Egger and Reynolds, 1978). Assessments of information curricula show that they do not change

drug attitudes or use and in fact often have a counterproductive effect of provoking and/or increasing drug use (de Lone, 1972; Goodstadt, 1974; Stuart, 1972; Swisher and Crawford, 1971; Tennant, Weaver and Lewis, 1973; Virgilio, 1971). Consequently psycho-social and socio-cultural approaches have been explored, among these psychological education.

Theorists propose that psychological education should be used because it addresses some of the causes of substance abuse. The assumption is that people use and abuse drugs in an attempt to meet personal and social needs in their lives. This assumption is supported by research which correlates substance abuse with the following factors related to personal and social development: poor relationships with parents (Anker, Milman, Kahan and Valenti, 1971; O'Dowd, 1973), use of drugs by parents and peers (Kandel, 1973), depression, despair, hopelessness, low expectations of success, low feelings of acceptance and capability (Braucht, Brakarsh, Fallingstad and Berry, 1973; Mellinger, Somers and Manheimer, 1975), poor school achievement and behavior (Smith and Fogg, 1975), lack of ego integration, poor sense of self, poor interpersonal relationships (Brook, Kaplan and Whithead, 1974; Cohen, White and Schoolar, 1971). While correlations do not necessarily imply causal relationships, these studies can be considered indicators of the causes of substance abuse.

Thus theory supported by research asserts that the broad causes of substance abuse are unmet personal and social needs. Psychological education curricula are designed to help students examine their per-

sonal and social lives and learn to pursue their needs constructively. If this occurs then drug abuse should decrease and drug attitudes should become more moderate.

Does the data support these theoretical claims? Only limited research has been conducted since psychological education approaches to substance abuse began to appear in 1971 (Goodstadt, 1974; Randall and Wong, 1976; Schaps, et al., 1978). The following review of applications of psychological education to substance abuse shows that while generally the results are positive no specific conclusions can yet be drawn.

Goodstadt (1974) examined both informational and psychological education programs primarily from the point of view of quality of the evaluation rather than the context, conceptualization or effectiveness of the programs. He concluded few programs were validly evaluated, that is, used acceptable experimental designs and statistical analysis and that those few valid studies provide insufficient evidence about the effectiveness of drug education programs.

Randall and Wong (1976) reviewed over 200 informational and psychological education drug education programs and found only twenty-three reporting any systematic evaluation with only fifteen of those using pre-post measures and a control group. They reached conclusions similar to those of Goodstadt.

Perhaps the most intensive review has been conducted by Pyramid Project funded by NIDA (Schaps, et al., 1978). One hundred twenty-seven drug abuse prevention programs were studied covering almost all

the available reports written between 1968 and 1977. Sources included book and journal articles, but relied mainly on unpublished manuscripts and reports to funding agencies. Forty-six and one half percent of all programs had some type of psychological education approach. These approaches were divided into five empirically derived categories: (a) affective skill development and/or affective experiential, (b) counseling alone, (c) information about drug use and abuse combined with approach 1, (d) combinations of approaches a and b, (e) information combined with approaches a and b. Effectiveness of these five strategies was judged on three broad categories: (a) drug specific outcomes; including scales to measure drug use, intention to use and/or attitudes towards drugs, (b) drug knowledge outcomes and (c) affective outcomes such as self-esteem, self-concept, and empathy scales. Data showed that on drug specific outcomes strategies which combine information with affective techniques and counseling were most effective. However all psychological education approaches were judged about equally effective on drug specific measures except for counseling alone which was found to be less effective. There was a wide range of degree of effectiveness on drug knowledge outcomes from no effect to very effective but the numbers of programs in each category measuring the particular outcomes were too small to permit reliable conclusions.

When affective outcomes were measured a combination of affective techniques plus counseling were found most effective. Affective techniques alone were next followed by information about drugs plus affective techniques and then by information combined with affective tech-

niques and counseling. No data is available for counseling alone.

Overall Pyramid Project found the quality of the programs and their evaluations poor. Of fifty-nine psychological education programs reviewed only seven were judged exemplary in terms of both program and research design. Of these seven, three studied drug use and two found a strong positive effect, two a slight positive effect and one no effect; five studied affective outcomes and four found a slight positive effect and one no effect.

This intensive review indicates that the results of psychological education drug abuse prevention programs are generally positive but studies which provide meaningful data are few. From the work that has been done no patterns can be determined and no clear guidelines for future program development can yet be drawn.

The previous cited reports show that in the six years (1971-1977) that psychological education drug abuse prevention programs have been operating only seven or so have been adequately designed and researched. While many of these exemplary studies are difficult if not impossible to obtain and can only be studied through secondary sources, their major features and effects will be outlined as accurately as possible. Table 1 provides an overview of each study.

Carney (1971 cited in Goodstadt, 1974 and Randall and Wong, 1976) evaluated a program in the Coronado California Public Schools. The curriculum involved values clarification techniques along with information about drugs and drug use and discussion of alternatives to drug use. It was used with 4th through 12th grades with the best experi-

TABLE 1
 Overview of Exemplary Psychological Education Substance Abuse Prevention Studies

Study	Approach	Grade Level	Duration	Design	Results		
					Drug Attitude	Drug Use	Affective Measures
Carney, 1971 (Coronado) cited in Goodstadt, 1974 and Randall and Wong, 1976	values clarification and alternatives	4-12	?	some pre/ post no controls	NC or -	-	"dangerous behaviors"
		4-5	?	pre/post control non-random	-	-	"dangerous behaviors"
		?	?	pre/post control randomized?	-	-	?
Carney, 1972 (Tempe) cited in Randall and Wong, 1976	values (v.c.) clarification	?	?				
	v.c. & information	?	?				
	information	?	?		NC or +	NC or +	
Swisher, Warner and Herr, 1972	relationship counseling	9-11	Once a week for 60 hrs.	pre/post control randomized	NC	NC	NS
	reinforce- ment counseling				NC	NC	NS

TABLE 1 (CONTINUED)

Study	Approach	Grade Level	Duration	Design	Results		
					Drug Attitude	Drug Use	Affective Measures
Swisher, Warner, Spence and Upcroft, 1973	relationship counseling	college under-grads	75 min./week for 4 weeks	pre/post control randomized	+	NC drugs alcohol-cigarettes-	NS
	reinforcement counseling						
Swisher, and Piniuk, 1973	v.c.	4-6	?	pre/post no control	+	NS	values scale NC
	Duso	K-3	?				values scale + "acceptable behaviors" +
	Dimensions of personality	4-6	?				values scale + "acceptable behaviors" +

TABLE 1 (CONTINUED)

Study	Approach	Grade Level	Duration	Design	Results		
					Drug Attitude	Drug Use	Affective Measures
Swisher, and Piniuk, 1973 (cont.)	v.c.	7-9	?	pre/post no control	NC	-	use of alternative to drugs NC
	behavioral alternatives	7-9	?		NC	NC	use of alternative to drugs NC
	curriculum integration	7-9	?		NC	NC	use of alternative to drugs NC
Clark, 1974 cited in Randall and Wong, 1976 and Lockwood, 1977	v.c.	6,7,11?	?	pre/post	NS	some -	values scale +

TABLE 1 (CONTINUED)

Study	Approach	Grade Level	Duration	Design	Results		
					Drug Attitude	Drug Use	Affective Measures
Briskin, 1974 cited in Randall and Wong, 1976	moral dilemma discussion and information	6	1-3 45 or 60 minutes per week for 7	pre/post control random?	NS	NS	communication skills NC moral development level NC
	"conventional drug education curriculum"	6			NS	NS	communication skills NC moral development level NC
Jackson and Calsyn, 1977	v.c. empathy training and information	?	50 hours	pre/post random control	NS	NC	self esteem NC empathy skills +

Note: NC = no change; - = decreased; + = increased; NS = not studied

mental design used with the fourth and fifth grades. Due to California law no students could be identified. Thus the post test groups had unspecified numbers of dropouts and added students who were not pre-tested. Duration of the intervention was not specified in secondary sources. Overall drug use and "dangerous behaviors" were less in the experimental groups than in the control groups and drug attitudes tended to remain constant or become more conservative. Goodstadt points out that many results were not statistically significant but that there was a consistent pattern of results which tended toward significance.

In 1972 Carney (cited in Randall and Wong, 1976) evaluated a similar program in Tempe, Arizona. Four groups were set up: (a) values clarification only, (b) values clarification plus information about drugs, (c) information only and (d) a control group which received no treatment. Only scanty information is available. Age level, duration of intervention and statistical significance levels were not specified in the secondary source. Pre-post measures indicates values clarification and values clarification plus information groups had more conservative drug attitudes and less drug use than information only or control groups.

Swisher, Warner and Herr (1972) used two different forms of counseling with ninth and eleventh graders: "relationship counseling" modeled after Carkhuff (1969) where the counselor remained neutral in regard to drug issues and "reinforcement counseling" (Warner and Hansen, 1970) where the counselor reinforced non-use and/or alterna-

tives to drug use. Despite strong design and evaluation, experimental groups showed no significant differences when compared with control groups.

In 1973 Swisher, Warner, Spence and Upcroft conducted a similar study with college undergraduates. The reinforcement counselor intervention was modified to include two categories of reinforcement counselors: knowledgeable non-user role models and reformed drug abuser role models. Attitudes towards drugs become more liberal in all groups, drug knowledge increased and decreases in drug use tended toward significance while alcohol and cigarette use decreased significantly. No differences were found among the various counseling approaches.

Swisher and Piniuk (1973) used a variety of psychological education approaches with kindergarten through ninth grades. Approaches included: (a) values clarification (grades 4-9); (b) structured "mental health" curricula, "Developing Understanding of Self and Others" (grades K-3) and "Dimensions of Personality" (grades 4-6); and (c) for grade 7-9 counseling in alternatives to drug use (along the lines of reinforcement counseling described above) and integration into subject areas of information about and discussions of feelings and beliefs about drugs.

At the elementary level the structured materials seemed more effective than values clarification. Their use resulted in increased scores on a values scale and in maintenance of conservative drug attitudes. However the initial values scale scores of the groups which had the values clarification approach were equivalent to the post test

scores of the groups which had the structured materials. Thus true comparison of the groups is not possible. At the junior high school level all three approaches produced no change in use of alternatives towards drugs, an increase in drug knowledge and more liberal attitudes towards drugs. Those who had values clarification decreased their drug use but they began with three times greater drug use than the other two groups and so the meaning of this reduction is not clear.

Operation Future (1974 cited in Randall and Wong, 1976; Lockwood, 1977) also used values clarification and combined it with decision making skills. Some conflicting information was reported about this program. Randall and Wong state that grades 5-10 were studied with no control groups used. Lockwood cited grades 6, 7, and 11 and control groups as part of the study. Both noted some decrease in drug use and establishing of "appropriate values patterns" were measured. Lockwood stated that Clark reported some statistically significant differences but that little confidence could be placed in the findings due to various methodology problems. No information was available on duration.

In 1977 Jackson and Calsyn used values clarification in conjunction with empathy training and information about drugs. Curiously they did not report the age group, presumably it was high school level. In a randomized experimental-control group pre-post test design they found no changes in drug use, drug knowledge or self-esteem. However the experimental group improved in empathy skills.

What conclusions can be drawn from the three major reviews cited and the author's examination of the data on applications of psycholo-

gical education to substance abuse? There is general support for the theoretical claim that such approaches help students meet personal and social needs and thereby sometimes lower drug use and modifies drug attitudes. However, these results are often confounded by evaluation problems. From the research presently available no definite conclusions about particular relationships between approaches and outcomes can yet be made. Specifically:

1. Evaluation designs and methods were generally adequate.
2. Where such designs and methods were more adequate several are limited by restriction on identifying students.
3. Evaluation measures were often not precise, particularly in specifying particular drugs used and/or amount used.
4. The validity of self report measures of attitude, intent to use drugs and, particularly, drug use was often unknown.
4. Descriptions of the content, process, context and theory base of the programs were often inadequate and make specific understanding of the findings difficult.
6. Drug specific effects and affective outcomes were generally positive but these results are confounded by design and methodology problems.
7. Better designed programs tended to show no significant results or only trends towards significance (researchers take this as an indication that (a) change is very difficult and (b) poorly designed studies produce results in which one can have little confidence) (Goodstadt, 1974).

8. Values clarification was the dominant affective approach used.

9. There was weak evidence that (a) affective skills and techniques are more effective than counseling approaches (Swisher and Piniuk, 1974; Swisher, Warner and Herr, 1972) and (b) values clarification seemed less effective with elementary level children because of requirements for abstraction (Swisher and Piniuk, 1974).

From this review it is evident that while psychological education based substance abuse approaches are promising the specifics about their effectiveness is not yet clear. Too few programs have been adequately evaluated; more evidence must be gathered.

Developmental Theory and Psychological Education

While practitioners have had uneven success in applying and evaluating psychological education approaches to drug abuse education, others have been arguing that many theoretical and practical application and evaluation problems of psychological education could be solved by basing the field in structural developmental theory.

Should psychological education be based in developmental theory? Those who answer yes claim that unclear theoretical bases; non-specific, somewhat ephemeral aims and the subsequent difficulties these problems present for evaluation can all be overcome by developmental theory (Alschuler, Phillips and Weinstein, 1978; Mosher and Sprinthall, 1971, 1970; Norem-Hebeisen and Lucas, 1977; Rest, 1974; Skovkolt, 1974). The specific contentions for using developmental theory as a basis for psychological education are outlined below.

1. It gives rise to goals based upon theory not procedure.
2. It provides precise goals such as "being able to name a feeling and its cause" rather than vague, global goals such as "becoming aware of self."
3. It provides a theoretical rationale for sequencing activities in contrast to haphazard or at best logical or common sense sequencing.
4. It provides criteria for matching teacher behavior and curriculum approach to student level.
5. It promotes long term gains, that is structural developmental rather than just ephemeral gains such as "feeling good."
6. It is useful in research and evaluation as it provides specific goals and measurement instruments.

This section of the review looks at how psychological education and structural developmental theory have been related in curriculum and to what extent the claims of its supporters have been met.

In the last ten years a number of such curriculum approaches have been created. They have for the most part drawn from moral and/or ego development. Various programs emphasize particular theoretical principles which direct their educational strategies. The following discussion outlines the major developmental curriculum programs with particular attention to goals, theory base, curriculum strategies and outcomes.

Several studies have been done by Lawrence Kohlberg and his colleagues which involve curricula based on his theory of moral development. Briefly this theory describes six levels of moral development each of which is qualitatively different from the preceding level and

represents a new and more comprehensive system of cognitive organization. The stages occur in an invariant sequence: stages 1 and 2 represent pre-conventional thinking about morals, focusing on physical consequences and attributes and on satisfaction of one's own needs; conventional thought characterizes stages 3 and 4, emphasizing concerns for order in society; stages 5 and 6 are post-conventional orientations where mutually decided societal standards are the moral norm and universal ethical principles become the overriding moral guideline (Kohlberg, 1969). The process by which development from one stage to another occurs is through the interaction or dialectical interplay between a person's experience and his or her stage of cognitive organization or way of thinking.

Kohlberg and his associates have used a discussion of dilemmas format and/or the democratic or just community organization as a way to translate interaction between experience and cognition into practice. These approaches are based upon two theoretical implications about what kinds of interaction can foster structural development. They are that development can be fostered by (a) exposure to models of thinking one stage above the students current level and (b) exposure to social environments which model higher levels of interaction (eg. democratic rather than autocratic). These ideas become the guidelines for achieving the primary goal of each program: the moral development of the participants.

In one of the first attempts to apply Kohlberg's theory, Turiel (1966) used a role played discussion to expose 7th grade boys to moral

levels of thought differing from their own. One third of the boys received advice about hypothetical moral dilemmas that was one stage below their level of reasoning (-1), one third were advised from one stage above their level (+1) and one third from two stages above (+2). A control group received no treatment. The +1 treatment was most effective, while there was some evidence that the -1 treatment had the effect of moving subjects down a stage.

Inspired by these results Blatt (1969; Blatt and Kohlberg, 1973) set up several programs which involved group discussion of hypothetical moral dilemmas in which he, as discussion leader, supported those students' arguments which were one level higher than other students and/or introduced arguments at +1 levels. He found 6th grade Sunday school students generally gained two thirds of a stage with 63 percent developing a full stage. In other studies he used the same approach with 6th and 10th grades twice a week for eighteen 45-minute sessions and found his students gained one third stage on the average.

Hickey's work (1974 cited in Rest, 1974) and Scharf's work (1977) with prisoners combined group discussions of real moral dilemmas with efforts to organize the prison ward democratically. Scharf found prisoners accepted their own rules as just, viewed the program positively and changed more than one third of a stage over nine months. Hickey reported less dramatic changes in a non-democratic situation using group discussions of real moral dilemmas.

Kohlberg has carried this just community approach to the classroom (Wasserman, 1976). He and his colleagues have set up a small demo-

cratically run alternative school which holds community meetings once a week at which issues relevant to the school are decided. The making of moral decisions by students and staff are part of the running of the school. Effort to stimulate moral growth is made through active participation in group decision making, exposure to cognitive moral conflict, consideration of fairness and morality, role taking and exposure to +1 reasoning. Preliminary progress reports indicate that students take more responsibility for their behavior and the behavior of others: they lead and participate in group meetings, use reasoning to discuss school moral dilemmas, make decisions which result in action, and develop interactions and friendships with others from widely differing backgrounds.

What can be said about these approaches: their goals, use of theory, curriculum and outcomes?

The overriding goal of these "Kohlbergian" programs is to foster fundamental, long term development, that is, to stimulate development through the stages of cognitive structures. This is a rather global aim which Rest (1974) criticizes are not being specific enough to guide day to day practice. It is Rest's contention that the principles of developmental sequence and interaction are only "half-heartedly" applied. Exposure to +1 thinking and/or social environments which model higher levels of interaction are very general ways of stimulating development and of providing interaction. No attempt is made to sequence educational experiences according to the sequence dictated by the theory. In addition, while exposure to higher levels of thought

and social environment seems useful, the principle of "optimum match" is not well used. A careful analysis of the present level of the student so that "problems that are manageable yet challenging can be introduced to create an interesting learning experience, and, at the same time, to serve to set up the prerequisite components for problems at the next level" (p. 244), does not really occur.

Translating theory into curriculum, Kohlberg and his associates have relied heavily on the discussion of dilemma format. Rest calls this an "impoverished curriculum" relying solely on a diet of teacher led interchanges with perhaps an occasional role play. He also notes that discussion leaders must be skilled in facilitating group process in order to be effective.

Despite all these critiques, Kohlbergian programs succeed in accomplishing their general aim, fostering development. While experimental designs are acceptable, sample sizes are not large; yet, overall the data seem promising, pointing toward the possibility of effective developmentally based education.

Another structural developmental theory used as a base for psychological education approaches has been the theory of Jane Loevinger. While similar to Kohlberg's, her model is one of ego development within which moral, interpersonal, self, character and cognitive development are intertwining aspects. It describes seven stages and three transitional phases each of which refers to a qualitatively different framework of meaning placed upon experience. The stages occur in an invariant sequence where each successive stage is more complex than the

last. They are presocial; impulsive; self protective; self protective/conformist transition; conformist; conformist/conscientious transition; conscientious; conscientious/autonomous transition; autonomous; integrated (Loevinger, 1976).

Only a few attempts have been made to explicitly translate this theory into practice. Blasi (1972 cited in Loevinger, 1976; and Hauser, 1976) tried to develop responsible behavior in sixth graders. His approach was similar to Turiel's and Blatt's and founded on similar conceptions about what fosters development: exposure to higher level thinking. He used role playing techniques whose problems and concepts were formulated for specific developmental stages and matched students with other students at equivalent, +1 and +2 stages of ego development. He hypothesized that students exposed to problems and discussion one level above their present stage would change more than the other students. While this hypothesis was not confirmed students exposed to +1 and +2 conditions changed in the direction of higher ego development while those exposed to their own level did not.

This study is subject to some of the same criticisms as the Kohlbergian studies: lack of sequencing of activities according to developmental theory and impoverished curriculum. However a better attempt at optimal match is made, in that, unlike Kohlbergian studies, not only teacher and student discussion but also problems and content were formulated for specific developmental stages.

Warren (1969, 1976) reports a different approach in working with juvenile offenders. Her goal was not development but rehabilitation.

She matched treatment plans and juvenile justice worker styles to the interpersonal maturity level (a structural developmental level similar to ego level, see Sullivan, Grant and Grant, 1957) of the offender and found the recidivism rate decreased for those in "matched" programs. This is a contemporaneous approach rather than a developmental one and will be discussed in more detail later.

Sprinthall and his associates have used both Kohlberg and Loevinger among others as the bases of their work in a program they call Deliberate Psychological Education (DPE). Generally the curriculum follows a seminar-practicum format with attention to engaging students actively in various experiences and providing them with opportunities for reflection upon that experience while simultaneously "personalizing" the learning by incorporating such goals as attending to and identifying feelings of self and others, expressing feelings, seeing and formulating personal problems, making meaning out of personal issues and making personal decisions. The theories of Kohlberg and Loevinger among others (Piaget and Elkind are cited) are used to identify general curriculum aims, stage characteristics of the student and general teaching strategies. The overall goal is development. Strategies for development, as in the moral and ego development approaches, are founded in the principle that development is fostered through interaction. Three aspects of that principle are emphasized: (a) development occurs through an interaction between active thinking and active doing, (b) development is stimulated by exposure to experiences which create dissonance with one's present level of thinking and

(c) an important condition of development for adolescents is the provision of opportunities for social role taking.

Mosher and Sprinthall (1970, 1971) used a wide range of approaches in a course in individual and human development taught to high school juniors and seniors. It involved some practical work in psychology such as peer counseling, teaching, work in mental hospitals, etc. and discussions of the principles of psychology related to this work and the personal meanings derived from these experiences. Students in the experimental course made significant gains as measured by Kohlberg's scale of moral development (pretest 3.22, posttest 3.56, $p < .08$) and Loevinger's ego development scale (pretest 3.2, posttest 4.4, $p < .001$) while the control groups' scores decreased slightly on both scales. Counseling skills as measured by Carkhuff's Counseling Rating Scales also improved significantly.

Rustad and Rogers (1975 and Bernier and Rustad, 1977) taught counseling skills to 11th and 12th graders in a class called "Psychology of Counseling." The curriculum "consisted mainly of learning to listen actively and respond empathetically to the concerns of others through peer counseling experience" (Rustad and Rogers, 1975, p. 278) with films, readings, writings and discussion interspersed. Students made significant gains in development as measured on Loevinger's ego development scale ($p < .002$) and Kohlberg's scale ($p < .1$) as well as acquiring counseling skills as reported on the Porter Communications Procedures Inventory. Follow up measures taken a year later show that all gains were maintained. Rustad argues that a developmental approach

is responsible for the transfer and retention of counseling skills citing non-developmentally based counseling training in which skills were lost as quickly as two weeks after training.

Erickson (1975, 1977), along with a regular classroom teacher and a counselor, taught tenth grade women a course entitled "A Study of Women through Literature." The course involved training in communication and interviewing skills. Students then interviewed women at different stages of development and discussed these interviewing experiences, along with issues in woman's development, the roles of women in literature and the implications for personal choices and growth. Significant changes in ego and moral development occurred for students ($p < .026$; $p < .05$). A one year follow up indicated that gains in ego and moral development continued.

Cognetta (1977) taught senior high school students various teaching skills through microteaching, a practicum in which these students taught junior high schoolers, and discussions and readings related to the practicum as well as to personal experience. Again gains were significant: on the Rest Defining Issues Test $p < .05$ and on the Loevinger scale $p < .005$.

Rest (1977) sees these programs as only loosely connected to developmental theory. As with the other approaches described, curriculum interventions are not matched with student development level nor is the day-to-day sequencing of curriculum geared to the specific characterizations of the stages. The programs generally but not specifically, stimulate interactions which lead to development. Role

taking opportunities, mentioned in Kohlberg's just community approach, are given a major emphasis in these programs. Thus a heretofore little used principle of development is applied to practice. However it is still a general use rather than a specific application. Nevertheless it is an important principle and results indicate that all programs which emphasize role taking succeed in fostering both moral and ego development and in Rustad's study enable the learning of counseling skills more successfully than usual.

Another strength of these programs, in contrast with those previously described, was a rich curriculum involving many kinds of activities.

The experimental designs seemed to be adequate; however, sample size was frequently small. Some programs used normative data rather than control group data as a basis for comparison with the test group. This could make their conclusions less powerful. Overall, from the consistency of the findings and the adequacy of the designs, it can be concluded that these programs succeeded in fostering development.

Applications of developmental theory at the elementary level have been made using Selman's theory in the Harvard-Judge Baker Social Reasoning Project. Selman's theory can be seen as a link between Kohlberg's and Loevinger's theories (Selman, 1974 cited in Loevinger, 1976). It describes six levels of reasoning about interpersonal relations, particularly ability to take the perspective of others in interpersonal situations. Level 0 is egocentric; 1 is subjective; 2 is self-reflective; 3 is third person perspective; 4 involves qualitative

conceptions of persons and their relations and 5 involves symbolic interaction in complex conceptions of interpersonal relations.

Selman and Lieberman (1975) worked with second graders using moral dilemma filmstrips followed by discussion, role playing and debate. They followed the principles of conflict, that is the creation of dissonance with one's present level of thinking and +1 reasoning. Assessing student intentionality rather than moral or interpersonal perspective level, Selman and Lieberman found significant differences between test and control groups in posttest $p = .012$ and follow up test $p < .0001$. In follow up tests, the experimental group had gained half a level of concept development over the control group. This indicates students became "more socially aware of the other's ideas and better able to integrate other's thinking and valuing with their own" (p. 716). Whether this represents a change in levels or expansion within a level is not known. Additionally, they found no difference between teachers experienced with cognitive developmental approaches and those who merely read a teachers' manual. In fact, the best gains came from the class of a "non-expert" but highly motivated teacher. The authors believe this suggests that the process of group discussion and not knowledge of the theory is of most importance.

Similarly, Cooney (1977) used filmstrips developed by Selman and Kohlberg to present various interpersonal dilemmas to second and third graders. In addition to applying the principles of conflict and +1 thinking she emphasized the aspect of developmental theory that development occurs through persons actively constructing their way of view-

ing the world. (This is similar to the active thinking/active doing emphasized by deliberate psychological education.) After viewing a film students engage in discussion, role playing and debate where they physically move from position to position as their opinions change. Preliminary evaluation studies show no uniform change in level of perspective taking; however, more interpersonal concepts, greater intentionality, more focus on persons and increased interaction were shown by the experimental group. Cooney argues that this indicates that, while stage change did not occur, children were stimulated to elaborate their ability to apply their existing level of perspective taking. This is one of the first studies to show that elaboration of a stage is possible and Cooney writes that such elaboration may lay the groundwork for stage change.

Criticism of these works is similar to that of previous programs; they employ global rather than specific applications of the theory. The curriculum, while not rich, is certainly not inadequate for it includes films as well as role play. Cooney's work also uses methods which concretize learning. Perhaps most important is that while the other applications discussed have focused solely on the goal of development, the work of Selman and his associates suggests that elaboration can also be considered a legitimate goal.

The work of Hunt points to a third kind of aim in applying developmental theory: the contemporaneous goal (Hunt 1977-8; Hunt and Sullivan, 1974). His work involves the Conceptual Level (CL) Theory based upon the developmental personality theory of Harvey, Hunt and

Schroder (1961). This theory describes a developmental hierarchy of increasing conceptual complexity, self-responsibility and independence which proceeds through a sequence of three stages: immature, unstructured; dependent, conforming; and independent, self-reliant. Hunt sees this theory applied in educational practice in two ways: (a) contemporaneous matching where there is an "attempt to produce a specified behavioral effect through coordination of a particular environment with a particular type of person" (Hunt, 1974, p. 47) and (b) developmental matching where efforts are focused on stimulating or elaborating development.

The contemporaneous approach emphasizes setting up an environment most coordinated with the person's present level. In contrast developmental matching sets up environments most likely to facilitate development. Hunt assumes that persons cannot be pushed into changing or developing but will develop when they are "ready"; however, their level can be enhanced so that change is more likely. Contemporaneous and developmental approaches may look similar and may indeed overlap. The role of the teacher in either approach is to be able to "read" the students level and "flex" or adapt to the students frame of reference.

In contemporaneous learning "low CL learners profit from high structure and high CL learners profit from low structure" (Hunt, 1971, p. 44). A number of studies support this statement: Heck (1971) studied the learning of communication skills, Reid (1975) teaching skills and Stein (1976) psychological counseling (all cited in Hunt,

1974). All found that students in matched environments learned better. Brill (1977 cited in Hunt, 1977-8) in a study reminiscent of Warren's matched CL level to treatment of delinquent boys and found that low CL boys matched to high structure and moderately low CL boys to moderate structure had better post discharge adjustment and less problem behaviors than those not matched. Only secondary sources reporting these studies could be obtained. Therefore it is not possible to critique them. However it can be said that they are notable for their focus on contemporaneous goals rather than developmental ones.

The major ways in which developmental theory and psychological education have been related were reviewed. What can be said about the goals, use of theory, range of curriculum and required teacher skills for these approaches? How successful have they been?

Except for the contemporaneous work of Hunt and Warren and colleagues, most applications of developmental theory have as their stated goal development to higher stages with a few programs also seeking elaboration within stages. Much more work needs to be done in exploring goals of elaboration. Contemporaneous applications hold the promise of effectiveness, particularly in achieving immediate goals not directly related to development, but this approach has been tried only in a few instances. The question of the relationships among stage movement goals, elaboration goals and contemporaneous goals needs to be investigated both theoretically and practically. Decisions about what goals to pursue are related to problems in determining the implications of developmental theory for practice.

Emphasis on different theoretical concepts related to developmental theory lead to particular kinds of applications. Most educational programs have emphasized the concept of interaction. At least three educational strategies are related to this concept: 1) conflict provocation, 2) role taking opportunities, and 3) active construction of reality or active thinking/active doing. In contrast, the concept of developmental sequence and the related strategies of day-to-day sequencing of curriculum and optimal match of activity to student level have, in Rest's view (1974, 1977), not been given much attention.

How are strategies related to the concept of interaction used and what are the advantages and disadvantages? Dissonance or conflict generation is the confrontation of people with experiences that they partially but do not adequately understand given their present thinking capacity. Experiences which cannot be understood at all or which are accepted at face value do not promote conflict.

At present there seem to be two general ways of promoting dissonance. One is presenting a moral or interpersonal dilemma. This can be an actual dilemma, such as members of just communities grapple with, or it can be a hypothetical dilemma presented in story form, through film and/or by use of role play. Discussions follow often utilizing +1 modeling and other attempts to present different kinds of reasoning about the dilemma. The Deliberate Psychological Education (DPE) programs use a different approach to provoke conflict. They rely upon exposure to and reflection upon new experiences such as learning about teaching, counseling or women's development. Rustad and Rogers (1975)

specifically refer to dissonance caused in students by their inability to counsel others effectively. Discussions which follow attempt to help students express their points of view and hear the reasoning of other students and teachers. No planned attempts to provide +1 modeling are made.

There has been a tendency in some of the literature to equate +1 modeling with conflict creation (Mosher, 1977). However it seems that in either approach described above, conflict creation involves two steps: the posing of a problem and reflection upon that problem where the reflection may or may not involve +1 modeling.

These approaches to conflict promotion raise several areas of questions. First, what is a more effective source of conflict, symbolic experience (a hypothetical dilemma presented as a story or on film) or direct experience (a true life dilemma of DPE like practicum)? As Collins (1977) points out the research literature fails to provide an answer. Direct experiences has proven very successful for DPE in fostering ego and moral development and indications are that just communities profit from a consideration of actual dilemma. Symbolic experiences have worked for Blatt (1969) and Turiel (1966) in achieving developmental goals and for Cooney (1977) and Selman and Lieberman (1975) in enhancing particular levels of development.

The second area which raises questions is the use of +1 modeling. Some studies report a significant percentage of students showing development change when exposed to +1 modeling and other studies showed little or no change under +1 conditions. In addition DPE programs

achieve developmental change without specifically using +1 techniques. What does this mean? Are +1 conditions essential to change? Rest (1974) contends that they are probably only a catalyst to change and a fairly imprecise one at that. Without "optimal matching" it seems that +1 modeling has a "shot gun" effect: +1 ideas are offered and fall equally on those who are "ready," i.e., optimally matched and on those who are not. Some persons experience +1 modeling and either do not understand it or see it as self-evident. In either case they do not actively internalize it. However no programs yet use optimal matching. While such precision seems desirable it must be noted that developmental theorists have not yet determined precisely how change occurs or when persons are more "ready" for change (Kuhn, 1978; Rest, 1974).

These considerations lead to a third area as yet unresolved. What are people likely to get into conflict about and when? Certain broad time periods in life can be identified when persons are more likely to be concerned about certain things and ready for a particular developmental change. Kohlberg (1975) lists four areas of concern for different broad age groups: 6-9 years "concern for cognitive orientation, style and attention"; 9-12 years "concern for peer relations (and relations to adults)"; late adolescence "concern for self, inner life and abstract values" and finally "transition to adulthood" (p. 251). The DPE programs, all for adolescents, concentrate on experiences which deal with the issues of self-identity: learning about self through interaction with others as peer counselors, teachers, etc. The other programs do not seem to consider these factors and when attention is

paid to them it is only in general terms.

In addition to conflict stimulation the strategy of role taking is often used in applying developmental theory to practice. Role taking can be fostered by putting persons in situations where they must try to take another's point of view. This can be accomplished through discussions, role plays, learning counseling/teaching skills, and participating in democratic organizations. Role taking is an important aspect of development. Programs which emphasize role taking, notably DPE, succeed in fostering development in persons. However, criticism can be raised that, at present, the use of role-taking, like the use of conflict provocation, is quite general and imprecise. Rest (1977) asks, if a stage three was suddenly found to be more advanced than stage five how would application of the role taking principle be altered in DPE programs? The application is so unspecific that probably nothing would change. In addition Rest citing Shantz (1975) points out that role taking is a complex construct not yet clearly understood or defined. What kind of role taking these programs involve is not set in any clear theoretical context.

A third strategy related to the concept of interaction is active thinking/active doing. This strategy is given specific reference by DPE programs and by Cooney (1977). The DPE programs engage students in direct experiences and then set up seminars where students can reflect upon these experiences. Cooney's work involves students in symbolic portrayals of dilemmas through film and then has students physically act out aspects of and thoughts about the dilemma. As in the

preceding discussion about provoking conflict, an open question remains. What is the effectiveness of various forms of active thinking and active doing? Must such doing involve a practicum? What kinds of discussions promote active thinking? Are the forms that active thinking and doing take related to developmental levels? How do the three strategies of conflict provocation, role taking and active construction of reality relate? What do each contribute to the other and to the process of change? Many questions; as yet few answers.

Underlying the discussion of the use of the strategies related to the concept of interaction runs the constant refrain--application is too broad, interactions are general, not specific, stimulators of development. Rest (1974, 1977) argues that specific attention to developmental sequence is lacking. Theory is not used to direct day-to-day sequencing of activities or optimal matching between student and curriculum. "...the specific characteristics of stages of development are not used to define more proximate objectives which a teacher could use in deciding what to emphasize or provide for specific individuals at a specific time [however] the question...remains as to whether educational programs can be related in detailed ways to specific stage characteristics and whether there is any advantage in doing so" (Rest, 1974, p. 256). Mosher's (1977) view is slightly different for he holds that it is "now possible...to suggest what education experiences are most appropriate to a person's stage of moral development and how they may be sequenced for progressive growth" (p. 86). However a close look at his examples, which include most studies cited in this review, show

that they describe only general stimulation of development and emphasize dilemma discussions as a major application of theory at all levels.

Many different curriculum formats are used in the applications which have been described. They range from "impoverished" discussions to a rich variety of activities including films, readings and practical experiences. Development can be promoted in both dull and interesting ways. However as Rest (1974) and Paolitto (1977) note, all application of developmental theory to educational practice, whether a simple Blatt type discussion or a complex DPE course, require that the teacher have group interaction and discussion skills. Selman and Lieberman (1975) found that teacher motivation proved more important than experience with developmental theory in achieving growth within a particular level of development. Paolitto says, "The classroom teacher needs to be competent in establishing an accepting classroom atmosphere in which trust, respect, empathy and fairness are intentionally fostered as pre-conditions to stimulating moral development" (p. 74). She says these are particularly useful in stimulating development because such education always involves dialogue, sharing of feelings and ideas, a respectful non-authoritarian teacher, teacher understanding of student point of view and discussion and communication skills for both teacher and students.

The question raised at the beginning of this section of the review, "should psychological education have a structural developmental theory base?" cannot yet be definitely answered. The claims put forth by the supporters of such a base are at present only partially substan-

tiated. Many problems exist in translating theory into practice. Some problems lie in the theory, primarily related to the nature of the concept of interaction and to a lack of precision about how development occurs. Other problems stem from application of the theory particularly in the lack of attention paid to sequencing and matching of curricular interventions to student developmental level. In addition attention is not always given to the quality of the curriculum or to prerequisite teacher skills. Whether these problems can all be worked out is unknown. What can be said however is that psychological education based in developmental theory achieves generally positive results. How exactly the use of developmental theory contributes to these results is not clear.

Psychological Education, Developmental Theory and Abuse Prevention

So far this review has looked at the relationship between psychological education and drug abuse education and between psychological education and developmental theory.

Psychological education has been shown to be a promising approach to substance abuse and developmental theory a potentially useful theory base for psychological education. The implication can be made that a developmentally based psychological education approach to substance abuse could be quite effective in promoting personal and social development and in modifying drug use and attitudes. This proposal has been made by Nowlis (1975), Norem-Hebeisen and Lucas (1977) and Alschuler, Phillips and Weinstein (1977).

Has a psychological education program with a developmental base been used in drug abuse prevention? After extensive search only one reference could be found and that in a secondary source as a reference to unpublished material. Briskin (1974 cited in Randall and Wong, 1976) investigated the effect of moral development on drug abuse prevention. With the experimental group he used the discussion of dilemma approach, using situations involving drugs and in addition presented information about drugs. The control group was exposed to a conventional drug education curriculum. Both groups were sixth graders taught for seven months one to three times a week for 45 to 60 minute sessions. Results were disappointing; both groups made equal gains in drug knowledge and neither group changed much in communication skills or level of moral development.

Summary

In summary, psychological education programs which are aimed at drug abuse prevention are generally poorly evaluated, of mediocre quality, rely primarily on values clarification approaches and show statistical trends of positive effects. However what is effective and how those effects are specifically achieved is not clear. Psychological education programs with a developmental base are generally well evaluated, of good quality, use a variety of approaches and demonstrate effectiveness in achieving general aims but precisely how such aims are achieved and what might constitute more specific approaches to and measures of effectiveness is not yet clear. Psychological education

programs which focus on drug abuse prevention and have a developmental base are virtually nonexistent.

The overriding conclusion that can be drawn from this review is that much more study needs to be done before anything definitive can be said about psychological education approaches to substance abuse and about developmentally based psychological education approaches to both general self-development curriculum and drug abuse prevention curriculum.

C H A P T E R I I I

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter presents the research methodology of the study. The study seeks to evaluate the effectiveness of a developmentally based psychological education substance abuse curriculum, the Decisions and Consequences Curriculum (DCC).

Teachers were trained in the use of DCC and the rural junior high school classes of some of those teachers were studied. It was hypothesized that there would be differences in (a) self-knowledge, (b) self-esteem, (c) drug attitudes and (d) drug use between students who experienced DCC and those who did not. Changes in these variables were measured and analyzed.

This chapter describes the teacher training design; variables and hypotheses of the study; measures, sample, experimental design and statistical analysis used; and the method of data collection.

Teacher Training

Teachers were trained to use DCC. A five day workshop was planned for summer 1977 and teachers, administrators and counselors throughout the state of Maine were sent written notification. Effort was made to select teams of teachers from the same school so that they could act as support for one another. Teaching experience and background in psycho-

logical education approaches such as counseling skills and values clarification were also factors in teacher selection.

Thirty-two persons signed up for the workshop and twenty-five came and completed the whole training. Training was conducted by the researcher and a staff person from the New England Program in Teacher Education. The field coordinator for the study, a consultant with the Maine State Unit of Alcohol and Drug Education, also attended the workshop.

The training combined an experiential approach with theory sessions. A general outline follows:

- Day 1 Several activities from the first section of the curriculum focusing on establishing a positive classroom environment.
- Discussion of expectations.
- Introduction to drug education programs in general, this program in particular.
- Day 2 Continuation of activities from first section of the curriculum.
- Lecture and discussion on drug and alcohol use, particularly among adolescents.
- Human relations skills development: listening and responding.
- Day 3 Activities from second section of the curriculum.
- Discussion of problems with the curriculum.
- Continuation of human relations skills development.
- Lecture and discussion on Self-Knowledge Theory and its relation to the curriculum.
- Day 4 Continuation of activities from second section of the curriculum.

Activities from third section of the curriculum.

Lecture by Gerry Weinstein on "Psychosocial" or psychological education and self knowledge.

Day 5 Continuation of activities from third section of the curriculum.

Organization and discussion of implementation.

Site visits were made by the field coordinator to provide support to teachers using DCC. Several visits to each site were made over the fall and spring semesters. Severe winter weather and overloaded teacher schedules prevented some planned site visits and two general support workshops. At the beginning of spring semester the field coordinator and the teachers whose classes were being evaluated met to share experiences.

Variables Studied

DCC is a psychological education curricular approach to drug abuse education. As such its broad aims focus upon unmet personal and social needs, the theorized causes of drug abuse (NIDA, 1977; Norem-Hebeisen and Lucas, 1977; Nowlis, 1975). (See Chapter I, Significance of the Study for a detailed discussion.)

The major goals of this curriculum are: (a) to establish a classroom environment which will foster personal growth, (b) to help individuals better understand who they are, (c) to help individual's better understand what they value and (d) to help individuals make self-constructive decisions. The problem as derived from these goals can be stated as: does DCC help individuals (a) grow personally,

(b) understand who they are, (c) understand what they value and (d) make self-constructive decisions? To begin to answer those questions the following variables were identified as relating to the problem:

(a) self-knowledge as a measure of self-understanding and as one aspect of personal growth, (b) self-esteem as an aspect of personal growth, (c) attitude towards drugs as a reflection of values and (d) drug use as a reflection of self-constructive decision making.

Hypotheses of the Study

The study hypothesized that there would be differences in self-knowledge, self-esteem, attitude towards drugs and drug use between students who experience the Decisions and Consequences Curriculum (DCC) and those who do not. More specifically, the following four hypotheses were tested.

1. Junior high school students who experience DCC would increase their measured self-knowledge more than those who do not experience DCC.

2. Junior high school students who experience DCC would increase their measured self-esteem more than those who do not experience DCC.

3. Junior high school students who experience DCC would have a more measured negative attitude toward drug use than those who do not experience DCC.

4. Junior high school students who experience DCC would report less measured drug use per week than those who do not experience DCC.

Measurements

The following measurements were used to assess self-knowledge, self-esteem, drug attitudes and drug use: (a) Self-Knowledge Experience Recall Test, (b) Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory, (c) Horan's and Swisher's Drug Attitude Scale and (d) a drug use questionnaire. Copies of these instruments appear in Appendix B.

Self-Knowledge Experience Recall Test (SK). Since the curriculum was in part based upon the Self-Knowledge Theory described earlier, an appropriate instrument to assess self-knowledge was the SK. It was developed in conjunction with the theory. This test measures developmental levels of self-understanding. There are two phases to the test. In the first part, individuals are asked to recall unforgettable experiences that they have had over their lifetimes and select one experience to remember in detail. Next they are asked to answer a series of questions which call for a description of the experience and the relationship, if any, of the experience to self-understanding. Each "I-referent" statement in the response is categorized as a coding unit. Each coding unit is then identified as belonging to one of the four levels of self-knowledge as defined by the Self-Knowledge Theory. The percentage of responses at each level is computed and a summary score is obtained by weighing the percentages in the following manner: elemental percentage by 1, situation percentage by 2, patterned by 3, and process by 4. Thus a person whose coding units are all classified as elemental would receive a score of 100 while a person whose re-

sponses were all at the process level would score 400. The range is from 100 to 400 (Alschuler, Evans, Tamashire and Weinstein, 1977).

No data is available on internal consistency or temporal stability. Score reliability has been demonstrated at above .80 (Alschuler, et al., 1975). In two criterion related validity studies, SK correlated .72 and .77 with Loevinger's levels of ego development (Alschuler, et al., 1975). The Guttman Scaling Technique was used to check the construct validity of the invariance and hierarchical organization of the stage sequences. The coefficient of reproducibility was .97 and the coefficient of scalability was .84 (Alschuler, et al., 1975). An increase in SK score is assumed to represent an increase in expressed ability to understand one's experience.

Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (SE). The SE measures attitudes towards self in general and also in social, familial and academic areas. Individuals respond to fifty-eight short statements as "like me" or "unlike me." Eight of these statements indicate defensive reaction to the inventory and are excluded from the SE score. The remaining fifty are scored as 0 or 1 indicating low or high self-esteem. Raw scores range from 0 to 50 and are multiplied by two so that the ultimate range is from 0 to 100 (Coopersmith, 1967).

SE is an appropriate measure of personal and social development for self-esteem and has been identified as an important variable in drug abuse (Norem-Hebeisen and Lucas, 1976). In addition, validity studies report that SE scores are significantly related to effective communication between parents and youth, to family adjustment, to

academic achievement, to perceived liking between peers, to resistance to group pressures and willingness to express unpopular opinions (Coopersmith, 1967; Matteson, 1974; Simon and Bernstein, 1971). These are all factors of personal and social development which inversely correlate with drug abuse (Norem-Hebeisen and Lucas, 1976).

Internal consistency is high-split half reliability of .87 (Fullerton, 1972). Temporal stability was reported at .88 over five weeks, .70 over three years (Coopersmith, 1967) and .64 over twelve months (Fullerton, 1972). An increase in SE score is assumed to represent an increase in self-esteem.

Horan and Swisher Drug Attitude Scale (DA). This scale measures attitudes toward drug usage. There are fourteen statements to which one of five responses can be made: strongly agree, agree, no opinion, disagree, strongly disagree. Odd numbered items are scored 1 for the first response, 2 for the second and so on. Even numbered items are scored oppositely, 5 for the first response, 4 for the second and so on. Scores range from 14 to 70. The lower the score, the more negative the attitude towards drugs; 42 is the midpoint score (Horan and Swisher, 1968).

The scale has alpha reliabilities ranging from .73 for 34 college students to .81 for 614 high school students (Swisher, et al., 1972).

A decrease in DA score is assumed to represent an increase in negative attitude toward drug use. The measure is used to evaluate student value about drug use.

Drug Use Questionnaire (DU). This questionnaire lists ten categories of drugs from cigarettes to hallucinogens. It was designed so that individuals could record the number of drugs they used in each category per week. In this evaluation, they were used only to record drug usage during the weeks of the pre and post tests. Number of students reporting usage of one or more drugs and average number of drugs used per individual were computed. Increase in either number was assumed to be an indication of decision making which could be self destructive although caution must be used in making this assumption. No reliability or validity data are available. Hopefully by making all subjects anonymous, the reported data is reliable and valid but it is difficult to support this assumption statistically.

Sample

Rural youth were the focus of the study. Since it was sponsored by the Maine state Department of Education, the study took place in a primarily rural state. The educators who agreed to take part in the study work with rural youth. Therefore the sample was taken from students in rural Maine schools where DCC was taught.

Because of school policies the classes studied could only be those taught by teachers who volunteered to participate and whose participation was approved by school authorities. Effort was made to insure that control and experimental classes were as comparable in size, grade level, subject area, achievement level and teacher experience as conditions would permit.

Four sample groups were studied. In each group the experimental class was taught DCC once a week, as a unit incorporated into existing subject matter areas. This was the only way in which school administration would permit use of the curriculum. The control class continued their regular school program. The characteristics of each sample group differed slightly in terms of size, grade/age, type of class and achievement level. Randomization was possible for only one group. Treatments provided each group also differed slightly in terms of teacher experience, time spent on DCC and special teaching conditions. Table 2 summarizes the characteristics of each group.

These variations do not reflect the deliberate design of the study but rather the real life circumstances of the schools. The purpose of the study is to evaluate the gross treatment effects of DCC and not the differential effects due to sample and treatment differences.

Design

Two designs were used in this study. Each will be described and following Campbell and Stanley (1966) their internal and external sources of invalidity will be briefly discussed.

Of the four sample groups studied only one was composed of students assigned randomly from a common population. For this sample, Group 3, the pretest-posttest control group design was used. Let X be the treatment, O be the measurement and R stand for random assignment to test or control class, then the design can be represented as:

TABLE 2
Sample Studied

Group	n	Grade/ Age	Level of Achievement	Type of Class	Means of Student Assignment To Class	Teacher Experience	Use of Curriculum	Special Teaching Conditions
<u>1</u> Test	18	7th 12-13	mixed	guidance groups, part of a mandatory ongoing pro- gram with clear "per- sonal aware- ness" goals	non-random	same teacher both classes; 25+ years experience as teacher/ counselor; trained in psychologi- cal education	1/week for 45 minutes October to December	control group had one year experience with psycho- logical education in 7th grade

TABLE 2 (CONTINUED)

Group	n	Grade/ Age	Level of Achievement	Type of Class	Means of Student Assignment To Class	Teacher Experience	Use of Curriculum	Special Teaching Conditions
2 Test	14	8th 12-14	mixed	guidance groups, part of a mandatory new program with unclear goals	non-random	experienced elementary teacher; no psychological education experience	1/week for 45 minutes October to March	class held in open space and often dis- turbed by non-group members
						experienced junior high teacher, no psychological education experience		
Control	11	8th 12-14	mixed					

TABLE 2 (CONTINUED)

Group	n	Grade/ Age	Level of Achievement	Type of Class	Means of Student Assignment To Class	Teacher Experience	Use of Curriculum	Special Teaching Conditions
3 Test	31	8th 12-13	high	language arts	randomly assigned by school adminis- tration	3+ years experience junior high teacher; moderate psychological education experience	1/week for 90 minutes October to March	none
						experienced junior high teacher		
Control	29	7th 12-13	high					

TABLE 2 (CONTINUED)

Group	n	Grade/ Age	Level of Achievement	Type of Class	Means of Student Assignment To Class	Teacher Experience	Use of Curriculum	Special Teaching Conditions
<u>4</u> Test	13	7th 12-13	low	guidance group	non-random; test group composed of "problem students: induced into guidance group from study hall	1st year; trained as counselor; minimum psychological education experience	1/week for 40 minutes October to May	none
Control	31	7th 12-13	low	study hall		no teacher		

R	O ₁		X		O ₂
R	O ₁				O ₂

This designed controlled for most threats to internal validity. Because students were assigned at random, the test and control classes can be assumed to have been equivalent at the beginning of the evaluation. Thus selection, history, maturation, testing and instrumentation should have effected the two classes equally. Likewise the effects of regression, if any, should also have been equal. Mortality was a negligible factor since student class attendance was mandatory.

Possible sources of external validity may have been the interaction of selection bias with treatment and the reactive effects of the experiment. They will be discussed in the final chapter. The influence of the pretest on the treatment could have been another possible source of external validity. However the pretests are similar to aspects of the treatment and could even be considered as part of the treatment. Therefore even if the pretest added to or subtracted from the effect of the curriculum, the interaction is not important.

The remaining three sample groups were already assembled, so that while test and control classes were as similar as availability permitted, students were not assigned randomly to either class. The control class was therefore possibly non-equivalent to the test class and so the quasi-experimental non-equivalent control group design was used. This design can be represented as:

O ₁		X		O ₂
O ₁				O ₂

Most threats to internal validity were controlled for. Since test and control classes were chosen to be as similar as possible, the effects of selection, history, maturation, testing and instrumentation can be ruled out. Sample Group 4 however could have been effected by selection bias since "problem" students were selected by school administration to participate in the test group. Regression, might also have occurred for Group 4 because of the possible selection bias. Group 1 might also have been effected by regression since test and control classes differed in grade level and experience with psychological education. Selection-maturation interaction also occurred in some cases, that is students in test and control classes of the same sample groups grew at different rates. Statistical analysis, as explained in the following section, in part adjusted for this differential in growth. Use of intact classes with mandatory attendance makes mortality a minimum threat.

External validity was possibly threatened by interaction of selection bias with the treatment. This will be discussed in the final chapter.

Statistical Analysis

Data obtained from the sample group using the pretest-posttest control group design was analyzed using analysis of covariance. Campbell and Stanley (1966) describe this as the most appropriate test to use when students are randomly assigned to treatments. The analysis compares the pretest-posttest differences between test and control

classes after taking into account differences in pretest means for the two classes. The level of statistical significance was set at $p = .05$.

Data obtained from the sample groups using the quasi-experimental non-equivalent control group design present special analysis difficulties. Methodologists do not yet agree upon which techniques, if any, are adequate to statistically take into account the non-equivalency of the test and control groups. Bryk and Weisberg (1977) describe two major accepted ways of estimating the mean posttest differences between test and control groups which adjust for the lack of pretest equivalency. The first is gain score analysis which compares test and control classes on the mean differences between their pretest and posttest scores. The second is analysis of covariance, described above. Under certain conditions of growth one method is a more effective adjustor than the other and sometimes neither method is useful. Where appropriate these methods were used in analyzing the non-equivalent design data.

When pretest-posttest scores for both test and control classes were roughly parallel then gain score analysis was most appropriate. When changes or growth was not parallel, analysis was more difficult. Where both test and control classes started at about the same level but experienced different growth rates so that one class changed more than the other, a condition called "fan spread" occurred and analysis of covariance was used. If the "fan spread" was "not grossly non-parallel" (p. 958) then gain scores could also be used. When the condition of growth was reversed or "fan close," and groups were initially

very different but became more similar, gain score analysis was appropriate if growth was not grossly nonparallel. In a "cross over" growth condition, where the groups were initially different and the group with the lower pretest score became the group with the higher posttest score no adjustment was appropriate. The level of statistical significance for all tests was set at $p = .05$.

In addition to comparing test classes to control classes, pretest and posttest mean scores for each test class and for each control class were compared using the t ratio. Level of statistical significance was set at $p = .05$. This method provided additional results which could be used to support or reject the study's hypotheses. In cases where gain score analysis and analysis of covariance were not appropriate, this method helped to interpret the data. All computation was done by computer using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

Data Collection

Data was collected by a field coordinator who arranged for and conducted all testing. Individual anonymity was preserved by use of a confidential code list. Students were assigned code numbers by the field coordinator who was the only person with access to the code list. Only code numbers were used on test instrument answer sheets and the code list was destroyed after post testing was completed. All pretests were conducted during the first two weeks the curriculum was begun. Post testing occurred during the first two weeks after the curriculum

was completed.

CHAPTER IV
ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Overview

This chapter reports the data collected for each major variable, as analyzed in regard to the following hypotheses:

1. Junior high school students who experience DCC will increase their self-knowledge more than those who do not experience DCC.
2. Junior high school students who experience DCC will increase their self-esteem more than those who do not experience DCC.
3. Junior high school students who experience DCC will have a more negative attitude toward drug use than those who do not experience DCC.
4. Junior high school students who experience DCC will report less drug use per week than those who do not experience DCC.

Four groups of experimental and control classes were studied. Findings for each sample group in regard to each hypotheses are presented. Comparison of pretest with posttest scores for each test and control group is reported. Where appropriate, gains score analysis and/or analysis of covariance is reported. A summary of the findings for each variable is then presented.

Differences among the groups necessitate reporting the results in this manner. Group characteristics vary somewhat in terms of size, grade/age, achievement level, type of class and means of assignment

to treatment or control classes. Treatments provided also differ slightly in time spent on teaching DCC, teacher experience and conditions under which teaching occurred. In one group, subjects were assigned randomly to experimental and control classes. The other three groups consisted of classes to which students were non-randomly assigned.

Findings For Each Sample Group

Group 1. Group 1 was composed of mixed achievement level seventh and eighth graders non-randomly assigned to guidance groups as part of a mandatory established program. Program goals were clearly understood by faculty and students. The control class was composed of eighth graders who had already been in guidance groups for one year. The experimental class was composed of incoming seventh graders. The same teacher taught both classes. She had 25 years experience as a teacher and counselor and was trained in DCC and psychological education. DCC classes were conducted once a week for 45 minutes from October to December.

Table 3 provides a comparison of pretest means with posttest means for Group 1. Table 4 provides a comparison of mean differences or gain scores between experimental and control classes in Group 1.

There is evidence to support the hypothesis that in this group, the self-knowledge (SK) and self-esteem (SE) of those who experienced DCC increased more than for those who did not experience DCC. SK for the test class remained stable, pretest 119.5 posttest 115.75, while SK

TABLE 3

Comparison of Pretest Means with Posttest Means for Group 1

	n	Pretest Mean	s.d.	Posttest Mean	s.d.	<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>
Self-Knowledge (SK)							
Test	8	119.5	8.332	115.75	18.250	.43	.682
Control	8	132.75	18.250	115.875	13.768	2.74	.029
Self-Esteem (SE)							
Test	17	60.82	13.249	74.00	16.355	-4.368	.000
Control	20	59.50	12.812	65.70	11.411	-2.32	.031
Drug Attitude (DA)							
Test	18	22.389	6.389	24.5	4.902	-1.42	.174
Control	22	29.227	10.998	31.182	10.182	-1.33	.198
Drug Use (DU)							
Test	18	.0556	.236	0	0	0	
Control	23	2.4348	6.156	3.0435	6.745	-.66	.519

TABLE 4

Comparison of Gain Scores (Differences Between
Pretest and Posttest Scores) for Group 1

	n	Gain Score	s.d.	<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>
Self-Knowledge (SK)					
Test	8	-3.7500	24.086	1.21	.251
Control	8	-16.6250	17.188		
Self-Esteem (SE)					
Test	17	13.1765	12.451	1.73	.092
Control	20	6.2000	11.928		
Drug Attitude (DA)					
Test	18	2.1111	6.314	.07	.941
Control	22	1.9545	6.890		
Drug Use (DU)					
Test	18	-.0556	.236	-.71	.482
Control	23	.6087	4.449		

for the control class decreased from 132.5 to 115.875, which was statistically significant at $p = .029$. Gain score analysis indicated non-statistically significant differences between test and control classes in the hypothesized direction ($p = .251$). However, as discussed in the methodology chapter this type of analysis may not be appropriate since the test and control class changes were not parallel. Both classes increased in SE. The test class increase, from 60.82 to 74, was highly statistically significant, $p = .000$. The control class increase from 59.5 to 65.7, was statistically significant at $p = .031$. Gain score analysis indicated that differences in the gains made by the two classes approached statistical significance at $p = .092$. Analysis of covariance was perhaps a more appropriate test since both groups had similar pretest scores and somewhat different posttest scores. As shown on Table 5, such analysis indicated that the differences in change between the classes were nearly statistically significant, $p = .055$.

There is no support for the hypotheses that drug attitude (DA) or mean drug use per class member per week (DU) decreased more for the test class than for the control class. DA remained negative with a slight increase in the positive direction for both classes; from 22.389 to 24.5 for the test class and 29.227 to 31.182 for the control class. Neither gain was statistically significant nor were differences between the two gains statistically significant. Drug use for the test class was virtually nonexistent. Reported drug use was one package of cigarettes on the pretest and no drug usage on the posttest. However

TABLE 5
Analysis of Covariance for Group 1 Self-Esteem Scores

Sources of Variation	MSS	df	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Covariate Self-Esteem Pretest Scores	2493.803	1	19.345	.001
Treatment Effects	510.404	1	3.959	.055
Residual	128.913	34		

21 percent of the control class reported drug use in both pretests and posttests. A mean of 11.2 drugs per user per week was reported in pretesting and 14 drugs per week in posttesting. Usage involved cigarettes, alcohol and marijuana. DU or mean drugs per class member per week for the control class went from 2.4348 to 3.0435. This was not a statistically significant change. Neither gain score analysis nor analysis of covariance show any statistically significant differences between test and control class DU.

Group 2. Group 2 was composed of mixed achievement level eighth graders assigned non-randomly to guidance groups as part of a mandatory new program. Program goals were not clearly stated; teachers had no experience in psychological education except that the teacher of the experimental class had training in DCC. Classes were held in open space and were frequently disturbed by non group members. DCC classes were conducted once a week for forty-five minutes from October to March. Table 6 provides a comparison of pretest means with posttest means for Group 2. Table 7 provides a comparison of mean differences or gain scores between experimental and control classes in Group 2.

There is no evidence to support any of the hypotheses for this group. No statistically significant changes between pretest and posttest occurred in either experimental or control classes and no statistically significant differences were found between experimental and control classes. SK for both classes remained stable, pretest-posttest scores for the test class were 145.75 and 144.875 and for the control class 120.714 and 124.286. SE scores also remained the same for both

TABLE 6

Comparison of Pretest Means with Posttest Means for Group 2

	n	Pretest Mean	s.d.	Posttest Mean	s.d.	<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>
Self-Knowledge (SK)							
Test	8	145.750	33.809	144.875	26.046	.07	.949
Control	7	120.714	7.477	124.286	9.105	-.81	.621
Self-Esteem (SE)							
Test	14	64.429	20.018	65.429	20.732	-.30	.768
Control	11	56.000	18.547	57.636	21.407	-.51	.450
Drug Attitude (DA)							
Test	14	27.929	8.678	27.714	7.363	.08	.937
Control	11	23.364	8.003	24.636	5.887	-.66	.524
Drug Use (DU)							
Test	12	.0883	.289	.2500	.866	-.62	.551
Control	11	0	0	.0909	.302	0	

TABLE 7

Comparison of Gain Scores (Differences Between
Pretest and Posttest Scores) for Group 2

	n	Gain Score	s.d.	<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>
Self-Knowledge (SK)					
Test	8	-.8750	37.559	-.32	.758
Control	7	3.5714	11.688		
Self-Esteem (SE)					
Test	14	1.0000	12.422	-.14	.892
Control	11	1.6464	10.652		
Drug Attitude (DA)					
Test	14	-.2143	9.978	-.45	.656
Control	11	1.2727	6.389		
Drug Use (DU)					
Test	12	.1667	.937	.27	.795
Control	11	.0909	.302		

classes: pretest-posttest scores for the test class were 64.429 and 654.29; for the control class they were 56.00 and 57.636. Likewise DA did not change, test class pretest-posttest scores were 23.364 and 24.636. Both classes were virtually non drug users who remained non-users. The test class reported one hard liquor drink on the pretest and one person reported three drinks in the posttest. In the control class no pretest drug use was reported and one glass of wine was reported in posttesting.

Group 3. Group 3 was composed of high achievement level seventh graders randomly assigned by the school administration to two language arts classes. Each class was taught by an experienced junior high school teacher. The teacher of DCC was trained in DCC and had moderate background in psychological education. Classes were conducted once a week for ninety minutes from October to March. Table 8 provides a comparison of pretest means with posttest means for Group 3. Table 9 provides analysis of covariance for Group 3.

There is strong evidence to support the hypothesis that, for Group 3, the SK scores of those who experienced DCC increased more than it did for those who did not experience the curriculum. Test class SK remained stable, 133.633 pretest and 134.233 posttest, while the control class SK decreased from 132.739 to 123.000, a change which tended toward statistical significance, $p = .073$. Since individual students were randomly assigned to experimental and control classes the data could be analyzed using analysis of covariance. The differences in SK score changes between the experimental and control classes were stat-

TABLE 8

Comparison of Pretest Means with Posttest Means for Group 3

	n	Pretest Mean	s.d.	Posttest Mean	s.d.	<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>
Self-Knowledge (SK)							
Test	30	133.6333	20.712	134.233	19.944	-.12	.909
Control	23	132.7391	22.171	123.000	17.792	1.88	.073
Self-Esteem (SE)							
Test	29	70.9655	17.522	72.7586	19.423	-.97	.343
Control	23	66.8696	15.665	69.6522	18.514	-.88	.390
Drug Attitude (DA)							
Test	31	25.7419	8.222	27.3548	6.570	-1.31	.200
Control	27	23.4074	7.495	25.5926	10.001	-1.35	.188
Drug Use (DU)							
Test	31	.6452	2.169	2.2903	5.780	-1.74	.092
Control	29	.7586	2.309	1.9655	7.263	-.87	.394

TABLE 9
Analysis of Covariance for Group 3

Sources of Variation	MSS	df	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Self-Knowledge (SK)				
Covariate Self-Knowledge Pretest Score	261.874	1	.717	.401
Treatment Effects	1615.914	1	4.424	.040
Residual	365.288	50		
Self-Esteem (SE)				
Covariate Self-Esteem Pretest Score	10585.517	1	67.888	.001
Treatment Effects	2.393	1	.015	.902
Residual	155.926	49		
Drug Attitude (DA)				
Covariate Drug Attitude Pretest Score	1272.696	1	26.258	.001
Treatment Effects	1.996	1	.041	.840
Residual	48.468	55		
Drug Use (DU)				
Covariate Drug Use Pretest Score	111.990	1	2.697	.106
Treatment Effects	2.342	1	.056	.813
Residual	41.519	57		

istically significant, $p = .040$.

There is no evidence to support the hypothesis that SE increased and DA and DU decreased more in the test class than in the control class. Both classes changed very slightly in SE scores; pretest-posttest scores for the test class were 70.966 and 72.759 and for the control class 66.870 and 69.652. These changes are not statistically significant. DA also changed slightly but remained low; DA went from 25.742 to 27.355 in the test class and 23.407 to 25.593 in the control class. Again these changes are not statistically significant. Both test and control class had similar pretest levels of drug use. In the test class 12.9 percent reported a mean use of 5 drugs per user per week; in the control class 13.8 percent reported a mean of 5.5 drugs per user per week. Drug use was primarily alcohol. Posttests showed similar increases for both classes. The test class reported a mean of 9.5 drugs by 25.8 percent of the class; the control class reported a mean of 10.16 drugs per user per week by 20.6 percent of the class. Again drug use was primarily alcohol. DU or drugs used per class member per week went from .6452 to 2.2903 in the test class and from .7586 to 1.9655 in the control class. These changes are not statistically significant.

Analysis of covariance show no statistically significant differences between test and control classes for SE, DA and DU.

Group 4. Group 4 was composed of low achievement seventh graders assigned to a study hall. The test class was made up of students identified as "problem" students and induced from the study hall into a

guidance group. The students remaining in study hall became the control class. The teacher of DCC had been trained in counseling and in DCC. This was her first year teaching. DCC classes were conducted once a week for 40 minutes from October to May. Table 10 provides a comparison of pretest means with posttest means for Group 4. Table 11 provides a comparison of mean differences or gain scores between experimental and control classes in Group 4.

There is evidence to support the hypothesis that less drug use was reported by the test class than by the control class. No statistically significant change in drug use was reported by the experimental class. They remained low drug users. Initially 1 person in the class (7.6 percent) reported using 1 package of cigarettes. In the posttest 3 persons reported using altogether 3 packages of cigarettes, 1 beer and 5 marijuana cigarettes or an average of 3 drugs per user. DU, mean drug use per class member per week changed slightly from .0769 to .0923. In contrast, a statistically significant change occurred for the control class. DU increased from .0968 to 1.8387, $p = .01$. This represents an increase from 2 persons of 6.4 percent of the class using 1.5 drugs per week to 13 persons or 41.9 percent using 4.38 drugs per week. Pretest usage was reported as 3 packages of cigarettes. Posttest usage included 15 packages of cigarettes, 27 alcoholic drinks and 14 marijuana cigarettes. Analysis of the differences between the test and control groups may be done by gain score analysis or analysis of covariance. Gain score analysis indicated the difference in the mean change in DU between test and control classes tends toward statistical

TABLE 10

Comparison of Pretest Means with Posttest Means for Group 4

	n	Pretest Mean	s.d.	Posttest Mean	s.d.	<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>
Self-Knowledge (SK)							
Test	8	136.6250	18.158	118.5000	20.647	4.05	.005
Control	24	129.4167	18.182	122.0833	13.088	1.55	.134
Self-Esteem (SE)							
Test	10	56.6000	13.761	58.0000	16.839	-.55	.594
Control	28	68.4286	13.774	69.5714	13.382	-.41	.682
Drug Attitude (DA)							
Test	12	26.5833	7.403	25.5833	9.615	.43	.678
Control	30	26.5333	7.094	28.4333	8.873	-1.07	.293
Drug Use (DU)							
Test	13	.0769	.277	.6923	1.932	-1.34	.206
Control	31	.0968	.396	1.8387	3.121	-3.07	.005

TABLE 11

Comparison of Gain Scores (Differences Between
Pretest and Posttest Scores) for Group 4

	n	Gain Score	s.d.	<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>
Self-Knowledge (SK)					
Test	8	-18.1250	12.665	-1.66	.111
Control	24	-7.3333	23.119		
Self-Esteem (SE)					
Test	10	1.4000	8.003	.07	.946
Control	28	1.1429	14.580		
Drug Attitude (DA)					
Test	12	-1.0000	8.135	-.99	.334
Control	30	1.9000	9.721		
Drug Use (DU)					
Test	13	.6154	1.660	-1.54	.131
Control	31	1.7419	3.162		

significance, $p = .131$. Analysis of covariance, shown on Table 12, calculated the statistical significance of the difference at $p = .237$.

SK scores decreased in both classes. The test class changed from 136.676 to 118.500 and the control class from 129.417 to 122.083. The difference between pretest and posttest scores for the experimental class was statistically significant at $p = .005$, while the mean change for the control class tended toward significance, $p = .134$. Because of the "cross over" condition no statistical analysis of the differences between the test and control group changes may be appropriate. A gain score analysis indicated a tendency toward differences opposite the hypothesized direction, $p = .111$.

There is no support for the hypothesis that SE increased and DA decreased more for the test class than for the control class. No change in SE scores occurred; test class pretest-posttest scores were 56.60 and 58.00 and control class scores were 68.429 and 69.571. Neither change was statistically significant. DA dropped slightly in the test class from 26.583 to 25.583 and gained somewhat in the control class from 26.533 to 28.433. Again neither change was statistically significant.

Summary of Findings for Each Variable

Self-knowledge (SK). Table 13 shows that there is support for the hypothesis that SK increased more for the test classes than for the control classes in Groups 1 and 3. In these groups the SK scores of the test classes remained about the same while those of the control

TABLE 12
Analysis of Covariance for Group 4 Drug Use Scores

Sources of Variation	MSS	df	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Covariate Drug Use Pretest Scores	4.435	1	.546	.464
Treatment Effects	11.678	1	1.438	.237
Residual	8.119	41		

TABLE 13
 Overview of Statistically Significant Score Changes for Each Variable

Group	Self-Knowledge	Self-Esteem	Drug Attitude ^a	Drug Use
<u>1</u> Test Control difference between test and control	no change	increase $\frac{t}{p} = \frac{4.368}{.000}$	no change	no change remained non-users
	decrease $\frac{t}{p} = \frac{2.74}{.029}$	increase $\frac{t}{p} = \frac{-2.32}{.031}$	no change	no change remained moderate users
	in predicted direction $\frac{t}{p} = \frac{1.21}{.251}$	in predicted direction $\frac{t}{F} = \frac{1.73}{3.959}, \frac{p}{p} = \frac{.092}{.055}$	no difference	no difference
<u>2</u> Test Control difference between test and control	no change	no change	no change	no change remained non-users
	no change	no change	no change	no change remained non-users
	no difference	no difference	no difference	no difference

TABLE 13 (CONTINUED)

Group	Self-Knowledge	Self-Esteem	Drug Attitude ^a	Drug Use
<u>3</u>				
Test	no change	no change	no change	no change remained moderate users
Control	decrease tends toward statis- tical significance $t = 1.88, p = .073$	no change	no change	no change remained moderate users
difference between test and control	significant difference $F = 4.424, p = .040$	no difference	no difference	no difference
<u>4</u>				
Test	decrease $t = 4.05, p = .005$	no change	no change	no change remained low users
Control	decrease tends toward statistical significance $t = 1.55, p = .134$	no change	no change	increase $t = -3.07$ $p = .005$

TABLE 13 (CONTINUED)

Group	Self-Knowledge	Self-Esteem	Drug Attitude ^a	Drug Use
<u>4</u> (continued) difference between test and control	opposite predicted direction $\underline{t} = -1.66, p = .111$	no difference	no difference	in predicted direction $\underline{t} = -1.54, p = .131$

^a Attitudes remained low for all groups in pretests and posttests

classes decreased. For Group 1 the decrease was statistically significant at $p = .029$, while for Group 3 the decrease approached statistical significance, $p = .073$. Analysis of covariance can be applied to Group 3 and indicates that the differences in the mean change between the test and control classes was statistically significant at $p = .040$.

In Group 2 SK scores for both test and control classes remained about the same. In Group 4 the SK scores of both test and control classes decreased. The decrease for the test class was statistically significant, $p = .005$. A discussion of this result follows in the final chapter.

Self-esteem (SE). Table 13 shows that there is support for the hypothesis that in Group 1 SE increased more for the test class than for the control class. Both test and control classes increased in SE with a highly statistically significant change for the test class, $p = .001$ and a statistically significant change for the control class, $p = .031$. Gain score analysis indicated that the differences between these two gains tended toward significance, $p = .092$. Analysis of covariance, perhaps a more appropriate test, showed the difference between the gains to approach statistical significance, $p = .055$. Changes in SE were negligible for Groups 2, 3 and 4.

Drug attitude (DA). Table 13 indicates very weak support for the hypothesis that DA decreased more for the test class than for the control classes. Gain score analysis indicates nonstatistically sig-

nificant trends in the hypothesized direction, that is slightly more negative attitudes for the test classes than for the control classes except for Group 1 where DA for both classes changed about equally in a slightly positive direction. Overall DA was low and remained at low level for both test and control classes in all groups.

Drug use (DU). Weekly use of cigarettes, beer, wine, hard liquor, marijuana, hashish and amphetamines was measured. Students reported that they did not use barbituates, heroin or hallucinogens. Table 13 shows that there is some support for the hypothesis that in Groups 4 and 1 DU decreased more for test classes than for control classes. In Group 4 both test and control classes had initial reports of low drug use. However while DU increased only slightly in the test class, DU in the control class increased statistically significantly, $p = .005$. Gain score analysis indicated differences between test and control class gains are in the hypothesized direction, $p = .131$. In Group 1 the test class was nonusers who remained nonusers. Control class drug use was relatively high and increased, although not at a statistically significant level.

Both test and control classes in Group 2 were virtually nonusers who remained nonusers. In Group 3 both test and control classes had similar pretest DU and similar posttest gains.

C H A P T E R V
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

Can programs be designed to help persons fulfill their personal and social needs without resorting to substance abuse? This study sought a partial answer to that question in evaluating the effects of a psychological education curriculum with a developmental theory base upon student self-knowledge, self-esteem, attitudes towards drugs and drug use.

This chapter will first summarize and discuss the overall effectiveness of the curriculum. It will next address how the present study compares in quality, effectiveness and intervention nature to existing psychological education approaches to substance abuse prevention and to existing applications of developmental theory to psychological education. Information the study contributes to clarifying the relationship between the foundations of psychological education and developmental theory will be presented. Finally, recommendations for future study will be made.

Overall Effectiveness of the
Decisions and Consequences Curriculum (DCC)

Results about the effectiveness of DCC are mixed. There is support for some of the hypotheses of the study for some of the sample groups. Students in test classes in Groups 1 and 3 maintained stable

self-knowledge (SK) scores while control class students' SK scores decreased. Self-esteem (SE) scores increased more for the test class of Group 1 than for the control class. The Group 4 test class reported less drug use (DU) per week per class member than the control class. Drug attitude (DA) remained low for all test and control classes in all groups.

As noted in the preceding two chapters the four sample groups studied differed in several respects. A better understanding of the results can be had by looking closely at the characteristics of and treatment variations in each group with an eye to their effects on the internal and external validity of the results.

Randomly assigned subjects--group 3. Group 3 was the only group in which it was possible to assign students randomly to treatment or control classes. This factor, as discussed in the methodology chapter, eliminates or minimizes threats to internal validity.

External validity factors however do exert an effect on Group 3, particularly selection bias and possibly reactive effects of the experimental situation. The teacher of the curriculum for the Group 3 test class was moderately experienced in psychological education. She was committed to the purposes of the program and to its developmental psychological education approach. She would be the "typical" teacher to use such a program voluntarily. The use of a curriculum like DCC was somewhat unusual in a language arts class; student lack of familiarity with psychological education may have influenced the effectiveness of the curriculum. Indeed it seems as if the curriculum was more

effective in Group 1 where DCC was used in a guidance group for which psychological education was not an unusual approach. Nevertheless it can be argued that the selection bias and the possible reactive effects of the unusualness of DCC in fact approximate typical conditions under which DCC is likely to be taught. Under such conditions the self-knowledge (SK) scores of the test class remained stable while for the control class they dropped statistically significantly. It may be that SK is subject to much variability in early adolescence and that the intervention of DCC helped to stabilize that variability. At present this interpretation is conjecture, limited by the fact that the SK instrument has not been tested for internal consistency or temporal stability.

Self-esteem (SE) scores did not change for Group 3. This might be explained by the fact that SE for this group was higher than for any other group, perhaps because students were in the high achievement level at school.

Drug use (DU) was not effected by DCC as parallel gains were made by test and control classes. It might be concluded that DU is not effected by DCC. However since changes in DU in the hypothesized direction occurred for Group 4 this conclusion cannot be drawn.

Non-randomly assigned subjects. In the remaining groups studied students were not assigned randomly to test or control classes. As mentioned in the methodology chapter internal validity might be effected by regression effects. In addition the external validity factors of selection bias and reactive effects may have occurred for some groups.

Group 1. In Group 1 the same teacher taught both test and control classes. She was highly experienced in psychological education and very committed to program goals. She could be considered an "ideal" teacher for DCC. In addition the treatment conditions were "ideal." DCC was integrated into an ongoing guidance group program. The program was familiar to students and accepted and supported by the school administration. DCC was not too unusual from what normally occurred. Thus if any selection bias or reactive effects occurred they would likely have enhanced the effect of the treatment.

For Group 1, like Group 3, test class SK scores remained stable while the control class scores dropped statistically significantly. This finding is somewhat compounded by the fact that the pretest scores of the test and control groups were not equivalent. Regression toward the mean cannot be ruled out absolutely as an explanation for the decline in the control class' SK score. However the findings for Group 3 suggest that, without the intervention of DCC, SK may drop for this age group. Until temporal stability for the SK instrument has been established the true meaning of fluctuations in SK will not be clear.

The situation with SE scores, however, was different. Both classes started with similar SE scores and each made gains. The gain made by the test class was statistically significantly greater than that made by the control class. Since the classes were guidance classes where emphasis was placed on improving student self-esteem it might be expected that gains would occur in both classes. A possible

explanation is that since the control class was a year older their SE growth rate was reaching a plateau. However analysis of covariance, as discussed in Chapter III, should correct for this possible differential growth rate. Perhaps it is more likely that the greater gain occurred in the test class because the curriculum was taught at a developmentally appropriate level and could therefore be more effective than guidance efforts that were not necessarily developmentally appropriate.

The effect on DU in Group 1 cannot be determined since both test and control classes were basically nonusers who remained nonusers. It might be noted that DU did not increase as a result of DCC, an occurrence documented in some drug education studies (de Lone, 1972; Goodstadt, 1974; Stuart, 1972; Swisher and Crawford, 1971; Tennant, Weaver and Lewis, 1973; Virgilio, 1971).

Group 2. Group 2 most probably experienced selection bias and reactive effects which hindered the effectiveness of the treatment. The DCC teacher had no experience in psychological education and was integrating DCC into a new guidance program. Both test and control groups were exposed to these new guidance groups which was an unusual experience in comparison to their normal school routine. The test class had the additional burden of being taught in an open space often disturbed by non-group members. Thus treatment conditions were less than ideal. Under these adverse conditions DCC had no measured effect on SK scores or SE score. The effect on DU was impossible to determine since both classes were nonusers who remained so. Again it might be noted that DCC did not result in an increase in DU.

Group 4. Conclusions about Group 4 may be the most difficult to draw. The Group 4 test class was composed of "problem students" induced into a guidance group from a study hall. This obviously constitutes selection bias in that students were singled out for special treatment. The teacher had very little experience either in psychological education or in general teaching. The treatment situation was a deviation from the usual school routine and the differences were compounded by the special selection of students for treatment. Thus selection and treatment conditions were far from ideal.

Possible regression effects and selection/maturation bias make it difficult to understand the SK results. SK declined in both test and control classes. The test class initial mean score was higher than that of the control class mean and dropped to below that of the control class posttest mean. This is a possible "cross over" condition of maturation as described in Chapter III. There is no accepted way to analyze such data. The selection bias more than likely accounts for this cross over and possibly regression toward the mean may have taken place. Thus the drop in SK for the test group is probably due more to these threats to the validity of the study than to the effect of DCC.

SE scores did not change much in either group but it is interesting to note that the test class mean SE is more than 10 points lower than that of the control class. This might be a reflection of the test class' label as "problem students" and a further indication of selection bias.

The most interesting finding is that while both classes had ini-

tially similar low levels of DU, test class DU remained low while it increased statistically significantly for the control class. Although no such finding occurred in any of the other groups, the results from Group 4 can be taken as an indication that DCC affects DU. This result may be due partially to the sampling bias. If this is the case an argument might be made that the curriculum was more effective in influencing the DU of "problem students" than it was of nonproblem students.

Summary. Some general conclusions can be drawn. The limited data available provides evidence that under conditions of teacher motivation and skill in psychological education with average or better students and teaching conditions supportive to psychological education, the following may result:

1. Self-knowledge (SK) may be stabilized for 12 to 14 year olds who experience DCC and may decrease for those who do not.
2. Self-esteem (SE) may grow at a faster rate for 12 to 13 year olds who experience DCC than for those who do not.
3. There is insufficient evidence to determine the effects of DCC upon drug use (DU) under these conditions.

Where the teacher is motivated but only minimally skilled, students are labeled "problem students" and teaching conditions are minimally supportive to psychological education, the following may result:

1. Drug use (DU) may be held at a low level for 12 to 13 year olds who experience DCC while it increases for those who do not.
2. Self-esteem (SE) does not change for either those who exper-

ience DCC or for those who do not.

3. The effects of DCC on self-knowledge (SK) are unclear.

Where teachers are motivated but unskilled in psychological education, working with a mixed group of students under conditions unsupportive to psychological education DCC seems to have no effect on SK, SE, or DU for 12 to 14 year olds.

There is insufficient evidence to draw any conclusion about the effects of DCC on drug attitude (DA) under any conditions.

In addition it must be noted that these conclusions are drawn only for the sample population of rural Maine junior high school students.

Quality, Effectiveness and Intervention Nature
of DCC in Relation to Existing Psychological Education
Approaches to Substance Abuse

Quality. Each of the three major reviews of the drug education literature (Goodstadt, 1974; Randall and Wong, 1976; Schaps, et al., 1978) concludes that the evaluation of drug abuse prevention programs is generally inadequate. In most cases experimental designs failed to provide some basis for comparison with the test group and/or used inappropriate statistical analysis.

Since psychological education approaches to substance abuse began to appear in 1971 only a small percentage have been well designed and systematically evaluated. Pyramid Project, in the most extensive review to date, points out that of the 59 studies of psychological evaluation approaches to substance abuse conducted between 1971 and 1977 less than 10 have been exemplary (Schaps, et al., 1978). In spite of

the limitations of "real life" conditions which effected the present study, it is of better quality than most existing studies. There is a control group for each sample, randomization in one sample group, appropriate statistical analysis and a thorough discussion of the whole program.

Effectiveness. The conclusion drawn from the author's review of the literature was that psychological education approaches to drug abuse education were promising; in some instances they have reduced drug use, changed attitudes towards drugs and achieved affective goals. However no clear statements could be made about what specifically worked well. The present study lends further support to the promise of psychological education approaches to substance abuse education, but does not provide sufficiently clear-cut data to assert any strong claims for the effectiveness of DCC.

The inadequacies of the design and evaluation of most psychological education abuse prevention programs make it difficult to understand the effectiveness of DCC in relationship to them. Nevertheless, as inspection of Table 14 indicates, in comparison with drug education studies identified as exemplary, DCC's effectiveness is similar to other programs in its influence on drug attitude and equivalent or better than others in effects on drug use. It should be noted that different studies often used different measures of drug attitude and drug use. Since the range of affective measures used is wide, it is difficult to compare studies. The one study which measures self-esteem, Jackson and Calsyn (1977) did not find any positive results;

TABLE 14
 Comparison of Present Study with "Exemplary Psychological Education Substance Abuse Studies

Study	Approach	Grade Level	Duration	Design	Results		
					Drug Attitude	Drug Use	Affective Measures
Carney, 1971 (Coronado) cited in Goodstadt, 1974 and Randall and Wong, 1976	values clarification and alternatives	4-12	?	some pre/post no controls	NC or -	-	"dangerous behaviors"
		4-5	?	pre/post control non-random	-	-	"dangerous behaviors"
		?	?	pre/post control randomized?	-	-	?
Carney, 1972 (Tempe) cited in Randall and Wong, 1976	values (v.c.) clarification	?	?	pre/post control randomized?	-	-	?
	v.c. & information	?	?		-	-	
	information	?	?		NC or +	NC or +	
Swisher, Warner and Herr, 1972	relationship counseling	9-11	Once a week for 60 hrs.	pre/post control randomized	NC	NC	NS
	reinforcement counseling				NC	NC	NS

TABLE 14 (CONTINUED)

Study	Approach	Grade Level	Duration	Design	Results		
					Drug Attitude	Drug Use	Affective Measures
Swisher, Warner, Spence and Upcroft, 1973	relationship counseling	college undergrads	75 min./week for 4 weeks	pre/post control randomized	+	NC drugs alcohol-cigarettes-	NS
	reinforcement counseling				+	NC drugs alcohol-cigarettes-	
Swisher, and Piniuk, 1973	v.c.	4-6	?	pre/post no control	+	NS	values scale NC
	Duso	K-3	?		NS	NS	values scale + "acceptable behaviors" +
	Dimensions of personality	4-6	?		NC	NS	values scale "acceptable behaviors" +

TABLE 14 (CONTINUED)

Study	Approach	Grade Level	Duration	Design	Results		
					Drug Attitude	Drug Use	Affective Measures
Swisher, and Piniuk, 1973 (cont.)	v.c.	7-9	?	pre/post no control	NC	-	use of alternatives to drugs NC
	behavioral alternatives	7-9	?		NC	NC	use of alternatives to drugs NC
	curriculum integration	7-9	?		NC	NC	use of alternatives to drugs NC
(Operation future)							
Clark, 1974 cited in Randall and Wong, 1976 and Lockwood, 1977	v.c.	6,7,11?	?	pre/post	NS	some -	values scales +

TABLE 14 (CONTINUED)

Study	Approach	Grade Level	Duration	Design	Results		
					Drug Attitude	Drug Use	Affective Measures
Briskin, 1974 cited in Randall and Wong, 1976	moral dilemma discussion and information	6	1-3 45 or 60 minutes per week	pre/post control random?	NS	NS	communication skills NC moral develop- ment level NC
	"conventional drug education curriculum"	6			NS	NS	communication skills NC moral develop- ment level NC
Jackson and Calsyn, 1977	v.c. empathy training and information	?	50 hours	pre/post random control	NS	NC	self esteem NC empathy skills +
Phillips, 1979	developmentally based psycho- logical education, information and alternatives	7	45 min./ week 6 mos.	pre/post control non-random	NC	NC	self knowledge + self esteem +
		8	45 min./ week 6 mos.	pre/post control non-random	NC	NC	self knowledge + self esteem +

TABLE 14 (CONTINUED)

Study	Approach	Grade Level	Duration	Design	Results		
					Drug Attitude	Drug Use	Affective Measures
Phillips, 1979		7	90 min./ week 6 mos.	pre/post control randomized	NC	NC	self knowledge + self esteem NC
		7	40 min./ week 8 mos.	pre/post control non-random	NC	-	self knowledge + self esteem NC

Note: NC = no change; - = decreased; + = increased; NS = not studied

this contrasts to the positive results for Group 1 of the present study. The tendency of the better designed studies, that is those which include control groups and randomization (Jackson and Calsyn, 1977; Swisher, Warner and Herr, 1972; Swisher, Warner, Spence and Upcraft, 1973) was to show no statistically significant results. It is somewhat of a phenomena then, that the present study shows some statistically significant results.

Intervention nature. The nature of the intervention studied is unique to the field of substance abuse education in its application of developmental theory to psychological education approaches. No other study except Briskin's (1974 cited in Randall and Wong, 1976) has attempted to evaluate such an approach.

Quality, Effectiveness and Intervention Nature
of DCC in Relation to Existing Developmental Theory
Applications to Psychological Education

Viewing the study as an application of developmental theory to psychological education what can be said about the quality, effectiveness and nature of the program?

Quality. While the evaluation of drug education programs has been shown to be generally inadequate, studies assessing applications of developmental theory to psychological education have overall been of good quality. The present study is at least as adequate as these, particularly in provision for a comparison group and in use of appropriate statistical analysis.

Effectiveness. Because confidence can be placed in the results of developmental theory application studies it is easier to compare the present study with them than it was to compare it with drug education studies.

The goal of most applications of developmental theory has been development through and of the stages of cognitive structures. Some statistically significant gains have been made with 6th, 10th, 11th, and 12th grade students in achieving partial or completed stage change (Blatt, 1969; Blatt and Kohlberg, 1973; Cagnetta, 1977; Erickson, 1975, 1977; Mosher and Sprinthall, 1970, 1971; Rustad and Rogers, 1975; Wasserman, 1976). There are also indications that elaboration within a cognitive structure has been achieved (Cooney, 1977). Contemporaneous applications of developmental theory, using a developmental approach to achieve immediate goals not directly related to development have also shown promise (Hunt, 1977-8; Warren, 1969, 1976).

The goals of the present study can be categorized as both contemporaneous and developmental. The curriculum was designed on the assumption that most students who would experience it would be at the situational level of self-knowledge. Activities and questions to discuss were designed for students who think from a situational perspective. This situational approach was directed at achieving the contemporaneous aims of the curriculum: to establish a classroom environment to foster personal growth; to help individuals better understand who they are; to help individuals better understand what they value; to help individuals make self-constructive decisions. These goals,

as discussed in the methodology chapter, were measured by self-knowledge, self-esteem, drug attitude and drug use scores.

The present study lends confirmation to the promise of using developmental approaches to achieve contemporaneous goals. The contemporaneous goals of teaching students a particular skill and of reducing recidivism rates for delinquents have been achieved through matching a certain educational approach or treatment with individual's developmental level (Hunt, 1974, 1977-8; Warren, 1969, 1976). The present study supplies some evidence that improvement of self-esteem and inhibition of drug use have been achieved through contemporaneous matching of student developmental level with curriculum approach.

Contemporaneous matching seems to have had the effect of stabilizing self-knowledge for some test classes. (Although, as noted at the beginning of this chapter, caution must be exercised in drawing this conclusion.) One of the goals of this contemporaneous matching was the development of self-knowledge but not necessarily the stimulation of stage movement. The curriculum was designed to provide students with opportunities to exercise situational cognitive structures, particularly in describing thoughts, feelings and actions in specific situations and in making causal connections between elements of a specific situation. As Hunt (1974) points out people cannot be pushed into change but will develop when ready. In addition to stage movement development is fostered through elaboration within a stage and by maintaining cognitive structures "fluid enough that progress may come about later" (Rest, 1974, p. 243).

The self-knowledge measurement instrument is not sufficiently refined to measure stage elaboration, so it cannot be determined if this developmental goal was achieved. However, since there is some evidence that self-knowledge remained stable for test classes while it decreased for control classes, it is probable that a state of "fluidity" was attained. This hypothesis could only be tested if follow up studies indicate more stage movement for test classes than for control classes. Unfortunately such studies were not feasible due to lack of funds.

The possibility that fluidity was achieved is not a typical finding of developmental theory application studies to date. Most studies found some stage change or elaboration. One explanation might be that most studies were done with 10th, 11th and 12th graders; 6th graders or 2nd and 3rd graders. The present study used 7th and 8th graders. It may be that children at this age reach some kind of developmental plateau in self-knowledge and/or are generally more ready for stage elaboration than for stage movement. At present this explanation remains speculative until more research can be done on the temporal validity of the self-knowledge instrument.

It can be concluded that the application of self-knowledge theory to psychological education/drug abuse prevention was somewhat successful in achieving contemporaneous goals. While stage movement did not occur it is probable that a state of developmental fluidity was maintained.

Intervention nature. Rest (1974) identifies three areas related to the nature of the application of developmental theory to psychological

education: 1) the use of developmental theory concepts in applications, 2) curriculum strategies or learning procedures for application, and 3) teaching conditions necessary for successful application.

As discussed in this author's review of the literature, most applications of developmental theory have emphasized the concept of interaction, particularly the strategies of conflict provocation, role taking and active thinking/active doing. Little if any attention has been paid to the concept of developmental sequencing and the related strategies of optimal matching and day-to-day theory based sequencing of activities. Rest (1974) stated that "...the specific characteristics of the stages of development are not used to define more proximate objectives which a teacher could use in deciding what to emphasize or provide for specific individuals at a specific time. The question... remains as to whether educational programs can be related in detailed ways to specific stage characteristics and whether there is any advantage in doing so" (p. 256).

Applications of developmental theory in the present study relied primarily on the little attended to concept of developmental sequencing and the related strategies of optimal matching and sequencing. The curriculum was formulated for situational level students with the particular stage characteristics used to define specific objectives, activities and discussion questions. For example one overriding goal of the curriculum was to help students examine their personal experience so that they could use that knowledge to explore alternatives to drug abuse. The characteristics of the elemental and situational

stages of self-knowledge were used to define the proximate objectives to achieve this end; eg., to begin to name the external elements associated with a drug use situation; to begin to name the thoughts and feelings associated with a drug use situation; to begin to name some reasons for a particular behavior or response. Activities, such as students role playing a real life situation in which a student had to decide to use or not use drugs or alcohol, were geared to elemental and situation level thinking. Students were encouraged to elaborate the concrete aspects of the particular situation, such as who was there and what they did, in order to identify the thoughts and feelings of those involved in the situation. Such techniques as role reversals and alter egos were used. Discussion questions followed which drew attention to thoughts, feelings and actions and helped students begin to make connections between their specific reactions and aspects of a particular situation (see Phillips, et al., 1977). The general rule followed for setting curriculum goals, activities and discussion guidelines was to use a sequence which proceeded from elemental through situational to the patterned level. Teachers were encouraged, in both the training and the curriculum to follow Hunt's (1977-8) advice: "read" the students developmental level and adapt or "flex" to the students frame of reference.

And so part of Rest's question, raised above, was answered by DCC: educational programs can be related in detailed ways to specific stage characteristics. Whether there is any advantage to doing so is still an open question; however, as shown previously, the approach is pro-

mising. Future studies could begin to refine this approach and compare it to and combine it with other ways of applying developmental theory.

The strategies of conflict provocation, role taking and active thinking/active doing were all utilized by DCC. Some activities taught role taking skills, particularly listening skills and role play, and some required application of these role taking skills, particularly discussions and decision making sessions. Discussions of experiences provided conflict provocation and a pattern of activity and reflection upon that activity characterized the construction of each session. Nevertheless, the many questions raised in the literature review about the use of these strategies still remain.

The use of role taking in DCC was general and imprecise in ways similar to its use in other developmental programs. Conflict stimulation relied primarily on discussion of real life experiences using planned attempts at optimal matching. This approach is somewhat imprecise and conflict stimulation might be more directly provoked. Attention was focused on major concerns of adolescents and pre-adolescents: peer relations and self identity. These areas are more likely to provoke conflict than other content areas. Active thinking and active doing was followed as a general approach but questions of what particular kinds of active thinking and doing are most provocative and developmentally appropriate still remain to be explored.

The curricular strategies used were far from the "impoverished" techniques criticized by Rest (1974). He points out that "developmental psychology may be useful in specifying objectives and useful for

sequencing activities, but it does not furnish a complete pedagogy nor curriculum materials" (p. 256). The wedding of psychological education techniques and curriculum theory to self-knowledge theory provides a context, a content and learning procedure for developmental objectives and sequences. The context is a positive classroom climate as set up in Part 1 of DCC; the content is the students own personal knowledge and experience and the learning procedures are drawn from techniques such as magic circle, active listening, values clarification and various human relations exercises. This approach contrasts with the rather limited discussion techniques of the approaches of Kohlberg, Selman and their associates and is somewhat similar to, although perhaps more refined than, the DPE programs discussed in this author's review. As a developmental approach to substance abuse it is unique for it is not just discussion in a developmental framework nor is it values clarification or other psychological education approaches without a developmental framework but a combination of a rich psychological education approach with a developmental framework.

As Rest (1974) and Paolitto (1977) note, all applications of developmental theory to educational practice require the teacher, at a minimum, to have group interaction and discussion skills. The results of this study lend support to this contention, since the most promising results occurred in classes where teachers had some background in psychological education. In addition it seems that teaching conditions supportive to psychological education are necessary if goals are to be reached.

Clarification of the Relationship Between the
Foundations of Psychological Education and Developmental Theory

While it is clear that problems in applying developmental theory to psychological education still exist, for the field is still developing, a new application of developmental theory to psychological education has been made which shows some promise. The matching and sequencing of a curriculum using self-knowledge developmental theory has been achieved. A rich psychological education approach has been developmentally adapted and some light has been shed on the teaching conditions necessary for effective implementation of such an approach.

The claims of those who advocate developmental theory as a basis for psychological education have been met to some degree: (see Chapter II, p. 31) 1) goals were based upon developmental theory, 2) goals were precisely defined, 3) sequencing of activities was based upon theory, 4) criteria was set for matching teacher behavior and curriculum approach to student level, 5) possible developmental fluidity was reached although stage change did not occur, and 6) specific goals were measured although with some limitations due to the self-knowledge measurement instrument.

Developmental theory can be joined with psychological education to yield promising results. However whether psychological education should have a structural developmental theory base is a question which cannot yet be answered. Problems still exist in translating theory into practice although DCC has overcome some of these, particularly in regard to match, sequencing and use of rich curriculum.

There is great challenge for the future.

Recommendations for the Future

Recommendations for the future fall into two broad categories: studies suggested by the present research and design modifications which would improve the present and future research.

Possible future studies include: further theoretical exploration of developmental approaches; comparison studies involving various developmental approaches; study of teaching conditions likely to enhance the effectiveness of DCC type approaches and studies of teacher training models for this type of approach.

As has been pointed out not much attention has been paid to the developmental strategies of optimal matching and sequencing. DCC is one of the first programs to utilize these strategies to any extent. Further theoretical exploration is needed to relate the developmental strategies of conflict provocation, role taking and active thinking and active doing to specific stage characteristics. Questions like what form does role taking have for situational level students and how might conflict be provoked for elemental level people need to be thought out carefully.

Once these approaches are refined all kinds of comparison studies could be made. The most obvious study needed and one that could be done even before further theoretical refinement of approaches takes place, is direct comparison of a psychological education developmental approach to substance abuse education with a non-developmental psycho-

logical education approach to substance abuse. This would help to demonstrate the relative merits of each approach more clearly than can be done by comparing the present study with existing psychological education drug abuse prevention studies. In comparing the two approaches attention should be paid to effectiveness in achieving contemporaneous goals such as change in drug attitude, drug use or self-esteem and in achieving developmental goals of fluidity, elaboration, and stage movement. The sample population should be expanded to include suburban and urban students and older adolescents from 9th through 12th grades.

If more evidence can be demonstrated for the effectiveness of applying self-knowledge theory to psychological education in general and to psychological education approaches to substance abuse prevention in particular, then comparisons between various types of developmental applications can be made.

Optimal matching and sequencing can be compared to +1 matching and/or "shot gun" applications. Specific strategies derived from the concept of interaction, conflict provocation, role taking and active thinking/active doing, can be studied and optimally matched and sequenced approaches to each strategy compared with shot gun or +1 approaches. Symbolic presentations of conflict situations can be compared with direct experiences such as learning how to counsel peers. Theoretical investigations of topics likely to provoke conflict can be made and studies comparing different topics can be carried out. Emphasis on role taking can be compared with active thinking/active

doing. All other possible combinations of applications might be studied and compared.

The present study suggests that certain factors related to treatment condition seem to influence the effectiveness of DCC. Study of the conditions likely to be supportive to DCC or similar approaches should be made. Particular attention should be paid to teacher background in psychological education, teacher motivation, student motivation, student achievement level, student discipline record, and school atmosphere including type of classroom space, staff and administration attitude toward DCC type approaches and opportunity for planning and support.

Finally studies of the effectiveness of teacher training models for DCC type approaches should be made.

Further research on the self-knowledge instrument and certain design modification of the present study would strengthen future attempts to evaluate DCC or DCC like programs.

At present the internal validity of any study using the self-knowledge instrument is effected by the lack of temporal validity data for the instrument. Without some baseline data on how an individual's or group's self-knowledge changes over time, it is difficult to assess what changes in self-knowledge scores mean. This is especially true in the case of the decreases recorded for some control groups in the present study.

Follow up studies on tested groups conducted six months or a year after the first posttest can aid in evaluating the effects of the cur-

ricula on self knowledge, particularly in assessing if a state of "fluidity" was reached readying an individual for future growth. Where possible, designs to study the effectiveness of developmental theory based upon psychological education curriculum should include random assignment of individuals to test and control groups. However it is recognized that randomization is difficult to arrange when such studies are usually done in the field and often subject to political, ethical and practical limitations.

Bryk and Weisberg (1977) have discussed methodological problems when subjects are growing and randomization is not possible. They point out that the mathematical model used to measure growth is a linear one. Frequently such a model does not reflect the actual nature of growth on a particular dimension. While they cite Cronbach and his colleagues (1976) as arguing for compensation of the limits of the linear model by statistical manipulation and careful drawing of inferences, they suggest that means other than a linear model might be used. They suggest the development of an analysis strategy based upon theoretical or empirical models of natural growth and recommend collecting more data on growth prior to the intervention, with perhaps use of Campbell and Stanely's (1973) interrupted time series design. More radically they state that "the general linear model does not permit an adequate representation of many important psychological and social phenomena" (p. 961). They call for researchers to begin to explore methods of analysis based on more realistic models of growth which take into account the dynamic, interactive nature of growth.

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APPENDIX A

DECISIONS AND CONSEQUENCES
A Secondary Classroom Curriculum

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Introduction

What is the Self-Knowledge Alcohol and Drug Abuse Prevention Curriculum?

It is an approach for helping adolescents first to understand more about themselves and what they want and then to use that knowledge to get what they want in self-constructive, rather than self-destructive ways.

Adolescents want peace, love, prestige, friendship, peer acceptance, excitement, self-respect, fun - things most people want at sometime in their lives. However an increasing number are seeking to satisfy these needs through the abusive use of drugs and/or alcohol. This curriculum is designed to help students develop self-constructive ways of getting what they want.

Self-constructive behaviors are those which usually result in people getting what they want without physically harming themselves or others and without getting in trouble with authorities at home, at school, or in the community. In addition, they tend to enhance one's own self-respect and the respect of others.

How do you help junior and senior high school students understand more about themselves so they can use this knowledge to make constructive choices?

A developmental theory, the self-knowledge theory, suggests some ways. This theory focuses on the way people understand their inner responses to the external world. It was developed at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Massachusetts by A. Alschuler, J. Evans, R. Tamashiro and G. Weinstein with support from the U.S. Office of Education, Drug Education.

The Self-Knowledge Theory refers to people's verbal descriptions of how they conceive of and give meaning to their personal experience. It proposes that such verbal reports reflect to some extent people's mental structures and operations - the style persons use to understand themselves and their experiences.¹ The styles or structures of this self-knowledge occur in a hierachical, invariant sequence, much as Piaget, Kohlberg and Loevinger respectively describe the development of human cognitive moral and ego structures.

At present four stages or styles of self-knowledge have been identified. They occur in a hierarchical sequenca which means that a person must develop the ability to use stage one thinking before she/he can acquire the perspective of the second stage. Likewise, one must be able to use stage two thinking before developing stage three thinking and use a stage three perspective before developing a stage four perspective. Persons at stages along the hierachy have available to them to some extent the thinking styles of the previous stages and will tend to operate at the stage most useful to them.

The four stages are 1) elemental 2) situational 3) internal patterned and 4) process.

¹The Self-Knowledge theory however does not and cannot provide a model for understanding an individual's unarticulated self-knowledge, often made up of direct, immediate, ultimately private thoughts, feelings, sensations and/or actions.

Elemental Self-Knowledge

People who view their experience in this way tend to describe only discrete, concrete elements of a single event. These elements are things like observable actions, vital statistics, the content of conversations, simple thoughts such as hopes, wants, remembrances and gross emotions like happy, sad, mad, good or bad. These elements are reported without much sense of cohesiveness, often juxtaposed or serially ordered. No explicit connections or causal relationships are made between elements. Reports of the various elements are frequently connected by "ands" and almost never by "because" or "so".

Typical examples of elemental self-knowledge reports are:

"I was six years old."

"My mother yelled, 'Do you want lunch?'"

"My father had to have an operation and every night I cried and we had a dog then and I remembered when he came back home and he hugged me."

Situational Self-Knowledge

People at this stage can describe a single situation cohesively. They convey a sense of a whole situation which includes not just concrete elements but internal responses as well, which include emotions, sensations and complex thoughts.

Explicit causal connections are made between (internal and external) elements of the situation. Words like because, since, so are used to indicate causes & consequences within or associated to a particular situation.

Typical examples of situational self-knowledge reports are:

"The first thing I felt was fear mostly because of not knowing what to do."

"I was elated that they came".

"Breaking the swimming record was very important to me because it was, in a way, justification for the agony of training. It also made my father proud of me and I was pleased that I could do that for him."

Internal Pattern Self-Knowledge

People at this stage can describe stable internal responses, that is emotional states, personality traits or internal attitudes which are typical responses to a class of situations, situations which have common observable or abstracted characteristics. They see beyond a single situation and can generalize about their internal responses to types of experiences.

Typical examples of internal pattern self-knowledge reports are:

"I am impulsive in most interpersonal situations."

"The kind of strength I derived from happy childhood experiences has given me the confidence to help others and not to be frightened by other people's strength and confidence."

"Whenever I'm in trouble I always get scared."

Process Self-Knowledge

People at this stage describe conscious actions they take on their internal responses. At the situational and internal pattern stages, people can report their internal responses to situations or classes of situations, but only at the process stage can they describe actions they take to control, influence, modify or develop these internal responses. In other words, people at this stage not only describe how they respond internally but can also verbalize about the processes they use to manage these internal responses.

Typical examples of process self-knowledge reports are:

"When I feel discouraged and alone, I withdraw, renew my own sense of accepting me, & then go on."

"I had to work hard in therapy to get in touch with my feelings and to learn how to express and share them with others."

These four stages do not directly correspond to particular ages. Adults may be at any stage. However, since development follows a hierarchical, invariant sequence most children tend to be elemental and situational, while many adolescents tend to be situational.

This curriculum is geared primarily for adolescents who view their experiences from a situational perspective. It is divided into three parts: After an initial period of establishing a positive classroom climate, the curriculum concentrates on helping students look at their personal experiences - largely from a situational point of view. When students have gained some knowledge about who they are and what they want in life, they are guided in using that knowledge to explore situations which might offer self-constructive alternatives to drug & alcohol abuse.

The activities and process questions are designed to center upon specific situations and to help students name their thoughts, actions, and feelings and to make causal connections between the various elements related to a situation including their own internal responses.

"What did you do? What did you think about? How did you feel? What happened as a result? What made you feel that way?" These are typical questions appropriate for students with a situational perspective. A major feature of the curriculum is the inclusion of extensive suggestions for processing questions which are appropriate for situational students. Such questions will help students think about an experience in their own style.

The emphasis on helping students choose alternatives to drug and alcohol use directly relates to how people with a situational perspective view their experiences.

Frequently situational people see a situation as the cause of their thoughts, feelings and actions. As one student said, "The situation you are in can decide if you use or don't use drugs." Situational students will generally not be able to look at the kind of person they are in order to figure out why they do something. Such students usually perceive causes and consequences as "situation bound". A situational person might explain, "At a party I drink." If asked, "Could you not

drink or drink less?" A typical response would be, "Yeah, but then why go to the party? At a party people drink," This contrasts to a patterned person who might say "I see myself as an individual, At a party I will do what I feel is right for me, not necessarily what everyone else is doing. Sometimes I drink and sometimes I don't."

A curriculum designed to help situational people consider alternatives must focus on alternative situations rather than alternative responses to a particular situation. Instead of asking what alternatives there are to substance abuse in a particular situation, a more appropriate question is, "What alternative situations are there which do not involve substance abuse and which have consequences you value?" This is an important distinction - one upon which the last section of the curriculum is based. This final part aims at having students consider alternative situations which will get for them the things they seek in a drug or alcohol use situation without the self-destructive consequences of drug or alcohol abuse.

Although this curriculum is primarily geared for situational students, it can be used effectively with elemental and patterned students. Elemental students will have some difficulty naming their feelings and connecting their actions, thoughts, and feelings to specific aspects of a situation. Elemental students will more typically answer questions like, "What made you do such and such?" with "I don't know!" For students who seem to be elemental, emphasis should be placed on helping them describe situations as fully as possible. It may be more helpful for elemental students to express emotions through art or by acting them out. The concept of "alternative situations which get you what you want" may be difficult to grasp, but elemental students are able to say what they want, even though it may be more difficult to conceive of how to get it. If they are shown ways to get it by their peers they will probably be willing to try those ways out to see if they work. A patterned student will tend to think about activities and answer questions from a pattern perspective even though they are geared for the situational student. It is necessary only that the teacher be aware of students whose point of view seems more internally patterned and support those students in utilizing their style to come to grips with what they want and how they can get it.

This will basically involve asking questions, when pertinent, which help such students name what personality traits and consistent internal responses they notice about themselves, what they gain and lose with such traits and what alternative responses they might wish to consider. Weinstein's, Hardin's and Weinstein's book Education of the Self which presents a curriculum designed primarily for persons at the internal pattern stage, is an excellent source of approaches to use with patterned students.

The important point is that this curriculum be used to help adolescents understand themselves better and use that self-knowledge to find self-constructive ways of living.

Kathleen J. Phillips
Hadley, Mass.
January 1977

Part I: Establishing a Positive Classroom Climate

SESSION 1 - GETTING ACQUAINTED

- Objectives:
1. To learn the names of all the group members
 2. To interact with others in the group
 3. To begin to feel comfortable in the group
 4. To develop a general understanding of the goals of the class

Procedures: What follows are suggestions for games and exercises which foster the objectives listed above. The teacher is encouraged to choose from, to sequence, and to add to these exercises in any ways appropriate to her/his class and style of teaching.

Bumpety - Bump - Bump
 Name Tags
 Introduction to the Course
 Journal
 Here-and-Now Wheels

BUMPETY - BUMP - BUMP

Instructions: Ask participants to form a circle around the room. One person volunteers to be "It". This person stands in the center of the circle and points to anyone at random. At the same time she/he says "Right (or left) bumpety - bump - bump". The person at whom "It" is pointing must call out the first name of the person standing to her/his right (or left) before "It" finishes saying "...bumpety - bump - bump". If she/he doesn't do so, she/he goes to the center of the circle, and the game continues.

Alternative Activities: At the end of each activity one or two alternative activities which meet the same objectives will be suggested. (Source is indicated by author and page number. See bibliography for complete information.) Although you may wish to select alternative activities it is important to follow the processing procedure suggested here rather than the one attached to the description of the activity in a source book. The processing suggested here is specifically tailored for the objectives of the session.

Vegetable & Fruit Name Game: Weinstein, p. 16
 Name Game: Canfield, p. 31

- Processing questions:
1. How many people felt silly doing this game?
 2. How many people feel more comfortable now than at the beginning of the game?
 3. How many people feel that they learned the names of some people they didn't know at the beginning of the class?

NAME TAGS

Instructions: The teacher gives every student a large (5"x7") note card or scrap paper and straight pins or masking tape.

Individuals are asked to write the name they want to be called in this class in large print in the center of the note card.

1. In lower left hand corner of note card answer:

A time when you were extremely happy.

A time you were very embarrassed.

2. Upper left

A place in the world you would go to for one year. (No limitations, obstacles) to do anything you wanted to do.

A place you'd like to live.

3. Upper right

A person whom you've learned the most from

A person you'd most want to be like

4. Lower right

Something you've accomplished and felt pleased about

Two things you think about

5. Around your name

3 things you're good at... ending in able re: swimmable
laughable

When the students have completed writing the information on the note cards have them pin or tape the tags on their clothes. The teacher asks everyone to get up and mill about the room in a random fashion, reading one another's name tags and looking at each other without talking.

After a few minutes the teacher asks the students to form groups of three. One person will volunteer to go first. The other two students of the triad listen. The speaker may talk about anything on his or her name tag for about two minutes. The teacher will direct the time allowed. The procedure is then repeated for the other two students. The ground rules used throughout this curriculum should be explained.

1. Right to full attention
2. Right to pass
3. No Put downs

Alternative Activity: People Scavenger Hunt

Instructions: The purpose of this activity is for you to catch up on what has been happening in the lives of those people you already know and to get acquainted with some people you don't know. You will try to find the people who match the descriptions below. You must actually speak to the people----please do not use prior knowledge that you have about someone. Please put their names in the space provided.

1. Find 3 people who have blue eyes.
2. Find 3 people who have the same astrological sign as you.
3. Find 4 people who traveled out of state on a vacation last summer. Also try to find someone who traveled the farthest away on a particular trip.
4. Find 2 people who have the same hobby as you do.
5. Find 2 people who gave up a habit this year like smoking, drinking, eating, etc.
6. Find 3 people who have the same favorite T.V. show, movie, or book, as you do.
7. Find someone who had a brother or sister born into her or his family this year.
8. Find someone who became an aunt or uncle this year.
9. Find someone who had a marriage in their family this year.
10. Find someone who bought something that she or he would consider frivolous.
11. Find someone who purposely went to a different type of church than she or he usually attended.
12. Find 2 people who had "Firsts" (for example, went skin diving for the first time).

Alternative Activity: One Special Thing: Canfield, p 32

Processing questions: The teacher asks the students to reassemble in a large circle. Taking turns around the circle, each student can tell one thing learned about her or him, and one thing learned about another student.

Introduction to the Course

We have just completed a few activities which hopefully helped us to get to know each other a little better. These activities may seem a bit unusual to you. Throughout our sessions we will be participating in a number of activities which will often be different from the types of things you normally expect to do in school. What are we doing in this class and why?

The purpose of this class is to help you to look at the decisions you make about drug and alcohol use - not with the goal of telling you what to do or what not to do, but to help you learn more about who you are, what you want out of life and how you can get it. Another way to say it is that the purpose of this class is to study yourself and to learn how to make decisions which will help you to become the person you want to be. In order to do this we will spend our sessions participating in activities and discussion in order to:

1. get to know each other and feel comfortable with each other;
2. learn about what you do and feel in various kinds of situations ranging from observing what you do and feel in playing a silly game to what you do and feel while drinking on the weekend;
3. learn about what you really want. All the things you do and feel have reasons. You do and feel things because of what you want in a certain situation. Each one of you in class today has acted in certain ways and had certain feelings. Maybe you participated a lot or maybe you hung back; maybe you felt good or silly or bored. These actions and feelings reflect what you want. Maybe you wanted to be accepted by the others; maybe you wanted some information. The trouble is sometimes we do things and we don't really know what it is we want or why we do what we do. So one thing you'll study about yourself is what you really want, and you'll look especially at what you really want when you drink or use drugs.
4. learn about lots of different ways you can get what you want. You'll explore alternative ways to feel close to others, to feel high or feel thrills, to feel peaceful - whatever it is that you figure out you really want.

To summarize - the purpose of this class is to study yourself and the decisions you make about using drugs and/or alcohol so that you make decisions that help you grow as a person, to be who you want to be.

JOURNAL

Instructions: Hand out an empty notebook to each student. Explain that as part of the process of studying themselves and how to make decisions each student will be asked to keep a journal. During most sessions the teacher will ask students to record their reactions and observations about the activities they engage in. The teacher may wish to suggest that the student use the journal for self-reflection at anytime inside or outside of class, or the teacher may wish to use the journals in class only and collect them at the end of each session to insure they will be available for the next session. If the teacher wishes to read the journals, she/he should make it clear that such reading is confidential and respect the students' right to ask that the teacher not read the journal on certain entries.

Students may wish to decorate or distinguish their journals in some way. Teachers should never pass judgment upon content or grammar of the journals.

HERE & NOW WHEEL

Instructions: The teacher explains that this activity will be the first entry in the journal. It is called the here and now wheel. It registers what you're feeling right this very moment. First draw a circle on the paper and divide it into four equal parts. In each of the different pie areas write a feeling you have right now. (*The teacher can be demonstrating this wheel on the blackboard or newsprint and should write his or her own feelings for students to view.) Of the four feelings, circle the one you feel most strongly right now.



The teacher tells the students that the here and now wheel is an example of the kind of entries they'll make in the journals to help them keep a record of themselves.

Students may use the remainder of the class time or time outside of class to write more thoughts and feelings about today's experience.

* Note: Teacher should do all of the activities that the students are asked to do...

Part I: Establishing a Positive Classroom Climate

SESSION 2 - PERSONAL INVENTORY

- Objectives:
1. To have fun
 2. To learn some positive characteristics of oneself and others
 3. To disclose thoughts and feelings about oneself and others, and to understand that such disclosure facilitates growth in self and others
 4. To develop non-judgmental acceptance of self and others
 5. To perceive learning about oneself as a legitimate subject in school
 6. To develop communication skills.

Procedures: Elephant-Giraffe
 Personal Life Lines
 Personal Coat of Arms

ELEPHANT & GIRAFFE

Instructions: Tell the students that the purpose for this activity is to have fun, to play and to feel comfortable with one another. You'll want all class members to participate in order to achieve those goals. The game isn't to be taken too seriously, but should be played to the hilt.

All the students stand in a circle, close enough to reach their neighbors without straining.

Players who are "it" stand inside the circle. Once the game has been demonstrated & depending upon the number playing, you can choose at least 3 to 6 players to be in the center.

"It," without taking a long time, points at a player standing in the circle and says either "elephant" or "giraffe." If "it" says "elephant" the player who is pointed at places both her or his fists in front of her or his nose while the players on her or his immediate right and left simultaneously cup their nearest hand behind the middle player's ears.

If "it" says "giraffe", the player pointed at raises both arms directly above her or his head while her or his immediate neighbors shoot their hands straight onto her or his side. (The hand should be at right angles to the body of the middle player, parallel to the floor).

"It," after naming the animal, counts to 10. If the action is not completed by any one or all of the three players, or if anyone of the three forgets or makes the wrong move, then "it" takes her or his place back in the circle and the player who made the error comes into the circle. One "it" may make all three players miss, bringing three in for one going out. Don't worry, the more the merrier.

You'll have to judge when to end the game.

Alternative Activities: Crows & Cranes: Harris, p. 20
Elbowtag: Harris, p. 23

Processing questions: Ask the students if "Elephant & Giraffe" achieved your stated goals of having fun, warming-up, feeling comfortable with one another.

Have students create other forms to be used when playing the game another time. (re: rabbit-wolf; 1776)

PERSONAL LIFE LINE

Instructions: First lead the students in a brief fantasy. Ask them to close their eyes, relax, and try to imagine their life as a line. The beginning would be their birth and it would continue up to the present. Along this line a number of events stand out. Start from where you are now and try to work back into your life and remember those events - Then think from now to your future up to your death. What events do you think will occur?

Have available yarn, string, scissors, glue, tape, paper clips, crayons, felt pens, magazines, 3 X 5 cards, cardboard.

After the fantasy show the students the available materials. A long piece of heavy yarn or string represents each individual's life. One end is birth, the other death. Using the index cards, paper, cardboard, students can decorate the yarn with important events of their past and project what they think will happen in the future.

Construction of life lines would take place during the remainder of the class period and be homework if needed. Processing the lines would take place at the next class session.

Alternative Activity: PERSONAL COAT OF ARMS

If you choose this alternative activity the next session will be the alternative activity described in session #3:

Instructions: Distribute ditto sheets of "Your Personal Coat of Arms", or newsprint, or ask students to copy in their journals a form similar to one you've drawn on the board. They can create their own coat-of-arms by making a drawing expressing their thoughts regarding the question in each area of the shield. The drawings can be simple, incomplete, and even unintelligible to others, as long as the student knows that it expresses. The teacher should complete her or his own coat of arms also.

- Express in a drawing:
1. the most significant event in your life from birth to age 11.
 2. the most significant event in your life from age 11 to now.
 3. your greatest success or achievement in the past year.
 4. your greatest failure in the past year.

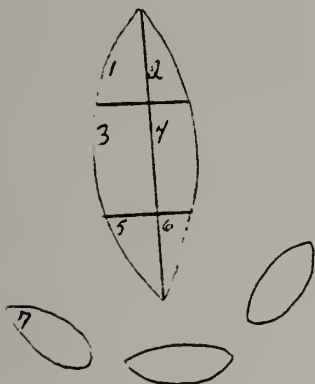
5. If you had one year to live and were guaranteed success in whatever you attempted, what would you attempt?
6. If you died today, what 3 words would you most like to be said about you?
7. What is a personal motto you live by?

When the drawings are completed, ask the students to form pairs to share what they have done.

After the students have shared their drawings with a partner have them enter several "I learned..." statements in their journals. (i.e. I relearned that I... I wonder... I'm surprised that I... I'm pleased that I... etc.)

You & the students may wish to post the coats of arms and hold a gallery walk in the classroom.

- Processing questions:
1. What do you think were the purposes of this activity? Were those goals achieved?
 2. Share among the large group "I learned" statements.

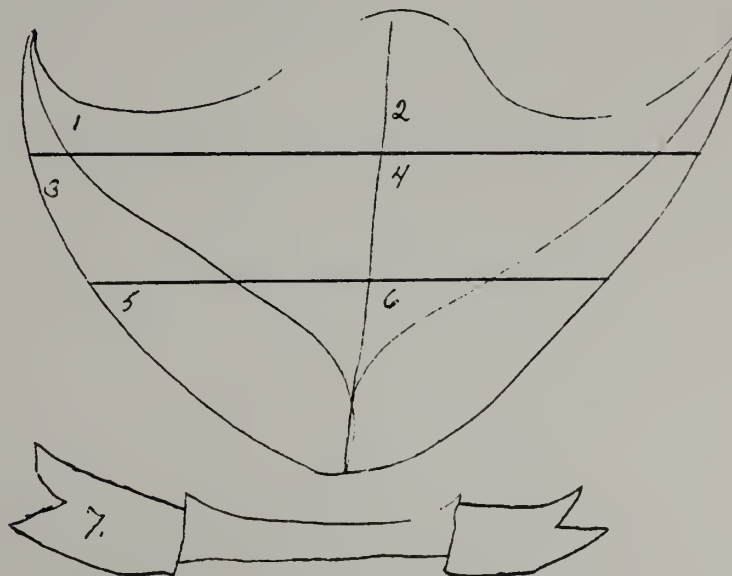


SAMPLES

The left "coat of arms" is shaped like an African war shield.

The bottom shield is designed from European heraldry.

When teaching an integrated class we suggest offering options for other cultural heritages.



Part I: Establishing a Positive Classroom Climate

SESSION 3 - PERSONAL INVENTORY

- Objectives:
1. To experience feelings of present moment
 2. To feel comfortable in the group
 3. To learn positive characteristics of one self and others

Procedures: Feelings in a Hat
 Here & Now Wheel
 Life Line Sharing and Display
 20 Loves

FEELINGS IN A HAT

Instructions: Form a circle. Have everyone write down on a slip of paper "one thing that makes me nervous about this class." On another slip of paper write, "one thing that makes me feel good about this class." Have the students put their "nervous" statements into a hat while keeping their "feel good" statements with them. Shuffle the "nervous" statements in the hat and pass the hat around the group. Have each student draw out a statement being sure not to get her or his own. Go around the group with everyone reading the statement at hand with as much genuine expression of the feeling as possible.

Processing questions: Are there any reactions or observations you have about what we just did?

Note: In some classes in which this activity has been used students have commented that they preferred reading their own statements because "somebody not you can't get it right". If this occurs in your class you may wish to have the students read their own "Feeling good" statements.

Next, repeat the procedure of placing in the hat the "Feel good" statements, with drawing them and reading them aloud with feelings, or, have each student read her/his own.

Processing questions: Was it easy or hard to read your statements to the class? Why? How did you feel doing this activity? What made you feel that way?

HERE & NOW WHEEL

Instructions: Ask the students to enter in their journals a Here & Now feeling wheel and circle the feeling that is felt most strongly. Pair up the students and have them share with another person their wheels.

Processing questions: Gather students in a circle. Go around the circle having students share their wheels if they wish. Are there any feelings you're surprised at having? Do others feel as you do? Do you feel the same way as when you came into class?

LIFE LINE SHARING AND DISPLAY

Instructions: Review the objectives with the students for today's session. Group the class in triads. Have the students take at least 5 minute apiece to share with the two others. Remind them of the ground rules: Right to full attention; no put downs, right to pass. When everyone has had an opportunity to share, ask students to enter in their journals the following:

- Life Line: 1. the one thing I most liked telling about.
2. the one thing I remember about (partner 1's life line...
the one thing I remember about (partner 2's life line...

Regroup the triads and have students take turns sharing their notes.

Open-up to the large group for "I learned..." statements or general discussion.

The students may want to discuss each other's life lines in the larger group or display them around the room.

In closing, ask the students if the objective were achieved today. If so, how?

20 LOVES

Instructions: Ask each student to number a sheet of their journal paper from 1 - 20. (You model for them by making your list on the black board). Then ask them to list 20 things they love to do in whatever order the activities occur to them.

When they have completed this, ask them to annotate each item with the following codes:

Put a dollar sign \$ next to each item that costs over 5 dollars everytime you do it.

Place a P next to each item that you enjoy more when you are doing it with another person, and an A next to those things you enjoy more when you are doing them alone.

Put a PL next to each activity that requires planning. Beside each activity, place the date you did it last, if you remember.

Place an F or M next to each item you thing your father or mother would have listed when they were your age.

Place an * next to each item you'd want a future wife or husband to have on their list.

When the students have completed the coding ask them to write down a few "I learned"...statements.

In triads have the students take five minutes a piece to share their lists of "I learned's". Remind them of the guide rules - right to full attention, no put downs, right to pass.

After the initial sharing have the students go around the triad again telling each other one thing they remembered the other had said.

Processing questions: Share "I learned's" or general observations in large group
Discuss what were the goals, objectives to be achieved in this session? Relate this (fun, know self, talk about self, listen) to overall goal of class.

Part I: Establishing a Positive Classroom Climate

SESSION 4 - ONE WAY GLASSES

- Objectives:
1. To begin to name internal responses
 2. To begin to understand how thoughts and internal responses influence one's behaviors
 3. To experience alternative ways of thinking and feeling about a situation

Procedures: Introduction
One-Way Glasses
Journal Entries
Chain Pantomime

INTRODUCTION

Explain that today's session will help students begin to name some common feelings, to look at how those feelings affect behaviors, and to practice some different ways of feeling.

ONE WAY GLASSES

Instructions: Have available several pairs of sun glasses, ski goggles, or cardboard glasses for "props."

Explain that you have several pairs of glasses. Each pair makes the wearer have particular thoughts and feelings.

Show one pair and explain that they are "suspicious" glasses. Whoever wears them regards whatever he or she sees or hears with suspicion. Put glasses on and have students ask you questions. Answer them with suspicion. Make observations about the class with suspicion.

For example:

Question: What hobbies do you have?

Answer: Why does she want to know? Is she trying to find out stuff about me to get me to lose my job?

Observation: I see Joe smiling. I bet he's making fun of me to the others.

Ask for a volunteer to try on the "suspicious" glasses. Have her or him make observations of the class and respond to questions wearing those glasses.

Exchange the glasses for a second pair - "rose colored glasses". Whoever wears them feels that no matter what a person does or says, deep down that person really cares for him/her. Ask for a volunteer to wear these glasses and make observations and answer questions. Try a few other kinds of glasses with new volunteers. Suggestions: humorous, scared, insecure, depressed, spacy, mean, flirtatious, confident, nice-to-others.

Ask each student to think of the pair of glasses he or she has on right now. Have them choose partners and take turns acting out their "glasses". Have each person guess what kind of glasses her/his partner had on.

Have each student report to the whole group in one or two words the kind of glasses she/he was wearing.

Then have each student get up and begin to walk around. Look at people, shake hands, smile, do whatever they each feel like doing without talking. Continue for a minute or two. Then have them "freeze." Ask, "what are you feeling right now?" Tell students to put on the glasses for that feeling and continue to walk around, this time talking and acting as if they have only that pair of glasses on. Allow a minute or so. Have them "freeze" again. Tell students that this time they may keep their glasses or change them for any other kind of glasses they wish. Continue to mill for a minute more. "Freeze" and let students change glasses again if they wish. Mill a minute more.

Processing questions: Discuss in large group:

1. What kind of glasses did you wear?
2. Was there anything that made you want to wear a particular pair of glasses?
3. Did wearing different glasses change how you behaved toward people in this class? How?
4. Was it easy or hard to change glasses? Why?
5. What kinds of glasses would you want to be able to wear in this class?

JOURNAL ENTRIES

Instructions: (Have written up on newsprint ahead of time)

This morning I felt _____ because of _____.

Feeling this way made me _____.
(tell a behavior)

I also felt _____ because of _____.

Feeling this way made me _____.
(tell a behavior)

I also felt _____ because of _____ so I _____.
(tell a behavior)

Tonight I hope I feel _____.

I could feel that way if _____. Then I would _____.
(tell a behavior)

CHAIN PANTOMIME

Instructions: If anytime is left over play chain pantomime. Ask for five volunteers. Have them leave the room or step out of sight and earshot. The rest of the group decide on a specific feeling or kind of "glasses". One person agrees to pantomime, non-verbally, this feeling. When all is agreed upon, one volunteer is called back to the group. The other four remain out of sight. The feeling is pantomimed for him or her. Another volunteer is called back and the first volunteer attempts to repeat the pantomime for him or her. Then number two repeats the pantomime for number three and so on until five returns. Number five tries to guess what the original feeling or kind of "glasses" was. Often the pantomime undergoes changes and it is interesting to find out what each person thought he or she was doing.

Part I: Establishing a Positive Classroom Climate

SESSION 5 - TITLE: IMPROVISATION

- Objectives:
1. To become aware of thoughts, actions and feelings in given situations.
 2. To be able to name these thoughts, actions, and feelings.
 3. To experience non-verbal communication.
 4. To develop readiness for role playing.

Procedures: Exposure

Seeing a Sport

EXPOSURE

Instructions: Divide the total group into halves. Send $\frac{1}{2}$ to stand in a single line in front of the classroom, as if on stage, while the other remains in their chairs as "the audience". Each group - audience and on stage - is to observe the other. Teacher: "You look at us. We'll look at you." Those on stage will soon become uncomfortable. Some will giggle and shift from foot to foot; others will freeze in position or try to appear nonchalant. If the audience starts to laugh, stop them. Just keep coaching: "You look at us. We'll look at you."

After about 3-4 minutes when each person on stage has shown some degree of discomfort, give the group that is standing a task to accomplish. Counting is a useful activity since it requires focus: tell them to count the windows, lights, or the seats in the classroom. They are to keep counting the same things over. Keep them counting until their discomfort is gone and they show bodily relaxation. Then their bodies have a natural look, although they continue to show some signs of tension.

When the initial discomfort has disappeared and they have become absorbed in what they are doing, reverse the groups: the audience is now in front of the class, "on stage", and the actors have become the audience. Handle the second group just as you did the first. Do not tell them that you will give them anything to do. The direction to count (or whatever is useful) should be given only after they too have become uncomfortable. Once they appear more relaxed ask this group to return to their seats along with the others. (see "Notes on Improvisation" in Appendix)

Alternative Activities: Improvisation for the Theater Spolin 49-88

- Processing Questions:
1. What did you do when you were first standing in front of the room "on stage?"
 2. What were you thinking? (Some replies might be, "My girlfriend will think I'm stupid" or "I wondered why you had us standing there".)

3. How did the other actors look when they first stood "on stage"? (non-verbal messages?)
4. Describe how you were physically feeling. (How did your stomach feel? Shoulders? Neck? Legs?) (Keep the description focused on specific physical experiences: "The calves of my legs were tight" "My hands felt swollen" "I felt out of breath")
5. Any other ways you were feeling? (Now ask students to associate emotional feelings to their physical feelings. "Self conscious" "scared")
6. What do you think made you feel, think, act those ways?

What do you think the purpose of today's activity is? (You may write these on the blackboard and then point out which objective you did in fact have in mind.)

1. To name thoughts, feelings, and actions one is experiencing in a given situation.
2. To be aware of non-verbal messages.

Also, we will be doing some role playing in this class and I want you to get some experience in going this. One of the skills necessary for role playing is to be able to focus your energy on a specific task.

Continue asking the students some more questions that will help clarify this skill that they will use in role playing.

1. How did you feel when you counted the seats, windows, etc.? What happened to the fluttering in your stomach? Your stiff neck? "It went away".
2. What made it go away? "I had something to do".

SEEING A SPORT

Instructions: This "having something to do" is a way of focusing energy. We'll call this a "Point of Concentration". In role playing we will be concentrating on our senses sight, smell, hearing, touch, and taste.

The next activity is called "Seeing a Sport". Divide the group into two teams by counting off in twos. By group agreement the team decides what sport they are going to watch. When group agreement has been reached, the team goes on stage. Players themselves call "curtains!" when they're ready. Tell the class that seeing is the point of concentration.

1. Tell the students that the events they are going to watch are taking place some distance away from them (so they must concentrate on watching closely).

2. While the group is watching, coach them frequently.
3. Tell the students to "see with your feet! See with your neck! See with your whole body! See it 100 times larger! Show us, don't tell us! See with your ears!"
4. "See the colors, see the sounds, watch the people, Follow the movements etc."

Alternative Activities: Improvisation for the Theatre Spolin p. 49 -88

- Processing questions:
1. After 2-3 minutes ask the audience to name the sport being watched by the actors.
 2. Ask the audience to describe what they saw the actors doing.
 3. Ask the actors if they were able to use "seeing" as a point of concentration.

Revise the teams.

Process the second demonstration as the first.

Tell the students that in the next class session they'll practice doing some more improvisations.

If time permits have students make any comments they wish about this experience in their journals.

Part I: Establishing a Positive Classroom Climate

SESSION 6 - IMPROVISATION

- Objectives:
1. To begin to name internal responses
 2. To begin to understand how thoughts and internal responses influence one's behavior
 3. To experience alternative ways of thinking and feeling about a situation

Procedures: Who started the Motion?
Group Touch
Busline

WHO STARTED THE MOTION?

Instructions: Players are seated in a circle. One player is sent from the room while the others select a leader to start the motion. The player is then called back. He or she stands in the center of the circle and tries to discover the leader, whose function it is to make a motion - tapping a foot, nodding head, moving hands, etc. - and to change motions whenever he/she wishes. The other players copy these motions & try to keep the center player from guessing the leader's identity.

When the center person discovers the leader, another person is chosen to be the player to leave the room, and the group decides another leader.

Alternative Activities: Improvisation for the Theater - Spolin, p. 49-88

Processing questions: Today we're going to practice some more improvisational skills to get ready for role playing.

1. In this game Who started the motion? what were the points of concentration or focus of energy?

Describe thoughts and feelings you had and things you did while playing this game.

GROUP TOUCH

Instructions: Divide the class into two teams. Each team is to select some familiar object or substance (sand, clay, mud, water, snow, dry leaves, etc.) through group agreement. When group agreement has been reached, one team goes on stage at a time to present its substance. All team members use the same objects or substance simultaneously.

The point of concentration is to focus all energy on the object - its size, shape, texture, smell, temperature etc... Coach the Team: "feel the texture", "feel its temperature", "feel its weight" "feel its shape." "Smell its odors".

Alternative Activities: Improvisation for the Theater Spolin, p. 49-88

- Processing questions:
1. Audience: What did you see the actors doing? (Don't name the substance yet.)
-Describe what you saw the substance to be: its size, shape, smell, texture, etc.
 2. Guess the substance.
 3. Actors: Describe your thoughts and feelings while on stage focusing your energy on the substance.

Second team performs. Follow the same procedure as above.

BUSLINE

Instructions: Divide the class into four teams. Individually have students write down in their journals the number of a person's age that they will act out on stage without talking. Tell them "age of the character" will be their point of concentration.

Tell the students that the stage is a corner bus stop. The background is a store front. A bench, made out of line-up chairs, is a prop. The team is waiting for the buse.

Teacher coaching: (1) "There is a bus approaching. It's a block down the street". (2) Think the age in your feet, upper lip, spine. (3) Wait until actors seem to be focusing on the "age" of the character they are acting out; allow at least 45 sec. (4) It's coming closer; It's here! (5) Oh, It's held up in traffic!

Alternative Activities: Improvisation for the Theater, Spolin, pp. 49 - 88

- Processing questions:
1. Ask audience: What did you see going on?
Who was what age?
How did he/she show us?
 2. Ask actors: What age were you?
What thoughts and feelings did you have while focusing your energy on "the age of your character"?

Summary: Tell the students that these past two days have had two purposes: to prepare them for role playing, which will be done when they examine their decisions in regard to alcohol and drug abuse, and to help them start naming their thoughts and feelings and actions in certain situations.

If there is time have students write in their journals "I learned" statements or general reactions to the improvisational work.

Part I: Establishing a Positive Classroom Climate

SESSION 7 - LISTENING SKILLS

- Objectives:
1. To identify the feelings one has when one is listened to and when one isn't
 2. To focus attention on another person
 3. To understand what another person is feeling
 4. To express that understanding to the person

Procedures: How Do You Like Your Neighbor
 Demonstration - Inappropriate Listening
 Concentric Circles - Inappropriate Listening
 Demonstration - Active Listening
 Concentric Circles - Active Listening
 Journal

HOW DO YOU LIKE YOUR NEIGHBOR

Instructions: Have all the participants form their chairs into a circle and remove one chair, leaving a player "it". Players number off including the player who is "it". She or he stands in the center of the circle, points to a player and asks "How do you like your neighbor?" If the player answers "I like my neighbors just fine", she or he and the neighbors on either side of her or him stay seated. All the other players, including "it" must quickly find a different seat at least two from her or his own. The player left without a seat becomes "it".

An alternative answer to the question, "How do you like your neighbors?" is "I don't like them..." The second question must then be asked. "Whom would you rather have?" The player replies by naming any two numbers except her or his own. The individuals seated immediately on the right and left of the player who doesn't like her or his neighbors rise as soon as the numbers are called and attempt to change places with the two whose numbers are called.

The player calling the numbers does not change her or his seat. Nor can the two neighbors exchange seats. They must change with the players whose numbers were called. (Unless one of the numbers called is that of the neighbor. He then remains in his place.)

In any event, "it" tries to get one of the 4 vacant seats as the neighbors & the two whose numbers were called scramble to change places.

Alternative Activity: Tiger, man, gun Harris, p. 25

DEMONSTRATION - INAPPROPRIATE LISTENING

Instructions: Ask for a student volunteer to come up in front of the class with the teacher. You will ask the student to talk to you about one of the following topics: Somethings I feel strongly about (Put on board or newsprint.) "A story about my pet." "Once I did something exciting or scary". "One time somebody treated me unfairly." (See Ballard, Appendix: Circle Time topics) and you will respond to him or her in a variety of ways. The class should observe both the teacher's and student's verbal and non verbal (bodily) responses and be prepared to report out what they hear and see.

As the volunteer tells you "something I feel strongly about," intermittently interrupt her or him with the three inappropriate listening responses explained below. Be sure to let the student continue her or his story before you interrupt her or him again with a response.

Examples of inappropriate listening responses:

1. Distract, Change the topic, Focus on yourself...
Try to get the person away from the topic by telling her or him that the topic "reminds you of a story", or "a problem you've had."

You might humor him or her about the problem and try to kid him or her out of the feelings: "Aw come on, you don't really feel that way". (Poke him/her in the ribs).
Act bored, withdraw from the conversation.
Talk about yourself.
Pretend you are chewing gum, tap your feet, look around.

2. Praise, Agree, Evaluate positively, Approve
Offer a positive evaluation or judgement
"You're so smart"
"You're so sensitive"
"I really admire your persistence, strength, good looks..."
"That's a good idea"
"You always think of the right thing."
3. Moralize, Preach, Judge, Evaluate, Criticize, Disagree, Blame
Make negative judgments or evaluation of the person.
"You shouldn't feel that way"
"It's wrong for you to want that."
"You ought to..."
"I think it's terrible when..."

- Processing questions:
1. Ask the volunteer to try to explain how she or he is feeling, and tell what actions of the teacher made her or him feel that way.
 2. Ask the observers to describe what they saw the volunteer do and say. (Body posture, facial expressions, voice...ie: looking and facing whom, blushing, giggling).

3. What did the observers or the teacher say or do to make the volunteer respond in those ways? (Record the data on the black board or newsprint, re: teacher's body posture, facial expressions, voice, etc.)

Refer to the list of observations on the blackboard. With the students, try to group and label those behaviors and phrases that can be examples of inappropriate listening. Suggested labels are: distracting, changing the subject, focusing on yourself, no eye contact, criticizing, moralizing, praising, etc.

Tell the students that the purpose for today's class is to help them become better listeners for each other. What they just saw demonstrated was typical (perhaps exaggerated) ways in which people often related to each other. Discussing, arguing your own point-of-view, criticizing, and praising are all responses that have their appropriate moments. They are inappropriate, however, if the purpose of the response is to help the talker explore her or his thoughts and feelings as much as she or he wants.

CONCENTRIC CIRCLES - INAPPROPRIATE LISTENING

Instructions: In order for the students to experience first hand what it's like to be listened to inappropriately, have them organize themselves in concentric circles. Divide the class into even groups of 4 - 6. Have $\frac{1}{2}$ of the groups draw their chairs up into circles facing out. Have the other half of the groups form circle around the existing circles, chairs facing the inner circle. Everyone should have a partner.

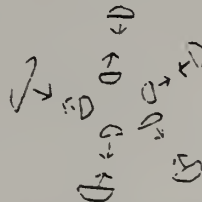


DIAGRAM OF CONCENTRIC CIRCLES

Ask the students in the center of the concentric circle to talk to their respective partners in the outside circle about one of the following topics (listed on newsprint) "A story about my pet" - "One time I did something exciting" - "One time somebody treated me unfairly" (See Circlebook). The students in the outside circle will respond with the inappropriate responses of distracting, criticizing, disagreeing, evaluating, etc.

After a minute have a few students report out what they were feeling, thinking and acting as the talker or as the responder. Next, ask the people in the outside circle to move one seat to their right. Everyone will have a new partner.

This time the outside circle member tells the inside person "something I feel strongly about", and the inside circle member listens and responds inappropriately to the outside-circle partner.

Again ask for reactions; thoughts, feelings, action experienced in this exchange. Have students remain in concentric circles.

DEMONSTRATION - ACTIVE LISTENING

Instructions: In order to demonstrate active listening skills, ask for a volunteer to talk about one of the topics from the list "something I feel strongly about". Remind the other students to observe carefully again the words and actions of both teacher and volunteer. Use active listening with the volunteer.

Active Listening: Try to understand what it is the speaker is feeling. Then put your understanding of her or his feelings into your own words and tell the person what you think he or she is feeling. The person will agree with you (a nod, continued talking) or he or she will attempt to correct or make more clear his or her feelings expressed.

You do not say things of your own - such as an evaluation, opinion, advise, logic, analysis, or question. You only say back to the speaker what you feel he or she is feeling.

"You're feeling..."

"Is this what you mean? (clarify)

"I think you mean..."

"If I understand you right..."

"It sounds like..."

".....is making you feel..."

"Boy, that sounds to me like you're feeling..."

- Processing questions:
1. Ask the volunteer to now describe how she or he is feeling, and what actions of the teacher made her or him feel that way.
 2. Ask the observers what they saw, heard the volunteer do. (body, face voice)
 3. What did the observers see and hear the teacher do that caused the volunteer to behave as such? Record the data on the newsprint about the teacher's body posture, voice, facial expressions, and especially the words that the teacher used for active listening. Keep this newsprint list for the next session's practice of listening skills. This data can also be recorded in journals.

Examples of what might be on the newsprint list:
(See Appendix: Magic Circle Skills)

Body posture: facing the talker, look directly into the speaker's face.

Facial expressions: eye brows are slightly frowning, eyes are looking right into the speaker's eyes, etc.

Voice: relaxed, deep, calm etc.

Words: "Would you like to tell me more about that?"
 "How did that make you feel?"
 "How did that feeling come to you?"
 "You really felt that deeply, didn't you?"
 "In other words, you're saying you..."
 "If I'm understanding correctly, you felt..."
 "You feel strongly about..."
 "You don't like it when..."
 "Sounds like you feel..."
 "You don't want to..."
 "You really felt glad when..."

4. What does active listening do for people? Emphasize to the students that the major components of active listening are to understand what the speaker is feeling, put that understanding into your own words, and express to the speaker your understanding of her or his feelings. Body language associated with active listening is eye contact, facing the speaker, body leaning forward.

One of the consequences of active listening is that the speaker continues to verbalize and think out her or his own problems or ideas with the support of a listener.

CONCENTRIC CIRCLES - ACTIVE LISTENING

Have students reform their concentric circles. Ask the people in the inside circle to move to their left one seat. The inside person talks and the outside person uses active listening. Refer the listeners to the list of responses on the board. To process ask the students how they are feeling now that their partner is actively listening to them.

Repeat as long as it seems reasonable, alternating the circle's movements and listener's turns.

JOURNAL

Allow time for general reaction and journal entries of notes about or reactions to the day's lesson.

Part I: Establishing a Positive Classroom Climate

SESSION 8 - LISTENING SKILLS

- Objectives:
1. To practice active listening skills
 - a. To learn how to focus attention on another person
 - b. To understand what another person is feeling
 - c. To be able to express understanding of another's feelings
 2. To practice disclosure of thoughts and feelings about oneself and others

Procedures: Either/Or
 Alternative Activity; Airplane
 Circle Time

EITHER/OR

Instructions: This is an appropriate activity to begin with if the class members are showing a need for physical exercise.

Ask the students to move the desks so there is a wide space in the middle of the room. Then ask either/or questions such as: "Are you more like a hammer or a nail?" Those who identify more with more with being a "nail" go to the other side. The "hammers" discuss among themselves "what it's like to be a hammer." The "nails" do likewise. In a few minutes students from the hammer side tell the other side things about "what it's like to be a hammer." Encourage them to avoid "put downs" that take the form of comparing the two choices. Once the "hammers" have exhausted their descriptions of themselves the "nails" will take their turns telling "what it's like to be a nail." Let this exchange continue for 3 minutes and then have everyone return to the center of the room.

Give another Either/Or forced choice (1) "Are you more of a mountain or an ocean?" (2) The students again choose between the two alternatives by moving to the appropriate sides of the room. This time ask the "mountains" to discuss among themselves how it feels to be a mountain, and the "oceans" to discuss among themselves how it feels to be an ocean. Then have the "mountains" tell the "oceans" how it feels to be a "mountain". The "oceans" listen. Then someone on the ocean side will tell what she or he heard the "mountains" saying. (Remind them to focus on the feeling.) The "mountains" deny or confirm the "oceans'" understanding. If the "oceans" don't hear exactly what the "mountains" said, the "mountains" repeat and clarify until the "oceans" understand the message and say it accurately. When the message is accurate the "oceans" take their turns to tell the "mountains" how it feels to be an "ocean." The "mountains" must listen and tell what they heard the "oceans" saying.

Continue with a few more Either/Or forced choices, focusing on how it feels.

Sample questions for Either/Or forced choices:

Are you:

- ___ 1. More like summer or winter?
- ___ 2. More of a spender or saver?
- ___ 3. More like a cadillac or a volkswagen?
- ___ 4. More like a placid lake or babbling brook?

For more examples see Simon, pp. 94-97.

- Processing questions:
1. "What thoughts and feelings did you have during this group activity?"
 2. What happened to give you those feeling?
 3. What new things did you discover about yourself?
 4. Was it hard or easy for you to identify the feelings expressed by others?

Alternative Activity: Airplane

Instructions: Tell the students that you are going to play the role of a troubled passenger and you'd like the students to play the role of an active listener. (The teacher should know this story well enough to do it without notes) Ask the students to form a large circle because you will be having each student respond to one of your feelings. If a student accurately feeds back to you, (at least fairly correctly), you'll beckon "ok" and then go on to the next student. If a student feeds back inaccurately you'll coach her or him to try again until her or his response is fairly accurate. Then you'll go on to the next student. Relieve the students of their probable anxiety by telling them that this exercise is just for practice. If it helps them to feel less scared think "I never saw this person before and never will again. If I goof I can always read a magazine or change seats. 'What the heck?' I'll try it."

Airplane Passenger's role: You're on a jet flight, non-stop from Boston to Chicago to do a special job for your University. You feel an urge to get some of your feelings off your chest, for you feel pretty upset. Here are some facts about you:

You are a professor of a medium sized college. You've been on the faculty for 10 years. Having worked up from being an instructor, assistant professor, professor and Department head. You have always had the ambition of becoming Dean of the college. The Dean is retiring this year and you have been considered for this post along with several others. You have just found out by the President of the college that you did not get the Dean ship. Instead, the position will go to Mr. Hall, a younger professor from your Department who has been

with the college only 3 years. Mr. Hall, you feel is not as qualified as you. You really trained him. You have always been the one Mr. Hall has come to for help. Many times you've fished him out of trouble. Several of his projects were ones that you suggested to him in your countless conferences with him about his problems. You feel depressed, but also angry at the selection committee, the President, the college. Your pride is hurt. (If you're a female: you think they pick Mr. Hall because he's a man and you're a woman.) You are torn between leaving the college and sticking it out. You hate to go back and face your colleagues. You're mad at yourself for helping Mr. Hall so much. You feel your teenage son will be terribly disappointed because he was counting on and planning for the increased income. He wanted to buy a wooden sailboat, fix it up and spend time sailing next summer. You hadn't been able to make that kind of expenditure up to now.

Secretly, you are disappointed in yourself, because you haven't been working as hard as you probably could have. You've taken more time to spend with your son. You've enjoyed the time with your son. You're not sure you want to give that up. Right now you hate college and everything connected with it. You partly feel like giving-up, partly like fighting just that much harder. (If you're female maybe you could confront the College on discrimination.) Maybe you could go back and talk to the President about how you feel.

Maybe this is a blessing in disguise, not being made Dean. You could manage without the increased income and you'd have more time for home life. You're amazed, how quickly your feelings about this changed. You are grateful that your seat-mate heard you out helped you work this through.

- Processing questions:
1. How did you feel and what were you thinking about during this activity?
 2. What made you feel or think that way?
 3. Was it easy or hard for you to tell back the feelings of the airplane passenger?

CIRCLE TIME

Instructions: See Appendix "Magic Circle Skills" for additional information.

Tell the students that this next activity, "Circle time" will provide more practice in talking about their feelings to each other, and in active listening.

You can group the class in a variety of ways:

1. Form a circle including everyone in the class., Or
2. Divide the class in half. One group that includes you forms an inside circle. The other groups, as observers, forms a larger circle around the inner circle. (This is often called a "fishbowl" as the outside circle members watch the inside circle members' activities.), Or
3. Invite 6 - 10 volunteers to form a circle & the other class members observe.

If you are "fish bowling" give the outside circle members the task of observing you as leader. Tell them you want them to be able to describe what they saw you doing as leader.

When the Circle is organized tell the members that in a moment you will present the topic for today's circle, but first you want to review the rules:

1. Everyone gets a turn. You don't have to talk if you don't want to, but if you do want to talk you can take a turn.
2. Everyone gets listened to. Each of us will listen so well that we can tell the speaker what she or he said afterwards.

Review the newsprint list from the last session on "Active Listening Skills" and tell the students that the topic for this Circletime is: "Something that could make my life better". (For additional topics see Appendix: "Circle topics" Circlebook, Ballard pp. 28-39)

Tell the students to think about it for a moment, focus on the feelings they have about this topic. Ask for a volunteer to go first. After the first student talks, you as leader, in your own words tell her or him what you heard her or him say. Name the feelings expressed.

ie: "Having a room of your own, without your little brother would give you a feeling of privacy. You'd feel very happy not to have to put-up with your little brother."

When the student confirms that you heard her or him correctly you thank her or him for sharing:

Ask the circle members who else wants to tell "something that could make my life better".

After this second person shares her or his thoughts and feelings, ask the circle members if any of them can tell this speaker what thoughts and feelings they heard this person say. Be sure the speaker confirms the accuracy of their listening.

Continue this process until everyone who wants to talk has had a chance. You as teacher should also take a turn if you want to.

In closing ask if anyone else wants to share "something that could make my life better". If not, thank the group for taking part - both those who talked and those who didn't and for all members who listened.

- Processing questions:
1. If you were "Fishbowling," ask the outside circle (observers) what they saw the leader do and say. (Write these on newsprint to be referred to later.)
 2. Ask the inside circle members how they felt talking, listening, not talking, telling a speaker what they heard, being listened to.

Re-group the class for continued practice:

1. If you had inside and outside circles, reverse their positions and repeat the process with the new group.
2. Divide the class into small circles of 6 with a student leader in each circle.

Be sure the rules of the circle leader each time a circle begins.

Post these rules where all can see them:

Guidelines for Circletime leader.

- a. Open each circletime with a review of the rules:
 - everyone gets a turn (talks about the topic) who wants one.
 - everyone who takes a turn gets listened to.

Add other rules if the need for more structure arises:

 - 'no put downs'
 - raise hands
- b. Give the topic. Make it clear, restate it if necessary. Give people time to think about it.
- c. Allow for silences.
- d. Leader takes a turn if she or he wants to.
- e. Each person who talks about the topic has other circle members tell her or him a summary of what was said - being sure the feeling content is included.

- f. Close the circle by being sure everyone who wanted to talk had a chance. You could go around the circle & have students review what each other had said. Thank everyone for participating. Close by saying something like "let's stop", so that it's clear when the circle time is over.

Other topics to use: (See Appendix: "Circletime Topics"
Circle Book, Ballard, pp. 28-39)

"A wish of mine"

"Something I like to do"

"My favorite place"

"My favorite thing I do"

- Processing questions:
1. If "fishbowling" is used, ask the same questions from the 1st circletime.
 2. If the class is in small groups have each group discuss: (past questions ahead of time)
 - How did the leader feel about being leader?
 - Was it difficult to follow the rules?
 - How did people feel: when they chose to talk, or to not talk? When they were listening, when they were telling the speaker what they heard, and when they were being listened to?
 - What made them feel that way?

If time remains have the students make journal entries answer the above processing questions.

Part I: Establishing a Positive Classroom Climate

SESSION 9 - INTERVIEWS

- Objectives:
1. To practice disclosure of thoughts, feelings, and actions about oneself to others
 2. To practice (deciding) about what and with whom one feels comfortable in talking
 3. To learn more about one another's similarities and differences.

Procedures: Continuums
Privacy Blocks
Public Interviews

CONTINUUMS

Instructions: In their journals have the students record a series of continuums that you present on the blackboard or newsprint. First identify the issue, "where do you stand on the issue of _____?" Then draw a long line and determine two polar positions on the issue by labeling them on opposite ends of the line. Mark even spaces along the continuum. Ask the students to indicate with an X where they personally stand on this issue. Black out the middle of the continuum to assist moderates to be discriminate in their choices.

Holey Harold
always has holes
in his clothes
even when they're
new



Wrinkle Free Walt
is meticulous, even
irona his under-
wear carefully.

After the class has completed three or four of these continuums in their journals, have them make physical continuums by standing on an imaginary line in the center of the classroom floor.

As the students stand on the line they can negotiate with the people to their right and left to ascertain the correctness of their position. Ask volunteers to explain their position to the rest of the class.

Continuum suggestions:

1. How active are you in generating school spirit?

Earmuff Eddie



Cheerleader Charlie

Earmuff Eddie has so little school spirit that if he is faced to go to a pep rally, or game, he wears earmuffs and blinders and sits on his hands. Cheerleader Charlie gets so carried away with keeping the student body whipped into a frenzy that he doesn't know which team is winning and sometimes cheers when the other team makes a point.

2. How selective are you about T.V.?

Anything that happens
to be on



Educational Programs
only. Sports events
only. News only.
Movies only, etc.

3. How many friends do you need?

Stuck-up Stanley
Only one friend -
himself. Sends
himself Valentines.



Friendly Frank - wants
everyone to be his
friend. Sends 5lbs.
of candy to everyone
in school.

4. What percentage of the time are you happy?

Sad-Sack Sara



Happy-time Helen

5. How do you feel about school?

Dynamite Diane
Students would be
better off if school
were blown to bits



Stowaway Sam Loves
school so much the
janitor has to
drive him out of
school each night
before locking up.

Additional suggestions - Values Clarification:
Simon, p. 119 - 126

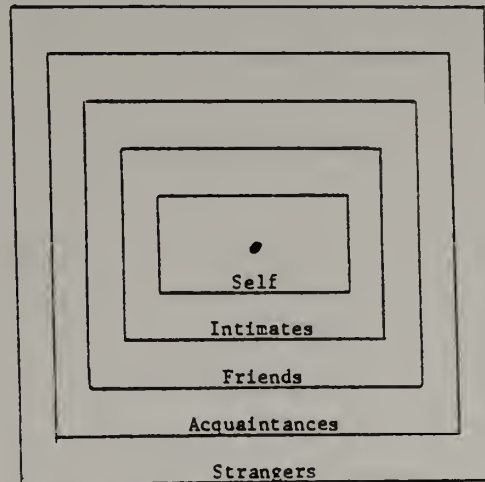
- Processing questions:
1. What was hard or easy about this activity for you?
 2. What thoughts and feelings did you have and what actions did you do during the continuum standing and discussion afterwards?
 3. What similarities and differences did you see among you and your classmates on these issues?
 4. Are there and "I learned" statements?

PRIVACY BLOCKS

Instructions: Tell the students that the purpose for today's activities including the continuum they just did, is to practice talking about their thoughts, feelings, and actions to one another, to learn to appreciate each other's similarities & differences, and to learn to be aware of what they're going to talk about and to whom they choose to say these thoughts and feelings. They will have a chance to practice these skills in public interviews. First, demonstrate privacy blocks on the board or newsprint as a way of examining "to whom they are willing to tell what." Draw the blocks as you explain them. Explain that there are some things about our lives we would be glad to let anyone, even strangers, know - any favorite T.V. show, the type of clothes we like to wear, our school's name. There are other things we might not want strangers to know, but

would tell acquaintances, such as our classmates, or neighbors. Still other things we reserve only for our friends. Then there are thoughts and feelings we have, or things we've done or do that we would tell only our most intimate friends (best boy, girl, adult friends).

Finally there may be some aspects of our lives we would not want to share with anyone; these are reserved only for ourselves. (The last small block is darkened to acknowledge that there are some feelings or facts that we don't admit even to ourselves.)



Have the students draw privacy blocks in their journals, filling the whole page. Ask the students to write two things (belief, feelings, or actions) about themselves for each box. For example, in the friends box write two things they would tell their friends, and intimates, but not strangers or acquaintances.

Next ask the students to write key words for answers to a series of questions in the appropriate blocks (those blocks which represents to whom they would be reveal their answer).

- Privacy Block questions:
1. Whether or not you have ever stolen something, with complete details. (Key word: Lifted)
 2. Your doubts about religion. (Key word: Doubts)
 3. Whether or not you like one of your parents better than the other. (Key word: Parents)
 4. The story of your first love (Key Word: Love)
 5. What you dislike about your best friend. (Key Word: Friend)

Processing questions: "I learned..." statements.
 "I'm surprised that I..."
 "I appreciate that I..."
 "I wonder..."

PUBLIC INTERVIEW

Instructions: Ask for volunteers who would like to be interviewed publicly about some of their beliefs, feelings, and actions. The first volunteer stands or sits in front of the room to answer questions and the teacher stands in the back of the room to ask questions.

The first few times review the ground rules: 1. No put downs (of self or others), 2. right to pass, 3. right to full attention. The teacher may ask the student any question about any aspect of her/his life. If the student answers the question, she/he must answer honestly. If the student wishes not to answer the question she/he says "I pass". The student can end the interview at anytime by simply say, "Thank you for the interview". Each interview should be kept brief, five minutes at the most.

At the completion of the interview the student can ask the teacher any of the same questions that were presented to her/him. If the interviewee can't remember the questions you asked allow the other students to remind her/him of the questions.

During part of this activity students may wish to assume the role of interviewer. In addition you may wish to be an interviewee.

- Suggestions for public interview questions:
1. Do you get an allowance? What kind? Do you have to do anything to get it? How do you use it?
 2. Did you go on a vacation this year? If so where? If you could go anywhere in the world you wanted to next year, where would you go?
 3. Do you wish you had a larger family, smaller family or is your family just the right size?
 4. If there was something you could change at home what would it be?
 5. What do you do between the hours after school and before bedtime?
 6. Tell about a memorable experience you had as a child.
 7. What would you do with \$1,000?
 8. What do you like best about school? least about school? What changes would you make to improve school?

9. What do you look for in choosing friends? What qualities do you have that attracts friends to you?

- Processing questions:
1. Was it hard or easy to volunteer or not volunteer to be interviewed? How were you feeling? What did you think? What did you do?
 2. What new information did you learn about yourself and others in the class? What similarities do you have with whom? What differences do you have with whom?
 3. How did you choose to use your privacy blocks? With whom were you willing to talk about what?

Part I: Establishing A Positive Classroom Climate

SESSION 10 - Trust Walk

- Objectives:
1. To develop a feeling of trust and closeness among class members
 2. To identify thoughts, feelings, actions, (internal responses) in a given situation
 3. To begin to identify the causes for those internal states
 4. To disclose those internal states to others

TRUST WALK

Instructions: If necessary let your administration know ahead of time the purpose and procedure of this activity. Have one blindfold for each team of two people. Ask the students to pick a partner with someone in the class whom they feel they don't know very well.

Tell them they will be going on a walk together in which one person will have her/him. Ask them to decide who would like to be the first with the blindfold. When they have decided, tell them that the guide's job is to make sure that her/his partner is safe at all times - ie: doesn't bump into anything or fall down on the stairs. The guide should try to give her/his partner as interesting a walk as possible. A guide can take her/his partner up and down stairs, into places that have different noises, walk her/him backwards, run and jog with her/him, go in circles, etc. The guide can also give her/his partner a variety of different sensory experiences by placing the partner's hands on objects with different textures such as smooth glass, rough concrete, a soft carpet, a water fountain, a pile of towels, a fur coat, the keys of a piano, etc. Ask them to use their imagination and ingenuity.

Tell the students that this entire exercise is to be done without talking. Both partners are to be silent the whole time. After about 15 minutes, using a pre-arranged signal (a bell, horn, gong) or everyone watching the time, have the students switch roles. After another 15 minutes have them return to the group & share their experiences.

- Processing questions:
1. What were your thoughts, feeling, actions during the trust walk? - as the leader - as the blind person?
 2. What happened that made you think, feel or act that way?
 3. Were you able to trust your partner?
 4. Did you find it easier to follow or to lead?
 5. What was easy or hard about it?
 6. Did you enjoy this exercise? If so, what did you like about it? If not, what didn't you like about it?

Part II: Looking at Personal Experience - Particularly As It Relates to the Use of Drugs and Alcohol

SESSION 1 - EXPERIENCE RECALL

- Objectives:
1. To begin to name the external elements associated with a particular drug/alcohol use situation
 2. To begin to name internal responses associated with a particular drug/alcohol use situation
 3. To begin to relate internal responses to specific aspects of a particular drug/alcohol use situation

Procedures: Introduction
 Experience Recall
 Journal Entry
 Sharing
 Homework
 Alternative Activity: Story Board

INTRODUCTION

- Instructions: Introduce this section of the class highlighting the following points:
1. The next 8-10 sessions will concentrate specifically on helping you to look at how you make decisions about using drugs or alcohol.
 2. Some of you may use drugs or alcohol a lot, some of you may use drugs or alcohol infrequently, some not at all. The point is, how do you make the decision to do whatever you do, and are your decisions ones which help you grow as human beings?
 3. The purpose is not to make you stop or start using drugs or alcohol, but to help you look at what you do so you can use what you learn about yourself to make decisions which will help you grow as a human being.
 4. These sessions will follow an outline for decision making:
 - I. What did I do? (This includes being aware of your actions, thoughts, & feelings in a particular situation.)
 - II. What did I really want? (This includes looking at what happened, how it made you feel, what the advantages and disadvantages were in order to find out the reasons for what you did).
 - III. How can I get what I want? (When you know the reasons for what you did, you will know what you want. This step includes exploring different alternatives to getting what you want.)
 5. We will refer to these three steps frequently so you can learn to use them anytime you need to make a decision.

Processing questions: Ask if there are any questions.

EXPERIENCE RECALL

Note: It is important to allow for long pauses between fantasy directions. Although these periods of silence often seem very long to the teacher, experience shows that those involved in the fantasy frequently find the time only just adequate or even too short.

Instructions: In this exercise I will have you close your eyes and help you to remember the last time you had to make a decision to use or avoid drugs or alcohol. Later I'll have you open your eyes and write down what you've remembered. Get into a comfortable and relaxed position. Get as comfortable and relaxed as you can. Close your eyes and let your whole body relax from head to toe. (Pause 10 sec.) Take a couple of deep breaths, breathing out any tension. Now breathe normally. Notice your thoughts for a minute. Let them go. (Pause 20 sec.)

Now I want you to follow my voice and begin to picture yourself and the things that happen in your life. I am going to ask you to think back to the last time you had to make a decision to use or avoid drugs or alcohol. (Pause 10 sec.)

Now I want you to remember that experience as much as you can. First, picture the place where you were. (Pause 15 sec.) What did it look like, who was there? (Pause 15 sec.) Can you picture what you looked like? (Pause 15 sec.) Now see if you can remember exactly what happened. (Pause 1 min.) What did you do & say. What did other people do and say? (Pause 15 sec.) See if you can remember any of your thoughts or what you were saying to yourself. (Pause 15 sec.) What were you feeling then? (Pause 15 sec.) What do you imagine other people were feeling and thinking. Can you remember what led up to this experience? And what happened as a result of this experience? (Pause 30 sec.)

Go ahead and finish the scene/even in your mind. Take your time and when you are ready, at your own pace, come back to this room and open your eyes.

Processing questions: See journal

JOURNAL

Instructions: Have the following questions on the board or on a ditto which can be included in the journal. When students finish the experience recall instruct them to respond to the questions in writing. Time for sharing will follow later.

- Questions:
1. Write as detailed an account of your experience as possible.
 2. Describe your thoughts before, during and after this experience.
 3. Describe your feelings before, during and after this experience. Tell what made you feel that way.

4. What did you get out of this experience, what were the advantages for you?
5. What were the drawbacks or disadvantages of this experience for you?

SHARING

Instructions: Students choose one or two partners and share with them any details they wish of the experience they recalled.

Processing questions: If time allows have students share in large group:

In what ways was your experience the same as those you shared with?

In what ways was it different?

Note: Elemental responses to these questions will tend to emphasize concrete similarities and differences such as: who was there, place, specific activities etc. Situational responses may extend the focus to similarities and differences between thoughts, feelings, reasons and consequences. If situational responses are few you may wish to ask some questions which could evoke such responses; for example; What were your feelings in the situation? How were they similar or different? What made you feel that way? Is it the same as what made your partner feel that way?

HOMEWORK

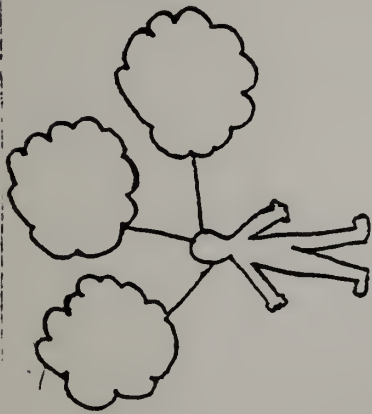
Instructions: Have students for the time extending over the next few sessions describe in their journals any situations in which they make decisions to use or avoid drugs/alcohol. It may be helpful for them to note: who, what, when, where, thoughts, feeling, results. You may wish to put this list on a ditto or in a chart so it can be readily referred to and used.

Note: You may need to remind students at the beginning of each session to write down their descriptions or fill in their charts. This approach seems to work best with students who have many & varied situations to record. Students who had few or limited experiences tend to find this exercise tedious ("the same thing over again"). It's probably best to continue such record keeping only if the data is varied enough to maintain interest.

Alternative Activity:

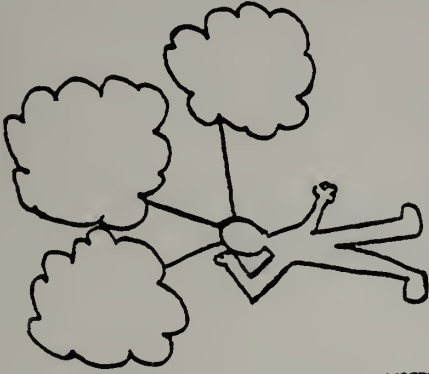
Instructions: Hand out several copies of a ditto similar to the one attached. Have students do a story board for a situation in which they have decided to use or avoid drugs/alcohol. Explain: This is a way to do a cartoon story of you in a situation in which you choose to use drugs/alcohol. In each box the character is you. Fill in thoughts you had. Write the feelings you had on the part of your body you felt it most. Add people to the scene if you need to.

This can be done for homework or in class. Include in journal.



Beginning of situation:
What's happening?

And now?



What's happening?

And now?



What now?

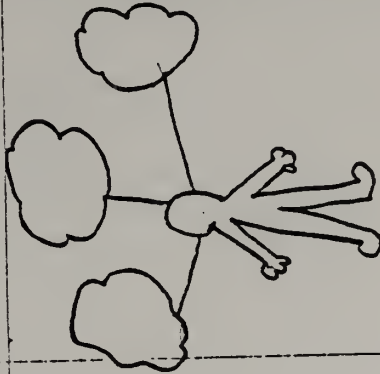
And now?



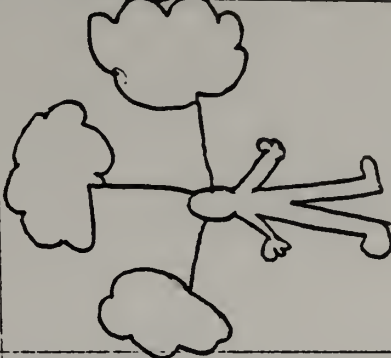
And now?



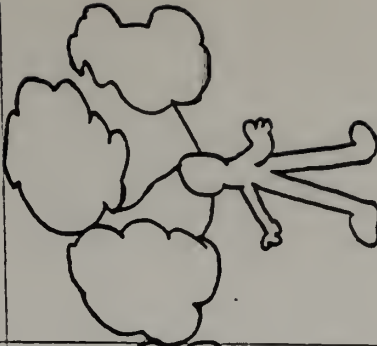
And now?



And now?



And now?



End of situation
What's happening?

Part II: Looking at Personal Experience - Particularly As It Relates to the Use of Drugs and Alcohol

Part II

SESSION 2 - ROLE-PLAY

- Objectives:
- 1.) To gain additional practice in managing both external elements and internal responses associated with a particular drug/alcohol use situation
 - 2.) To gain additional practice in relating internal responses to specific aspects of a particular drug/alcohol use situation
 - 3.) To involve the students in an active, experiential look at what they do

Procedures: Introduction
Role-play
Processing

INTRODUCTION: Remind the students that the goal of the class is to look at what you learn about yourself to make decisions which will help you grow as human beings. The steps the class will follow are: what did I do? What did I really want? How can I get what I want? Last session we concentrated on "What did I do?" Today's session will also look at "what did I do?", but in a more active way.

ROLE-PLAY: Note: See appendix "Use of Role Playing in the Classroom" by Beverly Cinovec.

Instructions: Explain that in this session members of the class will role-play a typical situation in which someone makes a decision to use or avoid drugs/alcohol. The class will need 1) to agree upon a situation to role-play 2) select actors 3) discuss the job of the audience 4) set the stage 5) act out the role play 6) share observations, thoughts and feelings.

1) Through discussion have class delineate the broad outlines of a typical situation in which someone makes a decision to use or avoid drugs/alcohol. They can use their experience recalls and journal data for ideas.

Example: a party at someone's house whose parents are not home.

Decide upon all the characters who might be needed.

Example: 2 boys, 2 girls, 2 parents, a policeman, the principal, a doctor.

Don't spend too much time on details, just the broad outline. Details will be worked out in the actual role play.

2) Have students volunteer for various roles; possibly supplement with students you choose.

3) Assign different groups of the audience to observe specific actors. Tell them their job is to observe the role the actor is in. They should note a) realism of her/his behavior b) her/his

possible feelings at specific instances c) her/his possible thoughts at specific instances. d) problems she/he had and how she/he solved them. They may wish to take notes and should be ready to discuss their observations later.

4) Set the stage by having the actors and audience define the setting. Ask such questions so a) where is the scene taking place?; b) describe the room; what time is it?; where are the different characters?; what are they doing?;

5) Once the stage is set, let the action begin. This is done spontaneously, "made-up" as you go along. You may wish to interrupt action for:

a) role-reversal - Have characters within the situation reverse role in order to increase the sensitivity of one role player to another's role.

b) alter-ego - Have someone who thinks she/he knows what a character is thinking or feeling temporarily stand behind that character and voice those thoughts and feelings.

c) double - Have someone temporarily play the role of another character as she/he feels the first role player would interpret it.

d) soliloquy - Have a character who is acting one way but not showing her/his true thoughts and feeling momentarily turn aside to the audience and express those true thoughts and feelings.

6) Discussion - see processing

Processing questions: What was realistic about this role play? Ask someone who played a role to share what her/his character's thoughts and feelings were.

Ask observers of that role to comment on what they saw, what thoughts and feeling they thought we're going on.

What made a certain character act, feel or think the way she/he did?

What are other ways a certain character could have acted, thought and/or felt?

Can you think of other situations in which people have thoughts and feelings similar to a certain character's?

Allow time for journal entry. Possible questions:
Describe the role in the role-play that was most like you. Why? What did that character feel & think? What made her/him feel & think that way? Comments (including other learnings and ideas).

Note: You and the class may wish to take another session to re-enact the role play based upon ideas from the discussion. You may wish to use new actors or switch roles or try a new situation.

Part II: Looking at Personal Experience - Particularly As It Relates to the Use of Drugs and Alcohol

SESSION 3 - TEN COMMANDMENTS

- Objectives: 1.) To begin to name some reasons for behavior
2.) To begin to name some consequences of behavior

Procedures: Introduction
Ten Commandments
Processing Journal entry

INTRODUCTION: "You've spent a couple of sessions looking at what you do. You spent time considering your actions, thoughts and feelings. This is the first step toward learning more about yourself in order to make decisions about your life. The next step is finding out what you really want in a particular situation. One way to learn about what you want is to think about what makes you do what you do, think and feel. Another way is to look at what happens or could happen to you and see how you feel about that. Today we're going to do some activities which help you look at what makes you do what you do, think and feel. Each one of you has other people who tell you what you should do, think and feel; who tells you what you should want out of life. These people are usually important adults such as parents, aunts, uncles, teachers, bosses and important people your own age; friends, leaders, certain groups. They tell you what you should want sometimes by talking to you and sometimes just by actions or example." (Continue to today's activity.)

TEN COMMANDMENTS OF MY PEERS

"Today's activity involves looking at what your friends tell you you should want, do, think, feel."

Instructions: Ask students to get into groups of four or five. Direct the group formation so that people are with their friends. Tell each group that its task is to come up with a list of the 10 (more or less) commandments of the people they "go around with." These should reflect the actual ways people are expected to act, think and feel, in order to be accepted as a member of that group. Examples: Thou shalt want a good looking boy friend. Thou shalt wear jeans. Thou shalt not bum cigarettes. Thou shalt not criticize. Have each student record his/her group's list in his/her journal.

Note: Some students may not identify as being in the same group as any of the other class members. They may wish to work alone and come up with a list appropriate to their own peer group members who are not in the class. Others may not identify with any group at all and could develop a list of commandments they think they could follow as an individual.

Processing questions: Share as a whole group, sitting in a circle. Have one person from each group read that group's list. Ask clarifying questions and encourage the group to do so.
Examples: I don't understand what you mean when you say
....
Can you give me an example of a situation in which you follow this commandment?
What would be another way to say the same thing? (Teacher may wish to write each group's list on the board.)

When every group has shared and clarified their lists ask the following questions:

What's easy to follow on this list?

What's difficult?

Which ones do you wish weren't on the list?

What happens to you when you follow your commandment "Thou shalt...?"

What do you think makes you follow the commandment "Thou shalt...?"

In what kind of situations are you most likely to follow "Thou Shalt...?"

In what kind of situations are you least likely to follow "Thou Shalt...?"

What commandments or rules did you hear which were similar to some one your own?

Which ones were different?

After hearing these commandments would you change, add to or subtract from your list in anyway?

Note: Students at the elemental and situational stages will be more likely to respond with concrete reasons for and results of following a particular rule. Ex. What happens? "I feel good". "I get to keep my cigarettes". "No one hits me". What makes you follow the commandment? "My parents", "I look good", "people don't laugh at me", "I don't get in trouble". At the situation stage however responses might also include feelings: Ex. What happens? "I feel scared", "included", "close to my friends", what makes you do it? "Fear", "need to belong", "makes me feel brave". Patterned responses might show how one's behavior reflects one's personality. "I am a shy person and this helps me overcome my shyness." "I love to seek thrills". "I see myself as an individual." "I have to do what I believe in."

If a person makes a concrete response you may wish to ask them to tell how that effects her/his feelings. Ex. what happens? "I don't get into trouble" How do you feel? "I feel safe". If a person talks about her/his feelings you may wish to ask them to tell if those feelings are typical or reflective of her/his personality.

Journal entry: Have students complete the following sentences stubs.

My friends make me _____. That makes me feel _____.
 My friends want me to _____. That makes me feel _____.
 I want _____. That makes me feel _____.

Part II

SESSION 4: BE YOUR PARENT

- Objectives: 1.) To continue to name some reasons for behavior
2.) To continue to name some consequences of behavior

Procedures: Game
Introduction
Be Your Parent Exercise
Processing
Journal Entry

GAME: Play a warm-up game you have played before.
(See sessions 1, 2, and 4 of Part I, Establishing a Positive Classroom Climate.)
This will get the students ready to do the role-playing necessary for this session's main activity.

INTRODUCTION: "In the last session you began to look at what you want. Often it is important people who influence us, positively or negatively, about what we want. Last session you looked at how people your age make you want to feel, do, or think in certain ways. This session you'll spend some time looking at how important adults influence what you do, think and feel."

BE YOUR PARENT

Instructions: Have students select partners and get into pairs. Each student should think of one adult whom she/he considers most important: parent, aunt, uncle, boss, teacher, etc. One person of the pair assumes the role of her/his important adult. The other asks her/him questions using the following questions using the following sheet as a basis. Copy and hand out question sheets beforehand. Encourage students to try to remain as true to the role of the adult as possible. Partners switch tasks when finished so each gets a chance to "be" her/his significant adult.

Questions for question sheet:
(Remember your partner has the right to pass; that is, the right not to answer a question.)

Who are you?

Tell me a little about yourself. How old are you? Where do you work? What are some of your favorite pastimes? (Ask more if you wish.)

How do you know _____?
name of Your Partner (p)

How do you feel about _____?
(p)

Has _____ ever made you proud? What did _____ do?
(p) (p)

Has _____ ever upset you or made you feel disappointed?
(p)

What did _____ do?
(p)

Do you think _____ drinks or uses drugs?
(p)

What is your opinion about days?

What else do you think?

What is your opinion about alcohol?

What else do you think?

What would you do if _____ drank or used drugs?
(p)

How would you feel if _____ drank or used drugs?
(p)

What do you worry about for _____?
(p)

What do you wish or hope for _____?
(p)

Ask any other questions you can think of.

Ask your partner if she/he has any questions she/he wants to be asked.

You may want to take an extra sheet home and ask your important adults for their answers.

Processing questions: Discuss in large group:

How did it feel to be an important adult in your life?

Did you feel you were realistic? If so, why?

If not what would you change about what you said or did?

Have students reflect silently upon these questions:

In what situation(s) do you act, think and/or feel the way your important adults want you to?

In that situation, is what they want similar to what you want?

How?

What do you feel in that situation?

In what situation(s) do you act, think and/or feel in a way different from what your important adults want you to?

In that situation is what they want similar to what you want?

What do you do in this situation?

How do you feel in this situation?

Journal Entry

Have students complete the following stubs.

My parents make me _____. That makes me feel _____.

My parents want me _____. That makes me feel _____.

I want _____. That makes me feel _____.

Any comments:

Possible Homework:

Students may wish to take an extra question sheet home and ask their important adults to answer them. Teacher may wish to set aside part of a session to help students share and discuss what happened.

PART II:

SESSION 5: CONSEQUENCES SEARCH

- Objectives:
- 1.) To continue to name some consequences of behavior
 - 2.) To begin to name internal responses to the consequences of a behavior

Procedures:

Introduction
 Consequence Search
 Suggested Activities for Consequences Search
 Processing

INTRODUCTION

"You spent the last couple of sessions looking at what you want in terms of how important people in your life influence you to think, feel and do certain things. Another slightly different way to look at what you want is to look at what happens to you because of what you do, think and feel and how that makes you feel. For example if you work hard to make the basketball team and you finally get on the varsity squad you might feel terrific about it, in which case being on the team is probably what you wanted or you might feel uneasy about it which might mean you didn't really want it for yourself."

Continue to activity.

CONSEQUENCE SEARCH

Instructions:

"Today's activity will involve looking at what actually happens to you and what might possibly happen to you in particular situations."

Through discussion have students agree upon a particular situation which involves the use of drugs and/or alcohol and which seems to them to be fairly typical of the drug/alcohol use situations they find themselves in.

Pass out the consequences search chart and display a large one to the class.

Tell the students that there seem to be five major areas which can be affected by a person's behavior:

- (1) medical/physical area - this includes your health, how your body feels.
- (2) legal area -this includes any kind of trouble with authorities such as school, police.
- (3) others' responses - this includes attitudes and responses of family and friends.
- (4) your responses- this includes how you feel about the experience.

- (5) self-opinion area -this includes what you think and feel about yourself (this might be different from how you feel about the experience and might be hard to figure out-)

Ask them for their reactions to and questions about these areas.
If they wish to change them or add to them do so.

Have students fill in any consequences they can think of or know about.

Suggested Activities for Consequences Search

To obtain data for filling in the chart the following activities are suggested. They may take as many sessions as you need; some activities could be assigned as homework or done outside of session time and results reported back to the class.

- 1.) Have students look back through their journals for ideas for what to put in the consequences chart. Hold an informal discussion sharing such ideas.
- 2.) Play IALAC. The purpose of this activity is to look at the consequences a particular experience has on one's self-opinion.

Instructions: Take a sheet of paper and write the letters IALAC (I-ah-lack) on it. Tell the student, "IALAC stands for I Am Lovable And Capable. It will serve as a symbol of how you feel about yourself, your self-concept or self-opinion. Sometimes things happen to us which makes us feel good or bad about ourselves, increase or decrease our self-concept, make our IALAC sign bigger or smaller." Tell the students about an experience you had which affected your self-concept. If possible make the story one which is emotional and dramatic. Whenever something happens to decrease your self-concept rip off part of your sign. Whenever something happens to increase your self-concept put a piece of your sign back. (Use tape)

Example of an IALAC Story:

"I woke up late this morning. (rip) I rush out to the kitchen to get breakfast for the kids. I need to get some papers together for school; I'm late but I'm trying to feed everyone and get them ready. My son says, "I hate oatmeal. I'm not going to eat it " (rip) My husband comes downstairs, takes one look at the confusion says he's leaving and will eat in town. He can't stand the hassle. (rip) Kids run off to school without a kiss goodbye (rip) Get to school and the principal stops me to say Mrs. J called and is pleased with her daughter's progress in English (add a piece) First bell rings and I'm late (rip). Kids are rowdy and won't pay attention (rip). We finally get started and get into a lively discussion (add a piece.)"

This example could be continued throughout the whole day.
Students can help you think of more incidents to include.

Now ask students to choose a partner. Each person makes an IALAC sign. Have partners take turns telling each other an IALAC story, and have the story concern an experience with drug and/or alcohol use or avoidance.

"Sample Consequence Search Chart"

What happens because of _____
 (Fill in the situation agreed upon)

area	positive consequences	how do you know this?	negative consequences	how do you know this?
Medical Physical	ex. feel more alert	my experience	destroy my liver	film
Legal	ex. I'll get off easy because I'm a juvenile	friends	I'll get kicked off the team	coach
Others response	ex. my friends will accept me	my experience	my parents will be disappointed	my experience
My (feelings) response to the experience	ex. I had fun I felt mellow I escaped my problems	me	I was scared	me
My opinion (feelings about myself	ex. I felt I was courageous	me	I felt ashamed embarrassed	me

Processing: Have students respond to these cues in their journals.

What specific things happened to you to make you feel good about yourself?

What specific things happened to you to make you feel bad about yourself?

What things affected you the most?

Can you describe how you felt then?

Fill in on your consequences search chart the positive and negative consequences the situation you described had on your opinion of yourself.

- 3.) Bring in persons who are former alcoholics or drug users. They can speak to the class about their experience and its consequences for them. Later have students record pertinent information on charts and in journals.

The following persons and/or agencies can suggest appropriate speakers:

Office of Alcoholism and Drug Abuse Prevention
32 Winthrop Street
Augusta, Maine 04333
Tel. 289-2781
Earle Simpson - Prevention Coordinator

National Council on Alcoholism in Maine
143 State Street
Portland, Maine 04101
Jack C. White, Director

Division of Human Development and Guidance Resources
Department of Educational and Cultural Services
Augusta, Maine 04333
Tel. 289-2033
Carl D. Mowatt, Director

- 4.) Show films which present factual informations about the consequences of drugs and alcohol use. Later have students record pertinent information on charts and in journal.
(A number of films are available through the Division of Human Development and Guidance Resources, Department of Educational and Cultural Services. See enclosed catalogue.)
- 5.) Provide readings about the consequences of drug and/or alcohol use. Later have students record pertinent information on charts and in journals. Examples of pamphlets and books which can be used are included with this curriculum.

Suggested Processing questions for activities 3, 4 & 5.

What did this person, film, book describe, tell, talk about?

How realistic do you think she, he, it was?

Name the particular situations or experiences the person, film, book described and the particular consequences in each area: physical, legal, others' responses, person responses and person's feelings of self-worth.

Were any of these situations described similar to ones you've been in?

What happened to you then? How did you feel? How does that compare with the experience of the person, film, book?

Part II:

SESSION 6 - BRAINSTORMING

- Objectives:
- 1.) To name reasons for a particular behavior
 - 2.) To name consequences for a particular behavior
 - 3.) To begin to clarify desired or valued consequences of a particular behavior

Procedures: Introduction
Brainstorming
Rank order
Journal Entry
Processing

INTRODUCTION The purpose of our last few sessions has been to help you look at what you really want. Today's session and the following are to help you to pull together some of your thoughts on why you use or don't use drugs or alcohol and the consequences of your choices. This is in order to get ready to look at alternative ways of getting what you want.

BRAINSTORMING

Instructions: Introduce the concept of brainstorming, "Brainstorming is a special technique for getting as many ideas about a topic as possible. There are four rules which should be followed:

- 1) Quantity - Try to come up with as many ideas as possible; the more ideas you have the more good ones will result.
- 2) Piggyback - Build on, expand, change other peoples' ideas.
- 3) Imagination - Be as wild, silly, far-out as you want; often the best ideas come from something that initially seems "weird." It is easier to tone down a wild idea than to make a dull idea exciting.
- 4) No judgments - Do not evaluate or judge your own ideas or those of others. Don't say "That's dumb or that's a great idea" it puts too much pressure on people to have "good" ideas and actually can keep good ideas from coming out.

It is usually useful to keep to a strict time limit for it encourages people to get as much out as possible rather than hold back for a later time, and it also helps relieve the tension of determining when "enough" ideas have been expressed.

Usually brainstormed ideas should be recorded. Each idea, even though it might be a repeat of one previously expressed, should be written down. This reinforces the idea that no judgments are made and each idea is equally respected. You may need several recorders to get down all the ideas. Students should be encouraged to call out ideas as quickly as they occur to them.

Practice the rules with a couple of warm-up brainstorming activities:

- 1) Borrow someone's belt. Ask the group to think of as many uses as they can for the belt. When "storming" slows down you can give the process a boost by changing attributes of the belt i.e. suggesting it is made of rubber, is ten feet long, is 3 feet wide etc. or by changing the context: i.e. you are stranded on a desert island, alone in the principal's office, have just been elected president. Keep to a time limit of 3 minutes.
- 2) Brainstorm ways to improve on the common bathtub, or the physical environment of your classroom, etc.
- 3) Brainstorm uses for broken baseball bats, pop tops, egg cartons, bubble gum, etc.

Tell students you want them to use the brainstorming rules to make a list of all the things you get out of using or not using drugs and alcohol. This includes feelings, things that happen to you, ways people treat you etc. Set up a chart on the board or newsprint that looks like this. Write down suggestions as they occur. You may need an aide.

What Does Using Drugs/
Alcohol Do For You

What Does Not Using Drugs/
Alcohol Do For You

Note: The same response could be on both sides. If the brainstorming bogs down present a specific situation to react to, for example: what if you're at the football game? What if your parents will be home soon? What if you're on a team at school? etc.

Processing questions: In the "using does for me" list what answers go together or are similar? In the "Not using does for me" list what answers go together or are similar? (Try to consolidate responses from both lists into one set of loose categories in preparation for the next activity: rank orders. Letter, not number, each consolidated item: A, B, C, etc.) Are there any answers which appear on both sides? Why do you think this is so? The consolidated list has included: relaxation, alternates of consciousness/highs, trills/risk taking, friendship/comfortable with people being worked up to/presitge, avoiding trouble.

RANK ORDER

Instructions: Copy the consolidated list "what using does for me" "what not using does for me" into your journals (include the letter for each item.) Rank order each list separately. Put a 1 next to the item that represents the most important thing you get out of using (or not using) drugs or alcohol, a 2 by the next most important item and so on until you get to the one which is least important.

Journal entry: Have students look over their rank ordered lists and ask them if they can complete the following sentence stubs.

One thing I really want out of life is _____.

Another thing I really want is _____.

I learned _____.

Processing questions: Open discussion: The basic goals of these sessions has been 1) to help you look at what you do when you choose to use or not use drugs and/or alcohol and 2) to use that information to figure out what you really want. Have these goals been met? What do you think you've learned? What would you add, subtract, change?

Part II: Looking at Personal Experience - Particularly As It Relates to the Use of Drugs and Alcohol

SESSION 7 - VALUES

Objectives: 1. To clarify desirable or valued consequences of behavior

Procedures: Values
Discussion
Journal

INTRODUCTION: Last session you recorded a rank ordered list of "what does using drugs or alcohol do for you" and one of "what does not using drugs or alcohol do for you." Today you will use these lists for another clue to what you want out of life.

VALUES

Before this session choose one of the two consolidated brainstorm lists: "what using drug and/or alcohol does for you" or "what not using drug and/or alcohol does for you". Picking the list which most exemplifies what the students want out of life.

Set up the room so that there is a separate discussion space for each item (3 feet square should be enough).

Use sheets of paper each with a letter of the alphabet to designate each area.

Have students refer to their own rank orderings of the list "what using does." or what ("not using does"). Explain that each letter in the room stands for an item on the list. Review each item briefly. Have each student go stand by the letter of the item which was first, i.e. most important in her/his own rank ordering. Have students notice who else finds their item most important and who finds different items important. Have them compare (to themselves) what rankings they gave to items others selected as most important. Allow plenty of time for looking around and for short discussion among members sharing the same item. Ask those standing alone how they feel; those standing with a group how they feel. Continue in a similar manner for the item each person ranked second, third and so on until the least important item.

Processing questions: In the large group have people share those items which were more important to them and why. Ask them to give specific examples detailing if possible circumstances and feelings involved. Sample responses from students have included: "I have a big need for thrills. That's why I put thrills and risks as most important. Like I think the thrill of getting high is worth the risk of getting busted. I also like hangliding." "I put feeling comfortable with others as my most important thing. When I smoke dope it makes me express my feelings better, talk more and have a better time. I tell people things I wouldn't dare to tell them when I'm straight."

Ask who feels the same and who feels differently? What accounts for the similarities and differences?

The following are important questions for they help set the stage for part III: Exploring Alternatives. If the activity used the list "what using does for you" ask:

Could you achieve these same things on your own, that is without using drugs and/or alcohol? How?

Ask them to be as specific as possible. Sample responses from students have included:

"To feel rowdy I could scuba dive or get with a lot of people"

"Meditating could get me relaxed."

"Being with special people or persons who are naturally corny."

"Sit in the dark with candles going, use music, & Lava Lamps."

"I get into sports and go shopping"

If the activity used the list "what not using does for you" ask:

What are some different ways you could use to get what you want? Ask them to be as specific as possible.

JOURNAL ENTRY

List the top five things that most students want. Jot down the names of the people you remember who want each thing. Be sure to include yourself.

Part III

Exploring Alternatives

SESSION 1 - SUPPORT GROUPS

Objectives: 1.) To begin to set up ways for considering alternatives which would result in personally valued consequences

Procedures: Note to the Teacher
Support Groups
Journal Entries
Overview of Alternatives for Remaining Sessions

Note to the teacher: Alternatives to drug use

"To recognize that the reasons for drug use are normal in no way commends drug use, but it does provide a different perspective on drug use and a possible response, one that is gaining increased attention and popularity. This response is referred to as alternatives to drug use, and it is relevant to prevention, to early intervention, and to treatment and rehabilitation.

The assumption behind this approach is that people take drugs because they want to, that drug use serves some function, gives them some satisfaction in some area of their lives, and that they will stop using drugs or use less, if they find something better that will serve somewhat the same function, and that often does serve similar functions for non-drug users. The key to the effectiveness of alternatives as a deterrent to drug use is that they provide a more satisfying, or at least more acceptable, way of achieving and responding to the particular experiences sought with drugs. The experiences sought from drugs are myriad and often highly personal as well as social. By definition alternatives must be equally numerous and varied. They must span the physical, sensory, emotional, interpersonal, intellectual, developmental, creative, aesthetic, experiential, philosophical, socio-political. They may be exotic or extremely practical. Dramatic decreases in use of marijuana and hashish occurred spontaneously in a group of students studying meditation. Young men from socio-economically deprived backgrounds and situations in which drug use was high virtually stopped all drug use when enrolled in a job-training program that they perceived as leading fairly directly to the realization of their personal and clearly defined aspirations.¹"

The third part of the curriculum provides a way to help students explore alternatives for getting what they want out of life. The previous session focused on a clearer identification of the major wants of your particular students. In the first session of this part students will form into groups who have similar wants or needs. They will learn some means for identifying different, and hopefully satisfying, ways to meet their needs.

The follow-up sessions will be devoted to exploring the problem-solving process and choosing alternatives to experiment with.

¹Helen Nowlis, Drugs Demystified

After the two or three initial sessions your role will be either as a leader of specific activities to explore new alternatives; for example, teaching social interaction skills, meditation, relaxation, outdoor skills, etc. or as a facilitator of student exploration of new alternatives to drug or alcohol use; for example, giving students a structure for bringing into the classroom teachers, speakers, community members, films, books, etc. which offer alternatives; helping students set up experiences outside of class which provide alternatives such as job training, meditation class at a local ashram, lessons at a ski center, etc.

This curriculum will provide sample sessions in specific activities for exploring new alternatives to drug or alcohol use. You may follow these or you may wish to create your own sessions as the class needs and your skills and knowledge dictate. Ways of facilitating student exploration of alternatives will also be suggested, but specific projects cannot be outlined in detail. You, your students and your community will do that.

SUPPORT GROUPS

Explain to students that today they will be forming support groups. A support group is, as the name implies, a group of people who lend support to one another in pursuit of a common goal. The support groups they form today will be ones whose purpose is to explore alternative ways of getting the most important thing each person wants. In order to form these groups some time will be spent in discussing and thinking about what areas are most important to each individual and which people each person feels most comfortable working with.

(Remind students that in the previous session each person identified "things" that he or she wants most out of life.)
Proceed through the following steps...

- 1.) Ask students to name all the items that they named their "most important things". List these on the board. (Have them refer to their journals if necessary. There will probably be between 1 to 6 items.)
- 2.) Designate a separate area of the room for each "important thing."
(You may wish to post a number for each item corresponding to the list on the board.)
- 3.) Ask each student to go to the area designated for the topic of his/her own "important thing" and discuss with the others what that topic means to them. Allow three minutes or so.
- 4.) Have each group report a short summary - what their topic means to them. Have groups interview each other.
- 5.) Ask each student if another area interests them. Have them go to that area and discuss with others what that topic means to them. Allow three minutes.
- 6.) Ask if students want to talk to people in any other area. If so, allow three minutes for them to go to the area and discuss the topic.

- 7.) Have everyone get up and mill around. Direct them to go to the area of their first choice but tell them this will not be their final choice.

(Remind them that they will be working for the rest of the semester with the people and topic they decide upon.)

Have them respond silently or in their journals to the following questions:

Is this group going to look for alternative ways of getting something you really want?

Are the people in this group people you'd feel comfortable working with?

Look carefully at the people you are with and the people who compose other groups. (Allow a few minutes for reflection.)

- 8.) Have everyone get up again and mill around. Explain that this time they will be making their final choice, a commitment to a support group. Direct them to go to the area of their choice.

Note: There may be five or six groups or only one group. Some groups may be small-2 or 3 people, others very large. The point is that students choose things that they want, goals they have energy for and people they feel able to work with.

Although the activities of these sessions have been geared to helping students clarify what they want, it is quite possible that what they think they want may not turn out to be what they "really" want. Most students at the situational stage know themselves best in relation to particular situations. This means that what they say they want might accurately reflect what they want right now but have less to do with what they generally want out of life.

Students will probably range across a continuum from ability to name what they want right now in situation X (which can change rapidly) to ability to name what they tend to want generally (which will be fairly stable over time). Nevertheless, because of the previous activities, all students will have had lots of practice thinking about feelings, and naming what they want.

Having some sense of what they want, whether it tends to be more situational or more generalized, they can begin to pursue alternative ways of getting what they want. These, too, may range from alternative situations to more generalized alternatives.

What may happen is that students who can better generalize about what they want will be more likely to "stick" with a topic they want to explore alternatives to.

Students on the more situational end of the continuum will appear to "change their minds," what they seem to want one day they will not want the next. This is not really a change of mind but a change of situations. When wants are situation specific, a change of situation can result in a change of wants.

Overview: Explain to the groups the outline for the remaining sessions.

1.) Fantasy and brainstorm as many ways as possible for getting what you want. (about two sessions)

2.) Choose one idea for getting what you want.

This will involve:

a) Figuring out criteria for judging the ideas

b) Rating all the ideas and agreeing upon one
(one or two sessions)

3. Make an action plan for putting your idea into practice.
(one or more sessions and perhaps time outside of class)

This plan can involve using:

a) activities led by the teacher in class

b) activities led by the teacher outside of class

c) activities led by students and others in class

d) activities led by students and others outside of class

4) Be involved in activities which you plan.

(Time in and outside of class for the remainder of the semester)

Questions

Part III: Exploring Alternatives

SESSION 2 - FANTASY

Objective: To begin to identify alternatives which would lead to personally valued consequences

Procedure: Introduction

INTRODUCTION

Explain to students that during the next few sessions they will be coming up with alternative ideas for ways of getting what they want. Sometimes they will be working together in their support groups and sometimes alone or in pairs.

FANTASY

Note: It is important to allow for long pauses between fantasy directions. Although these periods of silence often seem very long to the teacher, experience shows that those involved in the fantasy frequently find the time only just adequate or even too short.

Instructions: Tell the students to get into a comfortable and relaxed position. (Allow 30 seconds). Close your eyes and let your whole body relax. Start from your head and relax all the way down to your toes. (Pause 15 seconds). Breathe in slowly and now breathe out. Breathe in slowly. Breathe out. Now breathe normally (wait 5 seconds). Notice your thoughts for a second (Pause 10 seconds). Now let them go. (Pause 10 seconds).

Now, I want you to think of the topic that your particular support group is concerned with. (Teacher review topics.) I'm going to ask you to think back over your life and remember the times when you've had good experiences with your particular topic. If your topic was _____ think about the times when you felt the most _____. (teacher can change the structure of this sentence depending upon the topics of the students.) I'm going to ask you to remember what you did and things that happened to you. Now think way, way back to when you were a very young child. Can you remember any good experiences that you had concerning your particular topic? (pause 30 seconds)

Can you remember any good experiences concerning your topic in elementary school? (Pause 30 sec.) When you were in junior high school (30 sec.) Last year? (20 sec.) Last month? (15 sec.) Last week (15 sec.)

Now I want you to take a leap into the future. Imagine that you had all the money, all the time and all the people you needed to get what you wanted. You have no restrictions whatsoever. (Pause 15 sec.). Create in your mind an experience which will get you what you want. (Pause 15 sec.) Who is there? What

Part III: Exploring Alternatives

SESSION 3 - BRAINSTORMING

Objective: To begin to identify alternatives which would lead to personally valued consequences.

Procedure: Brainstorming
Criteria
Relaxation Activity

BRAINSTORMING

Instructions: Have students look over the fantasies from last session in their journals. Give them a minute or two. Explain that today's session will involve brainstorming alternatives for getting what they want. They can use their fantasies to help them with their ideas.

Ask students to get into their support groups. Supply each group with chalk and board space, or magic markers and newsprint. Review the rules of brainstorming. Ask each group to take 10 minutes to brainstorm a list of "ways to get what your support group wants."

After the brainstorm have each individual list in her or his journal five to twenty ideas (depending on the length of the list) which seem "the best". Tell them that at this point there is no criteria for making this choice other than what seems good for them. They will make a more careful selection later.

After people have come up with their own lists have them gather in their support groups. Explain to the students that they will be using this list of ideas to come up with a personal plan for getting what they want as well as a plan made with their whole support group for getting what the group members want. The next couple of sessions will concentrate on coming up with a group plan. In doing this they will learn ways to make plans. This experience should make it possible for each student to then come up with a personal plan. In the end ideally each student will have her/his own plan to follow for getting what she or he wants, as well as being part of a group effort to help all members get what they want.

Note: However, there may be some students who have no interest in any group plan and wish only to pursue their own personal plan. Others may find that the group plan is enough for them and have no need for a separate personal plan. Teachers should be aware of these possibilities and help make such options possible. At this point, however, encourage everyone to participate in the group process; provide for individual preferences after the group process has been completed. This will give each student an opportunity for learning how to evaluate alternatives and make plans, thus enabling her/him to make an informed choice about participation in a group plan.

Tell them to take 5 - 10 minutes to decide the group's top 5 - 20 ideas. This will not represent a final decision but merely be a way of getting a "working number" of ideas which can later be evaluated more completely.

(Groups will use different methods for deciding what items are most important. These may include: tallying, voting, consensus, or domination by one or two members. The method each group uses is not particularly important; however, the teacher may recommend that the groups encourage all members to make contributions to the decision-making process.)

CRITERIA

Instructions: (If time permits, proceed with the next step in the process.) Explain that in order to evaluate these ideas fairly, each group needs to establish its own criteria. Doing so will help them get away from merely voting on what's "good" or "bad" and make it possible for them to choose an alternative which has more personal meaning for them. They will use the brainstorming technique for establishing such criteria.

Explain to each support group that topic for brainstorming is:

"Effects on me, others and parts of my life." They are to think of any thing in their lives it is important to consider the effects upon. Examples might be, "Effect upon my relationship with my family, my friends, my academic standing, my physical safety, my free time, etc. Have them label the top of their brainstorming list "Effects upon..." Review the rules of brainstorming if necessary. Allow about five minutes. Save the lists for next session.

RELAXATION ACTIVITIES

Introduction: Students will have been involved in a lot of concentrated activity and may need a "breather." The activities can be used if a short time remains after brainstorming alternatives or if there is extra time after brainstorming criteria. Choose one or more. Sequence in any order that is useful.

ROBOT - RAG DOLL

Instructions: Choose partners. Decide who is A and B. A's will be robots. B's will be their directors. Robots can only move forward. They have no power to think or make decisions. They walk slowly, with stiff arms and legs. B's job is to guide his/her robot and help him/her to avoid hitting walls, furniture and other robots. Tell B's to start their robots and go. After a few minutes have A's and B's reverse roles.

Stop again after a few minutes. Tell A's they are now rag dolls. They are to become totally limp. If possible have A's lay on the floor. B's job is to try to get his/her rag doll to move from one point to another; if he/she is on the floor the task is merely to get the rag doll to stand up. Tell rag dolls to be as limp as

possible. After a few minutes reverse roles.

Processing questions: (optional)

What happened to you in this exercise? How did you feel as a director? As a robot? As a rag doll? What made you feel that way?

RELAXATION: TENSE/RELEASE

Instructions: Have everyone get comfortable. Tell them to try to feel as relaxed as possible. Then ask them to tense each muscle in the body gradually, beginning with the face and neck, proceeding through the shoulders, back, chest, stomach, hips, upper legs, lower legs, feet, toes. Try to increase the tightness in each muscle as much as possible. (Pause 30 seconds) Now reverse the process slowly relaxing, loosening each muscle beginning with the toes and proceeding up the body until the face and neck are relaxed. You may wish to repeat the whole procedure.

Processing questions: (Optional)

Were you able to relax your muscles? What was easy? What was hard?

GROUP MASSAGE

Instructions: Have the group stand in a circle, one person behind another. Each person massages the neck, shoulders and back of the person in front of them. You may wish to reverse directions so people can be massaged by the person to who they gave a massage.

Processing questions: (Optional)

How did it feel to give a massage? Why? How did it feel to receive a massage. Why? What was hard? What was easy? Did this activity help you to relax?

BODY PATS

Instructions: Choose partners. Decide who is A and B. A's are the "patters". B stand in a relaxed position. A's place their hands on B's temples and pat gently but firmly about 10 times with finger tips. A's should keep patting in a steady rhythm and slowly move their hands to B's cheeks, neck, shoulders, upper arms, lower arms, hands, waists, hips, upper legs, lower legs, ankles and then back up the body. Tap about ten times at each new place on the body. Allow a brief rest, then reverse roles.

Processing questions: (Optional)

How did it feel to be the patter? Why? How did it feel to be patted? Why? What was easy? What was hard? Did this activity help you to relax?

RAINDROPS

Instructions: Get into groups of 5 or six. (Use support groups if you wish.) One person lays face down and relaxes as much as possible. Her/his partners take up positions at the person's head, along side either arm, along side either leg and at the feet. At a signal each group member begins tapping lightly with his/her finger tips the part of the person's body nearest them: head, back, legs or feet. They tap as if their fingers were "raindrops" falling gently on their partner. Continue a few minutes. Let everyone who wishes have a turn.

Processing questions: (Optional)

How did it feel to be "rained upon"?

How did it feel to be "raindrops"?

Were you able to relax?

Part III: Exploring Alternatives

SESSION 4 - CHOOSING AN IDEA

Objectives: 1. To choose one or two alternatives to drug and/or alcohol use which will lead to personally valued consequences.

Procedure: Criteria
Rating Grid

CRITERIA

If time allowed in session 3 support groups have already brainstormed lists of criteria which can be used to judge their ideas. These criteria are in the form of "Effects on me, others and parts of my life." If this has not been done see session 3 for directions.

Instructions: After each group has brainstormed its list of criteria, have group members choose from 5 to 10 which they consider most important. This can be done in much the same way that they choose the top 5 - 20 ideas for alternative ways of getting what they want. The teacher may wish to remind the groups to encourage all members to make contributions to the decision making process. Take 5 - 10 minutes. When a decision has been reached have students copy the 5 to 10 most important criteria into their journals. Then mark each criteria X1, X2 or X3: X1 = of less importance, X2 = of moderate importance, X3 = of great importance. For example:

Effect on parents X3
Effect on my brother X1
Effect on school work X2

This will give each criteria a relative "weight" for the next activity: Rating grid.

RATING GRID

Instructions: Pass out dittos or have students each make a chart like the following: The chart reproduced here is partially filled in as an example. Each student works individually. Take students through the procedure step by step.

- Instructions to students:
1. Write one of your group's top 5 - 10 criteria in each "Effect on..." box. Be sure to include your rating of X1, X2 or X3 (everyone in your support group should have the same criteria listed in the same order but you each may have different ratings.)
 2. Write one of your group's top 5 - 20 ideas in each idea space. (Everyone in your support group should have the same ideas listed in the same order.)
 3. Each student rate the first "Effect on..." against each idea. Work down the list of ideas using one effect at a time rather than across all the effects for each idea. This will help you judge each idea in terms of one criteria, instead of judging one idea at a time and perhaps giving that idea all high rating because you like it. Working down makes the process a bit more fair. Rate items 1 through 5, 1 = poor 5 = excellent. Use 3 for neutral or anything that doesn't git or make sense.
 4. After each criteria has been rated against each idea go back and look at "weight" you gave each criteria X1, X2 or X3. If the weight was X1, do nothing. If the weight was X2, go down the column under that effect and multiply each score X2. If the weight was X3, go down the column under that effect and multiply each score X3.

For example:

	Effect on Parents X3	Effect on my brother X1	Effect on my school work X2
6	2	4	3
9	3	1	2
15	5	5	2

This "weighting" will give those criteria you personally think most important more points.

5. Add up the points each idea gets for each criteria and put the totals at the end.
6. Number the idea which gets the most points - 1, the second most points - 2 and so on.

Have students join their support groups. Each member reports how he/she rated each idea. Rather than tell the total points she/he gave each idea it will be easier to have her/him state which idea came out #1, #2, and so on. Have one member record this data. Total the score for each idea.

Example:

	Joe	Pete	Mary	Sue	Jane	Sam	Total
Idea A	1	2	1	3	4	1	12
Idea B	3	6	2	4	2	2	19
Idea C	2	1	4	2	1	3	13
Idea D	6	5	6	5	6	6	34
Idea E	5	4	5	6	5	5	30
Idea F	4	3	3	1	3	4	18

The ideas with the lowest totals are the ones they should pursue. In the example ideas A & C seem to be the "best". The group then chooses one idea they wish to put into action. Next session they will make a plan of action. If time remains use a relaxation activity from session 3.

Part III: Exploring Alternatives

SESSION 5 - ACTION PLAN

Objectives: 1. To design a plan to put the ideas of alternatives to drug or alcohol use into action.

Procedures: Action Plan

- a. Individual plans
- b. Sharing/list consolidation
- c. Planning
- d. Individual contracts
- e. Schedule

ACTION PLAN

- a. Individual plans: "How I would put this idea into action."

Tell the students that for today's session they will be making a plan of action for the "best idea" for drug and/or alcohol use alternatives (chosen by their support group) during our last session. Have them review their notes to recall the one "idea" that they and their particular support groups decided was the best.

Ask them to take ten minutes to write in their journals "How I would put this idea into action." Have them include: Who, What, Where, When, How. (Some students may now decide that their support group's idea is not really their most important idea. Have these students pick the idea they think is best and write an action plan. They can still use the original support group to share their ideas, or they may choose one or more "independents" with whom they wish to share their plan.)

- b. Sharing/list consolidation: When students have completed writing their action plans have them get into their support groups to share one another's plans and to consolidate. list of all the things that need to be done. (Those students who are working as independents can share their plans with their partners and get help in making their plans.)

(At this point the teacher can suggest resources that she or he is able to provide. The teacher may be able to teach such things as: interpersonal skills, camping, meditation, or she/he may know of people and programs the students could contact.) See appendix for sample units and resources in the areas of alternatives to drug/alcohol use.

c. Planning: Have the following procedure for organizing the action plans outlined on newsprint for the students to refer to. Direct the students in following the steps on this list:

1. List all the tasks that must be done.
2. Prioritize the tasks. Decide which tasks which are important.
3. Decide in which order the tasks need to be done, recognizing that some tasks will be done simultaneously.
4. Set deadlines for when each task should be completed.
5. Divide the jobs. Everyone should have a task and if possible one task she/he wants.

d. Individual contracts: Ask the students to write out individual contracts for the work they play to do.

"I will (tasks) - be as specific as possible

by _____ (date) _____

signed _____

If they are working in support groups have them select one person as "keeper of the contracts". If they're working as independents, they may have either the teacher or a partner keep their contract. The contracts will be publicly reviewed by the support groups, teacher, or partners at some date determined by the people involved.

e. Schedule: Have the support groups decide a time (and place if out of class) for the next meeting. In the next meeting the group will probably need to revise the list and deadlines, and, if necessary, renegotiate the contracts.

Ask the support groups to provide a master schedule for the class. This schedule should include the tasks that need to be accomplished, and who will do what jobs and when the jobs are to be completed. It should be posted so all students can be aware of each support group's or independent's activities. This will enable groups who plan to use class time for particular activities (i.e. a session in relaxation technique, or a session on alternative highs) to negotiate the use of class time. The teacher may wish to point out scheduling conflicts and facilitate coordination.

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Write for single courtesy copies:

Clearinghouse
P.O. Box 1701
Washington, D.C. 20013

Alternatives: An Approach to Drug Education

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1510 H. Street N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20005

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P.O. Box 302 A
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APPENDIX B

Self Knowledge Experience Recall Test

The following instructions are to be read aloud to an individual or in a group setting. The numbers in brackets following some of the sentences and phrases indicate the number of seconds the reader should wait before reading the next sentence. The written answer sheets should be handed out before the instructions are given.

Instructions

We are involved in a project which is trying to find out how different people know about themselves. There are two parts to this exercise. First, I will have you close your eyes and help you remember an important experience in your life. Then, I'll ask you to open your eyes and answer some questions. The questions you have in front of you are the only ones we want you to answer. Read it over, so you'll know what they are, and so you understand them. Your answers will be kept in strict confidence and no one except the project staff will see your responses with your name on it. Are there any questions before we begin?

For the first part of this exercise, it is best if you get in a comfortable and relaxed position in your seat. You might want to sit or lie on the floor. Go ahead and get as comfortable and relaxed as you can. Okay? Close your eyes and let your whole body relax, from your head to your toes (5). Take a couple of deep breaths, breathing out any tension (8). Now breathe normally (5). Notice your thoughts for a minute (6). And now let them go (2).

Now, I want you to follow my voice and begin to picture yourself

APPENDIX B (CONTINUED)

and the things that happened in your life. I am going to ask you to think back and remember your life and your experiences. I'll ask you to remember what you did and remember the things that happened to you. We'll start with yesterday and we'll go back as far as you can recall (2). First, can you remember anything important about yourself yesterday (12), last week (10), last month (10), last year (10), three years ago (10), when you were in high school (10), when you were in junior high school (10), when you were in elementary school, when you were a young child (10)?

I want you to find an experience or an event in your life that stands out in your mind, an experience that is somehow important to you. It might be something you will always remember, something you won't ever forget (10). There might be several of these experiences that you can think of, but pick one that you could think about now (20).

Now, I want you to remember that experience as much as you can. First, picture the place where you were. What did it look like, and who was there (10)? Can you picture what you looked like (50)? Now see if you can remember exactly what happened. What did you do and say? What did other people do and say (10)? See if you can remember any of your thoughts, or what you were saying to yourself (10). What were you feeling then (10)? What do you imagine other people were feeling and thinking (10). Can you remember what led up to this experience (10)? And what happened as a result of this experience (10)?

Go ahead and finish the scene/event in your mind. Take your time

APPENDIX B (CONTINUED)

(3) and when you are ready, at your own pace, come back to this room and open your eyes.

The next part is the written section. Take as much time as you need to answer all of the questions. If you need more space you may write on the backs of the pages.

APPENDIX B (CONTINUED)

Number: _____

Experience Recall

Sex: _____

Age: _____

- A. Describe as fully as you can, and in as much detail, the experience you remembered. (Please include what led up to this experience, what your thoughts and feelings were and what the results of this experience were.)

APPENDIX B (CONTINUED)

Number: _____

- B. How was the experience important or special to you then?
- C. How is the experience important or special to you now?
- D. From the experience you just remembered, please describe some things you know about yourself now.

APPENDIX B (CONTINUED)

Number: _____

E. How could knowing this about yourself be useful to you? Specifically, how can it help you get what you want or avoid what you don't want?

F. Do you have any comments about what it was like answering these questions?

APPENDIX B (CONTINUED)
Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI)

Please mark each statement in the following way:

If the statement describes how you usually feel, put a check (✓) in the column, "Like Me."

If the statement does not describe how you usually feel, put a check (✓) in the column "Unlike Me."

There are no right or wrong answers.

	<u>Like Me</u>	<u>Unlike Me</u>
1. I spend a lot of time daydreaming.	_____	_____
2. I'm pretty sure of myself.	_____	_____
3. I often wish I were someone else.	_____	_____
4. I'm easy to like.	_____	_____
5. My parents wish I were someone else.	_____	_____
6. I never worry about anything.	_____	_____
7. I find it very hard to talk in front of the class.	_____	_____
8. I wish I were younger.	_____	_____
9. There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could.	_____	_____
10. I can make up my mind without too much trouble.	_____	_____
11. I'm a lot of fun to be with.	_____	_____
12. I get upset easily at home.	_____	_____
13. I always do the right thing.	_____	_____
14. I'm proud of my school work.	_____	_____

APPENDIX B (CONTINUED)

	<u>Like Me</u>	<u>Unlike Me</u>
15. Someone always has to tell me what to do.	_____	_____
16. It takes me a long time to get used to anything new.	_____	_____
17. I'm often sorry for the things I do.	_____	_____
18. I'm popular with kids my own age.	_____	_____
19. My parents usually consider my feelings.	_____	_____
20. I'm never unhappy.	_____	_____
21. I'm doing the best work that I can.	_____	_____
22. I give in very easily.	_____	_____
23. I can usually take care of myself.	_____	_____
24. I'm pretty happy.	_____	_____
25. I would rather play with children younger than me.	_____	_____
26. My parents expect too much of me.	_____	_____
27. I like everyone I know.	_____	_____
28. I like to be called on in class.	_____	_____
29. I understand myself.	_____	_____
30. It's pretty tough to be me.	_____	_____
31. Things are all mixed up in my life.	_____	_____
32. Kids usually follow my ideas.	_____	_____
33. No one pays much attention to me at home.	_____	_____
34. I never get scolded.	_____	_____
35. I'm not doing as well in school as I'd like to.	_____	_____

APPENDIX B (CONTINUED)

	<u>Like Me</u>	<u>Unlike Me</u>
36. I can make up my mind and stick to it.	_____	_____
37. I really don't like being a boy--girl.	_____	_____
38. I have a low opinion of myself.	_____	_____
39. I don't like to be with other people.	_____	_____
40. There are many times when I'd like to leave home.	_____	_____
41. I'm never shy.	_____	_____
42. I often feel upset in school.	_____	_____
43. I often feel ashamed of myself.	_____	_____
44. I'm not as nice looking as most people.	_____	_____
45. If I have something to say, I usually say it.	_____	_____
46. Kids pick on me very often.	_____	_____
47. My parents understand me.	_____	_____
48. I always tell the truth.	_____	_____
49. My teacher makes me feel I'm not good enough.	_____	_____
50. I don't care what happens to me.	_____	_____
51. I'm a failure.	_____	_____
52. I get upset easily when I'm scolded.	_____	_____
53. Most people are better liked than I am.	_____	_____
54. I usually feel as if my parents are pushing me.	_____	_____
55. I always know what to say to people.	_____	_____
56. I often get discouraged in school.	_____	_____

APPENDIX B (CONTINUED)

	<u>Like Me</u>	<u>Unlike Me</u>
57. Things usually don't bother me.	_____	_____
58. I can't be depended on.	_____	_____

APPENDIX B (CONTINUED)

Weekly Record

Sex _____ Age _____ Code _____

Fill in the number of drinks, cigarettes, pipefuls, pills, etc. you had between the last time you rated yourself and now. Mark the date. (Try to record at least weekly.)

Dates					
1. Cigarettes (number of packs)	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. Beer (number of bottles)	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. Wine (number of drinks)	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. Hard liquor (number of drinks)	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. Marijuana (number of cigarettes or pipefuls)	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. Hashish (number of cigarettes or equivalent)	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
7. Amphetamine - pep pills, bennies, speed, uppers (number of pills)	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
8. Barbituates - yellow jackets, red devils, downers (number of pills)	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
9. Heroin (number of injections or equivalent)	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
10. Hallucinogens - LSD, mescaline, peyote (number of tabs, buttons, etc.)	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
11. Anything else.	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

