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LOYOLA UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

A DESCRIPTION AND A COMPARATIVE EVALUATION

OF A SOCIAL SKILLS TRAINING PROGRAM

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE

SCHOOL OF LOYOLA UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO IN PARTIAL

FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF COUNSELING AND EDUCATIONAL

PSYCHOLOGY

BY

SHEILA MORRISON

Director: Ronald R. Morgan, Ph.D.

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In addition, my deep gratitude is extended to Mike Matoin, who taught me to fear not, and to go for the end and allow the means to provide for themselves.

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DEDICATION

To my two sons Sean and Seth, because of who they are, I was
able to pursue my goals; to my brother Dr. Alan J. Berger who
gave me the confidence to pursue my goals; and to my best
friend Manny who always led me through the clouds

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The structure of our society has changed
significantly often providing fewer opportunities for
children to learn how to interact with others (Rose, 1983).
Krieg (1990) has stated that the dramatic societal changes
in the past two decades has resulted in decreased family
stability with children growing up with a sense of
loneliness, isolation, rejection, and fear of abandonment.
He further stated that by age nine, defense mechanisms of
"don't talk, don't trust, don't feel," are in place. That
is to say that the family which in the past provided the
foundation for interpersonal relationships may no longer be
serving this function. In many instances, the family may
actually be promoting faulty social skills training.

This unstable family situation may increase the
possibility of emotional problems as well as other problems.
For example, poor peer relationships have been connected to
maladjustment in later life, (Elliott, Sheridan, & Gresham,
1989; Hughes & Sullivan, 1988; Ladd & Mize, 1983; Oden,
1983; Pellegrini and Urbain, 1985). Hepler (1991) reported
that students with poor peer relationships are more likely
to drop out of school, more likely to be truant, more likely
to be retained and more likely to become juvenile

delinquents. White and Blackham (1985) found that not only did interpersonal skills directly relate to later adjustment, but they also found that interpersonal deficiencies in children are very high. Elliot, Sheridan, & Gresham (1989) cited research evidence indicating that deficiencies in social skills in young children remain stable if untreated. Therefore, the problem appears to be pervasive and requires intervention if later adjustment problems are to be avoided. Research has also shown that children who are socially competent have few mental or emotional disorders (Rose, 1983) and that skill acquisition in the area of interpersonal relationships can promote mental health (Nelson and Carson, 1988). Given what is reported above, focus on improving peer relationships would appear to be a rational pursuit with respect to prevention.

Much has been written about prevention. Traditionally, the remedial approaches that have been used in the mental health professions have been described as "too little, too late," (Pellegrini & Urbain, 1985). Most prevention programs are put into effect once a child is identified as high risk usually subsequent to some problematic behavior that has been exhibited. Prevention is typically no more than early intervention. With regard to prevention programs for suicide, Garland and Zigler (1993) view the current approach as somewhat retrospective. "...in fact, they are not truly primary prevention because their purpose is to

encourage the identification of adolescents at risk for suicide, rather than to reduce the prevalence of risk factors in the population," (Garland and Zigler, 1993, p. 176). Cowen & Hightower (1990) refer to mental health's approach to treatment as an "end-state" mentality. Help is offered when the need is "forced" to the attention of others and this is when intervention tends to resist change (Cowen & Hightower, 1990). With changing family, economic, and societal precepts, all children can be considered to be at risk.

Interpersonal relationship deficits have been studied in terms of specific skill deficits including low self-esteem (Kennedy, 1988). Studies have also focused on resiliency. One factor that distinguishes resilient children from non-resilient children is their self-concept. Therefore, if self-concept can be improved, perhaps a child is less at risk. If a program can be shown to improve a child's self-concept, then prevention of social and emotional problems may have been achieved.

Finally, schools provide a logical place to conduct primary prevention programs and social skills training programs (Cowen & Hightower, 1990; Severson, 1984). Primary prevention requires a more global approach that builds social competence, problem-solving skills training, and mental health education (Garland & Zigler, 1993).

The study to be described in what follows was designed

in an effort to document the possible relationship between a social skills training program and the improvement in interpersonal relationships and self-concepts of fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students. In this study, self-concept was viewed in terms of self-esteem as measured by perception of peer popularity, academic competence, and personal security. Social Competence and interpersonal relatedness were examined in terms of cooperation, assertion, empathy, and self-control. Gender differences and grade level differences were also considered to determine if these factors influence the efficacy of a training program.

The overall purpose of the study was to determine if social skills training has an effect on students' self-concept. It was anticipated that students would become aware of alternative behavioral responses to specific social situations and develop a greater knowledge of group and individual differences. The assumption was that with this increased awareness and knowledge, students would be viewed as being more socially competent. It was expected that a focus on prevention would be found to be more economical than intervention efforts both financially and in terms of the investment of human resources. Since low self-esteem and poor interpersonal relationships have been linked with high risk behaviors (Elliott, Sheridan, & Gresham, 1989; Hughes & Sullivan, 1988; Kennedy, 1988; Ladd & Mize, 1983;

Oden, 1983; Pellegrini and Urbain, 1985), increasing student self-esteem and relationships appears to be a viable goal.

Two-hundred-twenty-eight fourth (n=81), fifth (n=66), and sixth (n=81) grade students attending a suburban school district served as subjects in the study. There were three treatment groups, each at a different grade level and three control groups at each grade level. The students in the experimental groups (n=136) participated in a specially designed program directly aimed at improving social skills. The control subjects, (n=92) attended a school that emphasized the development of social skills but they did not follow a specialized program of training. The treatment groups consisted of forty-nine fourth grade students, forty-two fifth grade students, and forty-five sixth grade students. Thirty-two fourth grade, twenty-four fifth grade, and thirty-five sixth grade students in a neighboring school in the same suburban elementary school district served as control subjects. The experimental part of the study was conducted in three phases (pretest, treatment, post test). All students completed the <u>Self-Esteem Index</u> (Brown & Alexander, 1991) and the <u>Social Skills Rating System Elementary Student Form</u> questionnaire (Gresham and Elliott, 1990) was completed by each student in the fall and again in the spring. The classroom teacher also completed the <u>Social Skills Rating System Elementary Teacher Form</u> questionnaire

(Gresham and Elliott, 1990) for each student in the classroom in the fall and spring. In addition, the physical education teacher and music teacher completed the teacher form for each student in the experimental group only.

The experimental group students, received three different levels of treatment. All experimental subjects took part in a monthly assembly that provided the focus for the month, and participated in a classroom activity designed to improve social skills for twenty minutes per week. In addition, fifth grade students met in groups of no more than eight members once a month, and sixth grade students met in groups of no more than eight students every other week. The overall focus of the assemblies, classroom activities, and small groups was social skills training through development of interpersonal relationships and self-esteem. The program covered a seven month period.

In addition, the relationship of student ability level and achievement level to social skills was systematically examined.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The literature is replete with studies that indicate that early social skills deficits are often related to later maladjustment (Asarnow & Callan, 1985; Elliott et al., 1989; Guralnick & Weinhouse, 1983; Ladd & Mize, 1983; Mehaffey & Sandberg, 1992; Merrell, 1993; Oden, 1983; Rathjen, 1984; Rose, 1983). Much research has been conducted in an attempt to determine the efficacy of social skills training in the schools and to show that social skills training is effective and necessary as an ongoing component of the regular educational curriculum. The research literature has focused on IQ, achievement, developmental level, gender, socioeconomic status, and group dynamics in relationship to social skills treatment and outcomes. Developmental issues related to social competence have been studied in terms of maturation, learning, cognition, friendship, and moral reasoning. The prevailing assumption is that normal development cannot occur without social interaction (Claiborn, Kerr, & Strong, 1990; Conger & Keane, 1981; Rubin, 1982). Good interpersonal relationships promote mental health (Nelson and Carson, 1988). Social

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interactions and relationships are believed to be essential
in the growth of the individual; it is through relationships
that an individual defines himself or herself and his or her
world. "...a person seeks relationship as a natural vehicle
for clarifying ideas and enriching them. Regarding the
latter, there are limits to what a lone individual can bring
to ideas..." (Youniss, 1987, p. 145). Much adaptive social
behavior is learned through group interactions (Claiborn et
al., 1990). The importance of peers in the development of
prosocial behaviors and the critical time for learning these
behaviors in the early and middle school years, make the
school an excellent place for social skills training
programs (Zahn-Waxler, et al., 1982). Practice of new
skills is important and the classroom is considered to be an
excellent site for the practice of social skills.
Therefore, social skills training in the classroom makes
sense (Ladd & Mize, 1983; Rose, 1983). Severson (1984) also
supports social skills training in the schools "...the
efficiency of conducting a program in public schools, which
provide nicely organized classroom groups, cannot be
minimized" (Severson, 1984, p. 150). That is to say that
the that schools serve large numbers of students which is
cost effective and provide for numerous opportunities for
the systematic assessment of social skills training
programs.

In considering the relevance of social skills training and addressing the question of long-term effects, the research program of Nancy Eisenberg (1987) should be considered. Although studies in this area are limited, Eisenberg found that children who had been taught to help others remain helpful. She theorized that "people who are induced, often in the course of social interaction, to behave positively or to commit to positive behavior are more likely to act in a consistent manner at a subsequent time," (Eisenberg, p. 30). It is in the schools that most children learn to interact with one another and develop social competence (Rose, 1983). However, not all children learn social competency skills on their own and for some we need to provide programs designed to enhance what are considered to be desirable social skills (Combs & Slaby, 1978). In this chapter, an attempt is made to address relevant topics related to the development of social competence. First the need for social skills training due to dramatic societal changes is discussed. The resulting need for preventative programs is then reviewed. Having built a case for the need for social skills training programs, the issue of evaluating programs by means of behavior rating scales is discussed. After which, issues related to social competence including developmental level, gender, IQ, achievement, and socioeconomic status are presented. Finally, the importance of group dynamics in

developing and evaluating a social skills program is reviewed.

Societal changes

Our society is decidedly different than the society of 25 years ago in many respects. A recent study reported that 7.5 million or 12% of children in this country experience mental health problems (Jones, Sheridan, & Binns, 1993). A recent Gallup survey revealed alarming statistics with respect to youth suicide. The results of the survey indicated that 5,000 completed suicides and over 500,000 attempts are made each year by American youths (Ackerman, 1993). From 1969 to 1988, the suicide rate increased 17% for the general population and 200% for adolescents (Garland and Zigler, 1993). These high rates support the notion that many youths are very vulnerable to stress and are at high risk with respect to committing suicide. Social problem solving ability has consistently been shown to be a mediating factor in coping with stress. On the other hand, deficits in this area have been found to be associated with suicidal behavior (Garland & Zigler, 1993). Combs, et al., (1977) stated that social competence affects every aspect of a person's life. These skills are learned through interactions with others including the adults and peers in a child's life. In his study of juvenile delinquents, Gibbs (1987) discussed lack of empathy (in part) as resulting from limited opportunities in social role-taking which resulted

in delayed sociomoral development. "These delays are in turn seen as attributable to inadequate social role-taking opportunities at school, at work, at social gatherings and especially at home" (Gibbs, 1987, p. 305). He considered high risk children as those from harsh environments who have had little experience with compensating role-taking opportunities. Rathjen (1984) pointed out that socially incompetent children do not tend to outgrow their incompetencies. Serious risk factors include poverty, alcoholic families, abusive households, and single-parent families (Jones et al., 1993). These damaging determinants are becoming more and more prevalent. "The likelihood of children at risk developing behavioral or emotional disorders increases directly as they feel greater levels of stress and as they possess an increasing number of vulnerabilities" (Jones et al. 1993, p. 58).

Social competence, on the other hand, is developed through positive interaction. Shweder and Much (1987) studied the acquisition of beliefs and found that beliefs are originated and constructed through talk, conversation, discourse, and customary practice. Further, beliefs are reconstructed from traditional perspectives and evaluations of everyday encounters. Unfortunately, our society and culture is creating an increasingly socially deficient population. The emphasis on competitiveness rather than cooperation has decreased our ability to interact and

problem solve with others. Aggression has been shown to increase noncooperative peer interaction (Tanner & Holliman, 1988). In addition, there is a high correlation between suicidal behavior and antisocial, aggressive behavior (Garland & Zigler, 1993). Increased aggression and violence in our society through television, parental modeling, and aggressive sports continually expose children to poor expressions of social behavior. "Societal factors may currently be operating to foster a high degree of antisocial behavior" (Combs & Slaby, 1977, p. 194). Therefore, programs that are designed to improve social skills in children are believed to be essential. In addition, the home is usually the place where students learn the basis of their social interactions. If these skills are not learned at home, children enter the school with what is considered to be a deficit. Many of these children are exposed to social interactions that are likely to become failure situations. Bandura's theory of social learning requires the presence of skilled adult models to facilitate the learning of social behaviors. These models may be lacking in some homes due to societal changes and the break down of families. Given what is reported above, the school, does seem to be a logical place in which to fulfill the need for positive adult role models to promote social behavior learning (Rathjen, 1984).

Prevention

Considering the large body of literature that links social competence with later adjustment, social skills training seems to be a viable avenue for prevention. Social workers have become increasingly concerned as their caseloads expand making it impossible to individually treat each case. It is estimated that only 20 to 30 percent of the children at risk receive the help they need. As a result, large scale preventive or interventive efforts are needed (Rose, 1983). Schoolwide programs that promote social skills can address a greater number of students and improve coping skills (Jones et al., 1993).

Social competence appears to have protective qualities in the face of adversity. High social competence has been related to ability to withstand negative environments, recover from trauma, and resist stress and psychopathology (Garmezy & Masten, 1991). While poor peer relationships are a risk factor for depression in early adolescence, good peer relationships in later adolescence protect against depression. Petersen, et al. (1993) theorized that social skills training programs may help young people deal with situations that lead to depression. Masten (1989) found that competence is stable and predictive of later adjustment. Social competence has been found to prevent students from giving up or turning to self-destructive or antisocial behavior. Competence has also functioned to keep

students who are just beginning to experience difficulty from withdrawing (Elias, Gara, Schuyler, Branden-Muller, & Sayette, 1991). Masten (1989) found that environmental factors including community social support networks can have protective and compensatory features that contribute to resiliency (Masten, 1989). In his book on preventive psychiatry, Caplan (1964) emphasized the need to not only look at the individual's ability to adjust, but also the need to improve the environment. For children, the school is a significant component of their social world. The National Teen Suicide Audit consisted of a series of questions directed at determining what youths considered to be the primary influences on their behavior; 47% of the respondents identified school as exerting a great influence (Ackerman, 1993). Given this finding, it would seem that schools should begin to recognize this influence and address the current needs which are not entirely academic.

Masten (1991) reported that in populations of high risk students, good parenting can provide protection from the "risk." Also with populations of high risk students where the home is considered to be problematic, positive school experiences can lessen the effects of stressful home environments (Masten, Best, & Garmezy, 1991). Social skills training has been shown to have both immediate and long-term positive effects. Immediate effects that have been reported include parents' increased involvement in their child's

school and teachers' increased sensitivity to social aspects of the child's world. In addition, students benefit from social skills training in terms of increases in self-esteem, social interaction and decision making skills, better identification and communication of feelings, and improved academic performance (Burness, 1992).

Social skills training programs in the past typically have not been considered for use with the general school population. Special populations or selected, identified students have been the target groups for most social training programs. Research has supported the selection of specific groups. For example, in a longitudinal follow-up study of first and third graders who had been identified as "at risk," Cowen, Pederson, Babigian, Izzo, & Trost (1973) found a disproportionately high number of these students on the County Psychiatric Register eleven to thirteen years later. Appearance on the Register indicated that the individual had sought help for a mental health issue. "Clinically judged vulnerability, based on early ineffective school performance and behavior...has predictive value in identifying those who experience later more severe psychiatric difficulties," (Cowen et al., 1973). Children identified in the first three years of school are overrepresented in maladjusted groups in later years. In addition, those with significant psychiatric problems were

identified six to seven years before the problems reached the level of actually seeking help (Cowen et al., 1973).

In spite of evidence that early indicators may target at-risk groups, the identification of students in need of intervention has been criticized. In determining which behaviors to promote, antiquated ideas related to sex roles and race may be perpetuated. In addition, over-conformity and oversensitivity to social approval may become unwanted by-products (Kennedy, 1988). Unfortunately, much of the work in social skills training has been done with unpopular and/or social isolates. For example, Combs et al. (1978) pointed out that many studies have focused on a small group of "deviant" children or social isolates. Dweck (1981) concluded that social isolates may not be the only population with poor coping skills. She speculated that even popular children may consider their few negative social experiences as social rejection over which they have no control. Therefore, a case can be made for developing social skills programs for the general school population and not only for those students who have been identified as having difficulties in interpersonal relationships (Dweck, 1981). The exclusion of social training to "unpopular" children is based on a value judgement that all children should be popular. In spite of some evidence that links unpopular children to later maladjustment, the consequences of trying to make all children "popular" must also be

considered. Allen (1981) speculated that some unpopular children may compensate through intellectual or creative pursuits and thus offer valuable contributions to society. It is interesting to note that although Allen is not convinced of his own speculation, his consideration is worth some attention when selecting a population who will receive social skills training (Allen, 1981). He further cautions that popularity may not be the desired outcome. "It would follow that teaching a child the skills needed for popularity may be less desirable than teaching discriminative skills - those skills needed to differentiate among other persons on the basis of their friendship-worthiness" (Allen, 1981, p. 201).

Kennedy (1988), also cautioned against possible negative effects in selection of subjects and also warned against the possible negative effects of the selection of specific targeted social skills. Many researchers have hypothesized that maladjusted children lack specific social skills including the ability to generate solutions to social problems. For example, Asarnow & Callan (1985), compared boys rated as "positive" or "negative" in regard to peer status. They found that negative boys generated fewer solutions to social problems, used less prosocial and more aggressive possible solutions, judged aggressive solutions more positively and prosocial actions more negatively, and used maladaptive planning. Their study linked solution

generation to social adjustment. "These result provide an
independent replication of prior findings of a link between
the ability to generate alternative solutions to
interpersonal problems and social adjustment" (Asarnow &
Callan, 1985, p. 85). Asher & Renshaw (1981) and Renshaw
& Asher (1982) found that unpopular children were deficient
in social skills and inferred that the deficiency may be the
cause rather than the consequence of being unpopular.
Conversely, Dweck (1981) surmised that differences in social
isolates and others might not be due to lack of social
skills, but due to other personality characteristics. Dweck
studied children who gave up in the face of challenges and
children who were mastery oriented in the same situation.
She found that the mastery-oriented children did not have
more skills than the helpless children, but that the
helpless group attributed their failures to a lack of
ability and considered the challenge insurmountable whereas
the mastery-oriented children attributed their failures to
difficulty of the task. Dweck concluded that the most
effective programs are those that teach the potentiality
between the child's actions and social outcomes. The most
effective change with these children occurred with
"attribution retraining."

Coie & Kupersmidt (1983) attempted to determine if the
placement of children in high status or low status groups
was the result of social skills deficits or if social skills

deficits resulted from placement in low status groups.
Aggressive and self-referent behavior was more prevalent in
the low status group which could be the cause of low status
or the result of low status. Students were placed in groups
of familiar or unfamiliar peers to determine whether the
student would employ specific social skills to establish
their status or to maintain their status. The results
showed that not only do students reestablish the same
patterns, they do it quickly. "For the first time there is
solid evidence that these children will ... produce a
similar impact across totally distinct social settings"
(Coie & Kupersmidt, 1983, p. 1412). However, specific
behaviors may result from membership in a particular status
group. In the Coie & Kupersmidt study, off-task behavior
that is common of rejected boys developed as the status of
the group members was solidified. Therefore, off-task
behavior of rejected boys seems to be a result of low status
rather than a cause of low status. Only the neglected boys
were able to change their status in unfamiliar groups
suggesting that their behaviors were maintained by the
perception of their social status. "The presence of
familiar peers seems to have kept the neglected boys locked
into old social patterns" (Coie & Kupersmidt, 1983,
p. 1415).

Motivation behind interactions has also been
systematically examined. Children whose social interactions

are met with rejection begin to adapt through withdrawal or a seemingly depressed awareness of the rejection (Kafer, 1982). Although these behaviors are purposeful as they reduce the child's risk of being (or feeling) rejected, they reduce acquisition of social skills and peer acceptance. In Kafer's study, he found that children were able to encode emotions on unfamiliar faces at about eight or nine years old. However, children who used avoidant strategies in social situations, were not able to consistently read emotions on unfamiliar faces at ages 10 to 12 years (Kafer, 1982). Kafer argues that a more effective approach to social training may be to explore the motivation or purpose behind student interactions, rather than simply looking at deficient skills. "...increasing a child's frequency of interaction is not sufficient for the development of appropriate skills" (Kafer, 1982, p. 258).

Given what is reported above, it seems fair to say that the literature supports the supposition that social skills training programs can improve peer interactions, interrupt negative patterns, and promote greater social competence.

Identifying a select population of "at-risk" students has taken too narrow a view of the risk that students now face. The Gallup survey on youth suicide yielded the finding that 60% of the students surveyed knew a teen who attempted suicide and 15% of those surveyed had considered suicide themselves disconfirming the belief that there is a

limited group at risk (Ackerman, 1993). Cowen & Hightower (1990) criticize the limited offerings of the mental health profession that focuses on the most serious problems while ignoring seemingly less important problems that may become equally serious later. "Many others whose difficulties are less apparent or socially disruptive are left to fend as best they can, or simply sink into a swirling whirlpool of failure. Unfortunately, many early school difficulties, left unattended, mount and fan out as time passes" (Cowen & Hightower, 1990, p. 776).

Recently, researchers have begun to look at the value of a more generalized use of social skills training programs. "Social skills training...is not only a way to correct inappropriate behavior in problem children but also a potentially important way to improve the lives of all children" (Combs, & Slaby, 1977, p. 197). Masten (1991) has also suggested that a more global approach is in order. Pellegrini & Urbain (1985) suggested that teaching social skills to well functioning children will provide them with coping skills that can be employed when confronted with life stresses. Schools can provide programs that have protective qualities. Building self-esteem is an effective way to "protect" the child (Masten, 1989; Masten, 1991).

When considering a global approach in terms of who to treat, one must consider individual differences as well. For example, the results of the Coie & Kupersmidt (1983)

study in which there were different results for high status versus low status students suggested that prevention and intervention have been far too generalized and that behavior may be more specific for some types of children. Although this dissertation research project does not address students with handicapping conditions, when we consider improving the lives of all children, students with handicaps must also be considered. Andersen (1988) stresses the importance of teaching skills for these children as well.

Pellegrini & Urbain (1985) dichotomized social skills training programs into primary and secondary prevention programs. Primary prevention was aimed at currently well-functioning individuals who might experience later difficulties if they are exposed to stress and lack coping skills. Secondary prevention programs focused on children at risk, presenting emerging interpersonal problems, yet believed to be susceptible to change (Pellegrini & Urbain, 1985). Cowen & Hightower (1990) consider true primary prevention as those programs that promote the well-being of all children from the start.

In a six year follow-up study of a two year elementary primary prevention program conducted by Elias et al. (1991), the experimental group students exceeded the control group students in overall achievements. In language arts and math, the experimental group subjects (E2) who received the highest level of training were the only subjects who

exceeded the controls. Therefore, the more intense the intervention, the greater the gains. Due to low achievement levels in the district, the school district adopted a remedial program after the fifth year which resulted in no differences among the groups at the sixth year follow-up. The remedial program, in effect, brought the control group up to the level of the treatment group. Therefore, there is some evidence that early intervention can save the school district the cost of expensive remedial programs later. One might argue that it would be as cost effective to simply employ remedial programs rather than early social skills training. It should be noted that although achievements were effectively remediated, other gains support the efficacy of social skills training. Absenteeism rates for the E2 group subjects were significantly lower than the absenteeism rates for control group subjects. Further findings showed that experimental subjects had lower rates than the control subjects on the use of alcohol, vandalism, physical aggression, providing alcohol for others, and/or use of tobacco (Elias et al., 1991). Control subjects were found to be higher than experimental subjects on measures of unpopularity and self-destructive/identity problems (boys only). The experimental subjects demonstrated higher self-efficacy than the control subjects.

The overall pattern of findings suggests that those students who had received a two-year social decision-

making and problem-solving program in elementary school

showed higher levels of positive prosocial behavior and

lower levels of antisocial, self-destructive, and

socially disordered behavior when followed up in high

school four to six years later than did the control

students who had not received this program (Elias

et al., 1991, p. 415).

In addition, the results indicated a positive association

between level of training and the children's ability to cope

with stress. "Taken together, the ... results constitute

one of the strongest findings to date of the potential

preventive value of social problem solving programs..."

(Elias et al., 1991, p. 273). Clearly, effective social

skills training programs are cost effective. Burness (1992)

also concluded that prevention at the elementary level

lowers the possibility of academic and social problems in

subsequent years as well as reducing the resulting financial

cost that these problems incur.

Elias et al. (1991) concluded that intervention in

elementary school was necessary but not sufficient.

Although reporting many positive gains in his longitudinal

follow-up study, continued reinforcement of programs are

believed to be necessary to maximize long-term benefits.

"From this perspective, an 'inoculation' approach to

preventive intervention with intended long-term effects

should perhaps be rethought to include the enhancement of

corresponding environmental supports over time" (Elias et al., 1991, p. 416). One factor that is important in increasing peer interaction is the opportunity to participate in social interactions and in social roles. Increasing participation through various roles has yielded some positive effects. However, these effects tend to dissipate for isolated children once the contrived situation has been discontinued. Therefore, it is important that social interaction opportunities be maintained (Asher, Oden, & Gottman, 1977). Considering the huge cost of failure to society as well as the individual, preventive programs operating within the context of the schools do appear to be viable (Cowen & Hightower, 1990). In sum, the importance of social skills training programs in the schools has been well supported in the literature. At this time, the important issues to be addressed concern the fine tuning of training programs and determining which programs will be most effective for a given child and in a given setting (Rathjen, 1984).

Behavior Rating Scales and Efficacy for Assessment

A lack of normative data, varying methodology from study to study, and low correlations between obtained sores and observational data have been criticisms of assessment techniques used to evaluate social skills programs (White & Blackham, 1985). Sociometric assessments or peer ratings have been used extensively in the research conducted thus

far and has been questioned by many. In a study by Gresham
& Stuart (1992) peer nominations were found to produce high
levels of both false negatives and false positives.
"...exclusive use of peer nominations as dependent measures
to evaluate the effects of social skills training programs
is not recommended, given the low stability estimates of
these scores and measurement error associated with them"
(Gresham & Stuart, 1992, p. 230).

Rating scales, on the other hand, are considered to
have utility since they provide information concerning
behaviors observed in the natural setting (school
environment) over longer periods of time than would be
practical through direct observation techniques. The
information obtained from rating scales has been reported to
be more objective and reliable than information obtained
from interviews and projective techniques (Merrell, 1993).
Rating scales provide objective data and can be obtained
from various sources. Teacher ratings are reliable and
valid evaluations of social behaviors (Dodge & Murphy, 1984;
Gresham & Elliott, 1984; Hughes & Sullivan, 1988) and
provide data on a wide range of behaviors in the natural
setting.

Student ratings are useful in providing information
about the student's perceptions that may not be easily
observed. Self-reports also provide information about the
individual's own thoughts. However, Gresham & Elliott

(1984) concluded that self-reports are not predictive of peer acceptance, peer popularity, teacher ratings, role play performance, or social behavior (Gresham & Elliott, 1984). To address this concern, Gresham and Elliott authored the Social Skills Rating System which has been regarded highly. Jones et al. (1993) reported that there have been few reliable, valid, and practical social skills rating scales, however, the Social Skills Rating System (SSRS) has been considered to be one of the best.

Developmental Issues Associated with Social Competence

In developing and evaluating social skills training programs, it is considered to be crucial to consider developmental changes in social cognitive skills, (Asarnow & Callan, 1985). Behaviors that are considered socially competent at one age, may not be at another age. Role taking ability, conceptions of friendship, and interpersonal problem-solving skills change with age (Kennedy, 1988).

The capacity for interpersonal problem solving develops significantly between second and sixth grades (White & Blackham, 1985). From an information processing perspective, children at ages seven to nine are able to solve transposition and reversal problems. From ages nine to ten, they are able to use elaboration and classifications to organize memory. At this same time, participation in organized games with rules increases (Scarr, Weinberg, & Levine, 1986).

Piaget's developmental theory places fourth to sixth graders well into the concrete operations stage (ages 6 to 12). At this stage, the child can think beyond personal experiences and immediate perceptions (Scarr et al., 1986; Schwartz & Eagle, 1986). Piaget attributed this new perspective to peer play that allows peer conflict and resolution which develops the ability to compromise (Rubin, 1982). Between the ages of seven to twelve the child develops linguistic competence and has developed the capacity for decentered thinking. Thinking has moved from egocentric to sociocentric (Kurtines, 1987). By sixth grade, children are in the Formal Operations stage in which abstract reasoning emerges. The child is able to formulate hypotheses, use deductive reasoning, and mentally check solutions (Scarr, Weinberg, & Levine, 1986). At this level, the child is able to distance himself or herself from the situation and look at it from an objective standpoint (Kurtines, 1987). Elias et al. (1991) described the developmental transitory period from ages 11 to 13 as critical for the beginning of the internalization of generalized coping or problem-solving strategies. Means-end thinking appears to be a higher order skill that does not emerge until sometime in middle childhood (Pellegrini & Urbain, 1985).

While Dweck (1981) pointed out that cognitive developmental level is important in the study of social

skills, the differences between nonsocial and social cognition must also be recognized. "...social skills and social cognitions may differ in important and interesting ways from skills and cognitions that are not social" (Dweck, p. 333).

Significant developmental changes in social cognition occurs during the two year period from fourth to sixth grade with greater ability to inhibit intense aggressive responses. Asarnow & Callan (1985) found that fourth grade boys were more likely to generate solutions that were aggressive than were sixth grade boys who were more likely to use ignoring as a solution. In addition, sixth graders rated ignoring more positively than fourth graders. Fourth graders also considered "tattling" more positive than ignoring. They also found that preadolescents with adjustment problems find solutions that are less effective than their better adjusted peers and are more likely to respond impulsively and aggressively (Asarnow & Callan, 1985). This suggests a possible developmental delay in social cognition as the behavior of those with adjustment problems was more similar to younger students. Clearly, these developmental cognitive stages impact social interactions as well as the ability of the student to participate in group processes. Whereas fourth graders may be bound by real events, fifth graders (emerging) and sixth graders may be better able to formulate questions and

solutions to hypothetical situations. These changes will have an affect on the outcomes of social skills training programs presented at various grade levels.

Self-concept develops during middle childhood with seven and eight year olds describing themselves in terms of physical features and activities. As the child becomes older, descriptions include personality traits and later interpersonal traits, shifting from physical characteristics to internal psychological factors (Scarr, Weinberg, & Levine, 1986). Selman (1980) described the development of cognitive role taking and affective role taking. He discussed this development in the context of highly overlapping age categories. From ages 7 to 12, the child realizes that others can think about what he is thinking, and between ages 10 to 15, he develops the ability to think about two viewpoints and their influences on each other. "In effect, the child can step back from a two person relationship and watch how he and another person interact from the viewpoint of a third party," (Scarr, Weinberg, & Levine, 1986, p. 467).

Much of the literature has explored psychological processes of learning and maturation and has focused on the effect these processes have upon social skill development. This approach does not take into consideration the reciprocal integration of both learning and maturation with social interaction (Kurtines, 1987). For the most part, the

research literature does not address interactional stages
(Berkowitz, Oser, & Althof, 1987).

Hallinan (1981) admonished that the research is limited
in studying age as a significant component in friendship
development. "As a result, sociometric studies as yet do
not provide a clear understanding of how the maturation
process affects children's friendship patterns or how
individual level characteristics such as sex and ability
interact with age to influence friendships" (Hallinan, p.
112).

Development of friendships is an important component in
studying social interactions as friendships are important in
social development in general. Most children learn about
their social world through their peers (Rubin, 1982).
"Friendship relations may foster the development of social
concepts that may initially be features of friendship but
are eventually extended to interpersonal functioning beyond
the confines of the relation" (Smollar & Youniss, 1982, p.
279). It is through friendship that cooperation, mutual
respect and interpersonal sensitivity develops. These
characteristics follow a developmental course. Friendships
change from dependence on frequent association to issues of
intimacy and trust (Scarr et al.,1986). Friendships at ages
ten to eleven are based on shared ideas and feelings.

Just as self-concept develops, children's perceptions
of others also develops. At age nine, conformity to peers

is paramount. Conformity is later followed by more awareness of individual differences. A child describes a person according to a specific, unchanging attribute such as a "good" person. From ages twelve to fourteen, the child is able to view another in more multidimensional terms. That is, the child begins to recognize that others react differently in different situations (Scarr et al., 1986). At this age, children become increasingly aware of others opinions and expectations. They become self-conscious and use social comparisons for self-evaluation (Scarr, Weinberg, & Levine, 1986). The most important factor in friendship reported by ten to eleven year olds was the ability to get along with one another or cooperation. For the 13 to 14 year olds, the chief characteristic of the friendship reported was protection and emotional support which is reciprocal (Smollar & Youniss, 1982). From ages 12 to 15, the role of society and the value of social conventions are integrated into the child's social constructs (Scarr, Weinberg, & Levine, 1986).

The ability to share an emotion with another or to predict another's emotional reaction also develops through middle childhood. Selman (1981), reviewed recent literature and found similar findings among the studies supporting the developmental aspects of friendships. "As children grow older, they appear to have conceptions of friendship that rely increasingly on an understanding of the psychological

interdependence between persons..." (Selman, 1981, p. 247).
Understanding another's motivation as well as the
individual's personality traits develops through cognitive
growth and social experience (Scarr, et al., 1986). By ages
16 to 17, emotional support becomes the most salient feature
of the friendship and the reason goes beyond the mutual
respect for one another to the concept that emotional
support is due the other not because he is a friend but
because he is a person. This represents interpersonal
sensitivity (Smollar & Youniss, 1982). Friendships
developed at early ages have important consequences
throughout life. Although friendships may end, the
framework for social interaction is established. "Although
any given friend relation may end, the conceptual framework
about the relation remains to be extended to other persons,
to new relations, and to social functioning in general"
(Smollar & Youniss, 1982, p. 295).

Stein and Goldman (1981) studied the development of
friendship of six, nine, and twelve year olds. Only the
twelve year olds demonstrated the knowledge that shared
interests facilitate a friendship and that the other person
(friend) may have other interests that interfere with the
development of a friendship (Stein & Goldman, 1981). This
represents a significantly different developmental level
when compared to the nine year old group. The study also
showed that the development was systematic; twelve year olds

knew all the aspects of friendship that the nine and six

year olds knew, and the nine year olds knew all the

information that the six year olds knew (Stein & Goldman,

1981). Similarly, Stone & Selman (1982) found that

developmental differences occur in the range of behaviors or

strategies available. Children at the highest levels will

employ a range of strategies from those learned at the

lowest level up to their present level of functioning (Stone

& Selman, 1982). From ages 10-11, children describe their

friends in terms of doing things together. Between ages 14-

16, close friends discuss personal problems and feelings

(Smollar & Youniss, 1982). Stein, et al. (1981) found that

six year olds' knowledge base about friendship did not

highly correlate with their level of friendship, but that

there was a significant correlation for the older children.

Therefore, social skills training for younger children may

be better served if the focus is on increasing the child's

knowledge base where as a better focus for older children

might be how to use this knowledge in different contexts.

"...older children may be able to understand the behavior of

others in a greater range of situations than younger

children" (Stein & Goldman, 1981, p. 318). For greater

effectiveness, development should be considered when

implementing or evaluating social skills training programs.

Moral reasoning also develops in middle childhood and

is believed to be an important aspect in a child's

developing social competence. It is in the middle school years that a child's ability to make causal attributions about behavior improves (Eisenberg, 1987). According to Piaget, children begin to regard rules as the product of cooperative agreements for mutual good at about age seven to eight. Prior to this time, rules are simply followed because they are rules. Rule breakers are judged by the consequences of the broken rule. In other words, the greater the negative consequence, the heavier the negative judgement is laid upon the person regardless of the person's intentions, whether the act was purposeful or accidental. By ages 11 to 12, the child views rules less rigidly and when broken evaluates the intention of the rule breaker before passing judgement (Scarr et al., 1986). The essential component in moral development is peer group participation (Kohlberg, 1980). Kohlberg developed a theory of moral development that is stage dependent. Ages seven to eleven can be associated with the Conventional level with the Postconventional level emerging from eleven to twelve years of age (Scarr et al., 1986). However, it is important to note that although the postconventional stage emerges at ages 11 to 13 years, a greater number of individuals are in the conventional level at this age and remain at this level through high school (Gage and Berliner, 1988). At the conventional level the student will develop from conformity to maintaining law and order through doing "one's duty" and

following the societal rules. At the postconventional level
(consisting of stage 5 and 6), the person begins to consider
individual rights and principles separate from authority or
the person's identification with a particular group
(Kohlberg, 1980). Kohlberg later concluded that stage 6 is
a hypothetical concept that is rarely attained, and stage 5
is dependent on advanced education (Colby, Kohlberg, Gibbs
et al., 1983). Kurtines, 1987, delineates moral reasoning
development from an intersubjective perspective of shared
needs, interests, expectations, and relationships at the 7-
12 year old level, to a reflective perspective of both
subjective and intersubjective views which are open to
critical review. The latter develops after age 12 when the
child has reached a level of formal operations (Kurtines,
1987).

Studies have shown that moral reasoning develops in an
expected manner, however, moral behavior does not (Scarr et
al., 1986). In a study of children from 9 to 14, cheating
on an achievement test increased with age. The results of a
study conducted by Carrol and Rest (1981) indicated that
self-interest can overcome moral reasoning. That is to say
that moral behavior may be different than moral reasoning.

The training research has been limited in determining
which methods of teaching social skills is most effective at
various developmental levels (Combs & Slaby, 1978).
However, developmental level is an important consideration

for both determining what skills should be taught as well as how those skills should be taught (Combs & Slaby, 1978; Ladd & Mize, 1983; Ogbu, 1981).

Gender Associated with Social Competence

The effects of gender have been studied in regard to social skills and self-esteem. The differences between boys and girls in school populations have been well documented. For example, girls typically score higher on achievement measures than boys. Serbin, Zelkowitz, Doyle, Gold, & Wheaton (1990) attributes higher academic performance of girls as partially due to greater social responsiveness and compliance to adults. In observational studies, girls have been found to be more compliant than boys and spend more time in teacher-structured activities. The classroom reportedly rewards those behaviors that are more consistent with female sex role expectations in our culture. Serbin examined the effects of socialization as they are related to the gender differences found in achievement. In the study, it was found that behavioral styles associated with girls were conducive to school success. Boys from families that promoted a similar behavioral style achieved at the same level as the girls. Serbin concluded that socialization impacts gender differences in academic success (Serbin et al., 1990).

In a longitudinal study in which students rated peer status as "like most" or "like least," stability

correlations showed gender differences. The "like most" stability correlations for girls was higher than for boys at each of three one-year intervals. Teacher ratings were also substantially higher for girls than for boys at each interval (Roff, Sells, & Golden, 1972).

Gender differences showed that boys are more likely to be aggressive in stress situations and girls are more likely to become anxious or depressed. Girls tend to be more resilient in childhood and boys more resilient in adolescence (Masten et al., 1991). During adolescence females make more suicide attempts than males; the suicide rate, however, is higher for males (Garland & Zigler). Depressive disorders are also higher for girls. This gender difference manifests itself between ages 14 to 15 (Petersen et al., 1993). Precursors to this difference may be identified in elementary school. When examining preschool histories of depressed 18 year old boys and girls, boys had been more aggressive, self-aggrandizing, and undercontrolled in preschool and girls had been overcontrolled in preschool (Petersen et al., 1993).

Elias et al. (1991) reported that the impact of prevention programs is different for boys and girls. Since boys and girls enter middle school with different physiological, maturational, and social histories and statuses, and different social decision-making background, training will have different impacts. In their longitudinal

study following a two year social skills training program,
boys in the control group had higher levels of self-
destructive/identity problems and alcohol related problems,
while girls were more involved in tobacco use. These gender
differences were not apparent with the experimental groups
(Elias et al., 1991).

By adolescence, self-esteem for girls correlates more
highly with social factors than for boys. The source of
self-esteem for boys seems to be more individualistic and
associated with achievement and recognizing and adopting
masculine role behavior (Hollender, 1972). Hollender (1972)
also found that self-esteem seemed to be a more stable trait
for females. He concluded that the stability for girls may
be based on girls intrinsic acceptance of who they are,
whereas boys evaluate themselves extrinsically on what they
accomplish which may be less stable throughout adolescence
(Hollender, 1972). Programs directed at improving self
esteem might consider these gender differences.

Sex differences in peer interactions are manifest in
more aggression among boys and more cooperation and
nurturance among girls (Pepler, Corter, & Abramovitch,
1982). Brendt (1982) found that girls would help and share
a friend more than another classmate, and boys said they
would help and share equally with friends and other
classmates suggesting that boys may have less affiliation
with friends than girls. This finding was consistent from

kindergarten through eighth grade (Brendt, 1982). Girls
view their obligations in friendships in terms of offering
emotional assistance and this assistance was based on the
benefit to the other person. When the obligation was not
met, girls felt the consequence would be hurt feelings or
confrontation. Boys felt the consequence of not meeting an
obligation would be retaliation or nothing (Smollar &
Youniss, 1982). Coopersmith (1967) found that boys who
rated high in self-esteem also had a history of school
success and peer popularity. Girls were found to have lower
expectations for success than boys and when unsuccessful,
girls tend to attributed their failures to lack of ability.
Boys attribute their success to ability (Coopersmith, 1967).

Kohlberg theorized that moral development is different
between genders. In his studies, boys are rated as higher
than girls with girls not attaining the highest levels.
Gilligan (1982) has, however, disputed this notion, stating
that the moral development of females is different than the
moral development of males but that the differences are not
higher or lower than the other (Gage & Berliner, 1988).

In Masten's (1989) study on resiliency, sex differences
were found. When the condition of good parenting was
controlled for in the study, girls were less likely to be
disruptive and aggressive than boys when faced with life
stresses (Masten, 1989).

Gender differences in personality have been disputed.
Girls have been perceived as more helpful, honest,
cooperative, shy, and having greater interpersonal
understanding, and empathy while boys have been associated
with being more aggressive and having more interpersonal
problems (Kennedy, 1988). Males are found to be more
aggressive, assertive, and violent, but this difference may
not be biologically based but represent represent social
learning and/or cultural influences (Gage & Berliner, 1988).
While male researchers have found females to be more
conforming, female researchers did not. Although it is
difficult to isolate factors, most differences between
genders can be related to culture (Gage & Berliner, 1988).

IQ and Achievement and its Relationship to Social Competence

The results from many correlational studies have shown
that there is a relationship between achievement and self-
concept. Hughes et al. (1988) found that poor social skills
may contribute to academic underachievement. Although it
has been reported that self-esteem does not predict
achievement levels, positive school success does appear to
predict self esteem. It is recognized that programs
designed to improve self-esteem have had little effect on
achievement levels. However, programs that improve
achievement levels have indicated concurrent improvements in
self-esteem (Gage & Berliner, 1987). More recently,
improved social competence has been associated with

subsequently improved academic success (Elias, Gara et al., 1991). In a meta-analysis of 38 published programs assessing outcomes and treatment, Hughes et al., (1988) reported that only three studies included posttreatment measures of academic achievement and only one found significant treatment effects. The present study used achievement scores obtained before treatment to test achievement as a predictor of social skill acquisition.

School success has been found to be related to positive peer relationships. Students who have high achievement are more likely to have more friends. It is speculated that good achievement results in feeling good about oneself which translates into the ability make good peer relationships (Asher, Oden, & Gottman, 1977).

IQ has been related to disruptive behavior, particularly for boys. In the face of life stressors, more intelligent children are less aggressive toward adults, teachers, parents and peers (Masten, 1989). IQ was also found to be a protective factor. Among risk groups, high IQ was predictive of low delinquency rates for boys and girls in adolescence.

Socioeconomic Status and Its Relationship to Social Competence

A longitudinal study by Roff, et al. (1972) found that although lower ability in interpersonal relatedness in the earlier grades was related to later juvenile delinquency,

when socioeconomic status was included in the equation, an interesting corollary resulted. Although low peer acceptance was associated with later delinquency at low, middle, and high SES levels, at the lowest level, both rejected and accepted students had a high level of later delinquency. " At the lowest level, delinquency unexpectedly occurred with about equal frequency among the most-rejected and the best-liked boys," (Roff, et al., 1981, p. 180).

Shure & Spivack (1972) investigated the effect of means-end thinking, adjustment, and social class. Their findings indicated that the ability to generate more means toward a specific end was related to better adjustment. A group of maladjusted students was not able to produce as many possible solutions to a problem as a mainstream group. Although earlier research suggested that lower socioeconomic groups were more pragmatic, physically aggressive, and impulsive because of the necessity of their environment and less able to generate multiple solutions, this was not supported by the study. Shure & Spivack found that normal lower class students were able to generate more possible solutions than the group with adjustment problems. They concluded that problem solving strategies may be essential for later adjustment. "As early as four years of age, richness of available problem-solving strategies may play a

significant role in successfully adjusting to the world of other people" (Shure & Spivack, 1972, p. 353).

In a study of black inner city, lower class third graders and white suburban middle class third graders, both groups improved on cognitive problem solving measures generating more solutions than the control groups. However, teacher ratings of students behaviors showed improvement for the middle class group and negative effects for the lower class group. Investigation of the differences revealed that the lower class group was more likely to generate negative solutions and in so doing increased negative classroom behaviors. The study was repeated with the addition of classroom management strategies. The results were positive for both urban and suburban students (Pellegrini & Urbain, 1985).

Group Dynamics

Method of imparting information and learning new information has been studied to determine the most effective procedure. Social skills training with groups has been found to be effective (Mehaffey & Sandberg, 1992). Groups are reinforcing for young children. "They provide a safe place to practice new skills and receive feedback and reinforcement from peers" (Hepler, 1991, p. 91). Groups are more attractive to children than interacting with adults and provide opportunities to observe modeling of social skills, and the chance to teach skills to each other. Some claim

that the best way to learn is to teach (Rose, 1983). Gage and Berliner (1988) emphasized that discussion allows the opportunity to view ideas from different perspectives and to formulate an opinion. The literature also supports the notion that attitudes and behaviors are more likely to change when participants openly discuss issues in groups.

Intervention success has been associated with the size of the group and is an important factor for social skills training programs. McIntosh et al. (1991) reviewed the relevant literature and found that group size was significantly correlated with positive results. The results of studies that used whole-class groups yielded few positive intervention effects (McIntosh, et al., 1991). In a study of third and fourth grade classes, small groups remained on task significantly more than large groups. In addition, the evidence indicates that students are more willing to participate in small groups (Gage & Berliner, 1988). Finally, Rose (1983), reported that optimal size for intervention groups is four to twelve children per group.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested:

1. There is no difference in the student ratings of social skills (cooperation, assertion, self-control, or empathy) across treatment conditions (E/C), grade levels (4th, 5th, and 6th), or genders.

2. There is no difference in the teacher ratings of social skills (cooperation, assertion, or self-control) across treatment conditions (E/C), grade levels (4th, 5th, and 6th), or genders.

3. There is no difference in self esteem ratings (perceptions of academic competence, peer popularity, and personal security) across treatment conditions (E/C), grade levels (4th, 5th, and 6th), or genders.

In addition, tests were conducted to determine possible differences and/or relationships between (among) achievement scores and intelligence quotients. A comparison was made among classroom teachers' and the music and physical education teachers' ratings of social skills to determine if students were rated differently by the respondents.

Subjects

There were three treatment groups (each at a different grade level) and three control groups (at each grade level). Two-hundred-twenty-eight fourth (n=81), fifth (n=66), and sixth (n=81) grade students attending a suburban elementary school district participated in the treatment groups. The students in the treatment group were members of three fourth grade classrooms (n=49), two fifth grade classrooms (n=42, and two sixth grade classrooms (n=45). It should be noted that membership in the classroom resulted in inclusion in the study. Control subjects at each grade level were also included in the study. The control subjects were selected from two fourth grade (n=32), two fifth grade (n=24), and two sixth grade (n=35) classrooms in a neighboring school in the same suburban elementary school district. It should be noted that not all members of the control classrooms participated in the study. Letters requesting permission for the student to be included in the study were sent to all parents in the control classrooms. Inclusion in the study was based on signed permission forms returned to the school. The demographic characteristics of the two schools were found to be similar. (See Appendix A for a comparative summary of demographic characteristics).

Procedure

The experimental part of the study was conducted in three phases (pre-test, treatment, post test). All

students completed the <u>Self-Esteem Index</u> (Brown & Alexander, 1991) and the <u>Social Skills Rating System Elementary Student Form</u> questionnaire (Gresham and Elliott, 1990). The classroom teacher completed the <u>Social Skills Rating System Elementary Teacher Form</u> questionnaire (Gresham and Elliott, 1990) for each student participant. In addition, the physical education teacher and music teacher completed the teacher form for each student in the experimental groups. The three control group subjects received no treatment but did complete the pre-test and post test self-esteem and social skills measures.

The scales were administered to all subjects by the investigator. Each of the participating teachers received the <u>Social Skills Rating System Elementary Teacher Form</u> questionnaire (Gresham and Elliott, 1990) and specific instruction concerning the completion of the form.

School records were examined to obtain the following data: 1) Otis Lennon School Ability Test scores; 2) Scholastic Achievement Scores; and 3) attendance.

The three experimental group students, received three different levels of treatment. All experimental subjects took part in a monthly assembly that provided the focus for the month. The first assembly introduced the social skills training program with an emphasis given to ending "put downs" and enjoying "put ups." The second assembly included an IALAC (I am loveable and capable)

filmstrip. The third assembly covered the most common types of "put downs" in school. In the fourth assembly, a discussion of common put downs outside of school in the family and community was presented. The fifth assembly focused on understanding and accepting differences among peers. The sixth assembly dealt with understanding and accepting differences through knowing our family heritage. Individual differences in relation to atypical students was covered in the seventh assembly. The eighth assembly was designed as a culminating activity. In addition, all experimental groups participated in a classroom activity designed to improve social skills for 20 minutes per week held on Friday afternoons from 3:10 - 3:30. The classroom activities were linked in content and focus to the monthly assemblies. All group facilitators were systematically trained through an inservice prior to the opening of the school year. Fifth grade students met in groups of no more than eight members once a month. The groups were cofacilitated with a focus given to developing social skills. Sixth grade students met in groups of no more than eight students every other week. These groups were facilitated by a single leader. At the end of the training program (7 months) the pretest assessment instruments were used once again. It should be noted that the fourth grade students did not meet in smaller groups. They participated in the monthly assemblies and the twenty minute per

week classroom activities. (See appendix B for a brief description of each of the components of the treatment program).

Instrumentation

Self-Esteem Index

The Self-Esteem Index (Brown & Alexander, 1990) is a self-report instrument that is designed to measure the student's perception of his/her personal traits. Although the measure is comprised of four 20-item subscales, only three of the subscales were administered to the participants. The students completed only the Perception of Academic Competence Scale, the Perception of Peer Popularity Scale, and the Perception of Personal Security Scales. The Perception of Familial Acceptance Scale was not administered. This truncated arrangement was necessary because the principal at the experimental school would not allow an assessment procedure that parents may have considered to be needlessly intrusive. The Perception of Academic Competence Scale reportedly taps self-esteem in relation to academic and intellectual areas. The Perception of Peer Popularity Scale was designed to measure self-esteem in relation to social situations and interpersonal relationships with peers. The Perception of Personal Security Scale reportedly measures self-esteem in relation to a person's feelings about their physical and psychological well being.

The authors reported that construct validity was
built into the test through rigorous discrimination of items
by using an item discrimination coefficient of not less than
3.0 and not more than 8.0 to ensure that the item was making
a meaningful and unique contribution to the test. At each
age interval the medians reported were significant at the
.05 level of confidence. A representative sample was used
for standardization. Members of the normative group
resembled the population of the United States. The sample
was large (2,455 subjects) and representative (over 100
subjects appeared within each age interval). Internal
consistency reliability was based on reliability
coefficients that were reported to be in the .80s and .90s.
In sum, the reliability of the SEI appears to be excellent.
The authors stated in the manual that:

> (a) the items of the SEI are representative of the
> self-esteem domain and are homogeneous; (b) the test
> scores are strongly related to professional judgment;
> (c) the scores are strongly related to other tests of
> self-esteem, personality, and behavior; (d) the scores
> are related as hypothesized to chronological age; (e)
> the scores are strongly related to each other; (f) the
> test accurately discriminates among groups of
> emotionally disturbed, behavior disordered, learning
> disabled and gifted students; and (g) the factor
> structures underlying the test are those that were

hypothesized and that are reflected in the four SEI
scales (Brown & Alexander, 1991, p. 40).
There is no review at this time in Burro's as this
instrument has only recently been developed. A Consumer's
Guide to Tests in Print, 2nd edition gave the SEI an overall
rating of B meaning the instrument satisfies minimum basic
standards for technical adequacy. It should be noted that
one of the authors of the Consumer Guide, Linda Brown, is
also one of the authors of the Self-Esteem Inventory.

Social Skills Rating System

The Social Skills Rating System questionnaire
consists of three forms: a parent rating form, a teacher
rating form, and a student rating form. The teacher rating
form was completed by the classroom teacher. In addition,
the physical education and music teachers completed a
teacher rating form for the experimental group subjects.
Given that the gym and music teachers had known the students
for several years, it was assumed that they would provide a
somewhat different perspective. The classroom teachers had
known the students for only about one month prior to
completing the pre-treatment rating form. All students
completed the self-rating questionnaire.

Reliability estimates of the SSRS were based on
internal consistency (coefficient alpha), test-retest, and
interrater coefficients. The median coefficient alpha
reliability on all forms of the Social Skills Scale was

reported to be .90 with a range from .83 to .74. The Social Skills Rating Scale is composed of three subscales: Cooperation, Assertion, and Self Control. The median correlations for these subscales ranged from .78 to .84. Internal consistency was reported to be similar for males and females at all levels. The test-retest correlations were .85 with a range of .75 to .88 for social skills on the teacher rating form and .68 with a range from .52 to .66 on the student self-rating forms. The authors concluded that these results are good to excellent for the teacher form and adequate for the student form. To support criterion-related validity, the SSRS was compared to the Social Behavior Assessment (SBA) (Stephens, 1978). Moderate to high correlations on similar constructs were found. It was also compared with the Harter Teacher Rating Scale (TRS) (Harter, 1985) resulting again in moderate to high correlations with validity coefficients ranging from .44 to .70. Two other instruments that were designed to measure different constructs were also compared to the SSRS and as expected negatively related. The authors reported that further research for construct validity was hindered by the lack of similar assessment instruments for comparison. "With the full awareness that there is still work to be done, we offer the SSRS as a reasonable, useful and efficient approach to the assessment of social skills..." Gresham & Elliott, 1990, p. 142).

Design and Statistical Analysis:

A factorial analysis of variance of the self-esteem and social skills rating scores across the two treatment conditions, three grade levels, and genders was conducted. The overall analytic paradigm is presented below.

	X1a Experimental Group		X1b Control Group	
	X3a	X3b	X3a	X3b
	Male	Female	Male	Female
4 X2a	Ya Yb	Ya Yb	Ya Yb	Ya Yb
Grade				
Level 5 X2b	Ya Yb	Ya Yb	Ya Yb	Ya Yb
6 X2c	Ya Yb	Ya Yb	Ya Yb	Ya Yb

Where the independent variables =

X1a/X1b (experimental group/control group)

X2a/X2b/X2c (grade levels 4, 5, 6)

X3a X3b (genders)

<u>Dependent measures</u> = Ya (Social Skills Rating scores - i.e.

cooperation, Assertion, and self-

control)

Yb (Self-Esteem Index scores - i.e.

Perception of Academic Competence,

Perception of Peer Popularity, and

Perception of Personal Security)

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Results Related to Testing Null Hypotheses One

Null Hypothesis (I) stated that there would be no
differences in the student ratings of social skills across
treatment conditions, grades, or genders. A one-way
Multivariate Analysis of Variance was completed on all the
student and teacher pretest social skills scores to
determine if there were any differences across groups
(Experimental and Control) prior to the study.   Results
showed no significant differences in social skills between
the two groups on the initial survey. (Table 1 presents the
pretest means, standard deviations, F-values, degrees of
freedom, and significance of F for the two groups). Since
the groups appeared to be comparable, only the post-test
scores were compared to determine if there were differences
in the social skills scores across treatments, grades,
and/or genders.   A 2 X 3 X 2 (Group, Grade, and Gender)
Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was completed
using the four student post-test factor scores from the
Social Skills Rating System (SSRS) as dependent variables.
Raw scores were used to derive descriptive statistics for
the groups, grades, and genders. (Tables 2 and 3 present the

raw score means, and standard deviations of the student SSRS post tests by groups, grades, and genders). The MANOVA of student scores, using Wilks criterion, revealed no significant interaction effects. These results are summarized in Table 4. The MANOVA, using the Wilks criterion, revealed no significant main effects across groups, (lambda = .966, $F(1,214) = 1.855$). However, the analysis revealed main effects across genders and grades. Gender had a lambda value of .872, $F(1,214) = 7.749$ with $p = .000$. The grade main effect had a lambda value of .920, $F(2,214) = 2.251$ with $p = .023$. These results are summarized in Table 4.

A univariate analysis revealed a difference in all four dependent measures across genders. However, only the Empathy factor was found to be significant across grade levels. These results are summarized in Table 4. Post hoc comparisons related to the gender main effects revealed significant mean differences on scales of Cooperation ($p = .01$), Assertion ($p = .01$), Empathy ($p = .01$), and Self-Control ($p = .01$). These results are summarized in Table 5.

On all student ratings of the SSRS, females had higher mean scores than males in both the treatment groups and the control groups. Girls scored higher than boys across grade levels as well. Gender differences on all four variables were found to be significant at the .002 level. The post hoc test results are reported in Table 5.

Grade placement was also found to have a main effect on the student ratings. The Empathy variable contributed to this effect. The results presented in Table 4 indicate that the mean scores for fifth grade students is higher than the mean scores for fourth and sixth grade students for both the experimental and control groups on this factor. For the main effect of grade, post hoc comparisons showed a mean difference for the Empathy factor between grades 4 and 5 ($p = .01$), between grades 4 and 6 ($p = .01$), and between grades 5 and 6 ($p = .01$). These results are summarized in Table 5.

Given these findings, the first null hypothesis was rejected. Using multivariate analysis of variance, a strong statistical difference was found between genders and among grade levels.

TABLE 1

MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF STUDENT
PRETEST SCORES BY GROUP

Group One - Experimental

VARIABLE	N	MEAN	ST.DEV.
SSRS Cooperation	131	15.176	.249
SSRS Assertion	131	14.450	2.579
SSRS Empathy	131	16.443	2.891
SSRS Self-Control	131	11.924	3.202

Group Two - Control

VARIABLE	N	MEAN	ST.DEV.
SSRS Cooperation	96	15.115	2.984
SSRS Assertion	96	13.719	2.487
SSRS Empathy	96	16.187	2.739
SSRS Self-Control	96	11.833	3.330

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Effect . . Group
Multivariate Tests of Significance (S = 1, M = 1, N = 110)

	Value	Approx. F	Hypoth. DF	Error DF	Sig. of F
Wilks Test	.96215	2.183	4.0	222.00	.072

TABLE 2

GROUP MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF POST TEST
SSRS STUDENT RATINGS BY GROUP, GRADE, AND GENDER

GROUP 1 - TREATMENT

VARIABLE	N	MEAN	ST.DEV.
Cooperation			
Grade 4			
male	21	13.286	2.723
female	25	14.400	3.342
Grade 5			
male	19	13.158	3.132
female	22	15.591	3.217
Grade 6			
male	23	14.435	2.591
female	22	14.864	2.833
Assertion			
Grade 4			
male	21	12.619	2.061
female	25	13.800	3.215
Grade 5			
male	19	13.211	3.259
female	22	14.136	2.315
Grade 6			
male	23	12.739	2.615
female	22	14.227	2.224
Empathy			
Grade 4			
male	21	14.286	2.901
female	25	15.760	3.059
Grade 5			
male	19	15.737	2.446
female	22	17.500	1.871
Grade 6			
male	23	14.565	4.262
female	22	17.091	1.998
Self-Control			
Grade 4			
male	21	11.286	3.717
female	25	11.920	3.341
Grade 5			
male	19	9.737	3.263
female	22	11.955	2.627
Grade 6			
male	23	10.609	1.994
female	22	12.273	3.283

TABLE 3

GROUP MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS
OF SSRS POST TEST STUDENT RATINGS

GROUP 2 - Control

VARIABLE	N	MEAN	ST.DEV.
Cooperation			
Grade 4			
male	16	13.938	2.489
female	17	15.235	2.306
Grade 5			
male	12	15.167	3.563
female	15	17.067	2.520
Grade 6			
male	17	13.824	3.575
female	17	16.235	2.306
Assertion			
Grade 4			
male	16	13.125	2.579
female	17	13.647	2.668
Grade 5			
male	12	14.000	3.275
female	15	15.267	2.549
Grade 6			
male	17	13.353	2.499
female	17	14.118	2.233
Empathy			
Grade 4			
male	16	14.312	1.991
female	17	16.529	3.356
Grade 5			
male	12	15.570	3.415
female	15	17.333	2.820
Grade 6			
male	17	14.353	3.390
female	17	17.529	2.375
Self-Control			
Grade 4			
male	16	10.938	3.130
female	17	12.471	2.478
Grade 5			
male	12	11.250	4.654
female	15	12.800	4.109
Grade 6			
male	17	10.176	4.081
female	17	11.882	2.547

TABLE 4

MULTIVARIATE TESTS OF SIGNIFICANCE
FOR STUDENT SSRS RATINGS
USING WILKS CRITERION

EFFECT	VALUE	APPROX. F	SIGNIF. OF F
Group by Grade by Gender	.973	.733	.662
Grade by Gender	.977	.627	.755
Group by Gender	.992	.430	.787
Group by Grade	.974	.709	.684
Gender	.872	7.749	.000*
Grade	.920	2.251	.023*
Group	.966	1.855	.120

UNIVARIATE F VALUES OF GENDER EFFECT FOR SSRS
STUDENT RATINGS
FOR FOUR DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Variable	F	Error MS	Signif. of F
Cooperation	16.259	8.516	.000*
Assertion	8.164	6.978	.005*
Empathy	28.903	8.462	.000*
Self-Control	12.221	10.676	.001*

UNIVARIATE F VALUES OF GRADE EFFECT FOR SSRS
STUDENT RATINGS
FOR FOUR DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Variable	F	Error MS	Significance of F
Cooperation	2.253	8.516	.108
Assertion	1.859	6.978	.158
Empathy	3.821	8.462	.023*
Self-Control	.372	10.676	.730

TABLE 5

POST HOC TESTS
SSRS POST TEST STUDENT RATINGS

MAIN EFFECT - GENDER

VARIABLE	N	t VALUE
Cooperation	226	-30.680**
Assertion	226	-23.556**
Empathy	226	-42.400**
Self-Control	226	27.982**

MAIN EFFECT - GRADE

	grade 4:5	grade 4:6	grade 5:6
VARIABLE	t VALUE	t VALUE	t VALUE
Cooperation	11.435**	7.848**	4.141**
Assertion	-10.635**	3.855**	7.041**
Empathy	16.523**	-7.750**	9.314**
Self-Control	2.946	16.077**	1.548

n = 226
*p < .05. **p < .01.

Results Related to Testing Null Hypotheses Two

Null Hypothesis (II) stated that there would be no significant differences in the teacher ratings of social skills across treatment conditions, grades, or genders. A one-way Multivariate Analysis of Variance was completed on the teacher pretest social skills scores. Results showed no significant differences in social skills between the two groups. (Table 6 presents the pretest means, standard deviations, F-values, degrees of freedom, and significance of F for the two groups). Again, only post-test scores were compared to determine if there were differences in social skills scores across treatments, grades, or genders. A 2 X 3 X 2 (Group, Grade, and Gender) Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was completed using the three teacher post test factor scores from the Social Skills Rating System (SSRS) as dependent variables. Raw scores were used to derive descriptive statistics for the groups, grades, and genders. (Tables 7 and 8 present the raw score means, and standard deviations of the teacher SSRS post tests ratings by groups, grades, and genders).

The MANOVA of the teacher scores, using the Wilks criterion, revealed significant interaction effects for groups by grades, and groups by grades by genders. Interaction of Groups X Grades X Genders had a lambda value of .923, $F(2,219) = 2.954$, $(p = .008)$. The Groups X Grades lambda value was .927, $F(2,219) = 2.782$, $(p = .012)$. These

results are summarized in Table 9.

The MANOVA, using the Wilks criterion, revealed significant main effects for groups, grades, and genders. Gender had a lambda value of .877, $F(1,219) = 10.157$ with (p = .000). For the grade main effect lambda = .909, $F(2,219) = 3.555$, and (p = .002). The main effect for Group had a lambda value of .881, $F(1,219) = 9.740$, and (p = .000). These results are summarized in Table 9.

The three factor interactions are plotted in figures 1 through 4. These figures reveal disordinal interactions at both the multivariate and univariate level. Since there is mulitvariate and univariate disordinal interactions, further interpretation of first order interactions and the main effects at both the multivariate and univariate level are considered to be meaningless. Therefore, further analyses refer to second order interaction of groups by grades by genders.

Post hoc tests revealed significant differences between boys and girls. At the fourth grade level, for Cooperation and Self-Control, both boys and girls in the treatment groups were rated lower than the boys (p = .01) and girls (p = .01) in the control groups. On the Assertion scale, boys' scored at about the same level in both treatment and control groups (p = .5). The girls in the treatment groups scored higher on Assertion (p = .01). At the fifth grade level, there were no significant differences found between the two

groups on the Cooperation Scale (p = .20) and the Self-Control Scale (p = .80) for girls. Fifth grade boys in the treatment group scored significantly below the control group on the Cooperation Scale (p = .01). On the Assertion scale, both boys and girls scored higher in the treatment group (boys: p = .01; girls: p = .01). Fifth grade boys in the treatment group scored higher on the Self-Control Scale (p .01) than the boys in the fifth grade control group. At the sixth grade level, both boys and girls in the treatment group scored higher than the control group on all three dependent measures. These results are summarized in Table 10.

Given these findings, the second null hypothesis was also rejected. Using Multivariate analysis of variance, a strong statistical difference was found between the two groups on the social skills measures. Specifically, differences were found between genders, groups, and among grades. Significant interaction effects were also found (groups by grades and groups by grades by genders). Figures 1 through 4 present a representation of these significant interaction effects.

TABLE 6

MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF TEACHER
PRETEST SCORES BY GROUP

Group One - Experimental

VARIABLE	N	MEAN	ST.DEV.
SSRS Cooperation	136	15.860	5.153
SSRS Assertion	136	14.801	4.232
SSRS Self-Control	136	15.603	4.551

Group Two - Control

VARIABLE	N	MEAN	ST.DEV.
SSRS Cooperation	95	16.284	5.033
SSRS Assertion	95	14.158	5.026
SSRS Self-Control	95	16.021	4.429

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Effect . . Group
Multivariate Tests of Significance (S = 1, M = 1/2, N = 112 1/2)

	Value	Approx. F	Hypoth. DF	Error DF	Sig. of F
Wilks Test	.97661	1.812	3.0	227.00	.146

TABLE 7

GROUP MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS
FOR SSRS POST TEST TEACHER RATINGS

GROUP 1 - TREATMENT

VARIABLE	N	MEAN	ST.DEV.
Cooperation			
Grade 4			
male	22	14.909	5.236
female	25	17.520	3.896
Grade 5			
male	20	13.400	4.083
female	23	18.478	2.294
Grade 6			
male	23	18.304	2.653
female	23	18.783	1.976
Assertion			
Grade 4			
male	22	13.864	3.980
female	25	15.520	3.501
Grade 5			
male	20	14.200	3.189
female	23	16.696	2.619
Grade 6			
male	23	17.696	2.945
female	23	18.870	1.817
Self-Control			
Grade 4			
male	22	14.273	4.682
female	25	16.240	3.833
Grade 5			
male	20	14.300	4.054
female	23	17.000	3.219
Grade 6			
male	23	18.522	2.890
female	23	19.043	1.637

TABLE 8

GROUP MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS
FOR SSRS POST TEST TEACHER RATINGS

GROUP 2 - Control

VARIABLE	N	MEAN	ST.DEV.
Cooperation			
Grade 4			
male	15	16.800	4.074
female	16	18.688	1.815
Grade 5			
male	12	15.500	3.398
female	16	17.875	4.031
Grade 6			
male	18	14.944	5.023
female	18	18.056	3.077
Assertion			
Grade 4			
male	15	15.133	4.373
female	16	13.625	4.097
Grade 5			
male	12	11.000	6.105
female	16	15.687	3.114
Grade 6			
male	18	13.611	3.712
female	18	15.444	2.770
Self-Control			
Grade 4			
male	15	16.133	4.086
female	16	17.750	4.612
Grade 5			
male	12	12.083	5.632
female	16	17.125	4.177
Grade 6			
male	18	15.000	5.202
female	18	17.278	2.866

TABLE 9

MULTIVARIATE TESTS OF SIGNIFICANCE
FOR TEACHER SSRS RATINGS
USING WILKS CRITERION

EFFECT	VALUE	APPROX. F	SIGNIFICANCE OF F
Group by Grade by Gender	.923	2.954	.008*
Grade by Gender	.949	1.937	.074
Group by Gender	.984	1.148	.331
Group by Grade	.927	2.782	.012*
Gender	.877	10.157	.000*
Grade	.909	3.555	.002*
Group	.881	9.740	.000*

UNIVARIATE F VALUES OF GENDER EFFECT FOR SSRS
TEACHER RATINGS
FOR THREE DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Variable	F	Error MS	Signif. of F
Cooperation	28.407	13.040	.000*
Assertion	13.426	12.210	.000*
Self-Control	19.952	15.337	.000*

UNIVARIATE F VALUES OF GRADE EFFECT FOR SSRS
TEACHER RATINGS
FOR THREE DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Variable	F	Error MS	Signif. of F
Cooperation	2.048	13.040	.131
Assertion	7.917	12.210	.000*
Self-Control	6.645	15.337	.002*

TABLE 9 CONTINUED

UNIVARIATE F VALUES OF GROUP EFFECT FOR SSRS
TEACHER RATINGS
FOR THREE DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Variable	F	Error MS	Signif. of F
Cooperation	.026	13.040	.873
Assertion	19.137	12.210	.000*
Self-Control	1.607	15.337	.206

UNIVARIATE F VALUES OF INTERACTION
OF GROUP BY GRADE EFFECT
FOR SSRS TEACHER RATINGS
FOR THREE DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Variable	F	Error MS	Signif. of F
Cooperation	5.263	13.040	.006*
Assertion	4.703	12.210	.010*
Self-Control	6.009	15.337	.003*

UNIVARIATE F VALUES OF INTERACTION
OF GROUP BY GRADE BY GENDER EFFECT
FOR SSRS TEACHER RATINGS
FOR THREE DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Variable	F	Error MS	Signif. of F
Cooperation	2.601	13.040	.076
Assertion	2.808	12.210	.063
Self-Control	.593	15.337	.553

TABLE 10

POST HOC TESTS OF SSRS
POST-TEST TEACHER RATINGS

GROUP BY GRADE BY GENDER

INTERACTION

VARIABLE	N	t VALUE
Cooperation		
Grade 4		
male	37	-4.681**
female	41	-4.826**
Grade 5		
male	32	-4.375**
female	39	1.574
Grade 6		
male	41	9.412**
female	41	2.036*
Assertion		
Grade 4		
male	37	-1.046
female	41	8.098**
Grade 5		
male	32	6.882**
female	39	2.727**
Grade 6		
male	41	11.806**
female	41	9.902**
Self-Control		
Grade 4		
male	37	-4.237**
female	41	-5.763**
Grade 5		
male	32	4.255**
female	39	0.301
Grade 6		
male	41	9.077**
female	41	4.549**

*p < .05.   **p < .01.

COOPERATION
GROUP BY GRADE BY GENDER
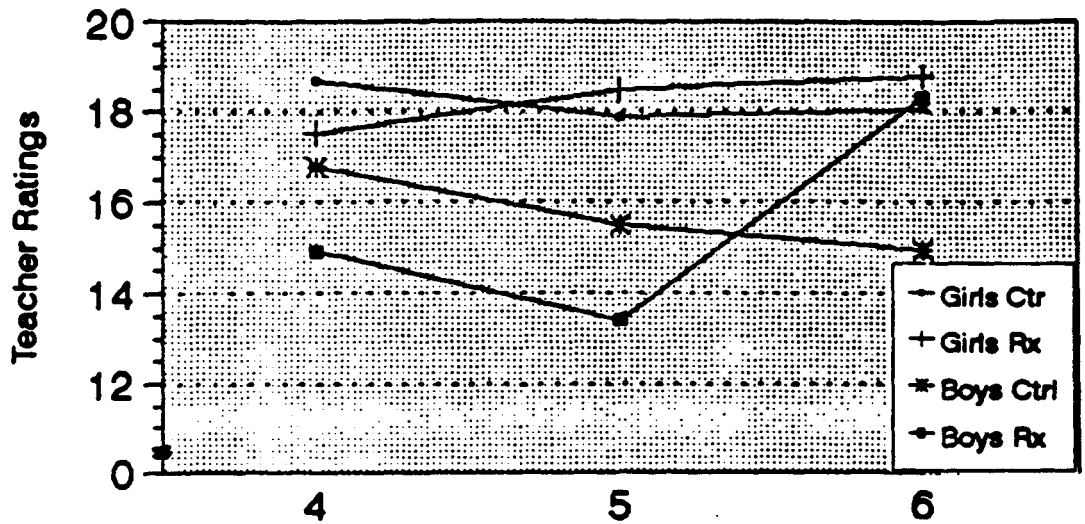
	4	5	6
Girls Ctr	18.688	17.875	18.056
Girls Rx	17.52	18.478	18.783
Boys Ctrl	16.8	15.5	14.944
Boys Rx	14.909	13.4	18.304

Figure 1. Three-Way Interaction on Cooperation

ASSERTION
GROUP BY GRADE BY GENDER
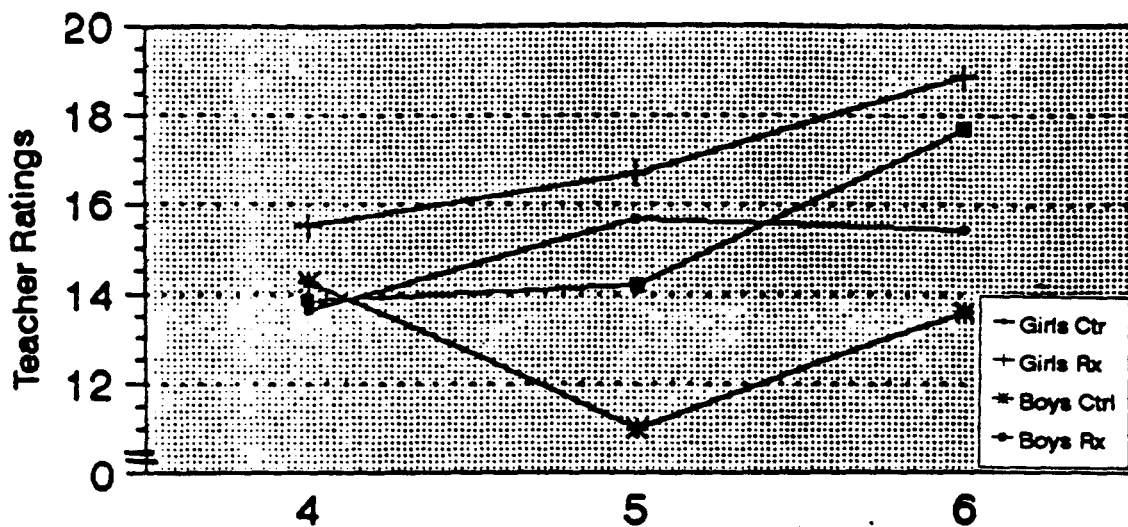
	4	5	6
Girls Ctr	13.625	15.687	15.444
Girls Rx	15.52	16.696	18.87
Boys Ctrl	14.273	11	13.611
Boys Rx	13.864	14.2	17.696

Figure 2.   Three-Way Interaction on Assertion

SELF-CONTROL
GROUP BY GRADE BY GENDER
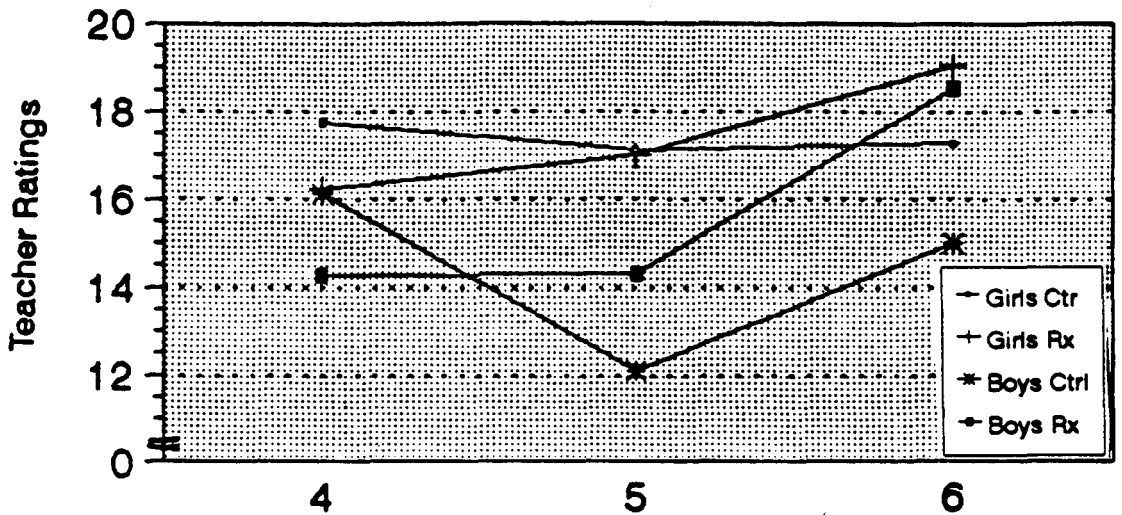
	4	5	6
Girls Ctr	17.75	17.125	17.278
Girls Rx	16.24	17	19.043
Boys Ctrl	16.133	12.083	15
Boys Rx	14.273	14.3	18.522

Figure 3.   Three-Way Interaction on Self-Control

COOPERATION

	4	5	6
CONTROL	17.774	16.857	16.5
TREATMENT	16.296	16.116	18.543

A

ASSERTION

	4	5	6
CONTROL	14.355	13.679	14.528
TREATMENT	14.745	15.535	18.283

B

SELF-CONTROL

	4	5	6
CONTROL	16.968	14.964	16.139
TREATMENT	15.319	15.744	18.783
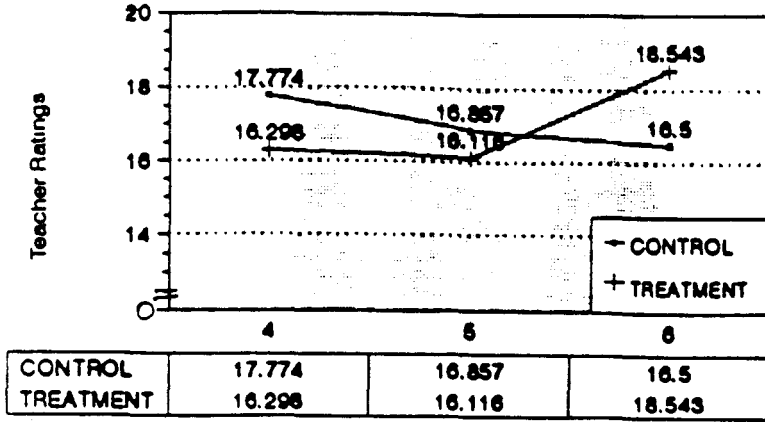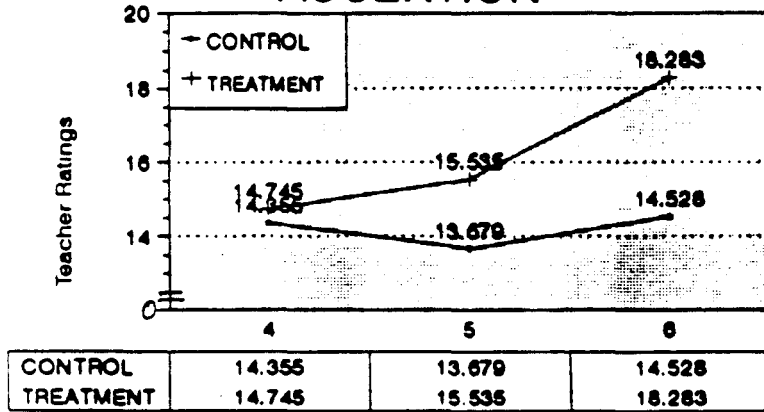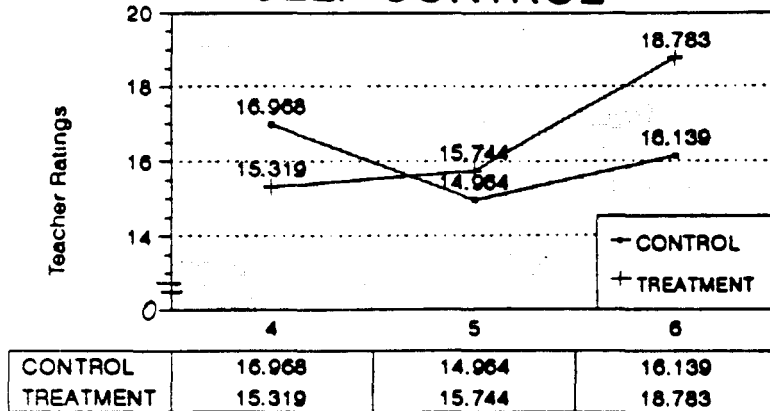
C

Figure 4. Two-Way Interaction on Cooperation, Assertion, and Self-Control

Results Related to Testing Null Hypothesis Three

Null Hypothesis (III) stated that there would be no difference in the Self-Esteem ratings across treatment conditions, grade levels, or genders. A one-way Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was conducted on the student pretest scores to determine if there were significant differences across the groups (Experimental and Control) prior to the study. Results showed no significant pretest differences between the groups. Therefore, only the post test scores were used in the analysis of findings to determine if there were differences in the Self-Esteem ratings after treatment. A 2 X 3 X 2 (Groups, Grades, and Genders) Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was conducted using the three student post-test factor scores from the Self-Esteem Index (SEI) as dependent variables. (Table 11 presents pretest means, standard deviations, F-values, degrees of freedom, and significance of F for the two groups). Raw scores were used to derive descriptive statistics for the groups, grades, and genders. (Tables 12 and 13 present raw score means, and standard deviations of the student SEI post-test ratings by groups, grades, and genders). There were no significant interactions found on the Self-Esteem Index. These results are summarized in Table 14.

The MANOVA, using the Wilks criterion, revealed significant main effects for gender. The results are

summarized in Table 14. Gender had a lambda value of .922, $F(1,213) = 5.978$ with (p = .001). A univariate analysis revealed that Perception of Academic Competence was the dependent measure that contributed to gender differences. Academic Competence had an F value of 12.413, (p = .001). These results are summarized in Table 14.

Post hoc tests revealed mean differences in Perception of Academic Confidence (t = 24.625, p = .01) (with girls being rated significantly higher than boys) and Perception of Personal Security (t = 5.983, p = .01) (with boys being rated significantly higher than girls). Perception of Peer Popularity (t = 1.867 p = .100) showed that boys and girls scored about equally on this factor. These results are summarized in Table 15. There were no other significant main effects.

Given these findings, the third null hypothesis was rejected. Using a Multivariate analysis of variance procedure, a strong statistical difference was found between the two groups on the Self-Esteem Index. Specifically, differences were found between genders.

TABLE 11

MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF STUDENT
PRETEST SCORES BY GROUP

Group One - Experimental

VARIABLE	N	MEAN	ST.DEV.
SEI Academic Competence	133	63.3609	9.338
SEI Peer Popularity	133	59.5865	8.432
SEI Personal Security	133	61.6917	10.759

Group Two - Control

VARIABLE	N	MEAN	ST.DEV.
SEI Academic Competence	92	63.000	8.598
SEI Peer Popularity	92	59.0870	7.114
SEI Personal Security	92	60.5326	10.363

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

Effect . . Group
Multivariate Tests of Significance (S = 1, M = 1/2, N = 109 1/2)

	Value	Approx. F	Hypoth. DF	Error DF	Sig. of F
Wilks Test	.99708	.21552	3.0	221.00	.886

TABLE 12

GROUP MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS
OF SEI POST TEST STUDENT RATINGS

GROUP 1 – TREATMENT

VARIABLE	N	MEAN	ST.DEV.
Perception of			
Academic Competence			
Grade 4			
male	19	57.316	10.750
female	23	59.130	17.123
Grade 5			
male	19	58.526	10.265
female	22	65.773	6.362
Grade 6			
male	22	60.545	7.360
female	23	60.783	10.501
Perception of Peer Popularity			
Grade 4			
male	19	57.737	8.150
female	22	53.348	15.177
Grade 5			
male	19	59.421	4.168
female	22	60.818	4.727
Grade 6			
male	22	60.545	8.534
female	23	59.304	6.512
Perception of Personal Security			
Grade 4			
male	19	59.684	10.187
female	23	53.217	15.623
Grade 5			
male	19	59.632	7.380
female	22	60.636	6.814
Grade 6			
male	22	64.182	8.600
female	23	64.000	9.601

TABLE 13

GROUP MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS
OF SEI POST TEST STUDENT RATINGS

GROUP 2 - Control

VARIABLE	N	MEAN	ST.DEV.
Perception of Academic Competence			
Grade 4			
male	14	57.643	8.863
female	17	62.941	8.671
Grade 5			
male	12	55.083	13.426
female	13	62.846	9.677
Grade 6			
male	17	54.824	16.827
female	17	64.059	10.917
Perception of Peer Popularity			
Grade 4			
male	14	62.786	4.726
female	17	58.941	6.466
Grade 5			
male	12	58.833	9.504
female	13	60.154	9.182
Grade 6			
male	17	56.000	15.604
female	17	60.882	7.288
Perception of Personal Security			
Grade 4			
male	14	63.714	5.784
female	17	60.882	9.151
Grade 5			
male	12	60.083	6.882
female	13	62.308	10.625
Grade 6			
male	17	61.235	9.833
female	17	62.000	9.592

TABLE 14

MULTIVARIATE TESTS OF SIGNIFICANCE
FOR STUDENT SEI RATINGS
USING WILKS CRITERION

EFFECT	VALUE	APPROX. F	SIGNIFICANCE OF F
Group by Grade by Gender	.981	0.660	.682
Grade by Gender	.972	1.012	.416
Group by Gender	.990	0.728	.536
Group by Grade	.961	1.420	.205
Gender	.922	5.978	.001*
Grade	.956	1.608	.143
Group	.978	0.893	.446

UNIVARIATE F VALUES OF GENDER EFFECT
FOR SEI RATINGS FOR THREE DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Variable	F	Error MS	Signif. of F
Academic Competence	12.413	126.021	.001*
Peer Popularity	.002	81.759	.962
Personal Security	.338	92.297	.562

UNIVARIATE F VALUES OF GRADE EFFECT
FOR SEI RATINGS FOR THREE DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Variable	F	Error MS	Signif. of F
Academic Competence	.241	126.021	.786
Peer Popularity	.803	81.759	.449
Personal Security	2.698	92.297	.070

TABLE 14 CONTINUED

UNIVARIATE F VALUES OF GROUP EFFECT
FOR SEI RATINGS FOR THREE DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Variable	F	Error MS	Signif. of F
Academic Competence	.275	126.021	.600
Peer Popularity	.837	81.759	.361
Personal Security	1.212	92.297	.272

UNIVARIATE F VALUES OF INTERACTION
OF GRADE BY GENDER EFFECT
FOR SEI RATINGS
FOR THREE DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Variable	F	Error MS	Signif. of F
Academic Competence	.504	126.021	.605
Peer Popularity	2.480	81.759	.086
Personal Security	1.874	92.297	.156

UNIVARIATE F VALUES OF INTERACTION
OF GROUP BY GENDER EFFECT
FOR SEI RATINGS
FOR THREE DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Variable	F	Error MS	Signif. of F
Academic Competence	1.985	126.021	.160
Peer Popularity	1.165	81.759	.282
Personal Security	.529	92.297	.468

TABLE 14 CONTINUED

UNIVARIATE F VALUES OF INTERACTION
OF GROUP BY GRADE FOR SEI RATINGS
FOR THREE DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Variable	F	Error MS	Signif. of F
Academic Competence	.872	126.021	.419
Peer Popularity	2.622	81.759	.075
Personal Security	3.290	92.297	.039

UNIVARIATE F VALUES OF INTERACTION
OF GROUP BY GRADE BY GENDER
FOR SEI RATINGS
FOR THREE DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Variable	F	Error MS	Signif. of F
Academic Competence	.568	126.021	.568
Peer Popularity	.462	81.759	.631
Personal Security	.181	92.297	.835

TABLE 15

POST HOC TESTS OF SEI
POST TEST STUDENT RATINGS

MAIN EFFECT – GENDER

VARIABLE	N	t VALUE
Perception of Academic Competency	225	−24.652**
Perception of Peer Popularity	225	1.867
Perception of Personal Security	225	5.983**

*p < .05.   **p < .01.

Additional Analyses

Further statistical analyses of the data set were conducted to determine if there was a relationship between student potential, as measured on the Otis Lennon Ability Test, and the social skills ratings. A Multiple Regression procedure was used to predict student ratings of social skills. The total score of the Otis Lennon Ability Test was used as the dependent variable. The four student social skills scales (Cooperation, Assertion, Empathy, and Self-Control) were used as independent variables. It should be noted that these scores were used as an aggregate score. The relationship of SSRS scores to student potential was found to be significant $F(4,211) = 4.363$, ($p = .002$). Two of the four variables, Cooperation ($p = .004$) and Self-Control ($p = .008$) contributed to the significant F score. These results are summarized in Table 16.

A Multiple Regression procedure was used to predict teacher ratings of social skills using the total score of the Otis Lennon Ability Test as the dependent variable and the three teacher scales (Cooperation, Assertion, and Self-Control) as independent variables. The relationship of the teacher ratings to student potential was found to be significant, $F(3,217) = 4.435$, ($p = .005$). Only one variable, Cooperation ($p = .032$) contributed to the significant F. These results are summarized in Table 17.

Statistical analyses were conducted to determine if there was a relationship between student achievement, as measured by the Scholastic Achievement Test (SAT), and the students' social skills ratings. A Multiple Regression procedure was used to predict student ratings from achievement scores. The standard score of the SAT was used as the dependent variable. The four student scales (Cooperation, Assertion, Empathy, and Self-Control) were used as independent variables. Once again, these scores were used as an aggregate score. The relationship of the SSRS scores to student achievement was found to be significant $F(4,211) = 5.076$, (p = .001). Two of the four variables, Cooperation (p = .006) and Empathy (p = .026) contributed to the significant F score. These results are summarized in Table 18.

A Multiple Regression procedure was used to predict teacher ratings of social skills using the standard score of the SAT as the dependent variable and the three teacher scales (Cooperation, Assertion, and Self-Control) as independent variables. The relationship of the teacher ratings to achievement was also found to be significant, $F(3,217) = 10.330$, (p = .000). Only one variable, Cooperation (p = .001) contributed to the significant F value. These results are summarized in Table 19.

A Multiple Regression procedure was also computed to determine if the Self-Esteem Index scores were related to

student 'potential,' (i.e., the total score on the Otis Lennon Test). The total score on the Otis Lennon Ability Test was used as the dependent variable and the three scales of the SEI were used as independent variables. There was no linear relationship found between student potential and scores on the Self-Esteem Index. These results are summarized in Table 20.

A Multiple Regression procedure was also computed to determine if the Self-Esteem Index scores were related to student achievement. The SAT standard score was used as the dependent variable and the three scales of the SEI were used as independent variables. There was a significant relationship found between achievement and SEI scores, $F(3,212) = 4.655$ ($p = .004$). Two variables, Perception of Academic Competence ($p = .015$) and Perception of Personal Security ($p = .024$) contributed to the significant F. These results are summarized in Table 20.

Further analyses were conducted to compare teacher and student post test ratings with pretest ratings. Paired samples t-tests were used to compare pre and post test scores on each subtest for each group. On the Social Skills Rating Scale (SSRS), there were no significant differences between the student pre- and post- test scores on the four subscales of Cooperation, Assertion, Empathy, and Self-Control for the control group. Teacher ratings of the control group also showed no significant differences on

the three measures. That is to say that a comparison of all student and teacher ratings on the SSRS revealed no differences between pre- and post-test ratings for the control group upon completion of the study. These results are summarized in Table 21.

On the Self-Esteem Index, the Control Group showed no significant differences in Perception of Peer Popularity or Personal Security. On the SEI, however, the students rated themselves lower in Perception of Academic Competence on the post test indicating that the students' perception of academic competence decreased over the school year. (Pretest M = 62.878; Post Test M = 59.733, t = 3.03, p = .003). These results are summarized in Table 22.

Teacher and student comparisons of SSRS post test ratings and pretest ratings of the Experimental Group were also conducted. Paired samples t-tests compared pre and post test scores on each subtest for each group. The Experimental group showed significant differences between student pretest and post test scores on the Cooperation (p = .001), Assertion (p = .000), and Empathy (p = .041) scales of the SSRS. All scores on these three factors decreased after treatment when compared to before treatment scores. The Self-Control measure did not show a significant change from pre to post treatment. The teacher ratings were found to be significantly different on all measures. Cooperation (p = .001), Assertion (p = .000), and Self-Control (p =

.001) scores were significantly higher after treatment when compared to the pre- treatment measures. Whereas teachers rated students significantly higher on all measures, the students, with the exception of Self-Control, rated themselves lower post treatment. Results of the analyses are reported in Table 21.

On the Self-Esteem Index, the Experimental Group, like the Control Group, showed no significant differences in Perception of Peer Popularity or Personal Security. The Experimental Group also rated themselves lower in Perception of Academic Competence on the post-test indicating that the students' perception of academic competence decreased over the school year. (Pretest M = 63.297; Post Test M = 60.453, t = 2.93, p = .004). These results are summarized in Table 22.

Further analyses were conducted to determine if there were differences in the perceptions of nonacademic teachers (Music and Physical Education teachers) compared to academic teachers (classroom teachers). It should be noted that the music and physical education teachers completed the SSRS teacher form for students in the treatment group only. That is to say that all comparisons are related to the treatment group only. The control group was not included in these analyses. Paired sample t-tests were completed comparing the music teacher's ratings to the classroom teachers' ratings. There were no significant differences found in the ratings

for Cooperation and Self-Control. On the Assertion Scale, the classroom teachers rated the students significantly higher than the music teachers. (Classroom Teacher's Mean = 16.191; Music Teacher Mean = 12.632, $t(135) = 9.03$, $p = .000$). The Physical Education teacher's ratings were also compared to the classroom teachers' ratings. Paired sample t-tests were used for the comparison. The PE teacher rated students higher on Cooperation and Self-Control. On the Cooperation Scale $t(134) = -7.53$, ($p = .000$) and on the Self-Control Scale $t(134) = -2.81$, ($p = .006$). On the Assertion Scale the classroom teachers' ratings were significantly higher than the ratings of the physical education teacher with $t(134) = 3.02$, ($p = .003$). Comparisons of the physical education teacher and the music teacher indicated that the PE teacher rated students higher than the music teacher on all three scales. These results are summarized in Table 23.

To further compare the differences of nonacademic teachers' ratings to classroom teachers' ratings, the music and physical educations teachers' scores were compiled to create a single nonacademic score. On the Cooperation Scale, nonacademic teachers rated the students significantly higher than classroom teachers. (Nonacademic Mean = 18.293; Academic Mean = 16.993, $t(134) = -4.58$, $p = .000$). On the Assertion Scale, the classroom teachers rated the students significantly higher than the nonacademic teachers

(Nonacademic Mean = 13.893; Academic Mean = 16.193, t(134) = 7.24, p = .000). There were no significant differences found with respect to the Self-Control Scale. These results are summarized on Table 24.

TABLE 16

MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF RELATIONSHIP
OF SSRS STUDENT RATINGS
TO ABILITY LEVEL

Multiple R	.276
R Square	.076
Adjusted R Square	.059
Standard Error	13.654
F	4.363
Significance of F	.002*

Variables	N	Beta	T	Significance of T
Self-Control	218	-.249	-2.690	.008*
Empathy	218	.110	1.279	.202
Cooperation	218	.260	2.931	.004*
Assertion	218	-.057	-.602	.548

TABLE 17

MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF RELATIONSHIP
OF SSRS TEACHER RATINGS
TO ABILITY LEVEL

Multiple R	.240
R Square	.058
Adjusted R Square	.045
Standard Error	13.991
F	4.435
Significance of F	.005*

Variables	N	Beta	T	Significance of T
Self-Control	223	-.265	- .779	.437
Assertion	223	.470	1.410	.160
Cooperation	223	.720	2.165	.032*

TABLE 18

MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF RELATIONSHIP
OF SSRS STUDENT RATINGS
TO ACHIEVEMENT LEVEL

Multiple R	.296
R Square	.088
Adjusted R Square	.070
Standard Error	22.754
F	5.076
Significance of F	.001*

Variables	N	Beta	T	Significance of T
Self-Control	220	-.160	-1.744	.083
Empathy	220	.191	2.238	.026*
Cooperation	220	.244	2.768	.006*
Assertion	220	-.081	-.865	.388

TABLE 19

MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF RELATIONSHIP
OF SSRS TEACHER RATINGS
TO ACHIEVEMENT LEVEL

Multiple R	.354
R Square	.125
Adjusted R Square	.113
Standard Error	22.189
F	10.330
Significance of F	.000*

Variables	N	Beta	T	Significance of T
Self-Control	225	-.068	- .713	.477
Assertion	225	.152	1.727	.086
Cooperation	225	.292	3.327	.010*

TABLE 20

MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF RELATIONSHIP
OF SEI RATINGS TO ABILITY LEVEL

Multiple R	.168
R Square	.028
Adjusted R Square	.014
Standard Error	14.078
F	2.047
Significance of F	.108

Variables	N	Beta	T	Significance of T
Personal Security	220	.190	2.012	.046*
Academic Competence	220	.075	.962	.340
Peer Popularity	220	-.108	-1.080	.281

MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF RELATIONSHIP
OF SEI RATINGS TO ACHIEVEMENT LEVEL

Multiple R	.249
R Square	.062
Adjusted R Square	.049
Standard Error	23.07945
F	4.655
Significance of F	.004*

Variables	N	Beta	T	Significance of T
Personal Security	220	.211	2.272	.024*
Academic Competence	220	.188	2.461	.015*
Peer Popularity	220	-.151	-1.540	.125

TABLE 21

GROUP MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS
SSRS PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST COMPARISONS
OF PRE AND POST TEST RATINGS

Group One - Experimental
Student Ratings

| VARIABLE | PRETEST | | POST TEST | | t | 2-Tail |
	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.	Value	Prob.
Cooperation	15.1641	2.858	14.2656	3.026	3.41	.001*
Assertion	14.4609	2.559	13.4063	2.696	3.85	.000*
Empathy	16.4453	2.886	15.8203	3.093	2.07	.041*
Self-Control	11.9219	3.208	11.3203	3.119	1.85	.067
Total	57.9375	9.510	54.9297	9.287	3.41	.001*

Group Two - Control
Student Ratings

| VARIABLE | PRETEST | | POST TEST | | t | 2-Tail |
	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.	Value	Prob.
Cooperation	15.0753	3.001	15.1935	2.979	-.42	.674
Assertion	13.6559	2.483	13.8710	2.643	-.78	.439
Empathy	16.1720	2.773	15.9355	3.141	.84	.402
Self-Control	11.7527	3.325	11.5806	3.564	.48	.632
Total	56.4409	11.141	56.1828	10.880	.23	.816

TABLE 21 CONTINUED

Group One - Experimental
Teacher Ratings

VARIABLE	PRETEST MEAN	S.D.	POST TEST MEAN	S.D.	t Value	2-Tail Prob.
Cooperation	15.8603	5.153	17.0000	3.980	-3.51	.001*
Assertion	14.8015	4.232	16.1912	3.514	-4.42	.000*
Self-Control	15.6029	4.551	16.6250	3.897	-3.28	.001*
Total	46.0147	12.606	49.8088	10.242	-4.78	.000*

Group Two - Control
Teacher Ratings

VARIABLE	PRETEST MEAN	S.D.	POST TEST MEAN	S.D.	t Value	2-Tail Prob.
Cooperation	16.4839	4.896	16.9785	3.920	-1.35	.180
Assertion	14.3333	4.931	14.1183	4.173	.56	.580
Self-Control	16.1075	4.437	16.0108	4.717	.25	.805
Total	65.5022	32.987	67.8280	29.666	-.97	.336

TABLE 22

GROUP MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF
SEI PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST COMPARISONS
OF PRE AND POST TEST STUDENT RATINGS

Group One - Experimental
Student Ratings

VARIABLE	PRETEST MEAN	S.D.	POST TEST MEAN	S.D.	t Value	2-Tail Prob.
Acad. Compet.	63.2969	9.352	60.4531	11.141	2.93	.004*
Peer Popular.	59.6016	8.702	58.4922	9.036	1.25	.212
Personal Sec.	61.9141	10.544	60.2266	10.719	1.85	.066

Group Two - Control
Student Ratings

VARIABLE	PRETEST MEAN	S.D.	POST TEST MEAN	S.D.	t Value	2-Tail Prob.
Acad. Compet.	62.8778	8.482	59.7333	12.140	3.03	.003*
Peer Popular.	59.0889	7.193	58.7333	11.296	.28	.778
Personal Sec.	60.4667	10.448	61.0333	10.377	-.45	.653

TABLE 23

GROUP MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS
OF PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST COMPARISONS OF
MUSIC, PHYSICAL EDUCATION, AND CLASSROOM TEACHER RATINGS

CLASSROOM TEACHER   MUSIC TEACHER

VARIABLE	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.	t Value	2-Tail Prob.
Cooperation	13.000	3.980	17.456	4.059	-1.28	.204
Assertion	16.191	3.514	12.632	4.511	9.03	.000*
Self-Control	16.625	3.897	16.677	4.346	-.14	.885

CLASSROOM TEACHER   P. E. TEACHER

VARIABLE	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.	t Value	2-Tail Prob.
Cooperation	16.993	3.993	19.148	1.900	-7.53	.000*
Assertion	16.193	3.527	15.207	4.030	3.02	.003*
Self-Control	16.667	3.881	17.585	3.874	-2.81	.006*

MUSIC TEACHER   P.E. TEACHER

VARIABLE	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.	t Value	2-Tail Prob.
Cooperation	17.437	4.068	19.148	1.900	-5.43	.000*
Assertion	12.578	4.483	15.207	4.030	-7.69	.000*
Self-Control	16.652	4.353	17.585	3.874	-2.92	.004*

TABLE 24

GROUP MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS
OF PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST COMPARISONS
OF NONACADEMIC AND CLASSROOM TEACHER RATINGS

	CLASSROOM TEACHER		NONACADEMIC TEACHER			
VARIABLE	MEAN	S.D.	MEAN	S.D.	t Value	2-Tail Prob.
Cooperation	16.993	3.993	18.293	2.593	-4.58	.000*
Assertion	16.193	3.527	13.893	3.772	7.24	.000*
Self-Control	16.667	3.881	17.119	3.679	-1.51	.134

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Differences in Social Skills Ratings of Students

Null hypothesis one was crafted in an effort to determine if a social skills training program resulted in differences in students' ratings of social skills across three grade levels (fourth, fifth, and sixth grades). Gender was also considered as a possible factor relating to students' perceptions of social skills. Differences were found in students' ratings of social skills across the grade levels. Differences in gender were also documented. Taken together, these findings indicated that there were relatively large differences in students' perceptions of social skills between boys and girls and among grade levels.

Boys rated themselves lower on Cooperation, Assertion, Empathy, and Self-Control in both the treatment and control groups. This is consistent with findings of Kennedy (1988) who found that girls have greater interpersonal understanding, are more helpful, honest, cooperative, shy, and empathetic while boys have been associated with being aggressive and having more interpersonal problems.

Grade level differences were also found. It should be noted that the Empathy ratings contributed most

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significantly to the grade level differences. Post hoc
tests indicated that sixth graders rated themselves higher
than fifth graders and the fifth graders rated themselves
higher than fourth grade students. Therefore, social skills
seem to develop over the three year period. This finding is
consistent with earlier research in which significant
developmental changes in social cognition during the two
year period from fourth to sixth grade were reported
(Asarnow & Callan, 1985) and that the development is
systematic (Stein & Goldman, 1981). Asarnow & Callan (1985)
found that sixth grade boys had a greater ability to inhibit
intense aggressive responses, and their perceptions of
prosocial behaviors were more positive than fourth grade
boys. These findings were consistent for both the treatment
and control group subjects indicating that grade level and
gender contributed to group differences and were not
affected by the treatment program. The grade level
differences reflect developmental theories such as Piaget's
that view peer conflict and resolution as evolving into the
ability to compromise. Between the fourth grade and sixth
grade level, thinking reportedly moves from egocentric to
sociocentric (Kurtines, 1987).

As noted above, the factor contributing most to the
grade level differences was empathy. Selman (1981) found
that the ability to share an emotion with another or to
predict another's emotional reaction develops through middle

childhood. The results reported here support Selman's findings that empathy develops significantly from fourth to sixth grade and that empathy contributes to higher ratings of social skills. In addition, Gibbs, 1987, discussed that the lack of empathy (in part) results from limited opportunities in social role taking. Rose, 1983, reported that empathy develops through peer interaction in which a child can express feelings and respond to how another child feels. This lends support to Rathjen's, 1984, findings that children may not be able to demonstrate certain behaviors because of cognitive abilities like the ability to take the perspective of another. The social skills program used in this study provided opportunities for students to practice social roles. However, it is recognized that this may not be a noteworthy component of a social skills training program since differences were not found between groups in regard to students' perceptions.

Differences in Social Skills Ratings of Students by Teachers

Null hypothesis two was crafted in an effort to determine if differences in students' social skills as perceived by teachers resulted from the social skills training program. Grade level and gender were also considered to be important variables with respect to testing this null hypothesis. The teachers rated the students on Cooperation, Assertion, and Self-Control. Significant differences were found between groups, between genders, and

among grade levels. In addition, there were significant
interaction effects between groups and grade levels, and
significant interaction effects among groups, grade levels,
and genders. It should be noted that because of the number
of significant second order interactions, a discussion of
main effects and first order interactions is not meaningful.

Significant second order interactions of group by grade
by gender included both univariate and multivariate level
disordinal interactions. On the Cooperation factor, girls
in the control group scored higher than boys in the control
group and girls in the treatment group scored higher than
boys in the treatment group at all three grade levels.
Therefore, girls scored higher than boys on cooperation
given the same environment. The overall results, suggested
that boys are perceived as having considerably less
competent social skills than girls. The results were
similar to the students' self-ratings in which the boys
rated themselves lower than the girls on all factors. In
terms of gender, both teachers and students graded boys
lower than girls. These findings support the notion that
many teachers tend to rate girls higher than boys (Roff,
1981). These differential ratings should be considered when
evaluating gender differences reported by teachers. The
consistency with student ratings, however, suggested that
girls perceived themselves and were perceived by teachers to
be more socially competent than the boys.

A comparison of girls in the treatment group to girls
in the control group indicated that the girls in the control
group scored higher on cooperation at the fourth grade level
than the girls in the experimental group. The same is true
when comparing the male subjects from the two groups at the
fourth grade level. Therefore, the above finding that
fourth graders scored lower in the treatment group was
unaffected by gender. Cooperation decreased from fourth to
fifth grade for both boys and girls in the control group and
for boys in the treatment group. Considering the rather
limited scope of this study, it would be speculative to
address the decreased ratings between fourth and fifth grade
on the Cooperation factor. Because the study was cross-
sectional rather than longitudinal, this result may merely
reflect an unusual group of fifth graders rather than an
actual decrease in cooperation. With this qualification in
mind, considering development of self-concept, one might
speculate that the transition from conformity at the fourth
grade level to awareness of individual differences by the
sixth grade level (Scarr et al., 1986) may manifest itself
in lower cooperation. At the fourth grade level, students
may be more cooperative simply because at that age
conforming is of foremost importance. Smollar & Youniss
(1982) studied friendships and found that for ten to eleven
year olds (grades five to six), the most important quality
was cooperation and the ability to get along with one

another. At age 12 (grade 6), students are reportedly beginning to integrate social conventions into their social constructs (Scarr et al., 1986). This is reflected in the increase in Cooperation from the fifth to sixth grade in this study. At the fifth grade level, however, students in the treatment group were rated lower than the fifth grade students in the control group on the Cooperation factor. If cooperation tends to decrease from fourth to fifth grade, then the treatment may accelerate this process. Again this finding is considered to be speculative. Further research is needed to determine if this is a developmental component of moving from a self-concept of conformity to individual awareness (Scarr et al., 1986). Gender differences indicated that at this level, boys are most affected. Girls in the treatment group scored higher than the control subjects. Males in the treatment group still scored lower than boys in the control group. Therefore, gender did seem to play a significant role in the differences found to exist at the fifth grade level. When gender was not considered, the treatment group scored lower; this difference can be attributed to lowered ratings on cooperation for the boys. Note that the girls exceeded the control group at this level. Also, at the sixth grade level, the girls in the control group were found to be significantly higher than the boys in the control group. When reviewing the findings across the three grade levels, the control group subjects

were rated significantly lower on the Cooperation factor
from the fourth to the fifth grades. Each year their rating
on cooperation was reported to be lower than the subsequent
year. This finding indicated that students become less
cooperative through the middle school years. The downward
trend in cooperation could be attributed to the male gender
variable. By comparison, the treatment group subjects
showed this same trend from the fourth to the fifth grades.
However, at the sixth grade level, the trend shifted for the
treatment group subjects with significantly higher ratings
in cooperation when compared to the control group or to both
groups at earlier grade levels. That is to say that it is
possible that the social skills training program may
effectively disrupt a negative pattern in regard to
cooperation. At this sixth grade level, as stated above,
there was a significant increase for the treatment group on
the Cooperation scale. When gender is considered, this
increase can be attributed to both genders with tremendous
gains made by the boys. At the sixth grade level, the boys
in the treatment group scored higher than the girls in the
control group and just below the girls in the treatment
group. The boys in the control group at the sixth grade
level were rated far lower than all other sixth grade
students. That is to say that the treatment program appears
to be most effective for sixth grade boys. Serbin et al.,
1990, examined the effects of socialization in the resulting

gender difference in achievement. In the study, it was
found that the ability to sit quietly and respond to teacher
directed activities was important for school success. This
behavioral style is mainly associated with girls. However,
the findings for boys from families that promoted this
behavioral style were consistent with the findings for
girls. Therefore, socialization impacts gender differences
in academic success and both sexes could benefit from the
development of specific social skills that promote academic
success (Serbin et al., 1990). Although academic success at
posttreatment was not measured, clearly the social skills
program had an effect on boys ability to cooperate.

On the Assertion scale, the treatment group was rated
higher than the control group at all three grade levels
suggesting that given the opportunity for self-expression
and training in the generation of solutions to problems,
students learn to be more assertive. Gender differences
were also found. In the treatment group, girls scored
significantly higher than all other groups (girls in the
control group and boys in either group) at all grade levels.
Girls in the treatment group showed a steady increase from
the fourth to sixth grade. Girls in the control group
scored lowest of all groups at the fourth grade level. By
the fifth grade, however, girls were rated higher than boys
from both groups, but were still significantly lower than
the girls in the treatment group. At the sixth grade level,

Assertion ratings decreased from fifth grade ratings for the
girls in the control group. Girls in the control group
scored lower than both girls and boys in the treatment group
but higher than boys in the control group. In the control
group, boys Assertion ratings were highest at the fourth
grade level with a tremendous decrease at the fifth grade
level. Although there is a significant increase at the
sixth grade level, the ratings for assertion do not increase
to the level of the fourth grade boys in the control group.
Boys in the control group scored higher than girls in the
control group and boys in the treatment group at the fourth
grade level. By fifth grade, the boys in the control group
scored lower than all other groups. They also scored lower
than all other groups at the sixth grade level. In the
treatment group, boys scored below males in the control
group and girls in the treatment group at the fourth grade
level. However, by fifth grade, the boys made some gains in
assertion while the boys in the control group were rated
much lower. For the control group, assertion decreased at
the 5th grade level for boys and at the 6th grade level for
girls. Since assertiveness has been associated with not
only the ability to request preferences but to prevent
coercion into groups or activities against their will (Rose,
1983), this decrease is perhaps worth guarding against.
Although at the sixth grade level the control group boys
gained on the assertion scale, they did not show the large

gains that were made for the boys in the treatment group. Again, the pronounced effect of the treatment was for the sixth grade boys.

On the Self-Control factor, fourth grade students in the treatment group were rated lower than the fourth grade students in the control group. At this level, gender did not clarify group by grade differences. Female and male control subjects scored higher than female and male treatment subjects. As stated previously, this was also true for the Cooperation factor. Based on this finding, it would seem that the treatment had a negative effect on fourth grade students in terms of cooperation and self-control. This finding was contrary to what was expected and raises many questions. One could build a case for the notion that fourth grade may not be an appropriate time to focus on the development of feelings and attitudes. This may be true. A number of fine-grained investigations directed at the question are needed to determine the veracity of this hypothesis. However, there may be other factors to consider. Of major importance, is the difference in the level of treatment at the fourth grade level. Whereas the fifth and sixth grade students participated in small groups of up to eight students, the fourth graders participated in groups of up to twenty two students. The difference in group size was the result of limited numbers of group leaders. Participating in the larger groups may

have resulted in the students being more passive recipients
of information rather than active participants. In this
situation, perhaps students were afforded the opportunity to
raise questions in their minds but were not afforded the
opportunity to express their concerns. The larger group may
have also provided situations in which the student shared
information with a group that was too large to have the
qualities considered to be important for group process (e.g.
trust and belonging). Students who felt open to express
themselves may have felt too exposed if the large group did
not offer some degree of acceptance or closure. Expressing
oneself in a large group may have a greater backlash than
the same level of expression in a smaller group,
particularly if the smaller group allows the one who shares
to see the effect the disclosure had on each member of the
group. The size of groups in social training programs
appears to be an important factor. Intervention success has
been associated with the size of the group. In reviewing
the literature, McIntosh et al. (1991) found that all groups
with one subject were successful; eight out of ten small
groups had positive results, but only two of the eight large
groups had successful intervention results. Studies that
used whole-class groups had few to no intervention effects
(McIntosh, et al., 1991). In a study of third and fourth
grade classes, small groups remained on task significantly
more than large groups. In addition, it is well documented

that most students are more willing to participate in small
groups (Gage & Berliner, 1988). Rose (1983), reported that
optimal size for intervention groups is four to twelve
children per group. Future research is needed to determine
if fourth grade level students can benefit from the type of
treatment program described in this study. It is recognized
that the results of this study may be an artifact related to
the different group sizes rather than differences across the
grade levels.

Another issue that this unexpected finding raises is
the question of whether the seeming lowered rating in self-
control and cooperation lays the ground work for the later
improvement. Unfortunately, this question cannot be
addressed given the design of this study. A longitudinal
study is needed to address whether or not social skills
training that may have a seemingly negative impact at the
fourth grade level does in fact prepare a student for
greater progress at subsequent grade levels in terms of the
development of social skills. At the fifth grade level,
there were no significant differences found between girls in
both groups, but males in the control group at the fifth
grade level were rated significantly lower than males in the
experimental group. At the sixth grade level, the males in
the control group scored below all other groups. Both boys
and girls in the treatment group scored higher than the
control groups at this grade level. For self-control,

positive effects of social skills training emerged for boys at the fifth grade level.

At the sixth grade level the treatment students scored higher than the control group subjects on self-control with positive gains made for both boys and girls. One of the major components of the social skills training program was to help students learn to generate more prosocial solutions to problems. With a greater repertoire of possible solutions, self-control increased. Asarnow & Callan (1985) found a relationship between the ability to generate alternative solutions to social adjustment. They found that poor adjustment was related to fewer solutions and that aggressive solutions were rated more positively than prosocial solutions. These findings suggest that self-control can be improved through social skills training.

On the Self-Control factor, girls in the control group scored highest at the fourth grade level. Self-control for this group was rated lower at the fifth grade level and showed little growth by the sixth grade. Boys in the control group scored significantly higher in fourth grade than they did in fifth grade. Their ratings increased in sixth grade but did not reach the level of the fourth grade control group subjects. The treatment group for girls showed a steady increase from the fourth to sixth grade with the largest increase being between fifth and sixth grade. The male treatment group did not show gains between fourth

and fifth grades, but made a very large increase in sixth
grade. Once again, the treatment appeared to have the
greatest influence on sixth grade males. An important gain
may also be indicated at the fifth grade level with the boys
in the treatment group staying relatively stable while the
boys in the control group were rated significantly lower
suggesting the social skills training program may disrupt a
negative trend.

On the Assertion and Self-Control factors, once again
the control group subjects performed lower in the fifth
grade than in the fourth grade. The consistent tendency of
lowered ratings at the fifth grade level compared to the
fourth grade ratings needs to be carefully investigated. A
systematic replication of this study would be interesting to
determine if this finding is unique to the study at hand.
Both assertion and self-control increased for the control
group at the sixth grade level.

In contrast to the inconsistent pattern of the control
group subjects, the treatment group subjects showed a steady
increase on ratings of Assertion and Self-Control from the
fourth through the sixth grade level. This pattern was
found to be consistent for both boys and girls. The
treatment group subjects scored significantly higher than
the control group subjects at all three grade levels on the
Assertion factor only. At the sixth grade level, the
treatment group subjects scored higher than the control

group subjects on all three factors. Again, the training program appears to disrupt a negative pattern and to promote positive social skills gains.

Effects of Social Skills Training on Self-Esteem

Null hypothesis three was crafted in an effort to determine if after a social skills training program, there would be differences in self-esteem between genders, between groups, and among grade levels. Self-esteem was rated by students on three factors: perception of academic competence, peer popularity, and personal security. Significant differences were found between genders on the Academic Competence factor. The treatment did not have a significant effect on students perceptions, nor did grade levels. There were no significant interactions found among the groups, grade levels, or genders that appeared to be related to the students' self-esteem scores. However, gender differences were found to be significant. Differences were not indicated on measures of peer popularity or personal security. Differences were found in perceptions of academic competence with girls scoring significantly higher than boys. These findings on gender differences supports previous literature indicating that girls score higher on achievement measures than boys and that positive school success appears to predict self-esteem (Gage & Berliner, 1987). In addition, Asher et al., 1977, pointed out that good achievement results in feeling good

about oneself. Self-esteem and academic competence seem to be highly correlated; gender difference may be more directly related to achievement in this situation. Allen (1981) did not find differences between treatment group or control group on self-reports of self-esteem which may indicate that self-esteem is difficult to measure and/or the instruments available are not sensitive to detecting significantly discriminate differences.

Further Analyses of Differences in Social Skills and Self-Esteem

Tests were conducted to determine if ability level was related to the social skills ratings and self-esteem scores. On students' self-rating on the SSRS, there was a significant relationship found between student potential and ratings with cooperation and self-control contributing to this association. For teachers' ratings, there was also a significant relationship found with cooperation significantly contributing to the relationship. Correlational studies have shown that there is a relationship between achievement and self-concept. Poor social skills contribute to academic underachievement (Hughes & Sullivan, 1988). On the SEI the students' ratings of perception of academic competence, peer popularity, and personal security were not found to be related to ability level. It should be noted that ability scores obtained before treatment were used to determine if these ability

scores could be used as a predictor of social skill acquisition. However, there were no significant relationships found between SEI measures of self-esteem and the Otis Lennon School Ability measure.

Achievement was also found to be related to social skills with Cooperation and Empathy related to achievement levels on the student reports. On the teacher ratings, only cooperation was related to student achievement. On the self-esteem rating, a significant relationship between achievement and self-esteem was demonstrated with Perception of Academic Competence and Personal Security contributing to the difference. This finding lends some support to the body of literature that links academic success with self-esteem. Programs designed to improve achievement levels have yielded concurrent improvements in self-esteem (Gage & Berliner, 1987). School success has been related to positive peer relationships which promotes positive feelings toward one's self (Asher, Oden, & Gottman, 1977). Coopersmith, 1967, found that boys who rated high in self-esteem also had a history of school success.

Comparisons of Pre- and Post-Test Results

Interesting findings were revealed when students' pre- and post-test scores were compared. For the control group there were no significant differences found between the pre- and post-test scores. This finding indicates that without the treatment, untreated control students were no different

at the beginning of the school year than at the end of the
school year with regard to their social skills (e.g.
cooperation, assertion, empathy, and self-control). In
addition, there were no differences found between the
teacher rated pre- and post-test scores on the three factors
(cooperation, assertion, and self-control) for the control
subjects. On the Self-Esteem Index, students in the control
group showed no significant differences in perception of
peer popularity or personal security. However, on the
Perception of Academic Competence factor, the control
students did rate themselves lower on the post-test than on
the pre-test. Interestingly, the students' perception of
their academic competence decreased over the school year.
This finding suggest that schooling may undermine one's
perception of academic competence for some subjects.

An examination of the experimental group data set
revealed very different findings with respect to the
comparisons between the pre- and post-tests. On the Self-
Control factor of the SSRS, there were no differences found
between the pre- and post-tests. However, on the
Cooperation, Assertion, and Empathy factors, the students
rated themselves lower after treatment than before
treatment. This finding indicates that students did not
view themselves differently in terms of cooperation, but did
view themselves lower on the other three measures. It would
seem that not only did the students not benefit from the

treatment, but that the treatment had a detrimental effect on some students. However, in an informal survey, most students stated that they had a generally positive attitude toward the program. Hepler, 1991, found that statistical information did not accurately reflect the students' reactions to a social skills training program and suggested that programs should be assessed both clinically and statistically. In Hepler's study, statistical significance was not reached, but the students reported that they 'liked' the program and did learn new skills (Hepler, 1991). Another explanation for the lower scores might be related to self-reporting and a greater awareness of personal feelings and behaviors. Through the group interaction, students may have become more aware of negative behaviors that they may not have attended to in the past. This could increase frequency ratings on the self-reports of negative behaviors and be related to the reporting of lowered social competency.

Although the student ratings suggested a negative effect, the teachers' ratings of the experimental group yielded higher scores at the end of the treatment on all factors (cooperation, assertion, and self-control). One might attribute the teachers' higher ratings to expectations of the teachers. It is possible that since the teachers had put considerable effort into the program and may have been determined to see differences, that they may have over

reported differences that didn't actually exist. This could explain the discrepancy between the student ratings and teacher ratings. Although the students rated themselves lower, because of teacher rater-bias, the teachers reported improvement. This could also explain the discrepancy between teacher ratings for the control group and the experimental group. Again, the teachers of the experimental group subjects expected to see improvement whereas the teachers of the control group subjects had no expectations concerning the outcome measures. However, if this were so, one would wonder why the teachers of the fourth grade experimental group consistently rated the students lower than the teachers of the fourth grade control groups. Also, there was some inconsistency at the fifth grade level with some factors being scored lower for the experimental group subjects. Therefore, teacher expectations or personal investments in the outcome measures can not totally explain these unexpected findings.

The findings related to the SEI were the same for both the experimental group subjects and the control group subjects. There were no differences found in perception of peer popularity or personal security for both groups. Like the control group, the experimental group rated themselves lower on the Perception of Academic Competence factor. Once again, there is some evidence to support the notion that the students seem to feel less academically competent at the end

of the school year as compared to the beginning of the school year.

Differences in Perceptions of Academic and Nonacademic Teachers

To determine if classroom teachers rated students differently than nonclassroom (physical education and music) teachers, further analyses were conducted. It should be noted that these analyses were conducted only on the experimental data set. There were no significant differences found between the music teacher and classroom teachers' ratings of Cooperation and Self-Control. The classroom teachers rated the students higher than the music teacher on the Assertion factor. The Physical Education teacher's ratings were higher on the Cooperation and the Self-Control factors than the classroom teachers' ratings. Again, the classroom teacher rated the students higher on the Assertion factor. The Physical Education teacher rated the students higher than the music teacher on all three scales. When the music teacher and physical education teacher were combined as one nonacademic rating score, the nonacademic teachers rated the students higher on the Cooperation scale, but rated the students lower than the academic teachers on the Assertion scale. There were no significant differences found on the Self-Control scale.

Suggestions for Future Research

Taken as a whole, there is some indication that the social skills program employed had its greatest effect for sixth grade boys. Although there were positive effects for girls as well, the most dramatic differences were demonstrated on the ratings for sixth grade boys. The findings of the study raise many questions with regard to the efficacy of this type of program for fourth grade students. Further research is needed to determine if this is an appropriate approach at this developmental level. Appropriateness of specific social behaviors vary with age thereby necessitating the need to consider developmental level and specific skill deficits of the learner (Ladd & Mize, 1983). As Rathjen stated, "...the question in the social skills training area is no longer what program will work, but which program will be most effective for this particular child, with these processing abilities in this setting?" (Rathjen, 1984, p. 308).

An additional question for further study relates to group size. If the fourth grade had the same level of treatment with small groups of eight students rather than the large classroom group, the negative effects may not have been clearly demonstrated. Differences may be the result of group size rather than developmental level.

A third question is also raised in regard to the results at the fourth grade level. Because of the large

group size, the level of treatment was probably not as strong as the level of treatment at the fifth or sixth grade level. Elias et al, 1991, found a positive association between the level of treatment and children's ability to cope with stress. This suggested that the greater the treatment level, the greater the gains. Therefore, the treatment level at the fourth grade may not have been strong enough to effect a positive gain. Further research at this level is indicated to clarify these questions.

Because the design of the study was cross-sectional rather than longitudinal, it does not allow us to clearly address the possibility that the lowered ratings for the experimental group at the fourth grade may in effect lay the groundwork for greater gains in subsequent years.

In reviewing the results, it appears that the social skills program is not only not effective at the fourth grade level, but may be detrimental. This is an important conclusion if future research supports this finding. It may be that at this developmental level, before the student has developed a strong self-concept or the ability to perceive the world from another's perspective, exploration of social issues may only increase disequilibrium and disrupt the natural developmental process.

At the fifth grade level, the program yielded mixed results. Positive results at this level seem to be greater for girls than for boys. However, the program may

effectively disrupt negative trends for boys at this level and thus promote positive gains for subsequent years.

The program appears to be very successful at the sixth grade level and again, particularly for boys. Although the results seem to support the efficacy of the program at the sixth grade level, it would be valuable to extend the study to the seventh grade level. Do boys make the tremendous gains subsequently without intervention? Although the boys in the control groups were significantly below the boys in the experimental group, they did show positive gains from the fifth to sixth grade levels. If the study were extended to the seventh grade level, boys in the control group may "catch up" to the level of the experimental group. Further research is necessary to determine if these gains are not a simple acceleration of a normal developmental process.

Another series of investigations may be directed at addressing the discrepancy between student and teacher ratings of the experimental group subjects. There were consistent responses for the control group between teachers and students leading one to believe that the possible higher ratings of teachers in the experimental group might reflect teacher expectations or their investment in the program resulting in rater bias. However, as stated earlier, the inconsistency across grade levels does not support this assumption. The greater question may relate to the students changed perception as a result of the program.

In addition, lower student ratings for the treatment group subjects than the control group subjects was an interesting and unexpected finding. While teacher ratings for the treatment group subjects were higher, the students themselves rated themselves lower. This finding may reflect a greater awareness and sensitivity to specific behaviors that are then reported more harshly.

Longitudinal studies of ongoing social skills training programs may address many of the questions raised and help to determine if there are long term effects of social skills training. Pellegrini & Urbain (1985) addressed the problem of acquired cognitive social knowledge not translating into more adaptive social behavior. They speculated that immediate effects might not be readily apparent. Longitudinal studies would allow us to clearly address this issue.

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APPENDIX B

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF EACH OF THE COMPONENTS
OF THE TREATMENT PROGRAM

1. Monthly Meetings
    -schoolwide assembly (30 minutes; grades 1-6) will be
     presented at the beginning of the month and provide a
     focus for the month
    -school spirit activity: pledge or school song - used
     at all assemblies

2. Weekly -- Schoolwide within classroom --
     "Fridays" 3:10-3:30
    -all student discussion, valuative
    -journal writing - same questions each week - monitor
     progress
    -brainstorm (good example of put ups; practice
     listening)
    -collect positive examples of put ups and positive
     responses to put downs - give to the principal for
     bulletin board or daily announcements

3. Monthly group meetings for fifth grade students with
     cofacilitators
    -relates to monthly topic

4. Bimonthly group meetings for sixth grade students with
     single facilitator (Get Along Gang)
    -relates to monthly topic

Monthly Meetings:
1. First Meeting - Introduction
    -Goal: A school where kids come without being afraid
     of being put down
    -Put down language
    -Why
         *establish why we are doing this
         *what will happen
         *role play put downs and put ups
         *understanding why kids do put downs
    -Small Group Activities
         *"Me" unit
         *feel good about self
         *getting to know each other
         *journal writing (teacher comment is reflective)

2. Second Meeting - IALAC (I am loveable and capable)

2. Second Meeting - IALAC (I am loveable and capable)
    -Small Group Activities
        *IALAC spin-off (film strip)
        *strength bombardment
        *comparison from first to last week of the size of
         the IALAC paper
        *orally attribute strength to another student
        *journal writing - positive things about self
        --teacher writes back reflective listening comment

3. Third Meeting - Most Common Types of Put Downs in School
    -Role play one put down and two put ups
     Three ways of handling these: body language, laughing,
     dumb answer
    -Playground put downs
    -Whole group responds with positive response
    -Small Group Activities
        *more examples of put downs
        *"I" message
        *listening
        *communication activities
        *examples of put ups
        *develop list of put ups-compile book of put ups
        *logging put ups
        *pick one put up per day for principal to read
         over the intercom during announcements (put ups
         actually heard in real situation)
        *enlarge a positive response and post in hallway
        *bring in student council for examples of put ups

4. Fourth Meeting - Common Put Downs Outside of School:
        Family & Community
    -Family and neighborhood
    -Emphasis on put ups
    -One goal with family to stop put downs
    -Family feel goods; put ups
    -Small Group Activities
        *first week log of put downs in the house
        *what can we do to make each other feel good
        *write down what you can do or have done to make
         family members feel good
        *role playing to practice at home

5. Fifth Meeting - Understanding and Accepting Difference
        Among Our Peers
    -Sneetches
    -Pressure to conform
        *Nikes
        *starter
        *clothes
        *hair
        *material possessions

-Small Group Activities
      *brainstorm every kind of prejudice
      *list every kind of prejudice you have seen
      *relate to put downs -- we put down because we
       don't accept differences
      *brainstorm things that they had to do just to
       feel accepted but not what makes them feel good
      *"Brown Eyes Blue Eyes movie

6.   Sixth Meeting - Understanding and Accepting Differences
     Through Knowing Our Family Heritage (Anti Defamation
     League)
     -Involve Student Presentations
          *Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Indian, Russian, White
           Anglo Saxon, etc.
     -Geography: Where Did Ancestors Come From?
          *Create a school map
     -Small Group Activities
          *talk to parents about ancestry
          *share family stories
          *find out where family came from
          *find out why the family left -- why ancestors
           came here

7.   Seventh Monthly Meeting - Kids on the Block
     Understanding Prejudice
     -Small Group Activities
          *experience having a handicap
          *invite handicapped to speak to the students
          *handicap access
          *brainstorm acceptance: ways we do discriminate,
           why we allow it, how do you feel about someone
           who is different, what do you do when confronted
           with differences

8.   Eight Monthly Meeting - Closing Activity at the End of
     the Month
     -IALAC - see the difference in the size of paper
     -Puzzle Piece -all groups put together poster size
      puzzle piece

Other Related Activities:
     -Utilize student council to enhance school spirit
     -Compile book of put ups from all classes
     -Develop put up bulletin board
     -Identify one daily put up for principal to read over
      intercom during announcements
     -Create a school map of family ancestry (include dates)
     -Classroom activities/"whip arounds" etc.
     -Have a contest to create a saying
          ...Put Downs ...Put Ups

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VITA

The author, Sheila Morrison, was born April 11, 1949, in Chicago, Illinois.

Ms. Morrison obtained the degree of Bachelor of Arts from the University of Illinois, Chicago, Illinois. She continued at the University of Illinois obtaining a Master of Education degree.

Ms. Morrison has worked for thirteen years as a teacher of students with special needs at both the elementary and high school levels. She has also worked as an Educational Diagnostician in the Virgin Islands for two years. The last three years, Ms. Morrison has worked as a School Psychologist.

Approval Sheet

The dissertation submitted by Sheila Morrison has been read and approved by the following committee:

Dr. Ronald R. Morgan, Director
Associate Professor, Counseling & Educational Psychology

Dr. Jack Kavanagh
Professor, Counseling & Educational Psychology

Dr. Carol G. Harding
Professor, Counseling & Educational Psychology

The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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Date

Director's Signature