THE EFFECT OF AN ASSERTIVENESS TRAINING ON THE
ASSERTIVENESS AND SELF ESTEEM LEVEL OF 5th GRADE CHILDREN

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THE EFFECT OF AN ASSERTIVENESS TRAINING ON THE ASSERTIVENESS AND SELF ESTEEM LEVEL OF 5\textsuperscript{th} GRADE CHILDREN

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECT OF AN ASSERTIVENESS TRAINING ON THE ASSERTIVENESS AND SELF ESTEEM LEVEL OF 5TH GRADE CHILDREN

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Assertiveness is an important skill for children to develop healthy human relations with peers, parents, teachers, and all the other social contacts. When children use assertiveness skills in their social, academic and personal life, they enhance the potential of reaching successful outcomes. There are some positive correlations between assertiveness and self esteem. Thus, investigating the effects of an assertiveness training on the assertiveness and self esteem levels of 5th grade children would contribute to a lot of aspects on the development of children.
This study aims to develop an assertiveness program for 5th grade elementary school students and has the purpose of exploring the effects on children’s level of assertiveness and self esteem.

The participants of the study were from Ankara University Education Development Foundation Primary School. Twenty four students participated in the study. The experimental design was used in which 2 groups were compared on pre test and post test measures by using Assertiveness Inventory and Coopersmith Self Esteem Inventory. Moreover, observations of teachers were collected through the record sheets. The experimental group was given an 8 week training.

In order to explore the effects of assertiveness training on assertiveness levels of the children independent samples t test was used. The results revealed that there were significant differences between the two groups based on assertiveness scores. Inn order to explore the effects of assertiveness training on self esteem levels of children, Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was used. However, there were no significant differences found on self esteem scores between the two groups. On the other hand, according to the observations that were collected from the teachers, it could be stated that the training contributed positively to the children’s self esteem.

Keywords: Assertiveness, Assertiveness Training, Self Esteem, Preadolescence
ÖZ

ATILGANLIK EĞİTİMİNİN 5. SINIF ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN ATILGANLIK VE ÖZ SAYGI DÜZEYLERİNE ETKİSİ

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Atılganlık, çocukların yaşamları, anne babaları, öğretmenleri ve diğer sosyal çevrelerinde sağlıklı insan ilişkileri geliştirebilmeleri için önemli olan bir beceridir. Çocuklar sosyal, akademik ve kişisel yaşamlarında atılganlık becerilerini kullandıklarında başarılı sonuçlara ulaşma olasılıklarını artırılmış olurlar. Atılganlık ve öz saygı arasında bazı olumlu ilişkiler bulunmaktadır. Buradan hareketle, atılganlık eğitiminin 5. sınıf öğrencilere atılganlık ve öz saygı düzeylerine olan etkisini incelenmesinin çocukların gelişimine pek çok yönde katkıda bulunacağı kabul edilmektedir.
Bu çalışma 5. sınıf ilköğretim okulu öğrencilerine yönelik bir atılganlık eğitimi geliştirmeyi ve bu eğitimin atılganlık ve öz saygı düzeyleri üzerindeki etkisini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır.


Atılganlık eğitiminin çocukların atılganlık düzeylerine olan etkisini ortaya çıkarmak amacıyla ilişkisiz örneklemeler t testi kullanılmıştır. Sonuçlar iki grup arasında atılganlık puanları açısından anlamlı bir fark olduğunu göstermiştir. Atılganlık eğitiminin çocukların öz saygı düzeylerine olan etkisini ortaya çıkarmak ve gruplar arasındaki farkları ortaya koymak üzere Kovaryans Analizi (ANCOVA) kullanılmıştır. Sonuçlara bakıldığında öz saygı düzeyleri yönünden deney grubunda öntest ile sondent arasında anlamlı bir fark gözlenmemiştir. Öğretmenlerden edinilen gözlemler doğrultusunda ise programın çocukların öz saygı düzeylerine olumlu katkıda bulunduğu belirtilebilir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Atılganlık, Atılganlık Eğitimi, Öz saygı, Önergenlik
To my mother, Yüksel Sert
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I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Date: 

Signature:
TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT........................................................................................................ iii
ÖZ.................................................................................................................. v
DEDICATION ............................................................................................... vii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ............................................................................. viii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.................................................................................... ix
LIST OF TABLES............................................................................................ xii

CHAPTER

1. INTRODUCTION................................................................. 1
   1.1. Background to the study..................................................... 1
   1.2. Purpose of the Study......................................................... 8
   1.3. Significance of the Study............................................... 8

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE.................................................. 11
   2.1. Social Skills................................................................. 11
       2.1.1. Social Skills Training.............................................. 16
       2.1.2. Social Skills Development of Elementary School
              Children................................................................. 21
       2.1.3 Social Skills Studies in Turkey............................... 36
   2.2. Assertiveness............................................................... 41
2.2.1. Assertiveness Training…………………………………….. 48

2.2.2. Related Research on Assertiveness……………….. 51

2.2.2.1. Research on Assertiveness Training on

Various Groups………………………………………….. 51

2.2.2.2. Research on Assertiveness Training for

Students…………………………………………………… 52

2.2.2.3. Research on Assertiveness Training for

Elementary School Children ................................. 55

2.2.3. Assertiveness Studies in Turkey............................ 57

2.3. Self esteem……………………………………………… 60

2.3.1. Self Esteem, Self Concept and its Relation to

Other Variables………………………………………… 69

2.3.2. Related Research on Programs Enhancing Self Esteem .. 72

2.3.3. Self Esteem Studies in Turkey.............................. 74

2.4. Assertiveness and Self Esteem………………………… 76

2.4.1. Related research on assertiveness and self esteem……..79

3.  METHOD ................................................................. 83

3.1. Overall Design of the Study……………………………. 83

3.2. Research Questions ............................................. 84

3.3. Population and Sample Selection............................. 84

3.4. Data Collection Instruments.................................. 84

3.4.1. Assertiveness Inventory................................. 84

3.4.2. Coopersmith Self Esteem Inventory ...................... 85
3.5. Data Collection Procedure ........................................ 87
3.6. Training Procedure ............................................. 87
3.7. Training Program .................................................. 88
3.8. Overview of the Sessions ........................................ 88
3.9. Data Analysis Methods ........................................... 94

4. RESULTS ............................................................ 96

4.1. Results Concerning the Effect of the Assertiveness Training
on Assertiveness Level of the Experimental and Control
Groups’ Subjects ....................................................... 96

4.2. Results Concerning the Effect of the Assertiveness Training
on the Self Esteem Level of the Experimental and Control
Groups’ Subjects ....................................................... 97

4.3. Some Qualitative Observations ................................. 100
4.3.1. Researcher’s Observations ................................... 100
4.3.2. Teachers’ Observations ...................................... 101

5. DISCUSSION ....................................................... 104

5.1. Discussion on Statistical Results ............................. 104
5.2. Discussion Regarding the Observations .................. 108
5.3. Implications ........................................................ 110
5.4. Recommendations ............................................... 112

REFERENCES ........................................................ 114
APPENDICES

A. ASSERTIVENESS INVENTORY ........................................ 129
B. COOPERSMITH SELF ESTEEM INVENTORY .................... 134
C. FIRST MEETING SHEET ........................................... 139
D. SAYING NO SHEET .................................................. 140
E. TEACHER RECORD SHEET ....................................... 141
LIST OF TABLES

TABLE

1. Assertiveness Inventory independent samples t test results of the subjects in the experimental and the control groups…… 90

2. Mean scores of the experimental and control groups at the pre and the post test .................................................. 91

3. The results of the Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) on the self esteem scores of the experimental and the control group’s subjects................................................................. 92
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Study

Social communication involves an exchange between two or more people. Generally, one individual initiates the communication and the other responds. In early childhood, peer interaction is based on shared play activities. However, as children grow older, the interaction becomes more focused on peer acceptance. Thus, this change requires more detailed and complicated skills. In middle childhood, between the ages of about seven and eleven, children have more social contacts. Aggressive interactions tend to decrease and friendships tend to involve more verbal interaction. At this stage, it is important for children to be able to communicate adaptively or they will not be able to establish satisfying social relationships. Additionally, it is necessary to learn dealing with emotional consequences of situations that inevitably occur in childhood such as being criticized or being forced to do some tasks (Geldard & Geldard, 1999).

Through the developmental process, the child develops various skills. Social development begins at birth and progresses rapidly during the school years. One of the most important skills parents, teachers and social network of the child accomplish is to teach children how to get along with others. No matter how
gifted a child is physically or mentally, his happiness and success in life will also depend on his ability to get along with people. Consequently, competency in social skills will help children to develop a satisfactory life (Vasta, Haith, & Miller, 1992).

A child needs to be able to identify his own and other people’s feelings if he wants to relate adaptively. He needs to be able to communicate effectively in ways which validate his own and the others’ needs. Also, he should manage his own behavior effectively so that it is socially acceptable (Geldard & Geldard, 1999).

There are many ways to help children developing social skills. Assertiveness training groups are effective ways of teaching children to possess the tools for healthy communication with others.

Assertiveness training is an area of study which has a long history within the field of behavior therapy. Salter (1949) and Wolpe (1958) were the pioneers of this field. They recognized that, certain individuals in society have specific problems in standing up for their rights and expressing themselves appropriately. In order to help such individuals function more effectively in their everyday lives, assertiveness skills were introduced during therapies. Lange and Jacubowski (1976) defined assertiveness as,

standing up for personal rights, expressing thoughts, feelings and beliefs in direct, honest and appropriate ways which respect the rights of other people (p. 38).

They also found that nearly everybody could behave assertively in different situations.
Assertiveness training aims to increase the number and the variety of situations in which assertive behavior is possible and decrease occasions of passive or aggressive behaviors (Hoffman, 1983).

Assertion techniques are tools for everyday life, enabling people to enhance their social contacts and to be more effective both personally and professionally. Being assertive is essentially about respecting oneself and others. It is about having a basic belief that one’s opinions, beliefs, thoughts and feelings are as important as anybody else’s. It is same as for other people, too. It is about being in touch with one’s own needs and wants. But, it is not about going for what one wants at any cost. To be assertive also means to be able to express oneself clearly, directly and appropriately. Assertive person values what he thinks and feels, have esteem and respect for himself. He recognizes his own strengths and limitations. In addition, being assertive means taking responsibility for his life and his choices. It means making his own decisions rather than simply drifting or going along with other people’s choices. It also means not blaming other people or circumstances for what happens to him (Rees & Graham, 1991).

Assertive children become more happier, more honest, less manipulative, feel better about themselves and reach their goals more easily at adulthood (Gökalan, 2000). On the other hand, children who have poor assertiveness skills are unlikely to have the ability to stand up for themselves and to assert their rights. In situations involving peers or adults, this lack of assertiveness can result in feelings of helplessness and powerlessness. They may have a perception of not being in control. Children frequently suffer emotional trauma because they have poor social skills and are unable to express their feelings or talk about their needs.
and worries. Children who are unable to discuss important issues with others may develop self-destructive beliefs which are emotionally damaging for them. They may also develop maladaptive behaviors in order to cope with these emotions (Geldard & Geldard, 1999).

It is clear that poor assertiveness skills lead to problems so it is important for children to give appropriate training to improve these skills. Thus, they can more enjoy their social interactions and feel good about themselves. Researchers have found a lot of positive results of assertiveness training on children. Chitenden (1942) conducted a research about measuring assertiveness with preschool children and the results revealed positive changes. Rathus (1972) conducted an assertiveness training group on children. He indicated some differences on voice tone, posture, eye connection and fluency after the training on experimental group (as cited in Gökalan, 2000).

Schools have long been recognized as major socialization agents so presentation of assertiveness training in schools is useful. There are some assertiveness studies on elementary school students which reveal the effectiveness of assertiveness training.

Thoft (1977) used assertiveness training with both passive and aggressive 4th, 5th, and 6th grade children. After the training, group leaders, children, and their teachers reported examples of more assertive behaviors in social settings.

Rotheram, Armstrong and Booraem (1982), designed an assertiveness training program for 343 4th and 5th grade children. Results revealed that assertiveness was higher among classes who received assertion training than others who did not.
More assertiveness training programs are conducted in schools nowadays. Their benefits can be seen at different characteristics of children such as self confidence and body image. For example, in order to improve the confidence of preadolescent girls, a program based on positive self esteem, body image and assertiveness skills was used by Combes (1995) and positive changes were indicated on the girls’ self confidence and sense of positive body image.

There are also some assertiveness studies on elementary school students in Turkey, too. Topukçu (1982) found an improvement on assertiveness levels of elementary school children after giving a 6-week assertiveness training. In the study of Çulha and Dereli (1987) after a 7-week assertiveness training, elementary school students showed significant improvement on assertive behaviors. In another study, Gökalan (2000) investigated the relationship among elementary school students’ self concept, assertiveness, self disclosure and their academic success. He found a significant relationship among these variables. Erbaş (2000) investigated in his research the effect of the crowdness of the class and the number of brothers and sisters on the locus of control and assertiveness level of elementary school students.

A child’s self image and self esteem are dependent on the child’s social skills in relating to peers and adults. These skills contribute to self esteem because a child with good social skills is likely to build satisfying relationships and to receive positive feedback from others. A child with poor social skills is likely to have unsatisfactory relationships and to receive negative feedback (Geldard & Geldard, 1999). Clemens and Bean (1981) revealed that children with high self esteem act positively, assume responsibility, tolerate frustration well, feel able to
influence their environment and are proud of their deeds. On the other hand, children with low self esteem are easily led by others, easily frustrated, often blame others for their shortcomings and avoid difficult situations (as cited in Güloğlu, 1999).

Preadolescence can be a turbulent time during which children struggle to define their personalities and find their places in the world. Group play and peer relationships are more widely enjoyed at these ages. As such, there is a concern for physical image and competitive behaviors emerge (Berk, 1999). Parental influence starts to decrease at preadolescence because of an increase in cognitive abilities and a great differentiation of social roles. Peer relations become increasingly more significant because peers share same values and attitudes (Güloğlu, 1999). These developmental changes affect a child’s self esteem and assertiveness has a functional relationship with self esteem. Being assertive, active, creative, flexible, and successful in human relationships are personality traits which is seen with high self esteem people (Onur, 1985).

Because of preadolescents’ efforts to enhance self esteem at these ages, it is possible that they may develop either passive or aggressive responses to manage threats to self esteem. Developmental factors also may influence children’s self esteem. In addition, preadolescents may experience some problems with peers, parents, and teachers while trying to find their identity so they may have problems with development of self confidence. On the other hand, a person who possesses high self esteem has a chance to be successful in personal and social life and adapt to his or her environment easily (Onur, 1985). Thus,
investigating to increase self esteem levels of children by assertiveness interventions may have positive effects on the development of children.

In literature, there are few studies to explore the relationship between assertiveness and self esteem. According to Fensterheim and Baer (1975) there is a positive relationship between assertiveness and self esteem (as cited in Kaya, 2000). Uğurluoğlu (1996) examined the relationship between the level of self esteem and assertiveness in adolescents and found a significant relationship. Rotheram (1987) worked on 128 boys and 133 girls from 4th to the 5th grades and indicated that there was a significant positive correlation among self esteem, assertiveness, and interpersonal problem solving ability. Galassi, Delo, Galassi, and Bastien (1974) stated that students who scored high on a measure of assertiveness were self confident. Contrary to the studies above, Stewart and Lewis (1986) found no significant differences on assertiveness or self esteem after giving assertiveness training to black high school students.

To conclude, even though some researchers have tried to study on assertiveness and self esteem, none of them have investigated these two dimensions together on 5th grade preadolescents. Results of the studies related with self esteem and assertiveness indicate relevant and positive sides of human characteristic. Thus, learning the effects of assertiveness on self esteem with preadolescents is important to guide educators, parents and counselors while raising assertive and high self esteem individuals in the future.
1.2. Purpose of the Study

Social skills are very important in children’s lives. A socially skilled child can easily reach personal success and happiness with his or her social interactions. In today’s world, it is obvious that future generations will have to possess different and specified kinds of social skills, like assertiveness. Especially elementary school children should be prepared to different life situations while their social skill development is cumulating. Since assertiveness covers a lot of different social skills component, it is useful to give such training to children. Therefore, this study aims to explore the effects of an assertiveness training on the level of assertiveness and self esteem of 5th grade children.

1.3. Significance of the Study

Children are required to learn a complex set of social skills to engage in effective, confident, and mutually beneficial interaction with other people. Assertive children as assertive adults, become more happy, honest, healthy and less manipulative. They feel good about themselves, and make it easy to accomplish what they plan to do in their adulthood. In this respect, family, school and other social systems should respect children, take care of their natural rights and encourage them to express themselves.

In particular, there has been little recognition of assertiveness as a valuable skill for children. Yet, children are frequently involved in situations which call for assertive behavior. They need to know how to respond effectively when another child attacks, intrudes, or bosses and how appropriately ask others for help, objects or a chance to participate in a social activity. In addition, it is a
very important and useful social skill that has a power to enhance the social relationships, academic success and personal development.

Assertiveness and self esteem have a lot of commonalities. Both of them are necessary and important character traits to live a satisfactory life and have healthy relationships with other people. Assertive children develop confidence and satisfaction in their ability to interact effectively with others. Thus, deeply investigating the interaction between these two subjects can highlight the ways to raise next generations who are fulfilled with different interaction skills.

It is a necessity to empower young people with the knowledge, understanding and skills to choose their own appropriate and effective patterns of behavior. We should not have to wait until adulthood to find that our patterns of behavior and ability to express feelings are unsatisfactory. Teaching these skills to the preadolescents could ensure that unwanted modes of behaviors are avoided. The early years therefore, mark a critical period for children to learn to be assertive rather than aggressive. It is important for children to learn to be assertive right from the start by skill training procedures. It is obvious that parents, teachers or friends can not teach all the skills that a child should have so structured programs on different kind of skills may help all the children in different ways.

In Turkey, there are various assertiveness skills programs and research conducted at different developmental levels. However, studies on assertiveness training for elementary school children are limited in quantity and quality. It is a need to develop different programs for specific age groups to observe the useful gains. Therefore, this study also aims to contribute to the literature in this area.
Furthermore, this study which involves a training serves as a primary prevention intervention which may stop children from developing adjustment problems later in life.
CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this chapter, the research literature relevant to the purposes of this study is presented. First section provides the different definitions of social skills, basic assumptions and benefits of social skills, basic procedures about training, social skills development of elementary school children, and related studies in Turkey. Second section presents the concept of assertiveness, assertiveness training and examples of related research on assertiveness. In the third section, the concept and the related research on self esteem is presented. The interaction between assertiveness and self esteem and the related research about their interaction is provided in the last section.

2.1. Social Skills

Social skills are very important tools for developing healthy relationships with others. These skills can affect all the facets of a person’s success in life. A skilled person is one who achieves his objectives effectively. He reaches his goals by giving his attention, spending his effort and working with his native capacities of strength, vision, intelligence and sensitivity optimally (Singleton, 1983).

The socialization process is gradual and extends over a long time. It follows an orderly sequence of development and it can be confidently predicted
with individual variation. In spite of the fact that elementary school children are characterized by increasing individual differentiation, many social activities assume a generalized form (Hawkes & Pease, 1962).

There are a lot of definitions of social skills. Gresham and Elliot (1990) defined social skills as socially acceptable behaviors that enable a person to interact effectively with others and to avoid socially unacceptable responses from others.

According to Coleman and Lindsey (1992) social skills are the cognitive functions and specific verbal and nonverbal behaviors that an individual engages in when interacting with including both verbal and nonverbal skills.

Social skills are also defined as a complex set of skills that include communication, problem solving, decision making, assertion, peer and group interaction and self management. These skills are competencies necessary for students to initiate and to maintain positive social relationships with peers, teachers, family and other community members (Quinn, Jannasch-Pennel, & Rutherford, 1995). Social skills are, those behaviors which, within a given situation, predict important social outcomes such as (a) peer acceptance or popularity, (b) significant others’ judgments of behavior or (c) other social behaviors known to correlate consistently with peer acceptance (Elliot & Gresham, 1984, pp. 292-293, as cited in Hughes & Sullivan, 1988).

Many researchers view social competence as the interaction of varying factors, including positive relationships with others, absence of maladaptive behaviors, peer acceptance, exhibiting specific behaviors that maximize the probability of reinforcement and effective social skills. If a student is successful in
integrating these subcomponents, then he or she is considered socially competent (Coleman & Lindsey, 1992).

Elliot and Gresham (1993) made five fundamental assumptions regarding conceptualization of social skills:

Assumption 1: Social skills are primarily acquired through learning that involves observation, modeling, rehearsal, and feedback.

Assumption 2: Social skills include specific, discrete verbal and nonverbal behaviors.

Assumption 3: Social skills require both effective and appropriate initiations of behavior and responses to the behavior of others.

Assumption 4: Social skills are interactive by nature and entail effective and appropriate behavioral performances.

Assumption 5: Social skills are situational-specific behaviors and are influenced by the characteristics, demands and expectations operating in specific environments.

The acquisition of social skills is an important part of the education process and a necessity for the healthy growth of a student. Some of the long term effects caused by a lack in social skills can be; classroom management problems, negative effects on academic areas, delinquency, peer rejection, emotional difficulties, lack of peer acceptance, problems with interpersonal relationships, low social status and low self esteem (Haeberlin, Shawn, Texas, & Texas, 1997).
Deficient social skills also can be attributed to a number of reasons, including lack of knowledge, insufficient practice or feedback, absence of cues or opportunities to learn or perform prosocial behaviors, lack of reinforcement of socially skilled behaviors and the presence of interfering problem behaviors that either block acquisition or impede performance of prosocial behaviors (Gresham & Elliot, 1993).

It is obvious that in order to live a satisfactory life, every person should have effective social skills. In our competitive world, people should have more and different kinds of social skills. By maximizing their skill repertoire, they may reach success and happiness more easily in their life.

The goals for promoting social competence should lead to making and maintaining positive interpersonal relationships, feeling positive about themselves, and coping with life stresses. Erwin (1993) worked with 5-6 year old children in order to examine social problem solving ability and peer social behavior in popular and unpopular children. Most popular and least popular were identified in a class. Responses to a series of four social dilemmas were obtained and the children were videotaped during free class activities. Results indicated that popular children gave significantly more effective and relationship oriented strategies for resolving social dilemmas than unpopular children. They were involved in more peer interactions, were more positively reinforcing and showed more positive activity when alone.

Children’s social interactions have an important factor building their social skills repertoire. Positive social interactions among peers are an important part of
life. The social skills that are critical for social inclusion are numerous and for the most part, our social learning is actualized automatically by seeing, copying and conditioning. We learn social skills incidentally, without formal instruction. Especially children in elementary school period, learn these skills by copying them from similar age mates. Kupersmidt, De Rosier and Patterson (1995) conducted a research with 554 3rd and 4th grade elementary school students. Results revealed that similarity in social, demographic, behavioral and academic attributes are important descriptors and predictors of children’s social interactions and friendships. The main finding was that, as similarity increased, the likelihood of being friends also increased. Specifically, patterns of gender, race, poverty, aggression, withdrawn behavior, achievement and sociometric status between dyad members were descriptive and predictive of children’s friendships.

It is believed that the long-term, healthy social development of children depends upon their acquisition of internalized standards of social and moral conduct and their application of these standards to guide their actions in interpersonal situations. However, it is not always available to teach children healthy responses for problem situations naturally. Sometimes it is a necessity to teach positive behavioral strategies to guide them. Hune and Nelson (2002) worked with four preschool children who exhibited aggressive methods for resolving social interaction conflicts. Children were taught a problem-solving strategy. Results indicated that acquisition of the problem-solving strategy influenced the types of alternative solutions the children provided to social interaction conflicts. Students produced more prosocial resolutions to social interaction problems than controls.
Society generally accept that the social development of children depends on to a great extent on their many formal and informal interactions with peers, family, and others both in school and in the community. Social development may be related with the range of opportunities afforded an individual by his or her complex networks of interactions with people, environments and activities.

It is critical to acknowledge that opportunities to learn and practice new skills must be available if students are to develop social competence. It would be impossible for a teacher or even a parent to teach a child all the social skills he or she needs to function successfully in the community. Direct instruction and one-to-one interactions between the adult and the child would never be enough. At this point, it is obvious that some rearranged social skills teaching methods and programs should be developed and implemented to different populations.

2.1.1. Social Skills Training

In order to develop social skills in individuals, specific programs have been carried on focusing specific behaviors to help the individuals functioning more effectively in their social relationships.

Social skills training (SST) is at first glance, a program that relies on behavioral practice and behavioral change and acquisition (Trower, 1978, Bellack & Hersen, 1979 as cited in Kagan, 1984).

Social skills training involves the planned and systematic teaching of specific behaviors needed for students to function in an effective and satisfying manner (Goldstein, 1981). As a treatment process, it has the objectives of promoting the acquisition of social skills, enhancing the performance of social skills, removing
interfering problem behaviors and facilitating generalization of socially skilled behavior (Gresham, Elliott, 1993).

Different researchers suggested that changes in targeted behaviors should promote socially valued outcomes such as acceptance in the peer group, acceptance by significant adults, school adjustment, mental health status and lack of juvenile delinquency (Elliot, Gresham & Heffer, 1987 as cited in Maag, 1994).

Some social skills training techniques include a variety of operant conditioning and cognitive behavioral methods such as contingent reinforcement, group oriented contingencies, differential reinforcement, modeling and role playing, self instruction, problem-solving training, self monitoring and self-reinforcement (Elliot, 1987; Maag, 1989; Matson & Ollendick, 1988 as cited in Maag, 1994). Bornstein, Bellack and Hersen (1977) emphasized that the most active ingredients in social skills training leading to behavioral change include instructions, coaching, feedback, behavioral rehearsal and modeling.

Social skills training emphasizes some basic skills that can be developed by behavioral techniques. Generally, the results of this kind of training indicate positive and important gains for who participates them. For most people, especially for students, social skills training has a lot of different proven benefits. On the other hand, it is a must to work with different ages and different populations to see the effectiveness of social skills training. Every developmental period and every population has its own characteristics so one program may have different results on different groups.

Social skills training groups were generally conducted on students with some kind of skill, behavior or developmental deficits. Social skills training literature is
sufficiently wide so only the recent studies were looked over in this chapter and these studies reflect the population that have practiced different social skills most frequently.

Children with disabilities are widely regarded as having social skills difficulties. Thus, a considerable work on social skills training for these populations were conducted for different age groups. Guglielmo and Tryon (2001) examined the effectiveness of a social skills training program plus classroom reinforcement for preschoolers with developmental delays. The combinations of training plus classroom reinforcement resulted in statistically significant increases in sharing behavior. Social skills interventions were viewed favorably by both classroom teachers and preschool participants.

Ang and Hughes (2002) performed a meta-analysis of 38 studies of social skills training interventions with antisocial youth. They also examined treatment effects for interventions that differed in group composition. For those 18 studies which follow-up data were reported, treatments provided in the context of either mixed or individual treatment also produced larger follow-up effect sizes than did deviant-only group interventions.

Social skills training programs were also conducted for high-risk middle school students. Middle school is a critical period for developing lower and higher order social skills, due to the onset or acceleration of high-risk behavior at this age group. Specifically, juvenile delinquency, drug and alcohol use, sexual activity and other forms of risk taking become almost normative behavior during this period (Loeber & Farrington, 1998). At the same time, critical protective factors as parental monitoring and involvement have been shown to decrease, thus
contributing to the likelihood of these maladaptive behavior patterns. A final contribution to the onset of high-risk behavior is the rapidly increasing academic demands placed on middle school children as they progress toward high school. In this context, middle school students need support and training to stay off the path to delinquency and other adjustment problems. Social skills instruction is necessary in this developmental period, too. Students who are targets of SST in middle school, typically included in three groups: (a) all students in the school, (b) students who are behaviorally at risk due to externalizing or internalizing behavioral problems and (c) students who have disabling conditions that qualify them for special education services such as students with behavioral-emotional disabilities or learning disabilities. For students at risk or with disabilities, SST often has been delivered in a pull out or alternative education model (Tobin & Sprague, 1999).

Second Step is a comprehensive social skills program and in order to evaluate its impacts on at risk students, Grossman, Neckerman, Koepsell, Liu, Asher, Beland, et. al. (1997) used six matched pairs of urban and suburban elementary schools, randomly assigned to intervention or comparison conditions. Students in the intervention group were taught the Second Step curriculum two to three times per week over a 12-week period. Using a structured protocol, it was found that in unstructured settings at school such as playground and cafeteria, students in the intervention group decreased physically aggressive behavior and increased neutral and prosocial behaviors.

Quasi-experimental evidence documented that middle schools, using a combination of Second Step and the Effective Behavioral Support Program,
showed consistent reductions in discipline referrals and increases in declarative social skills knowledge for middle school students. Reductions in problem behavior and increases in prosocial behavior were produced at the levels of kindergarten through 8th grade (Sprague, Walker, Golly, White, Myers, & Shannon, 2001).

There has been relatively little research on social skills training with normally developed preadolescents. One example of a group social skills training procedure with preadolescents was reported by La Greca and Santogrossi (1980). They selected 30 children aged 8-11 years old who were low on peer acceptance ratings. They used coaching, modeling and behavior rehearsal to teach the following: smiling, greeting, joining, inviting, conversing, sharing, co-operating, complimenting and grooming. The training group improved relative to an attention placebo and waiting list control on measures of skill knowledge, role-play assessment and initiation of social interaction.

Verduyn, Lord and Forest (1990) ran a program in an Oxford Middle School with children aged 10-13 years old. Subjects were allocated at random to treatment and control groups. The intervention included eight group sessions followed by four booster sessions. Significant changes were found on two out of five dependent measures.

Within a group social skills training program, preadolescents aged 12-13 years old of mixed gender were distributed to either an individualized training group or a standardized training group. The program was ran over two years with each client receiving 10 weeks consecutive training. The results suggested that individualized training was superior to standardized training. Skills important for
friendship-making were included in the program, and provision was made for meeting the needs of both impulsive and unassertive adolescents within the group training (Bulkeley & Cramer, 1994).

Preadolescence is a key stage in the life cycle and may well be important for the development of social skills. There is evidence that difficulty with the peer group early in life may be a risk factor to a range of personal problems at a later stage in the life cycle (Bulkeley & Cramer, 1994). These results show us a need for protective social skills programs in order to prevent such problems. Social skills training programs like the other educational and developmental efforts, emphasize heavily on the populations who have some kind of inability. It is also necessary to conduct some social skills training groups for normally developed populations. By conducting such programs future deficits may be prevented.

2.1.2. Social Skills Development of Elementary School Children

Elementary school years set the tone for developing the skills, knowledge and attitudes necessary for children to become healthy and productive adults. Elementary school is a time when students develop attitudes concerning school, self, peers, social groups and family. It is a time when students develop decision-making, communication and life training skills and character values. Therefore, the critical role that school period plays in the child's social development and self-concept must be recognized. Even if a child enjoys to have academic success in the classroom, his attitude about life will be determined by the degree of social success that he experiences at these ages (Lavoie, 2000).
Children are not born with social skills. They must learn them. Children learn social skills through the process of observational learning, instrumental (operant) learning and respondent (classical) learning (Grresham & Elliot, 1993).

With entrance into the school world, the child is required to adjust to a different environment. Children gain more independence from their families during the school years while still depending on them for guidance. Their individual needs and desires are not the first thing to consider in this place. They have to stand up for their rights, develop attitudes toward social groups and achieve personal independence (Havighurst, 1948). Before school entrance, they are primarily concerned with themselves and their own activities. Although, they are not as self-centered as a two year old child, they are still crude in their social approach to others. They can play cooperatively if supervised by a watchful adult. Successful social contact is of relatively short duration and limited to one or two children (Hawkes & Pease, 1962).

During the early part of the school years, children are primarily concerned with making an adjustment to school routines and to age mates. This involves acquiring skills of communication as well as learning the physical competency necessary for acceptance in the peer group. Later, these acquired skills are used to compete with others for status and recognition within the group (Hawkes & Pease, 1962).

Students who feel good about themselves and have positive relationships with others are more emotionally engaged and tend to be more successful in school and in later life. Social and emotional skills are fundamental building blocks that lead to a child's academic success and a positive school climate.
Elementary school is a period of broadening interests. Children in this period learn to make social contacts and establish intense friendships with other children. Thus, it is necessary to develop some social skills to adjust life. For many children, school entrance is the first major break with home and family. It is the first attempt at developing friendships without the support of close family members. Also, it can be considered as the first taste of personal independence (Hawkes & Pease, 1962). Children’s friendships clearly play a major role in promoting social development and adjustment (Parker & Asher, 1987). From being one person of a relatively small family group, they become a member of a large group of children with diversified needs and interests. The remains of self-centeredness are intensified and magnified in this new setting. They must learn to be cooperative and to conform to established routines of group living. In order to function successfully in peer relationships, children require a variety of behavioral skills including the ability to gain entry to groups and to resolve interpersonal conflicts (Erwin, 1993).

Success in socialization is so important that the child’s development in capacity to make friends outside the family is regarded as one of the most important aspects of his social development (Breckenridge & Vincent, 1956). The importance of peer interaction for the development of competencies across a range of cognitive and social tasks have been recognized by many of the researchers (Hops, 1982 as cited in Hughes & Sullivan 1988).

Peer group acceptance is facilitated by a variety of personality factors and social skills. All children need the recognition and support of their peers (Harris, 1985). Sometimes group acceptance is predicated on the expression of certain
personality traits. The child, who possesses these traits is more likely to be accepted than the child who does not. But, there also seems to be a collection of characteristics and behaviors that facilitate popularity and acceptance in most groups. Children who are friendly, kind, low in anxiety, cooperative, reasonably self-assured, well adjusted, quick to offer praise, sensitive and responsive to other’s needs tend to be well liked by both peers and adults (Hartup, 1978; Mannerino, 1976 as cited in Harris, 1985). Havighurst (1948) in discussing the developmental tasks of middle childhood, recognizes three thrusts of growth,

The thrust of the child out of the home and into the peer group, the physical thrust into the world of games and work requiring neuromuscular skills and the mental thrust into the world of adult concepts, logic, symbolism, and communication (p.15).

During elementary school period, social sex roles are well defined, special talents emerge, best friends and worst enemies develop and physical skills as a tool in social interaction approach perfection. The culture imposes on the child what is considered the appropriate sex role. The family encourage boys to be aggressive, assertive and enterprising. Girls win approval when they play “the little mother” or assume a “ladylike” manner. The peer groups approve these roles and reinforces the values of the family and the culture (Hawkes & Pease, 1962). According to Erikson (1963) boys and girls become gradually more peer and society oriented during the middle years of childhood. Turning their attention from play to work, 6 to 12 year old children learn the skills of their culture in order to become productive members of society. He defines the challenge faced by the school age child as involving industry versus inferiority. Industry versus inferiority in Erikson’s theory, the psychological conflict of middle childhood is
resolved positively when experiences lead children to develop a sense of competence at useful skills and tasks (Berk, 1999). The goal in this period is to establish oneself as a skilled and competent worker. The danger is that children of this age may develop a sense of inferiority after trying but failing to accomplish tasks, or they will come to value work so highly that they may neglect relationships with people or become excessively competitive (Harris, 1985).

School age children also tend to engage in hostile aggression or aggression directed towards other people. Aggression is most likely to occur in children who are seldom rewarded for prosocial behavior. Teachers and parents can have an effect on reducing levels of aggression in school age children by modeling and rewarding appropriate problem solving strategies and social skills groups (Harris, 1985).

In most settings relevant for children, important social outcomes may include: a) peer acceptance, b) significant others’ judgments of social skills, c) academic achievement, d) positive feelings of self-worth and e) positive adaptation to school, home and community environments (Gresham & Elliot, 1993). Oden and Asher (1977) reported that the behaviors of participation, cooperation and communication were exhibited more by socially accepted than socially rejected children.

Social skills in school settings are important for several reasons. Children who experience peer relationship difficulties have a high incidence of school adjustment, school suspensions, dropping out of school, delinquency, childhood psychopathology and adult mental health difficulties (Asher & Hymel 1981;
Van Hasselt, Hersen, Whitehill and Bellack (1979) reviewed 14 studies linking childhood social difficulties to later problems of adjustment. There is in their view “a considerable body of research demonstrating a relationship between children’s level of social functioning and their long term adjustment” (p. 413). Social isolation in childhood is also associated with dropping out of school (Ullman, 1957 as cited in Bulkeley & Cramer, 1994).

O’Connor (1969, as cited in Bornstein, Bellack & Hersen, 1977) pointed out that a child who is grossly deficient in social skills will be seriously handicapped in acquiring many of the complex behavioral repertoires necessary for effective social functioning. Such negative experiences would be expected to reinforce interpersonal avoidance responses. These findings strongly suggest the importance of effective treatment programs for children.

Gresham and Elliot (1993) indicated that social skills are the currency of group work and social interdependence. Thus, children who exhibit social skills deficits for whatever reason, often find themselves at risk for negative interpersonal consequences. Fortunately, an array of methods for teaching children adaptive social behaviors exists and if used early and consistently, such methods have proven effective at reducing problem behaviors and increasing desired social functioning.

Transition stages are difficult in all situations. Especially for human development, the changes between the childhood and adolescence may be confusing for who experiences and who observes this period. By understanding
and showing appropriate ways of behaving, this stage can be handled appropriately.

Transition from childhood to preadolescence may involve more difficult issues than physical and developmental changes. Fifth grade level in elementary school period is in the middle of this stage. Preadolescents want desperately to fit in their peer group and social environment. Their ability to cope with these changes often influence their emotional stability. Preadolescents tend to experience a roller coaster of emotions. Their behaviors and feelings often collide. Extreme changes in behavior that may indicate a need for help include: prolonged anxiousness, depression, sadness or withdrawal, suicidal thoughts, aggressive outbursts, lack of attention, difficulty focusing on an activity, hyperactivity or inability to remain still for even a short time, defiance toward adults, deteriorating school performance, unusual mood swings, confusion or disorganization (American School Counselor Association, 2002).

Havighurst (1948) proposed that stages in human development can best be thought of in terms of the developmental tasks that are part of the normal transition. During the early adolescent years, young people make their first attempts to leave the dependent, secure role of a child and to establish themselves as unique individuals, independent of their parents. By 10 or 11 years of age, the child participates in highly organized group activities. Gradually increasing knowledge, developing motor abilities, and experience in social success and failure contribute to successful group participation at these ages (Hawkes & Pease, 1962).
Towards the end of middle childhood, the child has acquired skills in maintaining social relationships and is able to make accurate and critical judgments of his own abilities and those of others. Motor skills are well developed and used as tools to gain peer acceptance. Girls tend to become more interested in spectator types of sports while boys continue to want to participate in team games (Hawkes & Pease, 1962).

The nature of elementary school children’s groups gradually changes so that by 10 or 11 the groups become more structured and more distant from adults. Group members are chosen deliberately and for specific purposes. These factors allow for more complex, expansive and selected activities. By the age of 10, the child fears situations that are real possibilities and less the products of his imagination such as failure in school examinations or not being chosen for the school team. He also fears situations in which there is a danger of severe loss of self-esteem. Children at 11 want to express themselves without too much restraint. They are assertive, co-operative, honest and sometimes derogatory in their remarks. Eleven may be described as a period of continued and even accelerated search for knowledge, adventure and social experience. Elementary school children at 11 become capable of more complex processes of thinking and more complex physical movements. As a result of social experiences, they acquire new interests, new purposes, new goals, and more clear values, beliefs and opinions (Gabriel, 1969).

Children remain dependent upon adults long after they are physically able to care for themselves. Much of the antagonism and aggressiveness attributed to the preadolescent child arises from the inability to express his independence

28
adequately within the family. Thus, the peer group provide a valued opportunity for experiment without the pressures of constant adult expectations (Hawkes & Pease, 1962).

Preadolescence is a time when children struggle to gain stable identities and their peer culture provides both a sense of autonomy from adults and an arena for dealing with uncertainties of an increasingly complex world. The many positive features of their peer cultures such as verbal routines, games and enduring friendships, allow preadolescents to hold on to their childhood a little longer, while simultaneously preparing themselves for the transition to adolescence (Woodhead, Faulkner & Littleton, 1999). Status in their peer group is of critical importance for them. This status is based upon solid contributions to the group’s activities (Forest, 1954).

Many adults, teachers and parents especially are inclined to view with alarm and varying degrees of rejection the unexpected behaviors of the 9 to 12 year olds. Their ventures and adventures with assertive independence are often seen as disobedience. Their peer group standards are deemed to be of questionable value and are viewed with suspicion (Loomis, 1959). The school age child is aware of some of the differences and experiments with various patterns of behavior in his social relationships. If his efforts with adults and with peers are successful, he tends to retain the rewarding behavior and to discard that which does not bring him satisfaction or success (Hawkes & Pease, 1962).

Children seek to exercise their developing social, physical and mental capacities, to further their new interests and to fulfill their new purposes. They can do this most in social groups, since these provide them with an opportunity to
engage in activities more complex and varied than is possible when playing alone or with a single friend (Gabriel, 1969). Different kinds of social groups and structured skill groups may have a positive effect on children’s skill developments and relationships.

Typically, within the field of education, those who have been targets of social skills training in the elementary age range fall into two general categories: (a) those who are at risk as a result of background factors and (b) those who have disabilities that qualify them for special education and other related services. Young children, especially those who are at risk, need multiple opportunities to learn essential social skills and many more opportunities to practice and perform them skillfully.

Lack of social skills appears to generate social failure. Poor competency as a child may set the stage for inappropriate interpersonal functioning as an adult. Social skills deficits of children are primarily described in a manner similar to assertiveness deficits. Inadequate social skills have also been related to delayed cognitive development and impaired academic performance (Cartledge & Milburn, 1978; Strain, Cooke & Apolloni, 1976 as cited in Gresham and Nagle, 1980).

A variety of successful SST programs have been developed and demonstrated to be efficacious. The recent majority of SST programs assist children with severe deficits in social skills. Examples might include those with obsessive compulsive disorder, Tourette's syndrome, conduct problems, serious emotional disorders, autism and anxiety disorders (March & Mulle, 1998; Lambert & Christie, 1998; Kazdin, 1998; Hepler, 1998; Lim, Girl & Quah, 1998;

Some programs aimed at reducing specific risk behaviors such as “Life Skills Training” for substance abuse, “Project Light” for sexual risk, whereas other programs attempt to develop general social skills (Botvin, Baker, Dusenbury, Botvin, & Diaz, 1995; Rotheram-Borus, Gwadz, Fernandez, & Srinivasan, 1998; Rotheram-Borus, 1988; Weissberg, Barton, & Shriver, 1997 as cited in Rotheram-Borus, Bickford, Milburn, Norwetta, 2001).

Different kinds of SST programs have been developed for students who have behavior disorders. The focus of the programs typically varies as a function of the age of the children targeted. By early adolescence, SST programs mainly focus on specific risk acts, whereas programs for younger children are usually more general in focus. Walker, Hops and Greenwood (1984) developed, tested and validated a series of complex behavior management packages that targeted the following behavior disorders: (a) aggressive, bullying behavior; (b) social withdrawal, (c) acting out, disruptive behavior and (d) low academic survival skills. These programs incorporated procedures designed to help students generalize obtained behavioral effects across settings and maintain them over the long term.

There were also some comprehensive behavior management programs addressed the needs of at-risk students in kindergarten through 3rd grade. These social skills training programs which was prepared for specific groups of students who have behavioral deficits were “Class” for acting-out students, “Recess” for aggressive students and “Peers” for socially withdrawn students. With the help of
these programs, key social skills and standards governing positive, socially appropriate behavior were systematically taught to the target children (Walker, Hops & Greenwood 1984).

Another program, “First Step to Success” is an early intervention program and yet an example of a comprehensive intervention approach for detecting and treating the problems of at-risk children at the point of school entry (Walker, Stiller, Golly, Kavanagh, Severson & Feil, 1997). First Step to Success is a collaborative home and school intervention program geared for kindergartners who show early signs of an emerging pattern of antisocial behavior. It has three modular components: (a) a universal screening procedure to detect at-risk, target students (b) a school intervention component that teaches an adaptive pattern of behavior for achieving school success and (c) a parent-training component that teaches parents how to develop school success skills in their child at home. The program teaches six social skills that address peer and teacher related forms of social-behavioral adjustment such as communication and sharing in school, cooperation, accepting limits, problem solving, friendship making, and developing self esteem and confidence. Research on the impact of “First Step to Success” was encouraging. This intervention approach was investigated by using both group and single-subject research designs. In the initial randomized trial in which the “First Step Program” was evaluated, a wait-list control group design was used to investigate its effects. This study yielded an average effect size of 0.86 across five evaluation measures (i.e., four teacher rating and one direct observation measure) resulting from a 3-month intervention delivered within regular kindergarten classrooms (Walker, Kavanagh, Stiller, Golly, Severson, Feil, 1998). Follow-up of
these students respectively, indicated substantial persistence of these gains over the primary and intermediate grades.

Recently reported research, indicates that SST for at-risk children at the point of school entry in combination with teacher training in behavior management and instruction of parents in positive discipline, produced superior and socially important outcomes years later, in comparison with nonparticipating controls or participating 6th graders (Hawkins, Catalano, Morrison, O’Donnell, Abbott, Day, 1992). In this study, students who participated in the full intervention program beginning in first grade were 20% less likely to commit violent acts, 38% less likely to drink heavily, and 35% less likely to become pregnant or contribute to a pregnancy when they were 18 years old. In addition, participating students were bonded and attached to the schooling process more fully, which can serve as an important protective factor against a host of negative developmental outcomes. They also had significantly higher grade point averages, higher achievement levels, and less school misbehavior. This study was impressive in that it involved 600 school children over a 12-year period, produced effects on some important social outcomes that SST is not expected to impact positively, addressed specific risk and protective factors associated with delinquency and its prevention. This kind of prevention studies shows us that applying SST to teach children appropriate skills before the appearance of serious social and psychological problems has important positive results for future.

There are also different social skills training programs were conducted on socially problematic elementary school populations. Gresham and Nagle (1980) worked with socially isolated 3rd and 4th grade students. Students were selected by
both sociometric test and a test designed to measure children’s social interaction preferences. Children were exposed to one of four social skills training conditions: coaching, modeling, mixed abbreviated modeling-coaching and control. Results showed that coaching and modeling were equivalent procedures for teaching social skills to isolated children and showed great improvement on social skills. Berner, Fee and Turner (2001) worked with 5th and 6th grade girls who were identified by their teachers as having few friends. They participated in group treatment sessions consisting of a praise phase, interpersonal problem solving, and an activity phase. At posttest, it appeared that the treatment group spent less time alone, more time initiating conversations and more time interacting with others.

In the elementary age range, systematic social skills training can be incorporated into risk factors which impair school success and the development of friendships. Increasing numbers of students come to school not ready to learn and who already possess well-developed patterns of aggressive, oppositional and disruptive behavior. If these children fall academically over the primary and intermediate grades, they become candidates for later school dropout. If they persist antisocial behavior, they may be pushed out of the school setting in middle or high school (Walker & McConnell, 1995). Young children, especially those who are at risk, need multiple opportunities to learn essential social skills and many more opportunities to practice and perform them skillfully.

A number of studies suggested that children and youth who either are at risk or display antisocial behavior tend to be rejected by peers and adults and are less socially skilled compared with peers who are not at risk or antisocial (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1981; Dishion, Loeber, Stouthamer-Loeber &
Patterson, 1984). One important way to intervene with children and youth who either are at risk to engage in antisocial acts or already have displayed such behaviors is to offer them structured social skills training. Lo, Loe and Cartledge (2002) examined the effects of pullout small-group and teacher-directed classroom-based social skills instruction on antisocial behaviors. They worked with five 3rd and 4th grade students at risk for emotional or behavioral disorders. Results indicated moderate reduction in antisocial behaviors during small-group social skills instruction.

Early prevention effort can affect student classroom performance for elementary age students with behavior problems. Findings demonstrated that a multi component prevention program (i.e., social skills, peer tutoring, classroom management) reduced inappropriate behaviors and improved academic engagement for the experimental group compared to a control-wait group with similar behavioral problems (Kamps, Kravits, Stolze, & Swaggart, 1999). In a recent research, positive outcomes were described for use of a prevention program serving students with behavioral and emotional disturbance and those at risk for emotional disturbance in urban elementary schools. This primarily school-based prevention program consisted of social skills activities, peer tutoring, individual and class wide behavior management components. Improved behaviors and decreased aggression were noted for the experimental group in treatment for approximately 11.2 school years, compared to a control-wait group. Results for two cohorts indicated that inappropriate behaviors decreased (i.e., aggression, out of seat, negative verbal behaviors) and positive behaviors increased (academic engagement, behavioral compliance) under conditions of strong implementation
of program components and in the context of high classroom structure (Kamps, Kravits, Stolze, & Swaggart, 1999). These findings concur with other reports recommending prevention and pre referral interventions.

It is clear that studies which cover the last trends on social skills training with children mainly focused on at risks and children with disabilities who need special education. In addition, available early prevention packages serve for not to accelerate the proportion of problems of these children. On the need for early intervention, there are a limited number of data-based intervention studies documenting positive outcomes for prevention efforts for normal young children. Social skills training interventions should be an integral part of school and social service programs at every age level for normal elementary school children.

2.1. 3. Social Skills Studies in Turkey

There seems to be an cumulating amount of study on social skills in Turkey on different age groups and these will be summarized here. Akkök and Sucuoğlu (1988) worked with 14 preschool children and their parents to examine the effect of parental guidance on improving social skills of their children. In 8-week social skills training group, parents were trained about the activities and were asked to conduct those activities with their children. Post test results revealed that children in the experimental group improved their social skills but it was not significant. However, after the 3 months follow-up study it was indicated that children in the experimental group showed a significant increase in their use of the trained skills from post test to follow-up.
Akkök (1996a, 1996b) prepared a book consisted of different social skills activities to guide the teachers and parents to develop their students’ and children’s social skills. Aydin (1985) worked on the effectiveness of social skills training and success training on the alleviation of helpless attribution style and improvement of peer relations of elementary school students. Thirty subjects who were unpopular and helpless were assigned to three groups: success training group, social skills training group and control group. Results indicated a significant improvement in attribution and sociometric scores of social skills training group after the treatment.

Altınoğlu-Dikmeer (1997) studied the social skills training program for socially withdrawn adolescents. After an informed consent form was obtained, 12 adolescents were assigned to experimental and control groups according to their order of application to the Adolescent Unit of the Psychiatry Clinic in Ankara Social Security Hospital. All subjects were socially shy, withdrawn, had difficulties in getting into peer groups and in being assertive. Experimental group received 12 sessions. MMPI- Social Introversion Scale was administered to both groups at pre and post tests. Experimental group showed a considerable improvement in social introversion level.

Yüksel (1997) examined the effects of a social skills training program on university students. Experimental group participated in 9-week training that is based on Ellis’ Rational Emotive Therapy principles and results indicated that the program has an effect on overall social skills level of experimental group subjects.

Aladağ (1998) conducted a study on human relations training. He designed and evaluated its effectiveness on interpersonal styles of university students. The
The experimental group received 10-week training on the following interpersonal skills: first contact, trust, self-disclosure, feedback, nonverbal expression of feelings, listening-responding, conflict, interpersonal relationship and developing relationships. Results indicated that subjects in the treatment group learned to become more persistent and to stay calm even under stressful situations as compared to the control group.

Çakıl (1998) investigated the effectiveness of social skills group training on the levels of loneliness of university students. UCLA Loneliness Scale was administrated to students attending to different undergraduate programs in the faculty of education. Two experimental and two control groups were composed of 15 students respectively who were volunteers and lonely. Social skills training group was performed with the experimental groups for 12 weeks. At the end of the training, significant decrease on the levels of loneliness of the students in the experimental groups was observed and this decrease remained the same at the end of three-months follow up period.

Kaf (1999) investigated the effectiveness of creative drama method on developing greeting, care for environment, sharing-cooperation social skills in “Our Village” lesson unit of 3rd grade social studies class. Findings indicated that creative drama method had significant effect on sharing-cooperation and greeting but not significant effect on care for environment social skill.

Kocayörük (2000) investigated the effectiveness of drama training on the development of social skills of students. Subjects were 6th, 7th and 8th grade students. Social Skill Scale was developed and applied by the author to the
students at pre and post tests. Results indicated that social skills training program with drama is effective on development of social skills of the students.

Çifci (2001) investigated the effectiveness of cognitive-process approach based social skills program on learning and generalizing three social skills: apologizing, coping with teasing and avoiding inappropriate touching of the nine adolescents with mental retardation. Social skills program covered dimensions of the cognitive process approach which are social coding skills, social decision skills, social performance skills and social evaluation skills. The stories and hand drawn pictures were used during teaching sessions. Social skills training sessions were implemented individually, three times a week. After each training session, generalization sessions were conducted. Results indicated that the target social skills training program was effective for the students with mentally retardation to acquire targeted social skills and to generalize them.

Avcıoğlu (2001) examined the effectiveness of social skills training program for hearing impaired students learning of basic social skills, initiating and maintaining the communication skills, working in groups and generalizing these skills developed on the basic of cooperative learning. Social Skills Evaluation Scale was administered to the subjects in order to identify both the three primarily important social skills of students with hearing impairment and to identify their inefficiencies in these skills. Also, Multiple Probe Model Across Subject Scale was used in order to examine the effectiveness of teaching. During the study, lesson plans on the basis of cooperative learning method were developed and used in order to achieve the target social skills. These lesson plans were applied three days in a week and by the end of each application, post observation sessions were
conducted. Results indicated that the social skills teaching program was effective for students with hearing impairment to teach and to generalize the target social skills.

Şahin (1999) investigated the effect of communication skills training on children’s loneliness and assertiveness level. The sample of this study was composed of 40 students at 5th grade and the results showed that the experimental group improved more than the control group for increasing assertiveness and decreasing loneliness.

Sümer (1999) conducted a two phase study on social skills of 6th and 7th grade level primary school students. She investigated the dimensions of social skills of these students as perceived by their teachers, parents and students. She also tested whether a relationship exists between social skills and sociometric status of the students and investigated the effect of a social skills training program on the student’s social skills and sociometric status. The sample of the first phase of the study, consisted of 382 students, their parents and teachers from 4 public primary schools in Ankara. The Social Skills Rating System- Student, Teacher, Parent Forms, and the Sociometric Test were used to collect the survey data. The survey results revealed that academic, emotion, assertion, and conflict management were the common dimensions perceived by the students, their teachers, and parents. The results provided rather a weak evidence concerning the relationship between specific social skills and the development of preadolescent’s peer acceptance. In the second phase of the study, an experimental 3X2 design with one treatment and two control groups, and two measurements was used in order to investigate the effectiveness of the “Social Skills Training Program”.

40
Contrary to the expectation, the results demonstrated that the program was not an effective method for teaching social skills to skill deficit subjects and did not improve their sociometric status.

Most of the studies on social skills that have been conducted in Turkey are related with university students and adolescents. However, it is a must to develop and conduct different kinds of social skills studies with different age groups. There may be a lot of efficacious developmental contribution of social skills to the progress of human being, especially of children. Investigating these skills with different age groups can expand our point of view on human development.

### 2.2. Assertiveness

Assertiveness has a long history within the field of behavior therapy, dating back to the pioneering work of Salter (1949) and Wolpe (1958) who recognized that certain individuals in society had specific problems in standing up for their rights. As a result, the skill of assertiveness was introduced during therapies, in an attempt to help such individuals function more effectively in their everyday lives.

Assertiveness is a very important social skill both in professional contexts and in everyday interactions. We feel hurt, aggrieved and upset if our rights have been violated. Some individuals find it difficult to be assertive. This is often related to upbringing in that they may have been raised under a very strict regime by parents, in which as children they were seen and not heard. Also, they have been taught in school that the quiet child was the most approved of by the teacher. It can be difficult in later life to overcome this residue of parental and
educational upbringing. However, research evidence clearly indicates that it is possible to improve assertion skills.

Different researchers tried to explain the multi-faceted nature of assertiveness. Rich and Schroeder (1976) defined assertiveness as the cognitive, emotional and behavioral responses that maximize one’s potential for reaching personal goals and gaining social approval (as cited in Şahin, 1999). Alberti and Emmons (1982) offered the following definition of assertion,

assertive behavior promotes equality in human relationships, enabling us to act in our own best interests, to stand up for ourselves without undue anxiety, to express honest feelings comfortably, to exercise personal rights without denying the rights of others (p.7).

All of these definitions emphasize important components of assertion, namely respect for the rights of other people and the skilled individual should be able to achieve a balance between ensuring personal rights and not infringing the rights of others.

Assertiveness can be conceptualized as comprising seven response classes. Three of these are negative: expressing unpopular or different opinions; requesting behavior change from others and refusing unreasonable requests. The remaining four are positive: admitting personal shortcomings; giving and receiving compliments; initiating and maintaining interactions and expressing positive feelings. Likewise, Lazarus (1971) regarded assertiveness as comprising four main components; the ability to refuse requests, ask for favors and make requests, express positive and negative feelings, and initiate, continue and terminate general conversations.
People respond each other in different styles in an unique situation. Alberti and Emmons (1975) distinguished between three such styles, namely nonassertion, assertion and aggression.

Nonassertive responses involve expressing oneself in such a self-effacing, apologetic manner that one’s thoughts, feelings and rights can easily be ignored. In this style, person hesitates, speaks softly, looks away, tends to fidget nervously, avoids issues, agrees regardless of his own feelings, does not express opinions, values himself below others, lacks confidence and hurts himself to avoid any chance of hurting others. The objective here is to satisfy others and avoid conflict at any cost (Alberti & Emmons, 1975).

Assertive responses involve standing up for oneself, yet taking the other person into consideration. The assertive style involves answering spontaneously, speaking with a conversational, yet firm tone and volume, looking at the other person, addressing the main issue, openly expressing personal feelings and opinions, valuing oneself equal to others, and hurting neither oneself nor others. The objective here is to try to ensure to be equal (Alberti & Emmons, 1975).

Aggressive responses involve threatening or violating the rights of the other person. Here, the person answers before the other is finished speaking, talks loudly and abusively, glares at the other person, values himself above others and hurts them to avoid hurting himself. The objective here is to win regardless of the other person (Alberti & Emmons, 1975).

Assertiveness is often confused with aggression but the two are fundamentally different. Assertion is concerned with being open about our feelings, both positive and negative. The distinction between aggression and
assertion is that assertion definitely does not include any intent to injure, but instead, a positive, purposeful, goal-directed action that serves the healthy function of self-protection (Craig, 1979 as cited in Haswell, Hock & Wenar, 1982). Unlike aggressive children, assertive youngsters do not respond in generalized frustration. Rather, they utilize forthright, direct behaviors such as resisting what they consider to be unreasonable demands “No I wont give you the eraser. I still need it”; accepting logical disagreements “Okay, I see what you mean”; and suggesting solutions to conflict “You can have it in a minute” or “I will use it again when you are through” (Stocking, Arezzo, & Leavitt, 1979). Assertiveness forms the midpoint of this continuum, and is usually the most appropriate response.

Being assertive helps people to be more constructive and confident in dealing with situations and in building the sorts of relationships they want. By not being assertive, people can often experience a lot of anger, resentment, dissatisfaction and anxiety with themselves and others. Bates and Zimmerman (1971) claimed that anxiety may inhibit the expression of appropriate feeling of adaptive social acts. They also suggested that interpersonal anxieties and their consequences can be treated by assertive training (as cited in Şahin, 1999). If we are not assertive, we can not expect people around us to respond as we would really wish. By being assertive, we can also end up allowing others to use, abuse and take advantage of our passivity.

There may be many reasons why people find it difficult to be assertive. Home life, school life and peer group pressure often reinforces non assertive behavior. It can become increasingly difficult to resist conventional expectations
which deny our individuality and personal needs and wants. Children are not always encouraged to express their feelings and opinions. Sometimes they are even punished for it. This can carry over into adulthood where people may feel uncomfortable in expressing their feelings. The short term rewards of praise and appreciation for doing what others want can lead us to neglect the long term rewards of being ourselves and asserting our needs. Schools and other institutions often seem to prefer and reward the obedient and co-operative child. In addition, questioning individuals who express their opinions and feelings are often treated as difficult people. Furthermore, fear of being refused, anxiety about causing embarrassment and a misguided concept of politeness make it very difficult for some people to be assertive and many people do not realize or believe that they have individual rights.

In terms of actual rights, Zuker (1983) produced a general “Assertive Bill of Rights” for individuals which includes the right to be treated with respect, have and express personal feelings and opinions, be listened to and taken seriously, set one’s own priorities, say no without feeling guilty, ask for what one wants, get what one pays for, make mistakes, assert oneself even though it may inconvenience others and choose not to assert oneself.

A child’s ability to relate in a socially assertive manner has been affected by many other areas of his or her life, particularly school adjustment. For example, children who have interpersonal difficulties, who withdraw from social interactions and show little emotional expressiveness or social independence, were found to be low achievers in school (Perkins, 1965). In contrast, assertive social behavior was shown to be positively correlated to IQ and healthy
adjustment in the classroom (Cartledge & Milburn, 1978). A child who possesses assertiveness makes plans, sets some goals and tries to reach them insistently (Onur, 1986 as cited in Görüş, 1999). Given these findings, it seems desirable to teach children to be assertive (Rotheram, Armstrong & Booraem, 1982).

Assertive children as assertive adults, become more happy, honest, healthy and less manipulative. Feeling good about themselves, make it easy to accomplish what they plan to do in their adulthood. In this respect, family, school and other social systems should respect children, take care of their natural rights and encourage them to express themselves honestly (Gökalan, 2000).

Children are required to learn a complex set of social skills to engage in effective, confident, and mutually beneficial interaction with other people. In particular, there has been little recognition of assertiveness as a valuable skill for children. Yet, children are frequently involved in situations which call for assertive behavior. They need to know how to respond effectively when another child attacks, intrudes, or bosses and how appropriately ask others for help, objects or a chance to participate in a social activity.

Assertion is related to children’s emerging sense of autonomy. Children develop positive feelings about their own abilities when they can express themselves and when they can exert some control and influence over others. The school age child is aware of some of the differences and experiments with various patterns of behavior in his social relationships. If his efforts with adults and peers are successful, he tends to retain the rewarding behavior and to discard that which does not bring him satisfaction or success. Because young children have not yet mastered all the social skills necessary for harmonious interactions, assertion
often initially takes the form of aggression. Preadolescent child may experience difficulties to express his independence within the family. Thus, the peer group provides a valued opportunity for experiment without the pressures of constant adult expectations. On the other hand, youngsters in school who fail to shift from aggression to assertion tend to be rejected by their peers and disliked by adults. Such reactions contribute to a reduction of self esteem in aggressors and limit their opportunities to practice other, more acceptable approaches. This situation increases the likelihood of hostile, angry feelings, which lead to further aggression. When such a pattern develops, it is difficult to break. However, through observation, instruction, feedback and practice, children can learn the more constructive, socially acceptable behaviors that are associated with positive assertion. The early years therefore, mark a critical period for children to learn to be assertive rather than aggressive. It is important for children to learn to substitute assertion for aggression right from the start. Being assertive also means taking responsibility for life and choices. It means making own decisions, rather than simply going along with other people’s choices (Rees & Graham, 1991 as cited in Şahin, 1999). Preadolescent children can also have benefit from having opportunities to make some of their decisions without always conforming to others’ wishes.

As a conclusion, assertiveness is a very important and useful social skill that has a power to enhance the social relationships, academic success and personal development. It is a necessity to empower young people with the knowledge, understanding and skills to choose their own appropriate and effective patterns of behavior. We should not have to wait until adulthood to find that our
patterns of behavior and ability to express feelings are unsatisfactory. Teaching these skills to the young children could ensure that unwanted paths and modes of behavior are avoided. In this regard, early adolescence has been described as an optimum stage for intervention, with the aim of preventing subsequent problems of maladjustment and delinquency (Bulkeley & Cramer, 1994).

2.2.1. Assertiveness Training

Assertiveness is an aspect of interpersonal communication which can be developed and improved. Assertiveness training has focused on the modification of nonassertive social behaviors, and acquisition of alternative assertive responses (Hargie, Saunders & Dickson, 1994).

Assertiveness training (AT) has a long history. As early as 1949, Andrew Salter in Conditioned Reflex Therapy described an early form of assertion training (Lange & Jacobowski, 1976). Wolpe (1958) and Lazarus (1971) were the other behavior therapists who more clearly differentiated assertion from aggression and used various role play procedures as part of their assertion training. Assertion training programs became popular mainly after 1970’s as a means of increasing personal effectiveness and improving interpersonal relationships (as cited in Nadim, 1995).

Assertiveness training has two parallel goals. First, to increase individual awareness of verbal patterns, intentions, feelings, rights, risks and consequences both for the asserter and the other person in the encounter and second, to increase the verbal and listening skills of the would-be asserter. AT can be conducted on with an individual or group, but group training is considered generally more
effective (Rathus, 1975 as cited in Nadim, 1995). There are four types of assertion training groups (Lange & Jacubowski, 1976).

1- Exercise oriented: All the group members initially participate in a pre-set series of role play exercises and then the members generate their own behavioral rehearsal situations.

2- Theme oriented: Each session is devoted to a particular theme and behavioral rehearsal is used through the role plays. It may not include highly structured exercises.

3- Semi structured: Use some role play exercises in combination with other therapeutic procedures.

4- Unstructured: The role play experience are based entirely on whatever needs the members present at each session.

There are also some training techniques that are usually used in AT groups. Each assertiveness technique can be categorized into one of the five basic operations: response acquisition strategies (instructions, overt and covert modeling, bibliotherapy), response reproduction procedures (overt and covert behavioral rehearsal), response refinement techniques (shaping, coaching, self evaluation, feedback, reinforcement), cognitive restructuring procedures (rational relabeling, self instruction training, problem solving) and response transfer strategies (homework assignment, systematic naturalistic experimentation, self-instruction training, self-monitoring, covert modeling, rehearsal and social perception skill training) (Rich & Schroeder, 1976).

Assertion training can be conducted by using cognitive behavioral intervention techniques. Cognitive restructuring is the process by which
individuals become aware of their own thinking patterns which lead to ineffectual behaviors and change these thought processes to more productive ones. Behavioral rehearsal is another important way of teaching assertiveness.

Teachers, parents, and clinicians who attempt to improve a child’s interpersonal skills simply by encouraging the child to participate in more peer activities will probably not be effective in their interventions unless additional instruction in social behavior is provided.

Assertiveness training teaches skills which empower people to handle difficult personal, social and professional situations in a way which does not violate their rights. The term “assertiveness” refers to a subcategory of social skills in which the emphasis is on the ability to express both positive and negative feelings in the interpersonal context without suffering consequent loss of social reinforcement. Children deficient in this regard would require training to increase their ability to stand up for their rights and express both anger and positive feelings, such as appreciation. There are some important steps that should be considered when giving assertiveness training to children. Appropriateness is a crucial skill when teaching assertiveness to young children. Adults respond positively to some assertive behavior in the young children such as expressing positive feelings or making requests. However, young people asserting their rights or expressing negative feelings may alienate some teachers or parents. It is unfortunately true that for some young people learning when to use the skills will be as important as knowing how to use them. We all have the right to choose how, where and when to express our feelings but assertive behaviors in some situations could be counter-productive. Then, appropriate behavior is being aware of the
consequences of a range of behaviors. The situation in which assertiveness required is another important factor. After following a detailed research investigation, Eisler, Hersen, Miller and Bard (1975) concluded that an individual who is assertive in one interpersonal context may not be assertive in a different interpersonal environment. Furthermore, some individuals may have no difficulty responding with negative assertions but may be unable to respond when the situation requires positive expressions. Thus, after teaching assertiveness techniques, we should give examples of skillful usage of assertiveness in different situations.

2.2.2. Related Research on Assertiveness

2.2.2.1. Research on Assertiveness Training for Various Groups

A large volume of research has been conducted on assertiveness training and these programs are introduced in many settings. It has been recognized that a lot of groups can benefit from becoming more assertive. Thus, programs of assertiveness training were employed in the training of many such professionals and social groups.

The first study on assertiveness was conducted by Chitenden (1942). He conducted a study about developing and measuring assertiveness with preschool children. Results revealed that children in the experimental group exhibited significant increases in cooperative behavior and decreases in aggressive behaviors. However, the other assertiveness training studies were generally applied on adults and some specific groups.
Most of the researchers have tried to investigate the effectiveness of assertiveness training on different groups of people such as business staff (Schloss, Espin, Smith & Suffolk, 1987), job seekers (Ball & Mc Loughlin, 1977), working women (Brockway, 1976) and managers (Shaw, 1976). Different studies investigated the relationship among assertiveness and other variables such as locus of control and health problems (Williams & Stout, 1984) and gender differences (Hollandsworth & Wall, 1977).

Medical staff -especially nurses-, medical students and patients were also the focus of the assertiveness training (Kilkus, 1993; Poroch & McIntosh, 1995; Dunn & Sommer, 1997). Elderly people and adults with mental retardation were another group who participated assertiveness training (Franzke, 1987; Donnelly, 1992; Granat, 1978). Also, gender groups (Weinhardt, Carey & Verdecias, 1998), couples (Gordon & Waldo, 1984), parents of children with disabilities (Markel & Greenbaum, 1981), teacher educators (Hoffman, 1983) and people with hearing impairment (Sedge, 1982) were the other assertiveness training subjects.

2.2.2.2 Research on Assertiveness Training for Students

A variety of studies have been conducted to understand assertiveness and effects of assertiveness training on students. Assertiveness training groups are common in specific age groups of students, especially in college, university students and adolescents.

Galassi, Litz and Galassi (1974) investigated the effectiveness of group assertiveness training with nonassertive college students. After receiving 8-week training including videotape modeling, video-peer-trainer feedback, behavioral
rehearsal, group support and bibliotherapy, significant differences were found between experimental and control groups on the self-expression scale, eye contact and assertive content. These results showed that assertiveness training in groups using video feedback was useful for college students.

Perkins and Kemmerling (1983) examined the effectiveness of assertiveness training groups led by trained paraprofessional college students. Participants were assigned to either a treatment or control condition after completing two personality measures. Results suggested that paraprofessionals were effective in producing significant, positive changes in the reported assertive behavior of group members.

Leone and Gumaer (1979) developed a group assertiveness training program with shy children. The first phase utilized reinforcement procedures, relaxation, guided fantasy, behavior contracts, and feedback mechanisms. The second phase eliminated features no longer needed as children progressed. The evaluation demonstrated that this program was effective in increasing assertive behavior.

Nadim (1995) investigated the effect of a group assertiveness training program on nonassertive -passive and aggressive- adolescents with visual impairment, ranging from 16 to 20 year of age from mixed gender. Pre test post test control group design was used in the study. The program was developed according to the needs of the group members. Assertiveness training group revealed a significantly greater improvement than control group.

Assertiveness training programs were used to prevent adolescents from drugs and smoking, too. Dupont and Jason (1984) studied the efficacy of two drug
education programs for 41, 7th grade students who were provided with either a traditional or an assertiveness drug prevention program. While both groups showed significant gains in knowledge, only those in the assertiveness group demonstrated significant changes in drug attitudes.

Wise, Bundy, Bundy and Wise (1991) developed a systematic assertiveness training program for adolescents, based on social cognitive theory. The program focused on peer interactions and social responsibility. It was presented to a class of 22, 6th grade students. Cognitive acquisition of the information was measured with multiple choice tests administered immediately after training and at a 6-month follow up. Trained students performed significantly better than a control group on the post test and on the 6-month follow up. These results indicated that young adolescents can acquire and retain the symbolic information that forms a basis for assertive behavior.

There are also some studies that work on a wide range of ages including adolescents and children. Buell and Snyder (1981) examined the efficacy of assertiveness training by comparing it to a structured interview empathic respond procedure and an activity control procedure. Fifty four male children and adolescents, ranging from 8 to 18 year of age who were identified as non problematic, mildly problematic or moderately problematic in reference to school performance, classroom behavior and interpersonal skills participated in the study. The data obtained from the role-playing test, strongly suggested that giving assertiveness training to children leads to the acquisition of behaviors which are viewed as interpersonally effective or assertive. These effects persisted after treatment.
Assertiveness was examined on pre-school children too. Benenson, Ford and Apostoleris (1998) examined 4 and 6 year old girls’ physical and verbal assertiveness in the presence of varying numbers of boys. Expression of girls’ physical and verbal assertiveness was found highly dependent on the social context and unrelated to the percentage of boys in their play groups.

2.2.2.3 Research on Assertiveness Training for Elementary School Children

Assertiveness is the thoughts, feelings and behaviors which help a child obtain personal goals in a socially acceptable manner (O’Malley, 1977 as cited in Rotheram, Armstrong, & Booraem, 1982). Schools include a lot of socialization opportunities so presentation of social skill training in schools may be useful. Tanner and Holliman (1988) conducted an assertiveness training group for the 2nd and the 3rd grade children to modify aggressive behavior. Twenty four children were assigned to an assertiveness social skills training or an attention control group. Both groups met for one hour twice weekly, for 3 weeks. Dependent measures were: a) teacher ratings, b) behavioral observations during free play, c) observations during a structured play task and d) observations while being transported home. Results showed that children given assertiveness social skills training exhibited a moderate increase in frequency of cooperative interaction and a decrease in physical aggression.

The Assertive Communication Training Game (ACT) is another assertiveness social skills program, based on social learning theory for children in 3rd to 6th grade. Implemented in classrooms, the game set up teams in which children gained experience as actors and directors in producing skills involving
problem solving and skill rehearsal (Rotheram-Borus, Bickford, Milburn, Norweeta, 2001).

There were considerations relating to the selection of the age group for the social skills training interventions. Rutter (1985) emphasized the importance of preventive interventions at certain key stages of children’s development. Preadolescence is a period at which youngsters commonly experience a good deal of uncertainty and are likely to benefit from training that will enhance their performance in a range of social situations through the teenage years (Bulkeley & Cramer, 1994).

Rotheram, Armstrong and Booraem (1982) designed and evaluated an assertiveness training program for 343, 4th and 5th grade children. All children in 10 classrooms were randomly assigned by classroom to one of the three conditions: a) assertiveness training, b) control intervention and c) no treatment control. The intervention procedures were administered for two hours a week for 12 weeks. The results revealed that assertiveness was higher among classes receiving assertion training on the quality of alternatives generated on the Interpersonal Problem Solving Test, an Assertion Quiz and a Group Decision Task. Teachers reported better comportment and higher achievement and higher popularity among the assertion classes. Observations indicated a greater number of student-initiated contacts with the teacher and fewer questions answered by the pupils receiving assertiveness training.

Thoft (1977) used assertiveness training with both passive and aggressive 4th, 5th, and 6th grade children. After the training, group leaders, children and their teachers reported examples of more assertive behaviors in social settings.
Bornstein, Bellack and Hersen, (1977) conducted an assertiveness training with children using the behavioral rehearsal, modeling, feedback and coaching procedures. They found that assertiveness training was effective in modifying the social behaviors of four passive and shy children. Treatment was generalized from trained to nontrained items on a role play test and the gains were maintained at 2-week and 4-week follow up.

2.2.3. Assertiveness Studies in Turkey

There have been a number of studies about assertiveness on students in Turkey, but relatively few involving preadolescents. Aırı (1989), examined the relationship between culture, gender, personality and assertiveness in university students. Higher levels of assertiveness were found in male students than in females. In addition, students who lived in the city showed more assertive behavior than the students who came from village or town.

Şahiner (1994) investigated the relationship between assertiveness and self-concept, and the effect of gender on assertiveness. College Self-Expression Scale (CSES) and Giessen Self-Concept Scale (GSCS) was administered to 278 preschool students in Middle East Technical University. Results indicated a negative relationship between assertiveness and self-concept, between assertiveness and dominance, depression, and social potency. Whereas, a positive relationship was found between assertiveness and social resonance No significant relationship was found between assertiveness and self-control. Also, t-test results revealed that there was no significant sex difference in students' assertiveness.
Sardoğan (1998) investigated the effect of Florida Human Relationships Skills program on the assertiveness, anxiety, loneliness, empathy and self disclosure with university students. Pre test post test control group design was applied for 10 weeks. Results revealed that this training program increased the level of assertiveness and decreased the level of anxiety and loneliness of university students.

Tegin (1990) investigated assertiveness with respect to the gender and the department of university students. Results did not show an effect on the assertiveness level based on gender of the students. However, a difference was found between departments according to the Uneasiness scale.

Deniz (1997) conducted an assertiveness training group with 280 college students and investigated the effects of this program with respect to grade, gender and cultural factors. The mean assertiveness scores of students who participated the assertiveness group increased significantly (as cited in Kaya, 2000).

In the research of Voltan (1980), assertiveness training was applied to 30 adolescents ranging from 17 to 19 year of age. Two-hour meetings were conducted with the experimental group during 9 weeks. Results showed that students who have low socio economic status and who came from the country side possess less ability to express themselves, low achievement in their desires and inability to disclose feelings.

Saruhan (1996) investigated the relationship between assertiveness and parental attitude of high school students. Results revealed that students who come from low socio economic status have a higher level of assertiveness than who come from high socio economic status. In addition, research pointed out that
while the assertive students consider their parents as democratic, students who have negative assertion consider their parents as authoritarian.

Görüş (1999) investigated the correlation between coping strategies under stressful experiences and assertive behavior of high school students. There was found a meaningful relationship between assertive behavior and coping strategies used in stressful experiences such as problem solving, blamed self, wishful thinking, and avoidance of high school students.

Kaya (2000) indicated that different programs and activities had an effect on the development of assertiveness level in preschool children.

Training on basic assertiveness skills in children has almost been neglected in Turkish schools. The traditional and obedient characteristic of Turkish culture may have an effect on this situation. Crowded school settings and low socio economic status of many children may also be a factor in this. Erbaş (1999) indicated that 3rd grade students who attended classes that have fever students were more assertive than those who attended crowded classes. In the same research, the children whose mother worked and was educated, who were the only child in the family and who had a room were found to be more assertive.

Topukçu (1982) conducted a study with elementary school students to see the effects of assertiveness training on assertiveness level of students. Pre test post test experimental control group design was used. Training took 12 weeks and results showed that assertiveness training has an effect on transforming aggressive behavior to assertive behavior.

Çulha and Dereli (1987) conducted a 7-week assertiveness training for elementary school children who were identified as nonassertive according to the
Rathus Assertiveness Inventory. Pre test post test control group design was used and results showed significant improvement with respect to the experimental group on the assertiveness levels of the students.

Substantial evidence exists suggesting that skill training improves adjustment of all children, even those considered to be functioning well (Rotheram, 1982). Children who are in normal developmental stages need some extra instructions and educational supports to increase their skill repertoire and there are developing needs for social skills interventions that promote competence during elementary school years rather than targeting specific subgroups of children with deficits.

2.3. Self esteem

Self esteem is an important and necessary personality variable in our lives. In every aspect of life, the benefits of high self esteem can be observed. Different researchers have defined self esteem. For example, self esteem was defined as “one’s general feelings of self worth” from Bong and Clark (1999). Self esteem is a product of one’s social interactions and that both others and the person involved contribute to the final image that is projected and perceived (as cited in Kostelnik, Stein, Whiren & Soderman, 1988).

Erikson (1968) explained self esteem more precisely as a function of identity development that results from successfully addressing the tasks associated with each of the developmental stages of life. Thus, one’s sense of developing, growing and confronting life’s tasks lead to feelings of worth. Maslow (1973) believed that healthy self esteem is necessary for a person to be truly productive
and successful. He argued that self esteem comes from two basic sources: love, respect and acceptance we get from significant others and our own sense of competence and achievement. Rogers (1961) emphasized the role of unconditional love and acceptance in the formation of positive self esteem. He used the term “unconditional positive regard” that one person has for another. This unconditional positive regard communicates that the person is valued just for existing. Aside from the need to belong and to be loved, an individual’s self esteem is also dependent upon feeling of being basically competent. Bandura (1977) refers to this sense of competency as self-efficacy which is the evaluation of our own ability to handle life situations and our thoughts about how well we are able to perform particular tasks or activities.

Self esteem has two dimensions; competence and worth. Competence involves the belief that one has the power to accomplish tasks and influence events that affect his or her life. The extent to which people value and like themselves is a measure of self worth (Kostelnik, Stein, Whiren., & Soderman, 1988). According to Openshaw (1978) as children gain self knowledge, they begin to evaluate that knowledge by making positive and negative judgments about their self worth. He called self esteem as this evaluative component of the self.

The term self esteem includes cognitive, affective and behavioral elements. It is cognitive as the person consciously thinks about oneself as one considers the discrepancy between one’s ideal self and the perceived self. The affective element refers to the feelings or emotions that one has when considering that discrepancy. The behavioral aspects of self esteem are manifested in such
behaviors as assertiveness, resilience, being decisive and respectful of others. Thus, self esteem is difficult to define because of these multiple dimensions. In addition, although self esteem is generally stable, it can fluctuate from time to time, a phenomenon which is referred to as global versus situational self esteem and which can make measuring or researching self esteem very difficult. The importance of self esteem can be considered from several perspectives. First, it is important to normal, psychological development of human being. In order to adequately cope with the challenges of growing and developing, persons need to believe that they have the capacity to achieve what they need and want to and that they are deserving of happiness and joy in life. If they lack a belief in either above, they are probably less effective and creative than they would be if they possessed high self esteem (Walz, 1992).

People who judge their competence and worth in positive terms are said to have high self esteem and those whose self-evaluations are generally poor are described as having low self esteem. Whether people’s self esteem is high or low has a tremendous impact on their ability to derive joy and satisfaction from life. It affects how they feel about themselves, how they anticipate that others will respond to them and what they think they can accomplish (Gecas, 1971).

When one’s self esteem is high, he feels confident, trusts his judgments and knows what he is capable of. Moreover, he respects himself for what he does and who he is. When one lacks self esteem, he feels weak and helpless and becomes uncertain of the value of anything he does. Furthermore, he does not trust himself or other people’s reassurances and unsure of who he is. This is a common experience which may result in difficulty in making satisfactory
relationships. Low self esteem is associated with depression, anxiety and maladjustment (Damon, 1983). Children whose estimations of self worth are negative, experience feelings of inadequacy and incompetence and fear rejection (Openshaw, 1978). They also are less likely to be objective about their capacities. Such youngsters have little hope of influencing others and anticipate that most interactions will be costly for them. Consequently, they hesitate to express their opinions, lack independence and tend to feel isolated or alone (Coopersmith, 1967). Typical means of self protection include denigrating themselves, keeping all associates at a distance or building themselves up by tearing others down (Kaplan & Pokorny, 1969 as cited in Kostelnik, Stein, Whiren., & Soderman, 1988). Due to these outcomes, low self esteem decrease one’s quality of life and makes a happy existence difficult to achieve.

The foundations of self esteem are laid early in life when infants develop attachments with the adults who are responsible for them. When adults readily respond to their cries and smiles, babies learn to feel loved and valued. Children come to feel love and accept by being loved and accepted by people they look up to. As young children learn to trust their parents and others who care for them to satisfy their basic needs, they gradually feel wanted, valued, and loved. Self esteem is also related to children's feelings of belonging to a group and being able to adequately function in their group. When toddlers become preschoolers, for example, they are expected to control their impulses and adopt the rules of the family and community in which they grow. Successfully adjusting to these groups helps to strengthen feelings of belonging to them (Katz, 1995).
In middle childhood, the judgments children make about their own worth, is reorganized. As children enter school, they get much more feedback about their performance in different activities compared with that of their peers. Grades on papers and tests, report cards and the comments of adults and other children are integrated into self evaluations. As a result, self esteem differentiates. It also adjusts to a more realistic level. School age children’s newfound ability to view themselves in terms of stable dispositions permits them to combine their separate self evaluations into a general psychological image of themselves and an overall sense of self esteem (Harter, 1983 as cited in Mussen, 1993).

Harter (1983 as cited in Mussen, 1993) examined the formation and development of self esteem in children and found that children have a relatively well defined sense of self esteem by the time they reach the age of eight. During these ages, children develop a much more refined self concept. It is at about 8 or 9 years of age that children develop a general index of their value as a person that is predominately favorable or unfavorable. From then on, this same pervasive view remains relatively constant through life (Coopersmith, 1967). They organize their observations of behaviors and internal states into general dispositions. These major changes take place especially between ages 8 and 11. Children begin to make social comparisons. They judge their appearance, abilities and behavior in relation to those of others. They tend to make estimates of their own self worth in five important areas: physical appearance, social acceptance, scholastic competence, athletic and artistic skills and behavioral conduct. These judgments of self worth are made on the basis of expectations and on the basis of our beliefs of how others value us (Joseph, 1994).
Some researchers explained the development of self esteem in basic ages in their unique way. For example, according to the developmental stages of Erikson (1959) industry versus inferiority indicates that when family, school and peer experiences are positive, school age children develop an industrious approach to productive work and feelings of competence and mastery. During middle childhood, psychological traits and social comparisons appear in children’s self-descriptions. A differentiated, hierarchically organized self esteem emerges, and children’s sense of self-worth declines as they adjust their self-judgments to fit the opinions of others and objective performance. Erikson’s (1959) sense of industry combines several developments of middle childhood as a positive but realistic self-concept, pride in accomplishment, moral responsibility and cooperative participation with age mates.

In school, children engage in productive work beside and with other children. They become aware of their own and other’s unique capacities, learn the value of division of labor, and develop a sense of moral commitment and responsibility. The danger at this stage is inferiority reflected in the sad pessimism of some children who have little confidence in their ability to do things well. This sense of inadequacy may develop when family life has not prepared children for school life or when experiences with teachers and peers are so negative that they undermine children’s feelings of competence and mastery (Berk, 1999).

Since school is a place where a great number of interactions take place, it has a crucial role in enhancing both academic and non-academic self esteem of students. Mc Guire and Mc Guire (1982) reported that as children grow, relating with the authority figures, their self definition shifts from a relationship with
parents to a relationship with teachers when they start to school (as cited in Güloğlu, 1999).

In middle childhood, several transformations in self understanding take place. First, children can describe themselves in terms of psychological traits. Second, they start to compare their own characteristics to those of their peers. Finally, they speculate about the causes of their strengths and weaknesses. These ways of thinking about the self have a major impact on children’s self esteem (Berk, 1999). Children continually gather information about their value through interactions with the significant people in their lives (Coopersmith, 1967). Such persons serve as the mirror through which children see themselves and then judge what they see. If what is reflected is good, children make a positive evaluation of self. If the image is negative, children draw a conclusion that they have little worth. Children are sensitive to the attitudes people have toward them and often adopt those opinions on their own (Openshaw, 1978). Thus, experience has a cumulative impact on self esteem. Parents, teachers and peers communicate powerful expectations and evaluations that influence the development of self esteem.

As children evaluate themselves in various areas, they lose the optimism of early childhood. Self esteem drops during the first years of elementary school (Stipek & Mac Iver, 1989 as cited in Berk, 1999). This decline can be explained by the fact that children gradually adjust their self judgments to fit the opinions of others as well as their performance in relation to age mates. This drop in self esteem is not great enough to be harmful. Most children appraise their characteristics and competencies realistically while maintaining an attitude of self
acceptance and self respect. Then from 4th to 6th grade, self esteem rises for the majority of youngsters, who feel especially good about their peer relationships and athletic capabilities. On the other hand, even better approach is to prevent low self esteem before it happens (Berk, 1999).

Youngsters whose self esteem is high, feel good about themselves. They consider themselves to be likeable and competent. In social interactions, they anticipate that their encounters with others will be rewarding and that they will have a positive influence on the outcome of the exchange (Coopersmith, 1967). These optimistic feelings make it easier for them both to give and to receive love. Such children also have confidence in their own judgments. As a result, they are able to express and defend ideas they believe in, even when faced with opposition from others. When confronted with obstacles, they draw on positive feelings from the past to help them get through difficult times. In addition, they tend to appraise their abilities and limitations realistically and they can separate weaknesses in one area from successes in others (Rosenberg, 1965). For these reasons, high self esteem is related to positive life satisfaction and happiness.

Children with high self esteem feel confident, self assured and comfortable in their relationships with adults and peers. They expect to be successful in the tasks they undertake and assert themselves even at the risk of disapproval (Coopersmith, 1967). Children with high self esteem act positively, assume responsibility, tolerate frustration well, feel able to influence their environments and are proud of their behaviors. Further, research findings indicated that high levels of self esteem were positively associated with better adjustment (Williams & Cole as cited in Güloğlu, 1999). High self esteem allows one to express more
creativity, achieve more ambitions and more likely to find nourishing relationships. A child, who feels good about himself may cope better with the problems he encounters so that he never develops major difficulties for him. School age children begin to divide their opinions of self worth by making different evaluations of the self in different fields like social, physical and intellectual (Harter, 1983 as cited in Mussen, 1993).

Hence, a child may have positive feelings about himself in relation to physical activities, while simultaneously feeling inadequate academically. The relative weight of both positive and negative self-evaluations in these areas contribute to an overall estimation of self esteem.

Children with low self esteem withdraw rather than attempt a task because they are uncertain about their own abilities. They tend to be quiet and passive (Coopersmith, 1967). Because such children expect to fail, they do not try very hard and indeed often do not succeed. Children with low self esteem are easily led by others, easily frustrated, often blame others for their shortcomings and avoid difficult situations (Clemens & Bean, 1981 as cited in Güloğlu, 1999). Children with a negative self worth, experience feelings of inadequacy and incompetence and fear rejection (Openshaw, 1978). They also are less likely to be objective about their capacities. They focus on their deficiencies, weaknesses and negative qualities (Kostelnik, 1988). Such children have little hope of influencing others. Consequently, they hesitate to express their opinions, lack independence and tend to feel isolated or alone (Coopersmith, 1967).

Some changes occur as students mature. From about 4th grade on, self esteem tends to increase. One exception is the transition from elementary to junior
high school. Until students adjust to the new demands of junior high schedules and workload, they may experience a decrease in self esteem. With growing competence and independence in adolescence, growth in self esteem resumes (Powers, Hauser & Kilner, 1989 as cited in Woolfolk, 1993).

2.3.1. Self Esteem, Self Concept and its Relation to Other Variables

Parental nurturance and parental discipline on the development of global self esteem in children are important. Buri and Mueller (1988) examined college students' levels of self esteem as a function of their own versus their parents' appraisals of parental nurturance and parental authority. Subjects were 128 college students and both of their parents. Students completed a global self esteem scale, a mother's nurturance scale, a father's nurturance scale, a mother's Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ), a father's PAQ, and a demographic information sheet. Each parent completed a nurturance scale and a PAQ. The results revealed that both mother’s and father’s nurturance -as perceived by the students- were strongly related to self esteem. Based upon students' appraisals, parental authoritativeness was directly related to self esteem while parental authoritarianism was inversely related to self esteem. Students' assessments of parental nurturance and authority were more strongly related to self esteem than were the parents' assessments of these variables.

The relationships that children have with significant others influence their self esteem. In the study of Burnett and Demnar (1995) it was examined the relationship between closeness to significant others and self esteem. Children from 4th to 6th grades responded to statements concerning self esteem and were
asked to rate how close they felt to mother, father, two closest friends and to their teacher. Results indicated a significant difference between closeness to mother and closeness to father in favor of the mother. Correlation analyses indicated significant relationships between closeness to significant others and self esteem.

Guillon, Crocq and Bailey (2003) worked with adolescents to examine the relationship between self esteem and psychiatric disorders. Seventy six inpatient adolescents were compared with a control group of 119 adolescents drawn from a normal population. All the subjects were assessed with the Coopersmith Self Esteem Inventory (SEI). Results indicated that self esteem was significantly higher in the control than in the clinical population. Female patients showed significantly lower SEI scores than male patients. The presence of a psychiatric disorder in adolescents is associated with decreased self esteem.

Shymansky (1977) found that students with positive self concept were more independent from teachers and peers. On the other hand, low self esteem students showed dependence upon others.

Munson (1992) investigated the relationships among self esteem level, vocational identity and career salience in high school juniors. Results indicated that high self esteem students scored significantly higher than low self esteem students on vocational identity and career salience in school and home or family roles. After implementing a course to raise the level of self esteem of college students Whitely (1980) found that there was less cheating and stealing and more concern about the common good of other students.

There is an important relationship between self esteem and school achievement, too. Brookover, Thomas, and Patterson (1985) found that there was
a significant relationship between self-concept and academic achievement. There is considerable empirical evidence that self-concept predicts and influences achievement in school, from the primary grades through undergraduate education (as cited in Wylie, 1979). As the level of self esteem increases, so do achievement scores and as self esteem decreases, so does achievement. Furthermore, and perhaps most important, it is concluded that self esteem can be modified through direct instruction and that such instruction can lead to achievement gains (Covington, 1989). Walz and Bleuer, (1992) also indicated that factors which are important to school success, such as positive feelings about self, absenteeism and school retention are affected by successful school self esteem programs.

Self esteem is also related with school dropouts. Kite (1989) indicated seven major factors contributing to school dropouts, four of the factors were related to self esteem, feeling that they lack the intelligence or the ability to succeed in school. In other words, they suffered from low self esteem, reinforced consciously or unconsciously by parents or teachers. Children with school dropouts tend to have more negative self esteem as learners than those who stay in school. Earle (1987) revealed that two common characteristics among girls who dropped out of school included low self esteem and low academic achievement.

Kloosterman (n.d.) designed a program for a small group of 5th and 6th grade students to develop their awareness of nontraditional career options, gender role stereotyping and decision-making skills. This program was offered in an elementary school located in the suburbs of a major southwestern city. Self esteem, assertiveness, and decision-making skills were introduced as means of supporting choices made independent of traditional female roles. The program
consisted of a variety of weekly lessons that included lecture and discussion, paper-and-pencil activities, role plays and student interactions, books and videos, activities games and guest speakers. An analysis of pre and post test results revealed an increase in career awareness, gender role stereotyping awareness, self esteem and assertiveness for a majority of the girls. Low self esteem frequently impedes students' academic achievement.

Dabrowski (1993) developed two community-based, family-focused programs to intervene with risk and resiliency factors (self esteem, assertiveness, family and peer relations) hypothesized to impact on drug abuse. Both programs served youth and their parents or guardians. Substance Use Prevention and Education Resource Through Arts and Recreation (SUPER STARS) targeted youth between the ages of 6 and 10. Substance Use Prevention and Education Resource (SUPER II) targeted youth aged 11 to 17. Significant findings in SUPER STARS evaluation included an increase in racial pride and problem solving skills for parents and an increase in cultural awareness for youth. In SUPER II, significant findings included an increase in assertiveness and self esteem of youth, and an increase in knowledge of drugs and knowledge of communication in both youth and parents.

2.3.2. Related Research on Programs Enhancing Self Esteem

Various researchers investigated the effects of self esteem enrichment programs on self esteem and revealed positive results. Branden (1987) conducted a long term study in the area of self esteem, proposed to help children gain more positive self esteem including the development of self awareness, self acceptance
and self expression (using assertion appropriately). Tanksley (n.d.) attempted to build self esteem for 5th grade students who exhibited low self esteem incorporating different learning and teaching strategies. Participants were selected based on their attendance, academic achievement and behavior. Class instructions was designed to target students with low self esteem which allowed them to use their individual interests and learning styles for academic achievement. Results indicated that classroom behavior, attendance, and academic achievement improved for the study group. A self-report questionnaire revealed that the students' self esteem also improved.

Trumbull (n.d.) used group counseling to improve the students' self esteem and addressed the maladaptive behavior. Students were selected by the teachers and two groups of eight students received 12 sessions of counseling. The counseling sessions focused on self esteem, communications, interpersonal relations, self-discipline and values. Student behavior was measured with the Behavior Rating Scale (BRS) and the Teacher Report Form (TRF) of the Child Behavior Checklist at the beginning and at the end of the counseling sessions. The Coopersmith Self Esteem Inventory was administered at the beginning and at end of the practicum to measure changes in self esteem. The results of the study were positive. Thirteen of the fourteen students who participated the program improved in adaptive functioning as measured by the TRF and 11 reduced maladaptive behavior as measured by the BRS. Nine students improved in self esteem over the course of the program.

Different researchers also worked with elementary school children by using various techniques to see the effects of self esteem enrichment programs.
These techniques were film making, cultural experiences to improve the ability to communicate and evaluate ideas, role playing, behavioral management procedures and reinforcing positive self statements (Hairston & Cooper, 1973; Altman & Firozsz, 1973; Parker, 1974; Hauserman 1976 as cited in Güloğlu, 1999).

2.3.3. Self Esteem Studies in Turkey

Tarhan (1995) studied the effect of the level of being satisfied with the body image of high school students on their self esteem and academic success in relation to variables such as sex, age, monthly income of the family and educational background of the parents. The sample of the research was comprised of 790 adolescents randomly selected from the first and fifth term students of five different high schools. The body image of the students was measured by The Satisfaction with the Body Regions and their Characteristics Questionnaire and the self esteem was measured by the High School Student Self Esteem Inventory. It was indicated that when the students with high and low body image were compared according to the leisure time activities and monthly income of the families, the effect of the body image on self esteem was found to be significant.

Kurşun (1998) investigated the problems which cause stress among the families of adolescence and effects of these problems to the self esteem. Subjects were chosen among the students who were in two different socio economic levels. Scale for Measuring Family Problems During Adolescence and Rosenberg Self Esteem Inventory was used for measuring the variables. Results revealed that family problems negatively effect self esteem.
Uyanık (2000) analyzed the relationship between self esteem and mental state of high school students from different socio economic levels. The subjects of the study were 482 students of various public and private high schools. Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale and Youth Self Report for 11-18 age group students was used. At the end of the research, significant relationship was found between Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale and Youth Self Report for 11-18 age score. Most of the high school students had high levels of self esteem.

Sarıöz (2001) investigated socio-economic characteristics of children who worked and the effect of working conditions on their level of self esteem. The study was conducted on 361 children aged between 14-15, who worked in various branches. Questionnaire method was used and significant difference was found between the reactions of the master workmen to good and bad attitudes of employed children, difficulties of the work, views of children on whether apprenticeship will award them a future profession and their levels of self esteem.

Bilgin (2001) investigated the relationship between the level of anxiety and the level of self esteem of the 12-14 years old adolescents. Subjects were selected from high and low socio economic status schools. The population of the investigation consisted of 1431 students. In order to measure the level of anxiety, The Spielberg STAI Inventory and to measure the self esteem Coopersmith Self Esteem Inventory was used. According to the findings, a meaningful relation was obtained between anxiety and self esteem level.

In summary, most of the self esteem studies in Turkey were conducted on adolescents and the relationships between self esteem and other variables were studied with this population. It is obvious that the number of self esteem studies in
Turkey have been increased recently. On the other hand, working this issue with other ages and groups of children can develop the understanding of the interaction between self esteem and Turkish culture.

2.4. Assertiveness and Self Esteem

The results of the studies on assertiveness and self esteem emphasize the common positive characteristics of human being. Thus, in order to bring up assertive and high self esteem individuals, it is necessary to learn the interaction between these two dimensions. There have been conducted a lot of research which investigated the interaction between assertiveness and self esteem. However, few of them investigated the effects of an assertiveness training group on self esteem with preadolescents.

According to Humphreys (1993) people with assertiveness and high self esteem exhibit the same behaviors. They can reach their goals by themselves. They are open, optimistic and flexible, pleasure to live and handle the problems and prefer the direct and open communication. Moreover, they can make intimate relationships more than one person and are able to accept themselves and others as who they are. Furthermore, they listen to other people and consider the critiques and feedback. They are able to express all the different feelings they have. In need, they demand support, help and advice. In addition, they respect differences of other people. All these characteristics show us the common parts of assertiveness and self esteem in an individual.
In definitions of assertiveness and self esteem, these two variables often exist together. For example, Rees and Graham (1991) defined assertiveness and used self esteem in this definition. According to them,

to be assertive means to be able to express yourself clearly, directly and appropriately to value what you think and feel, to have esteem and respect yourself, to recognize your own strengths and limitations, to appreciate yourself for who you are (p.1).

Zuker (1983) identified assertiveness as,

not a mysterious, mystical gift that some have and others don’t. Rather, it is a series of skills that anyone can master with a little practice. The exciting thing about acquiring these skills is that you will suddenly find yourself being able to say no without guilt, to ask for what you want directly, and in general to communicate more clearly and openly in all your relationships. Most important, your self-confidence will improve dramatically (p. 12).

Assertiveness and self esteem also affect each other in a lot of ways. People who are assertive, develop confidence and satisfaction in their ability to interact effectively with others. In the opinion of Alberti and Emmons (1975) those who do not assert themselves, lack confidence in their feelings, beliefs and opinions. These people are less likely to assert themselves in unpleasant social interactions. Being assertive means being able to express one’s own feelings and thoughts openly. Research showed that a person who are successful to express himself, consequently raise his self esteem and lessen his anxiety and depression (Görüş, 1999).

There is a close relationship between the concepts of self esteem and assertive personality trait. As self esteem may produce assertiveness, also assertiveness may affect self esteem. There is a reciprocal relationship between them (Voltan, 1980).
People can develop feelings of self esteem and inner strength by acting assertively. According to Nelson-Jones (1996), when faced with negative behavior in a close relationship, there is an advantage of using assertion skills. A person’s use of assertion skills may increase his self esteem. The person can feel better for raising issues. Moreover, he can still have a good feeling that he has used appropriate skills even though not having an outcome success.

Assertive behavior reflects confidence and respect for oneself and others. According to Onur (1985) low self esteem may cause aggressive and passive personality traits while high self esteem may produce assertive personality traits. Being successful in interpersonal relationships, active, assertive, creative, researcher, flexible and confident were related with high self esteem.

Standing up for one’s rights is an important part of assertiveness. Lack of self confidence affects people’s ability to stand up for themselves in all sorts of situations from everyday encounters to serious dealings with the important people in their life. Both aggressive and submissive behaviors reflect feelings of low self esteem (Nelson-Jones, 1996). In Erwin’s (1993) study, children’s aggressive style of behavior and assertive style of behavior were differentiated. Aggressive children have found poor self esteem and deficits in interpersonal cognitive problem solving skills.

Assertiveness training can yield both short and long-range positive effects, which bear both on the asserter and the important people in her life. AT results in an increase in levels of awareness and confidence, self respect and respect for others. Assertion training was described as a way to increase self esteem and
respect by enabling people to choose to respond by defining a set of rights which people must learn to act upon (Marsh, 1985).

Walz and Bleuer (1992) in postulating the presence of an “esteem-achievement connection” emphasized the importance of students with challenging experiences that enable the student to earn high self esteem by successfully coping with difficult tasks. In preadolescence, students challenge with a lot of different tasks to reach a moderate self esteem. At this stage, different interventions as assertiveness training can help them to find better ways to overcome these tasks.

Writers and researchers show general although by no means complete agreement on the preconditions necessary for someone to demonstrate high self esteem. Among the commonly used terms are; assertiveness, security, connectedness, uniqueness, competence and spirituality (Walz & Bleuer, 1992).

It is clear that assertiveness and self esteem have a lot of commonalities. Both of them are necessary and important character traits to live a satisfactory life and have healthy relationships with other people. Thus, deeply investigating the interaction between these two subjects can highlight the ways to raise next generations who are fulfilled of different interaction skills.

2.4.1. Related Research on Assertiveness and Self Esteem

Studies about assertiveness and self esteem indicate the common sides and interactions of these variables. Many researchers showed that assertiveness training increases interpersonal competence, self confidence, self esteem and perceived self control (Alberti & Emmons, 1975; Bower & Bower, 1967; Lange & Jakubowski, 1976 as cited in Stewart & Lewis, 1986). These authors accepted
that training in assertiveness results in changed attitudes toward self, including increased self esteem.

Assertiveness training programs are being conducted in schools now. Its benefits can be seen on different ages of students. Crandall, McCown and Robb (1988) conducted assertiveness training courses among college students, emphasizing the differences among assertiveness, aggression, and self esteem, the relationship between assertiveness and everyday problems, female and male socialization. Results revealed that assertiveness training increased self esteem and self-actualization level significantly with effects enduring for one year.

Galassi, Delo, Galassi and Bastien (1974) indicated that college students scoring low on a measure of assertiveness selected adjectives on an adjective checklist that indicated a negative self-evaluation, feelings of inferiority, a tendency to be anxious of emotional support from others and excessive interpersonal anxiety. Students who scored high, on the other hand, were confident, expressive, spontaneous, well defended, achievement oriented and able to influence others.

Averett and Mc Manis (1977) reported that the 103 college students who scored low on both extroversion and assertiveness were rated low on self esteem, traits of poise, ascendancy and interpersonal adequacy but simultaneously were rated high on traits of socialization, maturity, responsibility and intrapersonal structuring of values. In contrast, the subjects scoring high on both extroversion and assertiveness had the opposite pattern of trait ratings. Each group appeared to have different assets and liabilities with respect to their ability to function in different types of situation.
Assertion trainers have identified self esteem as a component of social skills, and in assertion training programs, rehearsals of positive statements are included as a means of raising a child’s self esteem and self-concept. Rotheram (1987) studied with 128 boys and 133 girls in 4th to 5th grades and revealed that there was a significant positive correlation between self esteem, assertiveness and interpersonal problem solving ability.

In Turkey, there are some studies conducted to explore the relationship between assertiveness and self esteem. Gökalan (2000) indicated significant relationships among primary school student’s self concept, self disclosure and their assertiveness. The survey method was used and the sample consisted of 110 students aged between 12 to 14 years in three primary school. Male students’ self-concept and assertiveness levels were higher than the females. It was also indicated that parents’ socio-economic and educational level and perception of student’s academic success affected the children’s assertiveness level.

Uğurluoğlu (1996) examined how personal, socio-economical and academic variables affect the relationship between the level of self esteem and assertiveness. He worked with high school students. The results of the study revealed that there was a significant, positive but uncertain relationship between the level of self esteem and assertiveness.

Assertiveness is one of the important features when children define their self-identity. To give training in different parts of identity may also affect and promote the other parts of an individual. For example, assertiveness, self-concept and self-report levels of a primary school children increased and decreased all together (Gökalan, 2000). Thus, after giving assertiveness training, we may expect
some increase in self esteem, too. Regarding all these conclusions and researches, it is worthwhile to investigate the interaction between these two positive sides of human being.
CHAPTER 3

METHOD

In this chapter, the overall design of the study, the research questions, the population and sample selection of the study, the data collection instruments, the data collection procedure, the training procedure, the training program, the overview of the sessions and the data analysis methods is presented.

3.1. Overall Design of the Study

This study investigated the effects of an assertiveness training on assertiveness level and self esteem level of 5th grade children. The sample of this study was 5th grade children from a private elementary school. The experimental design was used in which two groups were compared on pre test and post test measures. Assertiveness Inventory was used to measure the assertiveness levels of primary school children. The other instrument was the Coopersmith Self Esteem Inventory and measures the self esteem level of 8-10 years old children. In addition, teacher observations were collected through the record sheets after the training. This record sheet was given in Appendix E. The experimental group was given an 8 week assertiveness training which was developed by the researcher. On the other hand, the control group was not given any training in addition to their regular education.
3.2. Research Questions

1. Does the assertiveness training program have a significant effect on the assertiveness level of 5th grade elementary school students?

2. Does the assertiveness training program have a significant effect on the self esteem level of 5th grade elementary school students?

3.3. Population and Sample Selection

The participants were randomly chosen from the 5th grade classes of Ankara University Education Development Foundation Primary School. The sample of this study was composed of 24, 5th grade students. These 24 children were randomly assigned to experimental group (12) and no-treatment control group (12). Their age range was 11-12. Their mean age was 11.6.

3.4. Data Collection Instruments

3.4.1. Assertiveness Inventory

Two instruments were used. One of them was the Assertiveness Inventory developed by Topukçu (1982) to measure the assertiveness levels of elementary school children. There are 45 items in the inventory and two choices for responses, “Yes” and “No”. Sum of the “Yes and “No” responses give the assertiveness score, the higher the score, the higher the assertiveness level in this scale. Eight of the items were modernized by the researcher but their meanings was not changed. As an example of one of the changed item was: “I can not ask a person that I know to buy me an important book when he goes to the shopping”.

84
The former form of this item was” I can not ask the teacher to buy me an important book when he goes to the city”.

Topukçu found the reliability coefficient of this inventory to be 0.72 by using Spearman-Brown method. For the validity evidence, Topukçu (1982) asked from the teachers to choose the passive and assertive students while conducting the item analyses of the Assertiveness Inventory on 100 students. Then, the correlation between the teacher opinions and the scores of the 20 students was found to be 0.74. The instrument was given in Appendix A.

3.4.2. Coopersmith Self Esteem Inventory

In order to find out global self esteem, The Coppersmith (1967) Self Esteem Inventory (CSEI) School Form is used. The Coppersmith Self Esteem Inventory was first adapted by Onur (1980) and it is a 58 item scale that measures the self esteem level of 8-10 years old children. In a recent adaptation study conducted by Güçray (1989, as cited in Güloğlu, 2001), one item was dismissed from Turkish form because of not being on agreement of the Turkish meaning of this item. The items intend to measure children’s attitudes toward themselves, peers, parents, school and interpersonal relations along with their own perceptions about themselves. Some of the items are, “I am popular with kids of my own age”, “I am pretty sure of myself”. Children respond the item with "Like Me" or "Unlike Me”. Some of the items indicate high self esteem and the others indicate low self esteem. The self esteem items yield a total score and five separate subscale scores. When the items from all four subscales are tallied (an 8 item lie scale excluded), the overall score yield a global self esteem evaluation. The
answers which were indicative of high self esteem were given two points. The Total Self-Score, which is the sum of the number of correctly answered items (excluding those items used for the detection of lies), was multiplied by two, resulting in a maximum possible total self score of 100 (Pişkin, 1996).

There are some studies supporting reliability and validity of CSEI. Johnson, Redfield, Miller and Simpson (1983) conducted a construct validation study of the CSEI (as cited in Pişkin, 1996). They examined scores on the CSEI using a modified version of the Sabers and Whitney (1976) model for construct validation. The CSEI, Piers-Harris Children’s Self Concept Scale (CSCS) (Piers, 1969), and the Children’s Social Desirability Scale (CSDS) (Crandall, Crandall & Katkowsky, 1965) were administered to 55 males and 50 females enrolled in the 5th grade. Each student also received a teacher rating of self-concept using the Coopersmith Behavioral Academic Assessment Scale (BASE) (Coopersmith & Gilberts, 1982). Regression analysis indicated that the CSEI had convergent validity with regard to the CSCS and BASE, had discriminant validity with regard to the CSDS, was sensitive to the differences in achievement level, and was internally consistent (coefficient alpha=0.86). According to Güçray (1993) who carried out the reliability and validity evidence of CSEI for Turkish children, test-retest reliability coefficient of the scale estimated by Pearson Product Moment Correlation was 0.70 at two weeks intervals. By using Piers-Harris Self-Concept Scale as a criterion and Pearson Product Moment Correlation coefficient between the scores of the two measures validity evidence of CSEI was found to be 0.72 (Güçray, 1993). In addition, Güloğlu (1999) calculated the Cronbach alpha coefficient to assess the internal consistency of CSEI. Inventory was administered
to 440 randomly selected 5th grade elementary school students in different regions in Ankara. Results indicated that the instrument had satisfactory evidence of internal consistency with the alpha coefficient of 0.84. The instrument was given in Appendix B.

3.5. Data Collection Procedure

The study was conducted in Ankara University Education Development Foundation Primary School. Randomly chosen 24 students completed the Assertiveness Inventory and Coopersmith Self Esteem Inventory in the School Guidance Room, with the instructions provided by the researcher. The students completed the two inventories in approximately 35 minutes. These inventories were administered as pre and post tests before and after the program to the experimental and control groups. Moreover, class teachers of the participants were asked to record their observations on the record sheets given after the training. All subjects were assured of the confidentiality of their responses.

3.6. Training Procedure

Implementation of the program took 8 weeks. The implementation carried out one day in a week by the researcher. The subjects of the experimental group were taken from their regular lessons at the experimental training time. The program was implemented in the School Guidance Service Room. The sessions generally took 50 minutes.
3.7. Training Program

Taking the both behavioral learning and the social learning theories as background, the program and the selection of the activities were based on the literature and expert knowledge. Training program included tasks on developing to say “No” to unreasonable requests, coping with criticism, standing up for their rights and learning to discriminate assertive behavior from aggressive and passive behavior. Role playing, group play and feedback from the peers and the leader, short lectures, group discussion and homework were used as techniques. In the 8 week assertiveness training, first week was considered as the warm up session and the last week as the termination session.

3.8. Overview of the Sessions

First Session

The main purpose of this session was to give some information about the rules and the content of the group, get the children to know each other and to give information about the passive behavior.

In the first session of the assertiveness training, the rules, the goal, the methods that would be used, the time and the place were explained to the children. Then, an activity sheet was distributed to children to write their name, their favorite color, food, television program, game etc. This activity sheet was given in Appendix C. After they have completed it, each child was asked to share this personal information with the group. The group members raised their hands when another group member gave the same response. This activity pointed out the common interests of the group members so relaxed them and warmed up the first session.
After warming up, a story written by the researcher was read to the group. In the story, a male student was acting passively towards a female student. At the end of the story, some questions were introduced to the group to learn the good and the bad consequences of the passive behavior. Also, the emotions of the male student after acting passively were discussed in the group. As homework, they were asked to choose someone around and make some observations about his or her passive acts and write them on an observation paper which was prepared by the researcher.

Second Session

In the second session, the group rules and a brief summary of the first session were provided. Then, the group members shared their homework on passive behavior. Common characteristics of passive behavior were written on the board and discussed by the members. Afterwards, the group leader gave a full explanation of passive behavior including the group members’. The aim of this activity was to learn the characteristics of the passive act.

After this, another story about the aggressive behavior of the same male student towards the same female student was read by the two group members. Same questions were asked to the group members as in the passive story, different answers were written on the board and finally the group leader gave a clear explanation of aggressive behavior. The aim of this activity was to learn the characteristics of the aggressive act.

Finally, a story about assertive behavior was read by the students. The advantages and disadvantages of assertive behavior were discussed. The characteristics of an assertive person were written on the board by the group
members. After reading the passive, aggressive and assertive stories, these stories were discussed and all the members found the assertive story the most useful and successful one. The aim of this activity was to learn the characteristics of the assertive act.

At the end of the session, the members were asked to share their feelings about the group process. The group leader asked the members to observe and record some aggressive and assertive behaviors around them as homework. The homework sheets were distributed. In order to support the group membership and regular attendance, cookies were distributed to the members as a reward.

**Third Session**

In the third session, the second session was summarized and the definitions of passive, aggressive and assertive behaviors were repeated by the group leader and the group members. The assignment was read in the group. Thus, any misconception about passive, aggressive and assertive behavior was clarified.

A role play activity was introduced to the members. This activity aimed to teach the group members useful ways of standing up for their rights.

After introducing the content of the role play, volunteer students were chosen and they acted out the role play in front of the group. Then the group leader asked some questions and started the group discussion.

At the end of the discussion, the best way was chosen by the group and role played by the volunteer group members. As homework, uncompleted stories about standing up their rights were distributed and the group members were asked to complete them until the fourth session.
Fourth Session

In the fourth session, the third session was summarized and assignments were read in the group. The fourth session consisted of role playing and active feedback from the peers and aimed at emphasizing the importance of one’s rights and recognize the benefits of assertive act while standing up their rights.

The group members were divided as directors and players. Two scenarios written by the researcher about violating one’s rights were introduced to the players. Different cards were distributed to the directors. Each card symbolized different behaviors. While players were performing the scenes, the directors gave feedback with these cards to the players. At the second scenario, directors and players changed their roles. This activity was adapted from Rotheram, Armstrong and Booraem (1982).

After completing the scenarios, the group members were asked to share their feelings and thoughts so far. Also, they were asked to express the most pleasant side of this group process in one sentence.

A homework sheet was distributed about their own experiences related with standing up for their rights.

Fifth Session

In the fifth session, the fourth session was summarized and homework were read in the group. The aim of the fifth session was learning to say “No” to unreasonable requests. The group leader began with a brief explanation of unreasonable requests, then the process continued with a group discussion using some questions. There is one example of these questions below:
1. Did you ever say “Yes” when your inner voice say “No” to any of your friends, family etc.?

The responses were written on the board by the students. After the group discussion, all the members agreed that sometimes being able to say “No” was necessary.

“The Rules of Saying No” sheet was distributed and the members were given time to read the sheet and ask if they had any questions. The sheet was given in Appendix D. Then, a bag full of tiny papers was introduced to the members. Different situations were written on every tiny paper in order to perform the experience of saying “No”. Every member picked a paper and read it to another group member. This group exercise continued until every member responded one unreasonable request by saying “No”.

At the end, members’ opinions about the fifth session and their gains from this training group were asked.

**Sixth Session**

In the sixth session, the fifth session was summarized. This session was about criticism. Group discussion and group activity were performed. The aim of this session was to understand the reasons of criticizing each other, to get rid of unfair criticism and to be aware of useless (not assertive) reactions towards criticism.

The group leader asked group members the critiques said to them. All the critiques were written by the members on different papers and they were informed
that these critiques on the papers may be showing a part of their character. On the other hand, if they do not believe in, they do not have to accept all of them.

The group leader wanted the group members to transform the papers into a paper plane and throw them while shouting the words written on the paper. Then, the group discussed the thoughts and the feelings when these critiques were said to them. They also shared their feelings when they threw the paper planes.

“Useless Reactions Towards Criticism Sheet” was distributed. Every reaction in the sheet was discussed and connected with the members’ experiences.

As homework, the group leader wanted them to observe themselves and think how they could behave differently when they were criticized.

**Seventh Session**

In the seventh session, the sixth session was summarized and homework were shared in the group. Group discussion and group activity were used and aimed at showing the positive sides of critiques and handling criticism assertively.

The group discussion was started with a question: “Can we behave assertively while being criticized?” The group members shared their thoughts. Then, the group leader explained how to deal with critiques assertively. “Assertive Reactions Towards Criticism” sheets were distributed and gave time to read and ask any questions about the sheet.

Afterwards, every member took his or her paper plane that was prepared at the sixth session. The words in the paper were read and the members responded
them assertively as written on the sheet. The feelings were shared after responding.

Homework sheets were distributed. Group members tried to deal with criticism assertively until the coming week and gave themselves points according to their performance.

**Eighth Session**

In the eighth session, the seventh session was summarized and the homework were read in the group. The eighth session was the last session and aimed to evaluate the group process. Questions about the group process, gains and losses—if any—, future plans etc. were asked by the group leader and the answers were written on the board by the volunteer group members.

The last session was recorded with the permission of the group members. Some cookies and drinks were offered to the members for their performance all through the study.

**3.9. Data Analysis Methods**

In order to analyze the effect of the assertiveness training on the assertiveness levels of 5th grade children, independent samples t test was used. The difference between the pre and post test mean scores of experimental and control groups were analyzed. The results of the t test were presented in the results chapter. In order to investigate the effect of assertiveness training on the self esteem levels of 5th grade children, the Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was used. The reason for employing the Analysis of Covariance to the self esteem
scores was that the inequivalence between the pre test scores of the experimental
and control groups at the beginning. The results of the analysis of covariance
(ANCOVA) were presented in the results chapter. All the analyses were carried
out by the SPSS for Windows 10.00 package program. The .05 level was
established as a criterion of statistical significance for all the statistical procedures
performed.
CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter consists of three major sections. In the first section, the results of the independent samples t test which were employed on assertiveness scores are presented. In the second section, the results of the Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) which was applied on self esteem scores are presented. The third section consists of some qualitative data from observations.

4.1. Results Concerning the Effect of the Assertiveness Training on the Assertiveness Level of the Experimental and the Control Groups’ Subjects.

Independent samples t test was conducted to evaluate the effect of the assertiveness training on the assertiveness levels of 5th grade children. Table 1. presents the means and the standard deviations of the Assertiveness Inventory scores for both the experimental and the control groups.
Table 1. Assertiveness Inventory Independent Samples T Test Results of the Subjects in the Experimental and the Control Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tests</th>
<th>Experimental group (n=12)</th>
<th>Control group (n=12)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre test</td>
<td>38.75</td>
<td>3.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post test</td>
<td>43.08</td>
<td>2.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p< 0.05

As shown in Table 1., the mean of the assertiveness scores of the experimental group in the pre test is 38,75 with a standard deviation of 3,49, while the mean scores of the control group is 37,50 and with a standard deviation of 3,80. In post test, the experimental group mean of assertiveness score is 43,08 with a standard deviation of 2,02 and the control group mean score is 39,41 with a standard deviation of 3,28. The difference between the mean scores of the two independent samples was significant \( t(22)= 3.30, p=.003 \). In other words, the results indicated the effectiveness of the assertiveness training in increasing the assertiveness scores of the subjects.

4.2. Results Concerning the Effect of the Assertiveness Training on the Self Esteem Level of the Experimental and the Control Groups’ Subjects

In order to investigate the effectiveness of the assertiveness training on the self esteem levels of children, the Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was used because of the difference at the pre test scores on the experimental and control
groups at the beginning. The covariate was the pre test given before the experiment. The mean scores for the pre and the post tests and the adjusted mean scores for the post test are shown in Table 2.

**Table 2.** Mean Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups at the Pre and the Post Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tests</th>
<th>Experimental Group (n=12)</th>
<th>Control Group (n=12)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$M$</td>
<td>$SD$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre test</td>
<td>38.58</td>
<td>7.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post test</td>
<td>40.66</td>
<td>5.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 2., the mean score of the experimental group in the pre test is 38.58 with a standard deviation of 7.71. The mean score of the control group is 42.25 with a standard deviation of 4.45. In post test the experimental group mean score is 40.66 with a standard deviation of 5.54 and the adjusted mean score is 41.67. In post test, the control group mean score is 41.08 with a standard deviation of 5.29 and the adjusted mean score is 40.07.
To investigate the effectiveness of the assertiveness training, the Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) which covariates the self esteem pre test scores was performed for both experimental and control groups because the difference between the groups at the beginning may have an effect on the post test scores. In order to eliminate this possibility we considered the adjusted mean scores. The results of the Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) that was employed to post test self esteem mean scores of the experimental and the control groups subjects revealed that there were no significant difference between the two adjusted mean scores of the groups, $F(1,21)=0.77, p=0.39$. In other words, results indicated that there is no effect of the assertiveness training in increasing the self esteem scores of the subjects.

Table 3. The results of the Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) on the Self Esteem Scores of the Experimental and the Control Group’s Subjects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre test</td>
<td>263.96</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>263.96</td>
<td>14.45</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group (Exp/Control)</td>
<td>14.05</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.05</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>383.63</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>18.27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3. Some Qualitative Observations

During and after the sessions, some qualitative observations were collected. After every session, the researcher recorded her observations. The researcher observed the children while implementing the study. Also, three class teachers observed their student’s assertive, aggressive and passive behaviors in class and recorded their observations. They also made observations about their student’s behaviors with respect to self esteem. At the end of the group process, these records were collected from the teachers.

4.3.1. Researcher’s Observations

Students were enthusiastic and cheerful during the sessions. They participated in and enjoyed the role plays, story reading and group play mostly. Especially in a role play activity when students acted like directors and players, they performed the tasks successfully and they wanted to repeat this activity over and over at the other sessions.

The members were open to reveal their thoughts and feelings with the group—especially females. At the fourth session, a male member who described himself aggressive at the early sessions of the group, shared his experience when he acted assertively. This sharing impressed all the other members positively. They became more willing to share their experiences at the other sessions.

In another session, one female member shared her observation about two other male members of the group. After the session that the ways of coping with criticism was explained, she observed the male members using the techniques of coping with criticism.
A female member who showed the most passive behaviors in the group, began to speak more and participate in group discussions. She seemed gradually more enthusiastic to accomplish tasks in role play situations.

One of the two male members who showed the most aggressive behaviors in the group, performed a full assertive reaction in a group play at the 5th session. He received incredible peer praise because of his progress. He, then participated in the group process more enthusiastically.

All the group members found pleasure in joining the group play when they threw the paper planes with written critiques on them. After this session they seemed to be relaxed.

4.3.2. Teachers’ Observations

Three class teacher reported their observations. The training was evaluated by the first teacher as “efficacious and useful”. She reported that one female student started to behave more comfortably at communicating and expressing her feelings. Assertive behaviors of another female student increased and started to share her negative thoughts with others appropriately. According to the teacher, her self-confidence also increased. She expressed this by saying “She used not to be volunteer when I want to send her to another class in order to borrow something. Nowadays, she is the second or the third student who wants to do it”.

A male student begun to share his thoughts and feelings freely with male and female friends. For another female student this school teacher said: “She used to behave passively when her friends criticized her. Now, she is determined on her
ideas and does not accept all the sarcasm which is made towards her. She is not giving up easily.”

The second teacher firstly reported about a female student. She said that “She used to participate in the male students’ plays before the training, like playing football. However, after the training, her connection with female students of the class also increased. She used to imitate male students’ aggressive behaviors but now, she resolves her problems by not shouting others. She is listening before responding”. According to the teacher’s observations, another female members’ self esteem showed some positive changes. She started to express herself freely and confidently. She showed positive behaviors as a means of standing up for her rights. This teacher gave an example about behaviors of this student by this comment: “Our students line up in the classroom before going to the lunch room at the meal times. While the children at the back try to be on the front side by pushing the others out of the line she did not allowed them to pass her. She standed up for her rights by talking to these students”.

The third teacher reported that the two female students who participated the group process, showed some changes for more assertive behaviors and lessened passive behaviors. This teacher said: “She is not passive any more to the male friends who tease and look down on her. She responds them nowadays by saying “I will not accept your teasing”. She is not accepting any kidding and allusive conversations in any social context. As a matter of fact, this female students’ extreme assertive behaviors were considered sometimes unnatural by the classmates and she received some negative responses for her changed behavior,
too”. Generally all the teachers who participated the observation, declared positive impressions after the program.
CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, discussion regarding the statistical analysis and observations are presented and implications and recommendations for further research are discussed.

5.1. Discussion on Statistical Results

In the previous section, some statistical analysis were presented for this study. According to the statistical analysis, present experiment lend support to the efficacy of assertiveness training for improving 5th grade students’ assertiveness level. On the other hand, it was revealed that there was no significant improvement in experimental group after the assertiveness training program on self esteem levels of the students. However, some observations were carried on by the researcher and the teachers and they revealed positive impressions on self esteem.

These results can be supported by some of the research on the literature. For example, Rotheram, Armstrong and Booraem (1982), indicated that assertiveness was higher among classes who received 12-week assertion training than others who did not. Teachers of these students reported better comportment, higher achievement, and higher popularity among the assertion classes. Moreover,
grade point averages increased for the students in the assertiveness group one year following the intervention. Observations indicated a greater number of student-initiated contacts with the teacher. On the other hand, no significant differences were found on self esteem measures either following treatment or at one-year follow-up. In addition, Stewart and Lewis (1986) found no significant differences on assertiveness or self esteem after giving 10-week assertiveness training to black high school students. No significant differences appeared on assertiveness or self esteem across conditions.

Generally, the assertiveness literature supports the positive changes on self esteem and self concept. According to Bem (1967) as a person begins to use a new behavior, his or her self concept is changed. In much of the assertiveness courses, a lot of positive changes was determined including increased self esteem. As mentioned earlier, a number of authors (Alberti & Emmons, 1975, Bower & Bower, 1967, Lange & Jacobowski, 1976) postulated that training in assertiveness results in changed attitudes towards self, including increased self esteem. The study of Combes (1995) is in line with the authors above. He used a program based on assertiveness skills, positive self esteem and body image in order to improve the confidence of pre-adolescent girls. He worked with a group of 20 girls over a period of eight months using exercises designed to facilitate their growth. The analysis of the data revealed that the format of this group was effective in increasing the girls’ self-confidence and sense of positive body image. These researchers indicated the effects of assertiveness training on self esteem. However, our findings are contrary with these studies.
The results of the present study indicated that after the treatment, there was a significant positive change on the assertiveness scores but no change on the self esteem scores of the experimental group. These findings can be due to some reasons.

Firstly, it can be speculated from the results of our research that, such experiences would require greater time and intensity than was provided for participants in this study to increase both assertiveness and self esteem. Eight week assertiveness training could have an effect on some of the observable and measurable assertive responses but it may not be long enough to increase the students’ self esteem levels. In the study of Combes (1995) as indicated above, the preadolescent girls’ self esteem scores increased only after a training which has been lasted eight month. When we consider that our study has been continued only two months, it is more clear to conclude that the time could have been longer to see some changes on self esteem scores of the students.

Secondly, greater attention would need to be given to increase the self esteem levels of the students. Assertiveness training may be a necessary component in bringing about change in children’s social lives and their assertive responses to specific situations, but it may not always be sufficient to affect their multifaceted self esteem. The content of the program that was developed by the researcher may have not satisfied the need to enhance the self esteem levels of children. Even though some self esteem building ways such as helping students to learn evaluating their own accomplishments, modeling appropriate ways of self criticism or setting clear goals in the sessions were carried on, they may not be effective enough to increase the level of the self esteem of the students. Also, self
esteem contains a lot of complex set of skills so it has different aspects to deal with. While developing a training in order to affect the level of self esteem, these different dimensions such as physical self esteem, academic self esteem or social self esteem should be considered and the content of the sessions should be prearranged to cover all these facets.

Thirdly, any attempts to improve an individual’s social functioning must also take account of environmental factors. A restructuring of the child’s social environment may also be required in order to bring about any lasting change (Ogilvy, 1994). When some changes in assertiveness occur, it is useful to be aware of some possible reactions to newly acquired assertive behaviors. It would be more easy to accustomed to the assertive behavior of children beforehand if some special information could have been given to the significant people around the students. It is important to be alert to such possible consequences of changing from nonassertion to assertion. Assertion trainees can be prepared beforehand against the possible negative reactions that may come from their environment to new patterns of behavior.

Fourthly, it should also be realized that assertion may not always be the most appropriate response in every situation. In our study, for some students, overusing assertiveness in every situation could have been generated some negative outcomes such as being considered unnatural by the classmates. Consequently, these disappointments may have an effect on self esteem of these students. Because of this reason, it could have been emphasized in the sessions of this study using assertiveness skillfully. It could also be modeled in the sessions to
be aware of some negative reactions that may come from the family, the friends and the others.

Fifth reason of this result might be due to the developmental stage of the children. As mentioned earlier, at the transition stage from elementary to junior high school, students try to adjust to new demands of second stage of elementary school. Because of the tasks and workload of this transition stage, they may experience a decrease in self esteem (Powers & Kilner, 1989 as cited in Woolfolk, 1993). At these times, inappropriate or excessive usage of assertion skills by the students can be treated from others harshly. This disappointment about social relationships can be an important effect on the level of the preadolescents’ self esteem. Thus, it can be said that the developmental stage may have an effect on the results of this study.

And lastly, since home-school continuity is important for the transfer and the generalization of the skills, if parents were included the study, that might have had a positive effect on the study. Moreover, if the activities in the training would be also geared to the curriculum, that could lead to significant changes in the self esteem as well.

5.2. Discussion Regarding the Observations

In addition to the statistical results, some observations were conducted by the researcher and the teachers. These observations can have an important role to discuss present results. As mentioned at the qualitative impressions section, one of the female students’ extreme assertive behaviors were considered unnatural by the classmates and she received some negative responses for her changed behavior.
This observation of a class teacher can explain and lend support our early interpretations of why members’ self esteem level was not increased. One of the class teachers said, “It is because of the unusual and overuse of assertive behavior of this student, the feedback that given from the other students can have a negative effect on the level of her self esteem. Because other children -especially boys- were not accustomed of her assertive behavior, their negative comments about her assertive behaviors could have been affected her self esteem”. When we consider that in our culture, parents and social environment generally restrict children from free selection, Turkish children’s needs to live assertive experiments as an unique human being are generally limited (Geçtan, 1977 as cited in Topukçu, 1982). Children who have been raised in less assertive environments could experience some difficulties after having an assertiveness training course. They may have been confronted negative responses from the family or the other important social contacts and this result may have a negative effect on self esteem. These cultural dimensions regarding assertiveness and self esteem should be worked on at the future research.

Apart from this observation, mostly all the members who participated in the study enjoyed the group process. Generally, it was observed that children were prepared and enthusiastic to join the activities. Most of the members came to the sessions with completed homework sheets which might be an indication of attachment with the groups and its necessities. Members were punctual at coming to the sessions. Every member tried to focus on the topics and as mentioned earlier, participated in the group process and role plays eagerly. They were willing to learn and to use the ways of assertion. After each week the homework
sheets were distributed, they were even pushing the researcher in the group to share all the process while they were completing their tasks.

Teachers’ observations were generally took place in classroom settings and most of the behaviors that were reported by the teachers were observed during the lessons. Since the group and the classroom settings are structured environments, the researcher’s and the teachers’ observations seemed similar regarding children’s behaviors. The teachers’ observations indicating a change in the children’s assertiveness and self esteem levels after the assertiveness training were similar with the researcher. One of the class teachers sayings were similar with the researcher’s as, “They look happy to say whatever they think about by not hurting their friends. The number of participation and taking important roles in peer groups also increased and their social desirability in the class was positively affected during and after the training group. In my opinion, the most important thing is that they are enthusiastic to stand up for their rights, and after every positive gain the smile on their face gets bigger!”.

In summary, with the observations of the researcher and the teachers, these impressions and observations may indicate that the assertiveness training has significant positive effects on assertiveness levels and a moderate positive effect on self esteem levels on 5th grade students.

5.3. Implications

This study aimed to analyze the effects of an assertiveness training on the assertiveness level and self esteem of 5th grade children. The results revealed a significant difference in the assertiveness level. On the other hand, no significant
difference appeared on the level of self esteem of the students. This study have
some implications for parents, teachers, school counselors and all the other people
who are in any kind of relationship with students.

The traditional focus of schools is on the academic curriculum. Few
attempts have been made to teach personal and social skills, despite their
implications for both classroom learning and social relationships. Generally the
tendency has been to assume that children will automatically acquire these skills
as part of the developmental process or in schools naturally. However, many
children experience problems with both peer and adult relationships. This has a
negative effect on their ability to form friendships and on their ability to benefit
from classroom teaching. The evidence suggests that childhood social deficits are
strong predictors of subsequent academic, social and psychological functioning.
The aim should be to foster the social and assertive behavior of all children and
hopefully prevent problems of maladjustment at critical stages in development.
Considering these thoughts, the preventive role of teachers, parents and all the
other people who are responsible from the education of children appear more
explicitly. These people should be alert to teach, to model, and to observe all
kinds of assertive skills to enhance children’s social development.

Parent involvement is very important in every kind of contact and effort as
an opportunity for the total development of children. In this study, the parents
were not involved in the sessions. As indicated in the discussion section,
qualitative observations can sometimes show us the covered side of the whole
picture. In the future studies, using parental observations might be a valuable
source for exposing the real case.
As these programs become more integrated into the guidance programs and to the curriculum, children might become more self-confident, self-expressive, therefore, more responsible of what is going on around them. This study might be an example for further programs and the dissemination of these kind of programs.

5.4. Recommendations

This study was carried out with high socio economic level students in a private elementary school in the capital city of Turkey. Since the subjects were 11-12 years old 5th grade elementary school students in a private school, the results cannot be generalized to all elementary school children population. For other research, using more heterogeneous groups can lead to more generalization of the results of the study. The differences between the 5th grade students who are in private schools and those who study in public schools may be studied in terms of the effects of assertiveness training. Despite these promising results, further investigation of the impact of social skills training is needed. Assertiveness training can be used with students also from different grades, cultures and genders of students.

Another limitation of the present study was the relative shortness of the treatment program, follow up data were not available. As it stands, the training program represents a successful but brief intervention approach. Long range assessment of the impact of training should be planned for future research.

Future studies need to be designed to gather more information on factors that assertiveness training can influence, such as self concept, peer relationship
skills and academic success. Future assertiveness training programs for preadolescents should provide opportunities to practice assertive responses in a variety of situations. This would allow them to receive feedback and increase their self esteem related to assertion. Moreover, more self-evaluative measures should be integrated to future studies.

This target population have been relatively unexplored in the child assertiveness training literature. Preadolescent is an important and relatively unexplored stage in children’s social development. Especially in Turkish educational system after completing 5th grade, students are trained by different teachers for every lesson. With the separation from the class teacher’s relatively safe environment, children may experience difficulties at exposing their personality traits to new friends and teachers. Because of this, healthy and unhealthy experiences in this transition stage can have different effects on children. Investigating all these effects can show us the coping strategies to teach children at these ages.

The effect of the present AT program with different trainers such as teachers, parents etc. may be studied. Some training programs can be developed for parents to increase their child’s assertiveness and self esteem. Also, television programs which aimed at teaching assertiveness to parents, teachers and children can be produced. In addition, school guidance programs may be developed to teach assertiveness.
REFERENCES


Sevgili Öğrenci,


(          ) Bir törende şiir okumaktan çekinirim. 

Eğer kalabalık yerlerde ortaya çıkıp şiir okumak ya da hikaye anlatmaktan çekiniyorsan bu cümlelerin baş tarafındaki parantezin içine “Evet” yazacaksın.


Adın Soyadın:........................
Cinsiyetin: K........E.............

1. (      ) Başka bir sınıf tebeşir istemek için gitmeye çekinirim.

2. (      ) Öğretmen tahtaya yanlış bir şey yazsa, bunun yanlış olduğunu bildiğim halde düzeltmesini söyleyemem.
3. (   ) Derse geç kalsam, geç kalışımın sebebini öğretmene söyleyemem.

4. (   ) Sıfta sırama bir başkası otursa, kalkmasını söylerim.

5. (   ) Öğretmenin verdiği ödevi yapamamışsam, neden yapamadığımı açıklamakta güçlük çekerim.

6. (   ) Öğretmenin anlattığını işitemiyorsam, biraz daha yüksek sesle anlatmasını söyleyemem.

7. (   ) Kalemim bittiğinde, anne babamdan para isteyip yeni bir kalem alamam.

8. (   ) Dersteyken çok sıkışsam, tuvalete gitmek için öğretmendenizin isteyemem.

9. (   ) Oyun oynarken sıramı alan çocuğu sırasına geçmesini söylerim.

10. (   ) Çok iyi cevapladiğima inandığım bir yazılı sınavdan beklediğim not gelmemişse, öğretmenden yazılı kağıdımı yeniden incelemesini isteyemem.

11. (   ) Öğretmenin verdiği bir ödevi yapamamışsam, nasıl yapacağımı başka bir öğretmenden soramam.

12. (   ) Çok istediğim halde bir gösteride yer almaya çekinirim.

13. (   ) Sıfta öğretmen bir soru sorduğunda, hemen parmağıma kaldırırım, cevabını söylerim.

14. (   ) Bir törende şiir okumaya çekinirim.

15. (   ) Okulun pencerelerinden birinin camını kaza ile kırsam, eve gittiğimde anne babama söyleyemem.

16. (   ) Bilmediğim bir şeyi büyüklerimden soramam.
17. ( ) Evimize gelen misafirlere “Hoş Geldiniz” diyemem.

18. ( ) Bir arkadaşım konuşurken o anda aklıma bir şey gelse, sözünü bitirmesini beklerim.


20. ( ) Öğretmenimi okul dışında bir yerde görsem, yanına gidip konuşamam.

21. ( ) Yoldan geçen tanımadığım birisine saatin kaç olduğunu soramam.

22. ( ) Arkadaşım benden kalem istediğini eğer fazla kalemim yoksa, ona kalem veremeyeceğimi söyleyem.

23. ( ) Acele bir iş için bir yere giderken birisi beni lafa tutsa, ona işim olduğunu ve konuşamayacağımı söyleyemem.

24. ( ) Hasta olsam, büyüklerime beni doktora götürmelerini söyleyemem.

25. ( ) Dersten anlayamadığım bir konu olsa, öğretmenenden tekrar anlatmasını isteyemem.

26. ( ) Bir arkadaşım kalemimi bir süre kullanmak için alsa ve geri vermeyi unutsa, kendisinden kalemimi isteyemem.

27. ( ) Ben konuşurken biri sözümü kesse, ona konuşmamı bitirmemini beklemesini söylerim.

28. ( ) Tahtada ders anlatırken çok heyecanlanır, ne yapacağını şaşırirım.

29. ( ) Okulun bir ihtiyacı için istenen parayı getirememesem, neden getiremediğini öğretmenе açıkça anlatamam.

30. ( ) Annem pek sık gidip gelmediğimiz bir komşumuzdan bir şey alıp gelmemi isterse, onu gidip isteyemem.
31. ( ) Arkadaşım kitabımı alsa, bir süre sonra geri isteyebilirim.

32. ( ) Bir eğitsel kol başkanlığı seçimi yapılsa, kendimi aday olarak göstermem.

33. ( ) Haksızlığa uğradığım zaman kendimi savunamam ve içime kapanırım.

34. ( ) Bir toplulukta, bildiğim bir şarkıyi çok istesem de söyleyemem.

35. ( ) Öğretmen bir şey yazmak için kalemimi alsa ve geri vermeyi unutsa, geriye isteyemem.

36. ( ) Bir ödevi yapamışsam, öğretmenimden nasıl yapacağını anlatmasını isteyebilirim.

37. ( ) Derste yazmak için kalemim olmasa, bir arkadaşından isteyemem.

38. ( ) Öğretmende gördüğüm hoşuma giden bir kitabı, okumak için isteyemem.

39. ( ) Oyun oynarken bir arkadaşım kurala uymasına sesimi çıkarmam.

40. ( ) Öğretmenim okul dışında bir yerde gördüğümde “Günaydın” diyebilirim.

41. ( ) Bir arkadaşım bana sataışsa, öğretmen ikimizi de cezalandırırsa sesimi çıkarmam.

42. ( ) Çarşıya giden tanıdığımdan, paralarını verip çok ihtiyacım olan bir kitabı almasını isteyemem.

43. ( ) Bana bir iş verildiğinde, bu iş yapmaya hiç vaktim olmadığı halde yapamayacağımı söyleyemem.
44. (     ) Sınıfta öğretmenin sorduğu sorunun cevabını bildiğim halde, parmağımı kaldırıp söyleyemem.

45. (     ) Evimize gelen misafirlere “Hoş geldiniz” der, ellerini öperim.
Sevgili Öğrenci,


Adın Soyadın: .......................  
Cinsiyet: K........E.............

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<td>4-Cana yakın bir çocuğum.</td>
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<td>Keşke biraz daha küçük olsaydım.</td>
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<td>Elimde olsaydı kendimde pek çok şeyi değiştirirdim.</td>
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<td>Karar verirken fazla zorluk çekmem.</td>
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<td>Bir çok kişi benimle birlikte olmaktan hoşlanır.</td>
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<td>Evde kolayca üzülür, bozulurum.</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>Her zaman doğru olan şeyi yaparım.</td>
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<td>Okulda çalışmalardan gurur duyarım.</td>
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<td>Ne yapmam gerektiğini her zaman bir başkasının söylemesi gerekir.</td>
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<td>Yeni bir şeye alışmak çok zamanımı alır.</td>
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<td>Yaptığım şeylerden sık sık pişmanlık duyarım.</td>
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<td>Annem babam çoğu zaman duygularımı dikkate alırlar.</td>
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<td>23-Genellikle kendi başının çaresine bakabilirim.</td>
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a) Aslında kız olmaktan hoşlanıyorum.  
b) Aslında erkek olmaktan hoşlanıyorum.
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<td><strong>38</strong></td>
<td>Kendimi sevmiyorum.</td>
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<td><strong>39</strong></td>
<td>Başkaları ile birlikte olmaktan hoşlanmam.</td>
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<td>Çoğu kez evi terk etmeyi düsünürüm.</td>
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<td><strong>41</strong></td>
<td>Hiçbir zaman utangaç değilim.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>42</strong></td>
<td>Okulda kendimi sık sık huzursuz hissederim.</td>
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<td>Çoğu kez kendimden utanırım.</td>
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<td>Başkalarını kendimden daha güzel bulurum.</td>
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<td>Söylenecek bir sözüm varsa genellikle söylerim.</td>
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<td><strong>46</strong></td>
<td>Arkadaşlarım bana sık sık sataşır.</td>
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<td><strong>47</strong></td>
<td>Annem babam beni anlarlar.</td>
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<td>Her zaman doğruyu söylerim.</td>
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<td>Öğretmenim bana yeterince başarılı olmadığını hissettirir.</td>
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<td>Başarısızım.</td>
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<td>Azarlandığım zaman çabuk üzülürüm.</td>
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<td><strong>52</strong></td>
<td>Çoğu kimse benden daha çok seviliir.</td>
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<td>Çoğu zaman anemle babamin benden çok şey beklediklerini hissederim.</td>
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<td>54-Başkalarıyla kolaylıkla konuşabilirim</td>
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<td>56-Genellikle olup bitenlere aldırmam.</td>
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<td>57-Bana güvenilmez.</td>
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BİR BİRİMİZİ TANIYALIM MI?

Evde beslemek istediyim hayvan........
Adım........

En çok oynadığım oyun..............

En çok hoşlandığım televizyon dizisi..............

En sevdiğim yemekler.............

En sevdiğim renk...................

En sevdiğim kişi.....................

Yapmaktan hoşlandığım ,beni mutlu eden şeyler...........

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Evde beslemek istediyim hayvan........
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En çok oynadığım oyun..............

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Yapmaktan hoşlandığım ,beni mutlu eden şeyler...........

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APPENDIX D

HAYIR DIYEBİLİMENİN KURALLARI

• Paniğe kapılma. Acele etme. Eğer kararsız kalıyorsan bu büyük bir olasılıkla Hayır demek istediğini gösterir.


• Eğer kararsızsan Evet demenin ne gibi sorumluluklar yükleyeceğini sorarak öğren. Konu hakkında daha çok bilgi edin.

• Hayır demeye hakkın olduğunu hatırla.

• Aşırı bir kendini haklı çıkarma veya özür dileme olmadan Hayır demenin provasını yap.

• Eğer gerçekten içinden gelirse senden ricada bulunan kişiye farklı bir seçenek sunabilirsin.

• Hayır diyerek insani reddetmiş olmuyorsun sadece o ricayı reddediyorsun. BUNU UNUTMA!
APPENDIX E

SINIF ÖĞRETMENİ KAYIT FORMU

ÖĞRETMENİN ADI:
ÖĞRENCİNİN ADI:
SINIFI:

Yukarıda adı geçen öğrencinizin girişkenlik, çekenlenlik, saldırganlık ve öz saygı davranışlarını gözlemleyerek aşağıda her biri için ayrılan yerlere yazınız. Formu doldururken öğrencinizin katıldığı eğitim grubundan önceki ve sonrası davranışlarını dikkate alınız. Katkılarınız için teşekkür ederiz.

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Yukarıda Yazdığınız Duşunda Eklemek İstedikleriniz

141