

COMMUNICATION SKILLS AND SELF-ESTEEM IN PREVENTION OF DESTRUCTIVE BEHAVIORS

Paula Englander-Golden, Joan Elconin Jackson, Karen Crane,
Albert B. Schwarzkopf, and Patricia S. Lyle

ABSTRACT

This study demonstrates the long-range effectiveness of SAY IT STRAIGHT training as a school-based program for the prevention of destructive behaviors by comparing juvenile police offenders among trained and untrained 9th-12th graders for 1½ years following training. In the 1984-85 school year, 357 of the 740 9th-12th graders in a southwestern town completed SAY IT STRAIGHT training. Participation was voluntary and required parental permission. During a five-month pretraining period which began with the first day of school, the number of juvenile police offenders was not significantly different among students who would eventually be trained or not be trained. During the following 7 months including summer vacation, there were significantly fewer offenders among the trained students. The following school year and summer vacation there were again significantly fewer offenders among the trained students. During the whole 1½-year study, the untrained students had about 4.5 times as many criminal offenses as the trained students and their offenses were more severe. Finally, 9th, 10th, and 12th graders as well as 11th-grade females who had been trained showed a significant shift toward behavioral intentions reflecting a greater willingness to implement their constructive decisions and feel comfortable doing so. This study extends the applicability of SAY IT STRAIGHT training which previously has been reported to significantly reduce alcohol/drug-related school suspensions among 6th-8th graders.

SAY IT STRAIGHT (SIS) training is a school-based program which has been used since 1982 to give students the opportunity to learn straightforward communication skills and achieve positive peer support, thereby enhancing their self-esteem. The effectiveness of this training in reducing substance abuse has already been reported (Englander-Golden, Elconin, & Miller, 1985; Englander-Golden, Elconin,

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Joan Elconin Jackson, M.A., Karen Crane, M.H.R., Albert B. Schwarzkopf, Ph.D., and Patricia S. Lyle, M.B.A., University of Oklahoma.

Reprint requests to Paula Englander-Golden, Ph.D., Professor and Director, Institute for Studies in Addiction, University of North Texas, Box 5428, Denton, Texas 76203.

Miller, & Schwarzkopf, 1986; Englander-Golden, Elconin, & Satir, 1986). In these studies significantly fewer alcohol/drug-related school suspensions and/or referrals (not including self-referrals) were found among trained as compared to untrained 6th-8th graders. Strikingly, there was not a single alcohol/drug-related school suspension during an entire school year in one middle school where an almost totally trained milieu was attained in the first month of the 1983-84 school year. These studies also reported that trained 5th-8th graders showed a significant shift in behavioral intentions that reflected a greater willingness to make constructive decisions in difficult situations, and feel comfortable doing so. Such a shift was not observed in a control school where students received standard information-centered substance abuse prevention curriculum.

A drop in vandalism-related repair bills and other situations reported by school counselors indicated that SIS training diminished other destructive behaviors. Therefore, it was decided to measure the effects of the training by observing juvenile police offenses among older students.

This paper presents the results of SIS training with 9th-12th graders in a small southwestern town over a follow-up period of 1½ years. Briefly, this training gives students the opportunity to discover their deepest wishes in difficult interpersonal situations and to develop skills necessary to implement them, thereby enhancing their self-esteem. They begin by exploring feelings and the reasons they have said yes in situations in which they very much wanted to say no. Invariably, they discover that they share fears of being rejected or not liked, or hurting a friend's feelings, of being embarrassed or not "cool." They discover that because of these fears they betray their deepest wishes.

Satir's (1972) body sculpting and guided imagery are employed to maximize the chance that students will experience and express feelings. Sculpting is a way of physically posturing one's body to express different communication processes: placating (we don't stand up for ourselves), blaming (we push others around), being super-reasonable (we lecture without expressing our feelings), being irrelevant (we change the subject or distract), and leveling (we honestly express our thoughts and feelings rather than tell others what we think they feel, we respect our rights and the rights of others). The guided imagery which accompanies each sculpture provides the internal dialogue appropriate to each communication. The combination of sculpting and guided imagery enhances the understanding of different communication processes both at cognitive and affective levels by allowing students to reexperience thoughts and feelings associated with each communication process as experienced in their life situations.

Having identified difficult interpersonal situations which may arise from their experiences, students are then cast as actors in videotaped "movies" which portray these situations. They explore how they feel, and discover what effect they have on others when they take care of themselves in ways that honor themselves as compared to demeaning themselves and others. As actors they have the safety of distancing themselves from the part they play while at the same time experiencing their own feelings. Thus, students who have a need to exhibit bravado can allow themselves to explore a wider repertoire of behaviors, such as caring and friendship, by playing a part. After each movie (that is, role-play) students share feelings and thoughts they experienced while acting their part, and give each other feedback on the effects they had on each other. The actors also receive feedback from students in the "audience" who observed the role-play. The videotapes are replayed for further processing. This gives students the opportunity to observe their verbal and nonverbal behaviors and change their behaviors in order to be more effective.

Recent prevention programs utilize multimodal approaches which include provision of facts, lectures, discussion groups, films, and social-skills training (Botvin & Eng, 1982; Gilchrist, Snow, Lodish, & Schinke, 1985). A "boomerang" effect was observed in at least one study which utilized a multimodal approach (Dignan, Block, Steckler, & Cosby, 1985). This study reported *more* favorable attitudes toward smoking after the program, and suggested that this may have been caused by conflict between ambient attitudes toward smoking and the educational material in the prevention program.

In contrast to multimodal approaches, SIS training is presented as an opportunity for young people to learn how they can take care of themselves in difficult interpersonal situations in ways by which they can deeply honor themselves. Provision of factual information about or discussion of alcohol/drugs is not part of SIS training. Indeed, when a student tells a trainer, "I can't promise you that I will never try a beer," which has happened on occasion, the trainer responds, "I am here to give you an opportunity to explore how you can say no when you want to say no." Since freedom is one of the most important values of young people (Beech & Schoeppe, 1970), the trainer minimizes the risk of rebellious reaction to the training by avoiding debate and respecting the students' freedom. The possibility of such a reaction has been noted (Johnson, 1982).

Within the framework of making movies, SIS training addresses itself to the skills young people report as lacking in their interpersonal behaviors, even after being exposed to existing information-centered substance abuse prevention programs. In order of importance, these

skills are: how to say "no" to a friend; how to say "I have quit" to a group of friends; and how to say "I don't like what I see you doing" to a friend. Situations in which students deal with these issues and explore behaviors which lead to high self-esteem and the evoking of respect by others are very broad and include alcohol/drug abuse, drinking and driving, cheating, stealing, vandalism, and sexual behavior. As mentioned previously, the situations to be explored are chosen by students. It is interesting to note that these situations correspond to what young people report they are challenged to do by their peers (Lewis & Lewis, 1984).

METHOD

Subjects

In the 1984-1985 school year, 357 9th-12th graders in a southwestern town (population about 5,000) received SIS training. Although training was offered to all 9th and 10th graders, two 10th-grade teachers did not want it conducted in their classes; therefore, two 11th- and two 12th-grade classes whose teachers wanted the training participated instead. Training was voluntary and required parental permission. Anonymity was preserved in all data collection.

In the junior high school, with a total enrollment of 679 7th-9th graders, 186 of the 208 9th graders participated in the program. In the high school, with a total enrollment of 532 10th-12th graders, 108 of the 221 10th graders, 35 of the 166 11th graders, and 28 of the 145 12th graders received training.

In the 1985-1986 school year, 278 students who were trained in the previous year were still in grades 10-12 in the high school. Out of 199 10th graders, 153 had been trained the previous year. Out of 211 11th graders, 88 had been trained the year before. Out of 167 12th graders, 37 had been trained the year before. With the help of the local police department, these students were followed-up in 1985-86. Finally, police offenses of 211 students who were 9th graders in 1985-86 (and therefore not trained) also were monitored to permit comparison with the trained 9th graders of the previous school year.

Training

SIS training was conducted over 5 consecutive days during regular class periods of approximately 50 minutes each. Groups of 20 or fewer students worked with one or two trainers.

During the first session, students were asked: "Have you ever found yourself in a situation in which you very much wanted to say no but

for whatever reason you said yes instead?" To help students get in touch with their feelings and the reasons for saying yes when they wanted to say no, trainers sculpted them in the kneeling, placating position (Satir, 1972). While in that posture for about one minute, students were asked to close their eyes, imagine standing in front of them the person(s) to whom they said yes, and then imagine themselves saying, "I'll do anything, just let me be your friend. Without your friendship I am nothing. I'll do anything, just let me please you." During this guided imagery, students were asked to become aware of their breathing, bodily sensations, sense of self-worth, competence, personal power/strength, connectedness, and any other feelings they might have toward themselves and toward the imagined person(s). Students were then given the opportunity to share the feelings that surfaced and the reasons they said yes when they wanted to say no. Some of these were fear of being rejected, fear of being embarrassed, fear of not being cool, fear of hurting a friend's feelings, and fear of losing a friend. In this way students became aware that because of these fears they sometimes said yes even though it produced overwhelmingly negative feelings, and that this was a common condition which we usually hide. The trainers explained that they were there to give the students the opportunity to explore how they could say no effectively when they chose to say it, and when it was in their best interest to do so, as well as how they could be most effective in talking to a friend about whose behavior they were concerned.

Communication concepts, sculpting, and role-playing were introduced during the first session. All communication processes (placating, blaming, leveling, being super-reasonable, and being irrelevant) were sculpted during the first two sessions. The 2nd-4th sessions were spent making "movies" (role-playing), processing thoughts and feelings which emerged and reviewing the videotaped work.

Saying no to an offer of drugs could be role-played in the following ways: "I don't want it" (leveling); "I can't; I've got to go. If I get caught, my parents will kill me" (placating); "I'm hungry. Let's go eat" (irrelevant); "That's stupid, you jerk" (blaming); or "This is extremely addictive, it leads to crime, to mental problems, it's deadly" (super-reasonable). Intervention with a friend might be explored as: "This is killing you. Don't be stupid" (blaming); "What you are doing is deadly. Many kids turn to stealing and drug dealing" (super-reasonable); "How are you? How are things at home? How's school?" (irrelevant); "If I had your troubles, I'd do it too" (placating); or "We are friends. I care about you and I'm scared when I see what you are doing. I'll stick by you, let's go see the counselor" (leveling). Saying "I have quit" to friends with whom an actor had done things he or she no longer wished to do

also was explored with the different communication styles, and situations which involved cheating, stealing, vandalism, and sexual behavior were explored in similar ways.

When processing each "movie," students explored how they felt and what effect they had on others when they interacted in ways which honored themselves as compared to ways which demeaned themselves and others. They learned to distinguish what they felt from what they thought or believed in the different situations.

Each day a few minutes were reserved to review the student SAY IT STRAIGHT workbook (Englander-Golden, 1983) which was used by students as a journal. On the last day, the feelings of senders and receivers of each communication process were reviewed, as well as the most and least effective ways to intervene with a friend. The last ten minutes of this session were reserved for completion of an anonymous subjective questionnaire which allowed students to provide feedback of a more personal nature than was possible on the objective questionnaire.

Students who did not have parental permission to participate in the training were given the choice of staying in the classroom and observing or of working in the library.

Objective Questionnaire

Classroom teachers were responsible for the administration of an objective pre- and posttest to measure behavioral intentions which reflect willingness to implement constructive decisions in difficult situations and the degree of comfort in doing so. These questionnaires were administered about one week prior to SIS training and within two weeks after it was completed. The objective questionnaire was based on Prince's Social Skills Situation Survey (Prince, 1975). Twenty-six questions were scored on a 6-point scale, with 1 indicating the most able response and 6 indicating the least able. The total score was divided by the number of questions answered. Students who did not respond to a minimum of 10 questions (arbitrary cutoff) were dropped from analysis. The following is a sample of two questions: Suppose you are at a party and the person who is supposed to drive you home has had too much to drink. He/she insists on driving anyway and tells you to get into the car. What would you do? Suppose you are in this situation and the person begins to make a scene in front of other people. To respond to these questions, students could choose among the following responses:

- 1 = I would say no and feel OK about it.
- 2 = I would say no and feel somewhat bad about it.

- 3 = I would say no and feel real bad about it.
- 4 = I would say yes and feel real bad about it.
- 5 = I would say yes and feel somewhat bad about it.
- 6 = I would say yes and feel OK about it.

To minimize the possibility of response-set bias, one of the questions at the beginning of the questionnaire was phrased in such a way that, in order to make the most able response, a student had to choose the score of 6 rather than a score of 1. During data reduction the response to this question was inverted before being added to the total score.

To preserve anonymity, students were assigned identification numbers which they maintained on the pre- and posttests.

It is important to note that the objective questionnaire serves two purposes. It allows analysis of shifts in behavioral intentions. It also cues students to potentially difficult situations, and after training gives them another chance to look at themselves in the same situations.

Feedback on Feelings and Effectiveness of Communication

Feedback on feelings was collected during the last day of training. Students were asked how it felt to be senders and receivers of each communication process, as well as the most and least effective ways to talk to a friend about whose behavior they were concerned. This feedback was recorded on the chalkboard and later transcribed. If different words were mentioned for similar feelings, such as "mad" and "angry," both were recorded, but each descriptive word was recorded only once per class, regardless of the number of students who used it.

Subjective Questionnaire

The subjective questionnaire gave students the opportunity to respond in their own words to such matters as what they learned about saying no, what parts of the training they found most and least useful, and what they would do if they found a friend "using." To objectify some of these subjective responses, an item was included asking students to check which of the following they had found it was OK to do: say no; say no without giving excuses; leave the scene; risk getting a friend mad at me; risk getting mad at a friend; other. Although this questionnaire was not used for any statistical analysis, it allowed students to give anonymous feedback of a more personal nature than was possible on a more objective questionnaire. It also allowed students to discharge any negative feelings in a safe way. Thus, to the question "What I learned," a student could reply, "Nothing. I already knew everything," a statement which might have been difficult to make during training.

Behavioral Measure

The police department was given a list of trained students. As juvenile offenses occurred, the following information was recorded by the police: type of offense, birth date and grade of offender, whether or not the offender had received SIS training, and, if so, the date of training. Each offender was uniquely identifiable; however, no names appeared on the records which were regularly collected from the police. Thus, the anonymity of individual offenders was protected.

RESULTS

Attitudinal Measure: Objective Questionnaire of Behavioral Intentions

At an attitudinal level the effectiveness of the training was tested by means of *t* tests for paired observations performed on the pre- and posttests of the objective questionnaire.

Although 357 students were trained, the *t* tests in Table 1 are based on 282 paired observations. Four students who failed to meet the arbitrary cutoff of 10 questions were dropped from analysis (one 9th grader, two 10th graders, and one 12th grader). The remaining 71 students were missing either the pre- or posttest, which is a loss of 19.89%. Such a loss is consistent with school absences (Wechsler, Rohman, Kotch, & Idelson, 1984).

Table 1 shows mean pretest and posttest scores on the objective questionnaire obtained from 9th through 12th graders, standard de-

TABLE 1

Mean Pre and Post-test Scores on Objective Questionnaires for 9th through 12th Grades, Sample Sizes, Standard Deviations, *t*-tests, Degrees of Freedom, and Significance Levels

Grade School	Pretest		Post-test		t	df	p		
	Mean	N	S.D.	Mean				N	S.D.
9th*	2.33	(142)	.57	2.13	(142)	.64	4,805	141	.000
10th**	2.37	(90)	.61	2.09	(90)	.72	4,591	89	.000
11th***	2.54	(31)	.67	2.59	(31)	1.28	-0.219	30	.822 ns
12th****	2.20	(19)	.62	1.71	(19)	.76	4,253	18	.001
*Total enrollment 208; Total Trained 186									
**Total enrollment 221; Total Trained 108									
***Total enrollment 166; Total Trained 35									
****Total enrollment 145; Total Trained 28									

viations, results of *t* tests for paired observations, degrees of freedom, and significance levels. Number of students is indicated in parentheses.

As can be seen in Table 1, training significantly increased the self-reported behavioral intentions to implement constructive decisions, and feel more at ease doing so, for 9th, 10th, and 12th graders (lower scores indicate higher skills). For 9th graders $t = 4.805$, $df = 141$, $p < .000$; for 10th graders $t = 4.591$, $df = 89$, $p < .000$; and for 12th graders $t = 4.253$, $df = 18$, $p < .001$. However, the training did not have a significant effect on 11th graders, $t = -0.219$, $df = 30$, $p < .822$, n.s.

In Tables 2 and 3 the same analyses are shown as a function of sex. Table 2 shows significant shifts in self-reported behavioral intentions for females. For 9th graders $t = 2.595$, $df = 71$, $p < .011$; for 10th graders $t = 3.707$, $df = 42$, $p < .001$; for 11th graders $t = 3.389$, $df = 10$, $p < .007$; and for 12th graders $t = 3.992$, $df = 7$, $p < .006$.

As can be seen in Table 3, significant shifts occurred for males in

TABLE 2

Female Mean Pre and Post-test Scores on Objective Questionnaires for 9th through 12th Grades, Sample Sizes, Standard Deviations, *t*-tests, Degrees of Freedom, and Significance Levels

Grade School	Pretest		Post-test		t	df	p		
	Mean	N	S.D.	Mean				N	S.D.
9th	2.40	(72)	.57	2.24	(72)	.62	2,595	71	.011
10th	2.44	(43)	.58	2.23	(43)	.68	3,707	42	.001
11th	2.63	(11)	.52	1.91	(11)	.63	3,389	10	.007
12th	1.99	(8)	.46	1.26	(8)	.15	3,992	7	.006

TABLE 3

Male Mean Pre and Post-test Scores on Objective Questionnaires for 9th through 12th Grades, Sample Sizes, Standard Deviations, *t*-tests, Degrees of Freedom, and Significance Levels

Grade School	Pretest		Post-test		t	df	p		
	Mean	N	S.D.	Mean				N	S.D.
9th	2.26	(69)	.56	1.99	(69)	.60	5,195	68	.000
10th	2.30	(43)	.64	1.92	(43)	.63	3,872	42	.001
11th	2.49	(20)	.73	2.97	(20)	1.39	-1.464	19	.157 ns
12th	2.36	(11)	.68	2.03	(11)	.85	2,397	10	.036

9th, 10th, and 12th grades. For 9th graders $t = 5.195$, $df = 68$, $p < .000$; for 10th graders $t = 3.872$, $df = 41$, $p < .001$; for 12th graders $t = 2.397$, $df = 10$, $p < .036$. For 11th-grade males $t = -1.464$, $df = 11$, $p < .157$, n.s.

Some students did not indicate their sex on the questionnaire. Therefore, the total number of 9th- and 10th-grade females and males in Tables 2 and 3 does not add up to the total number of 9th and 10th graders in Table 1.

Behavioral Measure: Juvenile Police Offenses

Juvenile police offenses were monitored from the first day of the 1984-85 school year (August 22, 1984) through the last day of summer vacation (August 24, 1986).

The pretraining period was defined from August 22, 1984 (first day of school), up to the first day of training. To compare offenders and offenses during this time period among students who would eventually be trained and those who would not, a cutoff date had to be chosen for counting offenders and offenses among students who would not be trained. February 1, 1985, was chosen as the cutoff date for the pretraining period because by that date 50% of students who would eventually be trained had completed their training. In this manner the period of exposure to possible offenses was equalized for trained and untrained students.

During the pretraining period there were 17 juvenile police offenders among the 357 9th-12th graders who would eventually be trained, and 31 juvenile police offenders among the 383 9th-12th graders who would not be trained. This difference was not significant, χ^2 (adjusted for continuity) = 2.855, $df = 1$, $p = .091$, although it does indicate that there may have been some self-selection bias as to who would eventually be trained. However, it is interesting to note that the only offense for 9 of the 31 offenders who would never be trained was for "run away." This offense accounts for most of the difference between the two groups of students.

The first posttraining period spanned the time beginning with the first day of training (or beginning with February 1, 1985) and continuing through the rest of the school year and the summer vacation, that is, through August 27, 1985. Of the 357 trained 9th-12th graders during this time frame, 8 were offenders; of the 383 untrained students, 25 were offenders. The number of juvenile police offenders was significantly lower among the trained students as compared to the untrained students, with χ^2 (adjusted for continuity) = 6.994, $df = 1$, $p = .008$. One of the 8 trained offenders also had an offense prior to training; thus, he was a repeater.

Table 4 shows the distribution of offenses among the trained and untrained offenders. As can be seen, some of the untrained students had more than one offense, totaling 29, whereas the 8 trained offenders had 8 offenses.

The second posttraining period spanned the whole school year of 1985-86 and the 1986 summer vacation, that is, from August 28, 1985, through August 24, 1986. Of the 357 9th-12th graders who were trained during the previous school year, 278 were now in the town's high school (10th-12th graders). Of these 278 trained students, 17 were offenders; of the 299 untrained students, 38 were offenders. The number of juvenile police offenders was significantly lower among trained students as compared to the untrained students, χ^2 (adjusted for continuity) = 6.519, $df = 1$, $p = .011$.

TABLE 4

Juvenile Police Offenses Among 357 Trained and 383 Untrained 9th-12th Graders from Training or From February 1, 1985 Through August 27, 1985

Offense	Untrained	Trained
Aggravated Assault	1	0
All Other Offenses (Catchall category)	2	1
Burglary	1	0
Careless Driving	2	0
Failure to Yield	1	1
Improper Equipment	5	0
Larceny	1	0
Non-Hazard Violation	2	1
Other Assaults	1	0
Other Hazard Violation	1	0
Overdose	0	1
Possession Stolen Property	1	0
Ran Stop Sign	2	0
Run Away	6	1
Speeding	1	2
Vandalism	2	1
Total	29	8

Table 5 shows the distribution of offenses among the trained and untrained offenders during this time frame. During this period, that is, the 1985-86 school year and 1986 summer vacation, juvenile police officers among that year's untrained 9th graders were also followed. This allowed a comparison of offenders among the 186 trained 9th graders of the 1984-85 school year with the 211 untrained 9th graders of the 1985-86 school year. There were 5 trained 9th-grade offenders as of the first day of training through August 27, 1985 (the end of summer vacation), and 19 untrained 9th-grade offenders during the equivalent time frame of the following school year, that is, February 1, 1986, through August 24, 1986 (again the end of the following school year's summer vacation). The number of offenders among the trained 9th graders was significantly lower than among the untrained 9th graders of the following year in an equivalent time frame, χ^2 (corrected for continuity) = 5.877, $df = 1$, $p = .015$.

Table 6 shows the distribution of offenses among these two groups of 9th graders during the posttraining and posttraining-equivalent periods. As can be seen, the 19 untrained 9th-grade offenders had almost 6 times as many offenses as the trained offenders.

TABLE 5

Juvenile Police Offenses Among 278 Trained and 299 Untrained 10th-12th Graders from August 28, 1985 Through August 24, 1986

Offense	Untrained	Trained
Aggravated Assault	1	1
All Other Offenses (Catchall category)	8	1
Burglary	5	1
Careless Driving	4	0
D. U. I.	1	0
Drunkenness	0	1
Following Too Close	1	1
Improper Equipment	1	1
Liquor Law	1	0
Narcotic Drug Law	1	0
Non-Hazard Violation	3	3
Other Assaults	1	0
Other Hazard Violation	6	2
Overdose	1	0
Ran Stop Sign	1	1
Reckless Driving	1	2
Robbery	0	1
Run Away	3	0
Speeding	10	10
Vandalism	1	0
Total	50	25

It is interesting to compare these two groups of 9th graders during their comparable pretraining period, that is, from the beginning of their respective school years, up to training for one group and up to February 1, 1986, for the other. Among the 186 9th graders of the 1984-85 school year who would eventually be trained, there were 5 offenders during the pretraining period. Among the 9th graders of the 1985-86 school year who would never be trained there were no offenders during the equivalent time frame. Therefore, the results cannot be attributed to selection bias in 1984-85.

Table 7 shows the composite distribution of criminal offenses and traffic violations arranged in order of decreasing severity (as ranked by the police department) among 357 trained and 594 untrained 9th-12th graders pooled from Tables 4-6. When adding the offenses from these tables it is important to note that trained offenders in Table 6 are already accounted for in Table 4 and have not been added again. As can be seen, there were 33 offenses among the trained students (9 criminal and 24 traffic) and 108 offenses among the untrained students

TABLE 6

Juvenile Police Offenses Among 186 Trained 9th Graders After Training Through August 27, 1985 and 211 Untrained 9th Graders During an Equivalent Time Period February 1, 1986 Through August 24, 1986

Offense	Untrained	Trained
Aggravated Assault	1	0
All Other Offenses (Catchall category)	2	1
Arson	1	0
Auto Theft	1	0
Burglary	10	0
Non-Hazard Violation	0	1
Other Assaults	3	0
Overdose	4	0
Run Away	3	1
Speeding	0	1
Vandalism	4	1
Total	29	5

(67 criminal and 41 traffic) during a period of approximately 1½ years. The proportion of traffic violations among trained and untrained students was roughly the same (6.7% and 6.9%, respectively). However, the proportion of criminal offenses among untrained students was 4.5 times higher than among trained students (11.2% and 2.5%, respectively) and their offenses were more serious.

Although the trained and untrained populations contained varying numbers of students at different times, on the average there were

TABLE 7

Composite of Criminal Offenses and Traffic Violations from Tables 4-6 Arranged in Order of Severity Among 357 Trained and 594 Untrained 9th Through 12th Graders Over 1½ Years†

Criminal Offense	Untrained	Trained*	Traffic Violations	Untrained	Trained**
Robbery	0	1	Speeding	11	12
Aggravated Assault	3	1	Ran Stop Sign	3	1
Burglary	16	1	Failure to Yield	1	1
Larceny	1	0	Reckless Driving	1	2
Auto Theft	1	0	Careless Driving	6	0
Other Assaults	5	0	Following Too Close	1	1
Arson	1	0	Other Hazard Violation	7	2
Possession Stolen Property	1	0	Improper Equipment	6	1
Vandalism	7	1	Non-Hazard Violation	5	4
Narcotic Drug Law	1	0		41	24
D. U. I.	1	0			
Liquor Law	1	0			
Drunkennes	0	1			
All Other Offenses	12	2			
Run-Away	12	1			
Overdose**	5	1			
	67	9			

*Trained offenders in Table 6 are already included in Table 4.

**Severity of offense not ranked by Police Department.

†On the average there were approximately 307 trained and 463 untrained students per month during the 1 1/2 years of the study.

approximately 307 trained and 463 untrained students per month during the 1½ years of the study. A chi-square analysis of these offenses is not possible because some offenders committed more than one offense, so that the offenses are not independent frequencies.

Feelings Feedback, Effectiveness of Communication, and Subjective Questionnaire

Consistent with results reported elsewhere (Englander-Golden, Elconin, & Satir, 1986), the only communication which enhanced the self-esteem of the sender and triggered respect in the receiver was leveling. All the other communication processes produced overwhelmingly negative feelings in both senders and receivers. Tables 8 through 12 summarize these results.

The most effective ways to intervene with a friend (i.e., positive peer support) were to express caring, friendship, and to use touch. The least effective ways were lecturing and blaming. Table 13 summarizes these results.

TABLE 8

Feelings Reported by Senders and Receivers of Placating Communication by Grade

9th Grade Senders: low self-esteem (3), embarrassed (2), guilty (2), bad (2), terrible (2), down, upset, worthless, queasy, depressed, pressured, stupid, knees hurt, nervous, scared, retarded, like a nerd, like a drug addict, "don't blame me", wish you'd said "no".

9th Grade Receivers: powerful (3), bad (2), no respect for the other person (2), stupid, dumb, embarrassed, begging, slick, smooth, cool, superior, guilty, great, pretty good, good, the boss, hot stuff, the other is a pushover, the other is inferior.

10th Grade Senders: weak (2), low self-esteem (2), sad (2), terrible, no power, obligated, bad, don't get what you want, not good, embarrassed, like cheap trash, like I can't do anything right, scared, like a dumb butt, down in the dumps, crappy.

10th Grade Receivers: powerful (3), no respect for other (2), good (2), strong, rude, other is a pushover, merciless, mean, like a tyrant, little, alright, hungry, want to kill them.

11th Grade Senders: depressed (2), sad, weird, bad inside, like a lump of clay, like a big sucker, frustrated.

11th Grade Receivers: angry, sad inside, guilty, great, bad, and think the other is a worm.

12th Grade Senders: wimpy, agreeable, hesitant, depressed, inferior, like a jerk, "let me out of here."

12th Grade Receivers: angry, guilty, no respect for the other, and superior.

On the subjective questionnaire, 9th-12th graders responded in ways which were similar to responses reported for younger students (Englander-Golden et al., 1985). "I could say no and feel good about it," encapsulates typical responses, as do "It was easier than I thought" and "It was harder than I thought."

DISCUSSION

This study demonstrated the long-range effectiveness of SAY IT STRAIGHT training as a school-based prevention program, applicable to a wide variety of destructive behaviors outside the school environment.

There were significantly fewer juvenile police offenders among trained as compared to untrained high school students over a period of 1½ years. The frequency of criminal offenses committed by untrained students was about 4.5 times higher than that of trained students. However, traffic violations were similar among them. It is interesting

to note that many of the "movies" which were role-played during training reflected situations relevant to criminal offenses. Neither students nor trainers suggested situations which involved traffic violations.

The effectiveness of the training was also confirmed by a significant shift in students' willingness to implement decisions that are in their best interest and they feel comfortable with, in spite of peer pressure to the contrary. Eleventh-grade males were the only group that did not show such a shift.

In the safety provided by the framework of playing parts as actors in "movies," students discovered that giving voice to their deepest feelings, their deepest wishes was a way to be in charge of themselves. In this way they could enhance their self-esteem regardless of the outcome of their interactions. When they were true to themselves, they discovered that their fears of being rejected by a friend, hurting a friend's feelings, or not being able to stand the embarrassment were largely unfounded. At the beginning of the training, students had become aware that these were the major fears which led them to say yes

TABLE 9

Feelings Reported by Senders and Receivers of Blaming Communication by Grade

9th Grade Senders: bad (4), mad/angry (3), guilty later (2), strong/powerful (2), depressed, guilty, all right, upset, satisfied, like punching someone, better than someone else doing it, blaming it on the wrong person.

9th Grade Receivers: angry/mad (6), scared (3), guilty (2), not their friend (2), upset, afraid, weak, pain, hurt feelings, sad, miserable, wimpy, like a jerk, like a piece of trash, like jelly, two inches tall, shrinking, like slapping them, might get beat up.

10th Grade Senders: tough (2), strong, in control, mean, self-esteem high then low later, good sometimes, smarter, dominant, great, powerful, relieved, guilty.

10th Grade Receivers: mad (5), like a baby, weak, embarrassed, want revenge, powerless, like getting a gun, tell them to get off your back.

11th Grade Senders: good (2), stupid, powerful, angry, stupid later, strong, authority, stable, tough.

11th Grade Receivers: mad, foolish, hilarious, upset, mean, blaming, don't like the other.

12th Grade Senders: angry/mad (2), guilty later (2), mean, powerful, bad, good.

12th Grade Receivers: shocked, scared, angry, amazed, indignant, not too good, bad, like pushing back.

TABLE 10

Feelings Reported by Senders and Receivers of Irrelevant Communication by Grade

9th Grade Senders: nervous (2), stupid (2), unsure, uncomfortable, angry, pressured, embarrassed, scared, cool, like you're in the principal's office, stomach tied in knots, inferior, like a nerd, bratty, disturbing, want to leave, pestering, IQ of a clam, IQ of a doorknob, IQ of a brick wall.

9th Grade Receivers: angry/mad (4), annoyed (3), aggravated (2), frustrated (2), disgusted, weird, wonder what's going on, exasperated, confused, violent, inferior, bad, good, restless, like they don't like you, want to pound them into the ground, the other person is spaced out.

10th Grade Senders: stupid (2), scared, confused, helpful, don't care, wish they'd leave you alone, pressured, dusted, don't want to have anything to do with them.

10th Grade Receivers: mad/angry (4), ignored, want to leave, like the other doesn't care, stupid, frustrated, irritated, want to hit them, real annoyed, great, not so good, want to kill yourself.

11th Grade Senders: pressure, tension, shy, like a peace-keeper, not caring, feel nothing, see nothing.

11th Grade Receivers: annoyed, disliked, invisible, frustrated, mad, violent, like there's a problem.

12th Grade Senders: pressure, stupid, embarrassed, like a jerk, guilty, having fun, no big deal, like a comedian.

12th Grade Receivers: angry/mad (2), frustrated, disgusted, aggravated, aggressive.

third step has been identified as crucial to successful prevention (Serano, 1987).

Nowhere in the training were students told what their deep wishes or new choices should be. Therefore, we believe that the results of this study indicate that in a safe environment people discover that their deepest wishes are for wellness, not for destructive behaviors. When they are given the opportunity to practice putting voice to these wishes, they can later do so in difficult life situations.

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& Schwarzkopf, 1986; Englander-Golden, Elconin, & Satir, 1986).

We hypothesize that the effectiveness of SIS training involved the following steps: Having explored and experienced the different communications at affective and cognitive levels, students became aware of their own automatic behaviors in difficult interpersonal situations. The body sensations experienced as they sculpted the different communications made them aware of having experienced these sensations in real-life situations. These sensations became cues which alerted them when they were about to respond in habitual ways. Having that awareness, they could make a conscious, intentional choice to stop the automatic sequence, and choose behaviors which reflected what they deeply wished, thereby reproducing the outcome they experienced when they leveled during training.

The developmental process in the training can be described in the following way: (1) recognition of past behavior: "I have done this before"; (2) awareness of present behavior: "I am doing it now"; (3) awareness of anticipated behavior: "I am about to do it"; (4) awareness of deep wishes for desired behavior; (5) choosing behaviors congruent with one's deep wishes; and (6) implementing the new choices. The

TABLE 13

Most and Least Effective Ways to Intervene with a Friend, by Grade

- 9th Grade Most Effective: express caring (5), express friendship (3), take their arm (2), be subtle, honesty, say you'll go with them, blackmail, look them in the eye, guilt them, say "you can help us sometime," beg them, give support, talk.
- 9th Grade Least Effective: Yelling (4), lecturing/being super-reasonable (4), being blaming (3), just talking, saying "no" and walking away, arguing, confusing, threatening, hitting, saying you won't be their friend.
- 10th Grade Most Effective: express feelings (3), show worry (2), be honest, be leveling, show friendship, sit and talk, express caring, express love, take their car keys.
- 10th Grade Least Effective: lecturing (4), getting angry, convincing them they are drunk, blaming, threatening, guiltting, telling him how bad he is.
- 11th Grade Most Effective: express friendship, show support, be leveling, let your wishes be known, know how the other person felt.
- 11th Grade Least Effective: feeling sorry for them, lecturing, saying "you have a problem," being blaming, being super-reasonable.
- 12th Grade Most Effective: show respect, treat them like an equal, talk about friendship, be leveling.
- 12th Grade Least Effective: yelling, lecturing, blaming, talking about others.

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youngsters experience and express feelings emerging from different vantage points. Thus, out of their own experience, youngsters develop the capacity to recognize another's emotional state, to assume the other's perspective, and to respond affectively. These are the three components Feshbach conceptualized as making up the experience of empathy (Feshbach, 1983). It seems possible that this development of empathy is a contributing factor to the success of SIS training.

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Brief SAY IT STRAIGHT Training and Follow-Up In Adolescent Substance Abuse Prevention

PAULA ENGLANDER-GOLDEN, JOAN ELCONIN, KEVIN J. MILLER, and ALBERT B. SCHWARZKOPF

ABSTRACT: A shorter version of SAY IT STRAIGHT (SIS) training was investigated during the 1983-84 school year with 1055 5th, 6th, 7th and 8th graders. Training was delivered in 7- and 5-day models which were compared with the 10-day model used in 1982-83 with 509 6th, 7th and 8th graders. Both shorter training models yielded significant changes toward more assertive/leveling attitudes ($p < .01$). Comparisons of 10, 7 and 5 day training models yielded no significant differences in such attitude changes as a function of training length. Alcohol/drug related school suspensions were not found in 1983-84 among 5th graders whether or not they were trained. However, such suspensions were significantly lower among the 1566 6th-9th graders who had received training either in the 1982-83 or the 1983-84 school year compared to the 1295 6th-9th graders who were not trained ($p < .05$).

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School-based programs which teach skills to resist peer pressure appear very promising in alcohol, tobacco and other drug abuse prevention (Botvin & Eng, 1982; Englander-Golden, Elconin, & Miller, 1985; Evans, Rozelle, Maxwell, Raines, Dill, & Guthrie, 1981; Evans, Rozelle, Mittelmark, Hansen, Bane, & Havis, 1978; Horan & Williams, 1982; Hurd, Johnson, Pechacek, Bast, Jacobs, & Luepker, 1980; McAlister, Perry, Killen, Slinkard, & Maccoby, 1980; McAlister, Perry, & Maccoby, 1979; Perry, Killen, & Slinkard, 1980). Recently published results from the SAY IT STRAIGHT (SIS) project, (Englander-Golden, et al., 1985) showed significantly fewer alcohol/drug related school suspensions and referrals in the middle school (6th-8th graders) where SIS training was conducted compared to two control middle schools in the same city during the 1982-83 school year. Furthermore, no alco-

Paula Englander-Golden, Ph.D. is at the Department of Human Relations at the University of Oklahoma, 601 Elm, Room 730, Norman, OK 73019.

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hol/drug related school suspensions or referrals occurred among the 509 trained youngsters after completion of SIS training. Finally, trained youngsters reported stories to various school personnel which reflected their successful behavior in situations involving alcohol and other drugs.

Briefly, SIS training gives youngsters the opportunity to explore reasons and feelings for the sake of which they say "yes" when they want very much to say "no." Then, within role plays developed or adapted by the youngsters, they explore ways to say "no" as well as ways to talk to a friend about whose behavior they are concerned. Role players explore their own feelings and receive feedback on the feelings they evoke in others as well as on their effectiveness as a result of their communication. Virginia Satir's body sculpting (Satir, 1972) is employed to maximize the chance to experience and express feelings. Such sculpting is a way of posturing the body to express placating (we don't stand up for ourselves), blaming (we push others around), being super-reasonable (we lecture without expressing our feelings), being irrelevant (we change the subject or distract), and leveling (we honestly express our thoughts and feelings rather than telling others what we think they feel, we respect our rights and the rights of others). This enhances the understanding of different communication styles both at a cognitive and feeling level. Thus, when youngsters are sculpted in the placating position and experience the feelings evoked by saying "yes" when they very much want to say "no," inoculation against future persuasion (McGuire, 1964) is enhanced. In view of the fact that youngsters explore all communication styles as well as the role of "pusher," modeling theory (Bandura, 1977) might predict that they will model all of these behaviors in the future. However, the results indicate that youngsters learn to say "no," to say "I have quit," and to talk to friends about whom they are concerned. There is no indication that they learn to be pushers or to say "yes" to drugs. The most plausible explanation is that the processing of feelings allows youngsters to explore and share their feelings in a variety of roles. Only when they are senders or receivers of assertive/leveling communication do they report feeling respect for themselves and the other person (Englander-Golden, et al., 1985).

As a result of the success of SIS training in 1982-83, SIS training was delivered in three schools in 1983-1984. Since SIS training is delivered during regular class periods, it was decided to determine the effectiveness of more brief training. The present paper reports (1) the

The theoretical foundations upon which SIS training is based, including inoculation theory (McGuire, 1964), modeling (Bandura, 1977), and communication training (Satir, 1972), are discussed fully elsewhere (Englander-Golden et al., 1985). Perhaps the following anecdote will illustrate the importance of body sculpting to the inoculation component of SIS training. When asked "Have you ever been in a situation in which you very much wanted to say 'no' and for whatever reason you wound up saying 'yes' instead?", one 7th grader replied, "When I want to say 'no' I say 'no.' I am nobody's pushover." However, when the class was body sculpted in the kneeling passive/placating posture and asked to re-experience the feelings in a situation in which they said, in effect, "I'll do anything, just let me be your friend," this same youngster exclaimed "Yuck! This just happened to me last night!"

Youngsters (as well as adults) report that they dislike the feelings they experience when they placate. We believe that the inoculation against future persuasion is in the connection youngsters are enabled to make between these feelings and the act of saying "yes" when they very much want to say "no." We suggest that readers who have not experienced the power of body sculpting may wish to do so by allowing themselves to kneel and imagine standing in front of them a person to whom they said "yes" when they very much wanted to say "no," then imagine themselves saying to this person "I'll do anything, just let me be your friend," and getting in touch with whatever feelings emerge.

Among reasons given by youngsters for saying "yes" when they want to say "no" are fear of not being liked, fear of losing a friend, fear of being rejected, fear of hurting a friend's feelings and fear of not being "cool." These fears are so powerful that they lead youngsters to betray their decisions.

SIS focuses on the development of communication skills necessary to implement constructive decisions rather than on information regarding drugs or their harmful effects. In addition, it allows youngsters to get in touch with their own feelings and get feedback on the feelings they evoke in their peers as a function of their communications. For example, one youngster who was afraid to say "no" to a friend actually heard the friend say "I am glad you said 'no.' Now I don't have to do it either." When role playing "pushers," youngsters report feeling respect toward the person who says "no" in an assertive/leveling manner and no respect for the person who succumbs to pressure. Learning in this manner about the feelings of friends to whom they say "yes" or "no" may give them the courage they need to implement their constructive decisions in real life situations. Finally, by exchanging roles,

ing. This leads to the conclusion that SIS training gives positive prevention results whether or not it is combined with other school prevention programs.

The use of a behavioral measure such as alcohol/drug related school suspensions rather than self-reported use, is both a strength and a weakness of the present study. The low incidence of alcohol/drug related suspensions necessitates the limitation of χ^2 analyses to large groups of youngsters (where the expected frequency of such occurrence is at least 5). Although it is most probable that self-reports of alcohol/drug use would allow analyses of smaller groups such as individual grades, these reports have been shown to be inaccurate (Evans, Hansen, & Mittelmark, 1977).

Methods known to increase the validity of self-reported smoking behavior rely upon convincing youngsters that a random selection of their saliva samples will be analyzed. In the present study there were no funds for saliva thiocyanate tests (Luepker, Pechacek, Murray, Johnson, Hurd, & Jacobs, 1981), and the use of the "bogus-pipeline" strategy (Evans et al., 1977) was considered inappropriate in view of SIS training's focus on leveling communication. Although absolute levels of self-reported use may be inaccurate, changes in self-reports as a function of SIS training could be informative. Such self-reports will be obtained in the future.

Cessation was not systematically explored in this study. However, there is some evidence to suggest that SIS training has an effect on cessation. Of the six alcohol/drug related suspensions (excluding tobacco use) incurred by students prior to SIS training in 1982-83, only two "repeaters" had been found by the end of the 1983-84 school year. Although it is possible that the other four youngsters moved out of the school district or that they became more skilled at avoiding detection, the possibility of cessation is congruent with reports of school counselors that (1) there has been an increase of self-referrals among trained youngsters; (2) trained youngsters have approached counselors to discuss concerns about friends' alcohol/drug related behavior; (3) youngsters have asked for help after having been talked to by a sibling or friend who has been trained in SIS.

The one new user found among youngsters trained in 1983-84 in the second middle school illustrates the importance of SIS training for the educable mentally handicapped (EMH). The user was not a member of this class but was identified when, during a visit to the class, the student offered marijuana to a class member who had received SIS training. The EMH student immediately reported the incident to the teacher.

results of modified SIS training done with 6th, 7th and 8th graders where the length of training was shortened; (2) the results of SIS training with 5th graders; and (3) the results of a one-year follow up of youngsters trained during the previous year in one middle school. Incoming 6th graders in the latter school were trained at the beginning of the school year. Thus, it was possible to observe alcohol/drug related behaviors in an almost completely trained milieu.

Method

Subjects

In the 1983-84 school year, 1055 youngsters in three schools in a southwestern city received SIS training. In Middle School A, 740 of the 750 6th-8th graders participated in SIS training. This number included 15 educable mentally handicapped youngsters. In Middle School B, 509 6th-8th graders were trained during the previous year, 1982-83. At the beginning of the school year 1983-84, 234 incoming 6th graders were trained out of a student body of 742. Approximately 75 percent of the 7th and 8th graders who were trained during the previous year received reinforcement. In Elementary School C, all 81 5th graders were trained toward the end of the 1983-84 school year. Participation was voluntary and required parental permission. Anonymity was preserved in all data collection.

Procedure

The detailed procedure of SIS training has been described elsewhere. With the exception of the following minor changes, the content of SIS training remained the same as in 1982-83. In 1983-84 some of the students had a school administered substance abuse curriculum prior to SIS training, while others did not. Thus, rather than beginning the training with a reference to such a curriculum, SIS training was initiated with the question: "Have you ever been in a situation in which you very much wanted to say 'no' and for whatever reason you wound up saying 'yes' instead?" Furthermore, rather than using a training session to write role plays, students were encouraged to bring their own ideas for role plays to the second training session. In addition, trainers suggested situations which may not have been brought up by students. Finally, each youngster received a SAY IT STRAIGHT Workbook which complemented the training (Englander-Golden, 1983). Youngsters used this workbook as a personal journal.

tionnaire. At least 15 questions had to be responded to on the longer questionnaire and 13 on the shorter questionnaire for inclusion in the analysis. These cutoffs were arbitrary.

Reinforcement of SIS training. About 75 percent of the 509 youngsters who were trained in School B in 1982-83 as 6th and 7th graders received reinforcement in SIS as 7th and 8th graders in 1983-84. About 50 percent of previously trained youngsters were given the opportunity to videotape more role plays within a regularly scheduled health class. Since role playing was not possible for the remaining youngsters (due to space limitations), they were given the opportunity to review communication concepts during one class period. Because youngsters wanted to role play (which was not possible), and because they remembered the concepts from the previous year, this reinforcement was discontinued when about 25 percent of the previously trained youngsters had been exposed to it. The remaining 25 percent of the youngsters did not receive reinforcement.

The 92 youngsters who were trained as 8th graders in School B were 9th graders in two of the junior high schools in the city. These youngsters received no reinforcement in 1983-84. However, to allow a follow-up, alcohol/drug related school suspensions were collected for all 9th graders.

Results

Attitudinal Measure: Objective Questionnaire

The effectiveness of each training model used in 1983-84 was tested by means of t-tests for paired observations. These tests compared the scores obtained by the students on the objective questionnaire before and after SIS training.

Although 1055 students were trained, the t-tests in Table 1 are based on 759 paired observations. Among students who were dropped from analysis were the 15 educable mentally handicapped, nine students who failed to meet the arbitrary cut-off (one 8th grader, one 7th grader and seven 6th graders) and 25 8th graders whose pre- and post-tests could not be matched because of teacher error. The remaining 247 students were missing either the pre- or post-test.

Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations and results of analyses which reflect scores on the specific form of the questionnaire given to each group. Number of students is indicated in parenthesis.

As can be seen in Table 1, both the 5- and 7-day training models were effective in increasing the assertiveness/leveling scores of 5th, 6th, 7th and 8th graders (lower scores indicate more assertive/leveling attitudes). For 5th graders trained in seven days $t = 4.11$, $df = 68$, $p < .0001$; for 6th graders in School B trained in 7 days $t = 5.07$,

TABLE 1

Mean Pre and Post-test Scores on Assertiveness/Leveling Questionnaires for 5th, 6th, 7th, and 8th Graders, Standard Deviations, t-tests, Degrees of Freedom, and Significance Levels.

Grade	School	Length of Training (Days)	Pretest			Post-test			t	df	P
			Mean	N	S.D.	Mean	N	S.D.			
5th	C†	7	1.972	(69)	.532	1.698	(69)	.696	4.11	68	.0001
6th	B*	7	1.699	(193)	.351	1.575	(193)	.387	5.07	192	.0001
6th	A***	5	1.731	(157)	.364	1.582	(157)	.362	6.09	156	.0001
7th	A**	5	1.849	(58)	.470	1.714	(58)	.524	2.69	57	.0094
7th	A***	5	1.827	(129)	.440	1.698	(129)	.478	3.90	128	.0002
8th	A*	5	1.905	(74)	.367	1.804	(74)	.436	2.70	73	.0087
8th	A*	7	1.888	(79)	.292	1.754	(79)	.437	3.32	78	.0014

* Questionnaire Form 1

** Questionnaire Form 2

*** Questionnaire Form 3

† Questionnaire Form 4

$df = 192$, $p < .0001$; for 6th graders trained in School A in 5 days $t = 6.09$, $df = 156$, $p < .0001$; for the two groups of 7th graders in School A (both of which were trained in 5 days), who had different forms of the questionnaire, $t = 2.69$, $df = 57$, $p < .0094$ for one group, and $t = 3.80$, $df = 128$, $p < .0002$ for the other group; for 8th graders in School A trained in five days $t = 2.70$, $df = 73$, $p < .0087$; and for 8th graders in School A trained in seven days $t = 3.32$, $df = 78$, $p < .0014$.

Additional analysis was performed to confirm that the results in Table 1 were not affected by individual class differences. A one-way analysis of variance was performed on the different scores, that is, on the difference between pre- and post-test scores of individual students. Classes in which training was conducted were treated as the independent variable. This analysis was performed separately for each grade and questionnaire form. Significant class effects were not obtained. Only one F-value approached significance with $F(6,122) = 1.91$, $p < .084$, for 7th graders who took questionnaire form 3. All other p-values were above 0.1.

As mentioned previously, to compare the effectiveness of 5, 7, and 10 day training models all data was normalized to a single questionnaire composed of 20 questions common to all questionnaires used since 1982. Because of the shortness of this common questionnaire the arbitrary cutoff for inclusion in analysis was lowered to 10 questions.

Table 2 shows the results of one-way analysis of variance for the different grades with length of training as the independent variable. The dependent variable is the difference score between pre- and post-test. Number of students is indicated in parenthesis.

As can be seen in Table 2 there are no significant differences in the changes in assertiveness/leveling as a function of length of training.

Behavioral Measures: Alcohol/Drug-Related School Suspensions

Alcohol/drug related school suspensions were monitored for all 5th, 6th, 7th, 8th and 9th graders in the city for the 1983-84 school year. As no such suspensions were incurred by 5th graders, whether or not they were trained, they were dropped from any subsequent analysis.

The following contingency table shows numbers of trained and not trained youngsters (6th-9th grades) during the 1983-84 school year.

	Suspended	Not Suspended
Trained	4	1,479
Not Trained	13	1,282

Among the trained youngsters are those trained in 1983-84, as well as those trained in 1982-83.

Trained youngsters had a significantly lower number of suspensions, with $\chi^2 = 4.98$, $df=1$, $p < .03$.

Available information about the suspended trained youngsters showed that only one suspension was incurred by a youngster who had no record of such suspensions prior to SIS training (a "new user"). This youngster was an 8th grader trained in 1983-84. The other three suspensions were incurred by youngsters who received alcohol/drug related suspensions also prior to SIS training ("repeaters"). Among the repeaters were two 9th graders who were trained as 8th graders in 1982-83 and one 8th grader who was trained in 1983-84.

The breakdown of suspensions by grade among not trained youngsters was as follows: one 6th grader, one 7th grader, two 8th graders and nine 9th graders.

3. I would say "no" and feel real bad about it.
4. I would say "yes" and feel real bad about it.
5. I would say "yes" and feel just a little bad about it.
6. I would say "yes" and feel OK about it.

This scale is part of Form 4 which was administered to 5th graders in School C.

The analysis of individual class and grade performance used all questions on the appropriate forms. However, to allow comparisons of 5, 7, and 10 day training models for 6th, 7th and 8th graders all data was normalized to a single questionnaire composed of 20 questions common to all questionnaires. Since 5th graders were trained only in a 7-day model, their data (6-point scale) were not used in these comparisons.

The following are some examples of questions from the assertiveness/leveling questionnaire which is based on Prince's Social Skills Situation Survey (Prince, 1975).

You have been standing in the ticket line at the movies for 20 minutes. Just as you get close to the box office, three people, whom you know only slightly from school, come up to you and ask if you would let them "cut" in front of you.....

You are in the middle of doing your homework when someone you don't know very well calls you and says "I don't have much to do. Mind if I come over for a while?".....

Your best friend is constantly borrowing money from you in order to buy cokes, but he/she never pays you back. You are getting rather annoyed at this and have decided to stop lending money to him/her. Now he/she asks to borrow 25¢.....

Suppose this person is someone you don't know very well in one of your classes who keeps borrowing money and not repaying you.....

You are at a party. Some kids are smoking and offer you a cigarette.....

You are at a party. A close friend is smoking and offers you a cigarette.....

The construct validity of this questionnaire was confirmed in previously published results (Englander-Golden, et al., 1985). Significant movement toward assertive/leveling attitudes was found only for students in the experimental middle school (6th, 7th and 8th grades) where SIS training was conducted. Such significant movement was not observed in the control middle school.

A readability test (Fry, 1969) showed a 7th grade reading level for the ques-