

AN INVESTIGATION OF ENHANCING RISK-TAKING BEHAVIOR
THROUGH THE USE OF ASSERTIVE TRAINING

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Background of the Study

During the period of September 1973 and June of 1975 the writer was employed as an advisor/consultant to an educational program entitled "Students' College," which was based on the campus of the University of Minnesota, Duluth. At that time "Students' College" was the only program of its kind in the United States.

The first three quarters that the writer was involved with Students' College he witnessed a great deal of positive personal growth on the part of many students, as well as total disappointment and disenchantment on the part of others. It became very clear, after the first term with Students' College, that the program as an educational entity was not meeting or understanding the needs of those students who were not having rewarding, enriching, learning experiences.

It became apparent to the writer that students, for the most part, had only marginal relationships at the sites where they had been assigned to have their learning experiences. What was even more startling was that at least 30% of those students that were given a final monitoring session for the purpose of being awarded a grade, reported that they felt very dissatisfied with their learning experiences. Many went on to say that they were not planning to return.

When the fall quarter of 1974 began, about 45% of all the students who participated in the program during the prior term came back, seeking a new learning experience through Students' College. The remaining 55% were newcomers to the college, and seemed enthusiastic about the program. After the quarter began it was decided that a series of seminars and workshops would be offered for those students who felt they needed more structure in the program. The seminars and workshops all dealt with some aspect of improving one's human relating skills and human service delivery skills. It was not until the second monitoring session of that fall quarter that it became clear to the investigator why so many students were having discouraging experiences. During these sessions, it became clear that many students were manifesting an unwillingness to assert themselves verbally, especially when they wished to gain more responsible roles in the agency or institution. These students were not comfortable with the idea of asserting any of their demands, emotions, or educational expectations which they hoped to gain through their educational experience.

The worksites which seemed to be giving the students the most problems were those located in the public schools. In the group sessions, the helping agents told of how difficult it was for them to gain acceptance from both the public school staff and students. What they generally wanted from the group were suggestions about what they could do to facilitate their acceptance by these groups. Many of them knew that the problem was not going to be solved unless they made modifications in their own behavior. Some decided to take an offensive

position all throughout the whole experience, and others threatened to drop out of the program entirely. After giving much thought to the problem, it became clear that these students needed to become more risk-oriented in their behavior on their worksites. Up to this point, there were many students who didn't have the confidence which was needed to survive the entire quarter. The pattern of observations seemed to relate successful performances and experiences to one's risk-taking behavior on the site. Those tutors who were not able to activate themselves to take risks in such acts as verbal confrontation of students, or teachers and the assertion of opinions on a "gut level" were probably the students who left the program.

The problem therefore was how to identify, to reach, to pull in and, to expose students to a learning situation that would facilitate the modification of their risk-taking behavior in the work setting, which, in this case was the classroom environment.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study was to examine whether or not risk-taking behavior could be enhanced through an instructional means. It was felt that one of the benefits of this would be an increase in the number of students who reported having experienced a much more positive encounter with the respective agencies, rather than developing a defensive block which led to an impasse in many instances where more than one human being was involved. This could also result in the gradual decrease in the turnover rate of first quarter enrollees in Students' College.

An additional purpose was to organize the learning resources for creating a course that would be given to all first quarter enrollees within Students' College. This course would attempt to give students what the regular curriculum did not. In this regard, the main shortcomings of the traditional curriculum were these: It was not teaching students how to be effective and assertive communicators in work-oriented settings, and it was not teaching students how to adopt risk-taking behavior, in situations which called for verbal confrontation between them and staff members. The students who were serving as tutors were having the most problems being accepted by staff and helpers. A careful scrutiny of their situations was made in order to better plan the course of instruction.

Definition of Terms

1. Advisor-consultant: A member of the professional staff of Students' College.
2. Assertive behavior: Interpersonal behavior involving the honest and relatively straight-forward expression of feelings.
3. Experiential learning: Gaining knowledge and skills by doing a task.
4. Group monitoring session: A meeting which was held three times per quarter for the purpose of evaluating the progress of students.
5. Risk-taking behavior: Practically all behavior that is precipitated by feelings of tension or anxiety, and presents

a potential risk factor for an individual. Therefore one's level of risk-taking will be contingent on the inhibition of the anxiety which is associated with that incident or task.

6. Site supervision: An individual who was a full-time employee of the professional staff of the agency, institution or organization. Their task was to assist in guiding the learning experience of students.
7. Work-site: An agency, institution or organization in the community that would sponsor a learning experience for a Students' College enrollee.

Importance of the Problem

The validity of effective verbal exchanges of ideas, knowledge and feelings aids in the learning process of experiential education. Moreover any obstacle which stands in the way of learning must somehow be rendered ineffective or one must learn to adjust to it. In addition it appeared that the students who were going into new settings were taking as long as 5-6 weeks before they would attempt to explain or verbalize any feelings of disenchantment to their work supervisors. Being that each quarter was on the average 10 weeks long, the student and staff would not have sufficient time to effect change, and create a positive experience out of what was a negative experience up to that point.

Bad experiences had a devastating effect on the turnover rate of enrollees. There were situations where students would drop out of

the program halfway into their first quarter. Upon questioning, many would reply that they did not think that they were genuinely wanted or appreciated, but upon further investigation the writer found that many of these students were reporting to their agencies but not fully thrusting themselves into the mainstream of activities of the work sites. This alone is a problem especially when one is attempting to learn about a facet of professionalism in the very short period of a college quarter. It became clear that these students were not involved in the program for a long enough period for the learning experience to have any major impact on their educational process, nor were they able to in that short period of time be able to take risks and assert themselves.

Rationale of the Study

The consummation of scientific theory and applied methods has been one of long duration and significance. For without the philosophic vigor of theory, practice would be without a decent interpretation.

The basis of this paper is rooted in such a consummation of theory and practice. The methodological perspective of this paper rests on the assumptions and hunches of Nathan Kogan (1964) a long time researcher in the area of cognitive and motivational risk taking behavior. Here our greatest concern lies in the arena of cognitive risk-taking behavior and how this type of behavior can be enhanced through a behavior technique called assertive training. Kogan (1964) believes that one's cognitive risk taking behavior can be enhanced

when given a systematic approach for taking risks. Kogan goes on to say that one's psychological uneasiness comes as a result of not having a consistent, and a secure approach for taking cognitive risks. Kogan has observed that if a client has an adequate system for confronting situations that involve elements of risk, one's psychological easiness is maintained.

Kogan (1964) in his book Risk Taking: A Study in Cognition and Personality stressed the importance of broadening the overall scope of risk-taking behavior. Kogan theorizes the eventual acceptance of human dilemmas as reasonable situations of risk. He also felt that the same principles can be applied to measure problems of a human dimension, that are applied to risk-taking problems of a non human dimension. Here Kogan was making reference to his hunch on having a systematic approach to dealing with risk-taking problems.

The theoretical perspective is based on the studies and research of Joseph Wolpe and Abraham Lazarus. Wolpe (1958, 1969) purported a notion about the similarities between assertive training and systematic desensitization as therapeutic devices. Wolpe (1958) in dealing with clients who required systematic desensitization therapy described case studies which reflected instances of risk-taking as described by Kogan in his appeal. With the combination of risk-taking and systematic desensitization we have a coupling where one entity enhances the other. In a graphic form it would appear as such:

(1) muscle-relaxation therapy (i.e., systematic desensitization) —————> (2) easier risk-taking as a result of reduced tension

The above relationship is a very simple one, even though the technical aspects are complex and time consuming. The first selection dealing with systematic desensitization becomes a conscious, cognitive, technical means for approach to situations of uncertainty and risk. This position satisfied Kogan's notion about obtaining and utilizing systematic approaches to cognitive risk-taking situations.

Another aspect of this paper involves a process that is more abstract, here Wolpe's (1966) theory on reciprocal inhibition comes into play, Wolpe states:

Systematic use of the reciprocal inhibition principle in the life situation has so far extended to three varieties of responses antagonistic to anxiety-assertive responses, sexual responses, and relaxation responses. Assertive responses or responses of uncertainty are used against anxieties arising out of the patients immediate relations with other individuals (p. 114).

Wolpe goes on to say that, by giving clients insight into the function of the reciprocal inhibition principle, a client can understand what psychological dysfunctions are taking place in the life space of that client. With this knowledge one can in turn use the techniques of systematic desensitization, thus allowing for the dissipation of the anxieties and tensions which will not allow for the outward expression of assertive behavior. Our main concern here is the relationship between assertiveness as a component of risk-taking behavior and the use of assertive training to enhancing one's assertive risk-taking behavior. Here a graphic illustration may indicate more clearly what the author is saying:

assertive training \longrightarrow the expression of assertive responses

Kogan defined situations of uncertainty as potential situations of risk. With this analogy in mind let us redesign the graphic illustration to read as such:

assertive training —————> the expression of assertive responses or responses that confront potential risk directly

Here we have the first explicit connection which directly links assertive training as a therapeutic device to dealing with situations of risk, and here we are still positioned in the realm of human interaction. The primary notion behind this paper surrounds the position that, if systematic desensitization can be used to enhance risk-taking behavior, and if assertive training can be used interchangeably with systematic desensitization, then assertive training can be used to enhance risk-taking behavior.

In addition the author believes that enhancing one's risk-taking behavior can be accomplished through the presentation of instructional information that is related to the facts, ideas, skills and techniques of assertive responding.

Hypothetically it was theorized that by exposing one to an instructional presentation of facts, skills, ideas and techniques on assertive responding this would enhance one's risk-taking behavior. The null hypothesis was: There will be no difference in one's risk taking behavior when exposed to the treatment of an instructional presentation of facts skills and ideas on assertive responding.

Limitations at and of Study

The study was subject to the following limitations:

1. The total population consisted of only 105 students who were enrolled as lower-division liberal education students. It was not possible to dichotomize the students according to age, or ethnic background. All first quarter lower-division enrollees were considered to be eligible for participation in the experiment.
2. Socioeconomic data, though probably relevant and desirable, was not available.
3. One of the major criterion for acceptance as a subject was that no participant could have served as a paid para-professional tutor in a formalized educational setting. Then the results will not reflect the development of students who have served as paid para-professional tutors in a formalized education setting.
4. The study may only be relevant in situations where the learning experience is being supervised by a professional teacher.
5. The results may not reflect the educational development or climate of other postsecondary institutions.
6. There are instrumentation limitations in that no reliability or validity data were available for the P.R.S.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The following chapter is about the major studies that were conducted, which relate to the topic of risk-taking behavior and assertive behavior, especially as it reflects the behavioral patterns of white youngsters with a rural-oriented set of values.

One of the most consistent research finding is that experiential education is more valuable when unguided or independent learning is coupled with structured classroom learning. At the turn of the century Dewey and others, echoed the values of learning by doing. Great educators such as, Booker T. Washington carved this philosophy into the creation of Tuskegee Institute, and other great educational institutions began to create adjunct programs, that were designed to give their students first hand experience at doing a particular task. Men such as Dewey and Booker T. Washington knew the value of giving their pupils the cognitive skills and information that would better enable them to go out and perform a task more successfully.

Over the decades the thrust of experiential education began to fade, even though it was a facet of many earlier educational programs. Experiential learning at that time did not stand alone as a single substantial educational approach to learning, even though many believers in experiential education wanted it to be that

way. The author in designing this study was of the belief that experiential learning must be precluded by the teaching of oral skills.

The interest in assertive training really started when Wolpe and Lazarus began to actually accumulate data on their use of assertive training. During the early 50's the concept of group assertive training was introduced as a therapeutic device.

The rise of the great civil rights movements of the late 60's, echoed the words of consciousness raising and assertion building. The rhetoric of the black movement was adopted by every other movement from Women's Liberation to White Men's Consciousness Raising Groups, with the emphasis being that of assertion building. The black movement brought assertion training to the streets and the white movement brought it home.

The author in developing the study saw the importance of the group process, as opposed to individual sessions with subjects. The group reigned as the most influencing and expedient means for inducing the seeds of change to flourish. Wolpe (1964) used the group process very successfully as a vehicle for treatment.

The second factor was that of enhancing one's risk-taking behavior. Here risk-taking had long been associated with card tricks and ring toss games. Kogan (1964) a noted researcher in the area of risk-taking, felt that there were many human dimensions that were not being considered as situations of risk. Kogan felt that dilemmas involving interpersonal inadequacies and inabilities were quasi-risk-oriented dilemmas. The author took this theory and applied it to what

was happening to students in Students' College, and was able to recognize some parallels between what Kogan was expressing, and what students were experiencing.

The author wanted to eradicate the passive, inactive behavior of students and bring about a high incidence of risk-oriented behavior.

Diaz-Guerrero's (1967) study indicated that rural youngsters were more passive than urban youngsters. Due to the fact that the University of Minnesota, Duluth is mostly comprised of rural Anglo-Americans the incidence of encountering an individual who is passive in nature is quite high. Diaz-Guerrero's study indicated that the urban youngster preferred the use of active responses to questions rather than passive responses. The ratio was nearly two to one in contrast to rural youngsters. In a study conducted by Herpord (1965) there is evidence that supports the broad active-passive dichotomy proposed by Diaz-Guerrero.

Another source of support for the active-passive dichotomy comes from the use of the Holtzman Inkblot Technique. Swartz (1967) reports that urban youngsters "tend to deal with the stress associated with making assertive statements." While there is an avoidance on the part of rural youngsters to absorb the after shocks of making assertive statements. This can have an unmeasurable influence on the risk-taking behavior of the rural youngsters. Swartz described a situation where urban youngsters in test taking situations will deal with stress in a much more active manner, while the rural youngsters,

conversely, seemed to endure the test taking situation much more passively.

Diaz-Guerrero's general notion of an active-passive dichotomy in which rural youngsters are more passive than urban Anglo-Americans gains support from a number of other sources. In the Fromm and Maccoby (1970) study of character, the rural youngsters are repeatedly referred to as passive, while the urban youngsters are referred to as active. Erich Fromm (1957) claims that urban society centers on the marketplace where learning to manipulate others is of paramount importance. Abraham Maslow (1954) and others say that western culture rests generally on Judeo-Christian theology, and the United States is dominated particularly by a puritan spirit which stresses activity, striving, and hard work. Stanley Milgram (1970) summarized a number of studies which show that urban people more than rural people are less willing to loan a stranger, time, help, information, or things. Urban people may be described as less autoplactic in these exchanges, but more risk oriented in that urban dwellers can absorb the emotional stress that is associated with the rejection of another's request.

Clinical literature also fits the general hypotheses that urban middle income people are active in contrast to more passive low income rural inhabitants. Finney (1969, p. 243) notes,

The hysterical person tends to think of himself as a passive participant, while the compulsive person thinks of himself as being in control of what he does throughout life.

Finney cites data of Hollingshead and Bedlich (1958) which demonstrates the hysterical personality is more common in lower classes, while the

compulsive personality is more common in middle classes. Finney's notion is a reflection of the population that was available for this study.

In a series of experiments Kogan and Madsen (1971, 1972) have demonstrated and analyzed the difference between urban and rural white Americans in cooperation, helpfulness, competition and rivalry. The differences are clearly supportive of Finney's finding plastic-autoplastic hypothesis. The urban youngsters were more competitive, they more often make conflict moves, and they more often block the progress of another youngster towards their goal. The rural youngster was found to be more autoplastic. They more often step aside to avoid conflict; and they more often submitted to the rivalrous intent of a peer.

Diaz-Guerrero feels that the factors of urban-rural rearing practices transcend any cultural barriers, and that a person regardless of cultural background, will develop in a fashion that is dictated by the immediate surroundings.

Julian Rotter (1966) has reviewed studies of internal and external locus of control. Rotter (1966) shows that those who believe in the effectiveness of their own behavior manifest greater active mastery of their environment. The author feels that the development of sound assertive skills will encourage one to attempt to master their environment.

Kogan and Wallack (1967) gave a breakdown of the inner-controlled person, as well as their probable risk-taking behavior.

They stated that the inner controlled person trusted themselves, and they made decisions that were based on one's internal sense of what is needed, felt, or experienced. These are individuals who were more likely to take risks to be assertive responders. These were described as the urban youngsters, while the rural youngsters accepted the outcomes that the environment provided.

Lefcourt (1965) found that rural college students board, were generally low risk takers. Baron (1968) also found that rural college students are conservative risk takers. The author feels that this can be associated with the nonassertive adaption mode of the youngster, who has a rural oriented set of values. There is some evidence that non-assertive individuals should prefer situations of low risk.

Diaz-Guerrero (1955, p. 10) suggests that both active and passive cultures would benefit if they could adopt some of the ways of their counterparts. The author recognized the dichotomy of active-passive behavior that existed in the subjects of his study. The author was able to see the association between increasing one's assertive responses in stressful situations and one's mental health. Diaz-Guerrero was able to show that urban dwellers defend their requests for things that they want. Rather than freely expressing their desires, rural dwellers express more shame and conflict, as well as the need to outwardly withdraw during situations of stress.

Here the author is alluding to the fact that the general composition of the participants was that the rural Anglo-Americans and that a particular kind of risk-taking behavior is associated with

rural dwellers. The training sessions seemed to indicate that the rural subjects learned many of their assertive habits from the urban subjects who were in the study. The author encouraged group interaction, and the open sharing of viewpoints and experiences. It seemed apparent that the urban subjects were more willing to utilize the techniques that were presented in the training sessions. It was the urban participants who encouraged the rural participants to begin to use the information.

The studies of McClelland (1958) seemed to indicate that risk-taking behavior involved setting up a chain of rewards. McClelland who is more affective oriented in his view of societal conditions has always looked at the possibility of human dilemmas being situations of risk. Here McClelland believes that people in their attempts to achieve, create their own fantasies as to how situations should be approached. He goes on to say that when a person creates a set of alternative choices for oneself, then this is the seed for using creative risk-taking behavior. This creative risk-taking behavior is the behavior that the author is looking at in terms of conducting this study. What the author wants to do is aid individuals in the process of taking better risks and with less tension.

Sears (1957) feels that understanding all the alternatives that are possible for an individual to choose from, must be explored and revealed in order for the accurate prediction and interpretation of human behavior. The author feels that through values clarification techniques one can think through a situation to the point where one can make choices that lead to more desirable outcomes. The participants

in the experiment felt very helpless, because their risk-taking behavior skills were undeveloped. The author recognized this deprivation and sought to seek a means for aiding others in an attempt to improve their communication and risk-taking skills.

Those researches in the area of behavioral psychology feel that there is a strong dichotomy between the development of rural and urban dwellers. Researchers feel that rural individuals in order to adjust to the rigor of urban life must alter many of their ways. McClelland feels that society offers more alternatives for an individual to choose, when that person is planted in an urban setting. He also feels that this complicates matters considerably, when it comes to making well calculated choices. Kogan (1957) feels that people make choices more expediently when they have a systematic approach for doing so. This all implies that rural individuals must master the art of asserting themselves, so that the dilemmas of the urban setting will not take advantage of these individuals. The author is not saying that all individuals who are reared in rural settings have the characteristics of the passivity syndrome as purported by Diaz-Guerrero (1967), but many rural dwellers do express these characteristics.

The social order of the University of Minnesota, Duluth seems to reflect this syndrome, as it relates to the composition of the student body. This raises the incidence of encountering more people who reflect this syndrome. Due to the fact that urban students were in the experiment, indicates that no environment is with or

without a particular type of character. Many students preferred the non-threatening atmosphere of U.M.,D., others felt that it didn't offer a diversified educational experience.

The need for young people to seek more creative ways to achieve social and personal effectiveness even reaches a campus that is as protective and as remote as U.M.D. The author in conducting this study was trying to say something else about the direction of the educational goals of U.M.D. The author was saying that somehow the educational planners must not lose sight of the real needs of the people they are commissioned to educate. The author spoke of the need to present structured learning opportunities, but in no way was there an attempt to discount the creative drives and urges of students to have input into their own educational process. U.M.D. was quietly aborting students from its system, at least those students who were truly in search of a liberal education. The author chose to demonstrate that creative risk-taking is a valid component in the matrix that serves as a foundation of the human condition. Many of these students were in search of the new and the novel, and that's what the author was determined to give them. Whether the author experienced satisfaction in this quest is another paper in itself, but this was an inferred goal that was known only by the author.

During the early stages of formulating the study the author recalled many students stating that they had never encountered certain situations such as; communicating with someone who is racial or culturally different from themselves, or having spoken before a group of strangers. Most of these students were reared in small rural

communities in Minnesota, and it was on the basis of this that the author decided to review the literature that was available on the differences between rural and urban inhabitants.

The subjects who were from the urban settings were very enthusiastic about the new information, for these were the people who vowed to use their newly found skills in their on-going activities, when they returned home for summer break. The rural subjects found these assertive techniques to be too strong for using on the proprietor in the general store, but they did say that they would find these techniques useful when they returned back to school.

Festinger (1957) in his theory of cognitive dissonance touched on the dynamics of small town mentalities and how the need to lead a relatively moralistic life is utmost. Here he illustrated that the conflicts between one's social image and the self-concept of a person can be resolved through a person becoming more knowledgeable of the creative means for reaching a state of equilibrium. He states that social effectiveness is a priority that is strong among most people who are a part of mainstream society. The popular belief is that most college students place this drive on the shelf until a later day, but the author doesn't believe that this is the case among college students.

Lefcourt (1965) found that most college students are relatively low risk takers, and that college students are not concerned about projecting solid social images. Lefcourt's study reflects the social mood of the early 60's, but the social cries of the mid 70's are of

a different nature. Stevenson (1974) states that young people who are entering college in the late 70's will be expecting to receive a higher quality of education, and a more stimulating educational experience than ever before. He goes on to state that if higher educational systems don't meet these demands or needs, then the enrollment figures of universities will surely decline.

The author observed that the function of Students' College was one of complimenting the present structure, and the goals of Students' College should be that of seeking to constantly offer what a student can't experience in the other programs within the university.

Havighurst (1951) places social effectiveness high on the list of developmental tasks which an adolescent hopes to master. The mastering of this task could carry over into the first and second years of college. The target population for this study was comprised of students who were in their first and second year of college.

The author has illustrated various approaches as to why a person may develop a certain set of inadequacies. The explanation that seemed to be the most applicable was that of character development on the basis of rural vs. urban rearing practices. To many of the students at U.M.D., the city of Duluth was their first exposure to a quasi-urban center.

The factors of internal vs. external controls were introduced and how these relate to youngsters who are raised in urban vs. rural settings. The passive-active syndrome was also brought into focus as well as the alloplastic-autoplastic character structure. A total

of four concepts were introduced, and they all indicate the same thing. That if the immediate environment warrants change then one must strive to meet those demands. If the rural inhabitant finds that it is difficult to adjust to these changes, then the formal educational system must seek a means for giving guidance to those who wish to become more effective in urban environments. This commitment to aid others in becoming more effective was the commitment of the author.

The next set of literature that the author will examine is that of assertive training as it relates to the group process.

Wolpe was among the first behavioral therapists to use the group process as a means of conducting assertive training sessions. The use of the group served a dualistic purpose. First it presented a situation where participants could receive external feedback and secondly it saved a great deal of time for the therapist. Thus allowing the author to concentrate on individualized instructing.

The objective of the therapist is to increase one's ability to express his/her feelings in a socially appropriate manner. The feelings in question include both negative and positive feelings.

Present-day beliefs are that when one increases their assertiveness, the client will experience a greater sense of well-being, and a reduction in tension. When one's sense of well-being is high then one can achieve significant social gains. One of the major concerns of behavioral therapists is that of encouraging their clients to be more assertive. Many of the rural students had second thoughts about applying assertive methods to their small town dilemmas, for fear

of being punished.

Assertive training was used by therapists such as, Wolpe (Wolpe, 1958, 1969), Lazarus, (1966), and Salter (1949, 1964). Salter differs with many on what constituted assertive behavior and even who needs assertive training.

Wolpe (1969) stated that unexpressed anger is the most difficult to deal with in terms of interpersonal problems. Wolpe (1969) feels that the therapist must be able to help the client to pinpoint the source of one's anger, and then one must convince the client that assertive training could be the answer to their problem. Wolpe also used this same method when it came to assisting clients in expressing positive feelings, as well as expressing negative feelings.

The author feels that a therapist or facilitator can have a significant effect on how well one's clients internalize assertive behavior. This can be done by constructing a method that will give a thorough picture of what assertion is all about. If the information is shallow or lacking in clarity and substance then the clients will not develop a powerful concept of what they are expected to do, or achieve. The implications of this statement is that, if one constructs an excellent program or approach to teaching assertive training then the participants will reflect this in the progress that they can make. The author feels that this was the case with this particular study, (see Chapter IV for data analysis).

Wolpe (1969) stressed the importance of sound and comprehensive presentations of assertive training information. Moreno (1955) in conducting sessions that involved psychodrama, stressed the

importance of giving a complete overview of what is meant by "assertive acting out." Lippitt and Hubbell criticized therapists who professed to be proficient in conducting and teaching assertive behavior. They stressed the need for therapists to familiarize themselves with the constructs of assertive training before going out and conducting sessions on the topic, of assertive training.

The author feels that the decision to be assertive is a joint decision which is made between the client and the therapist. The client must lend their total knowledge of a specific situation and the therapist must apply some essence of objectivity to that experience. The author stresses the importance of making assertive statements that will have a minimal effect, but will still get the job done. The therapist must also give the client skills on how to escalate an assertive response if the minimal effective response fails to do the trick. Mc Fall and Marston (1970) introduced the term "escalation" into the jargon of assertive training. An escalated response is a response that is a bit harsher than a minimal effective response. The escalated responses may have several stages.

Mc Fall and Martson (1970) also stressed the importance of constructing an hierarchy for aiding the therapist and the client in determining, when a given person was ready to advance to dealing with more complex situations that involved the use of assertive responses. The author used this same concept during the treatment phase of this study and found it to be helpful, especially with the charting of the weekly progress of the subjects. Wolpe (1969) also used this method with his clients.

The author in the original design for the study used the group problem-solving model as the main vehicle for change. There were several reasons for making this choice (1) the members can receive instant feedback on what is assertive behavior as it relates to a specific situation, (2) there are more opportunities for illustrating assertive exercises, and (3) the group can provide social reinforcement for one another, especially when one improves their performance.

The group method utilizes behavior rehearsal as the principle exercise. This is a simple technique, which is why the author is pleased with it. It involves basic role playing, and judging on the part of the group members. The author found the behavior rehearsal exercise to be relatively non threatening to the members in the experimental group.

The author found that when a thorough presentation of the facts surrounding assertive training, were given, the results would be very favorable. The author also feels that if a therapist doesn't have highly favorable results, then that therapist should take a strong look at the information that they compiled, to see if they have gathered the most up to date methods and have versed themselves on the most up to date findings. This is extremely important in conducting assertive training sessions.

The studies that involve assertive training as it relates directly to treating college students is sparse. The study of Freidman (1968) was a study that was considered to be a very well done study. Mc Fall and Martson (1970) also conducted assertive training sessions with college age people. In both studies nonassertive individuals

were selected and given a crash course in assertive training. The results of this training was highly significant. Both researchers even conducted follow-ups on the original participants in the experimental group, and found that the subjects were still utilizing the skills. Mc Fall and Lillesand (1971) conducted a study on male and female adolescents which produced significant results. The researchers assigned the subjects to treatment groups and control groups. The subjects in the treatment group were given a barage of stimuli on assertive responding, and on the average the subjects in the treatment group demonstrated an increase in assertiveness. The control group was given no stimuli whatsoever, and as a result they did show an increase in assertive behavior.

The youngster from rural America who has to demonstrate social effectiveness in urban America, will always have to bridge the gap which makes social effectiveness a dream rather than a reality. The urban youngster who is forced to find the nearest shell to hide in must learn that there are ways to deal more comfortably with the rawness of urban living. The university is the seat of learning in our culture and the university must not lose sight of what it means to address itself to peoples' self-perceived inadequacies.

The power of assertive training is truly unmeasurable, and its effect on groups and individuals is stunning to say the least. The author feels that he can safely say that he knows twenty people who are now better creative risk-takers than they were when he first encountered them.

In looking at the socialization process of rural Americans one can understand that the easy going, placidness of the small communities who encourage the development of a natural passivity in a youngster who is reared in these communities. The social order of the University of Minnesota, Duluth also attracts and sustains youngsters who can comply or adjust to a slower paced setting.

The community which extends beyond U.M.D. does reflect many of the obstacles of urban life as it is lived in other cities. This is the undeniable reality of even being in Duluth, Minnesota, although these urban problems exist on a much smaller scale. The college student who is accustomed to the rural setting who wishes to seek a profession in the area of the human services, must internalize what it means to be in unfamiliar surroundings. These students must be equipped to venture out and return back to their havens with thoughts of being proficient and relevant people. To earn this condition it does mean risking when necessary, but one can risk more expediently and effectively if one is trained to do so, and if assertive training was the tool that was needed, then this was the tool that was provided. To become better risk-takers was the goal of the students, and to aid in this process was the goal of the experimenter.

The author has isolated some data that reflects the basic orientation of the subjects that were studied -- the kinds of behavioral patterns that generate from youngsters, who indeed have a rural-oriented socialization process. Can have a dramatic effect on one's risk-taking and assertive behavior as demonstrated in the review of literature.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Introduction

This chapter is a discussion of the methods and procedures used in conducting the study. The specific topics which will be presented are the selection and description of the two measuring instruments, a description of the subject population, and the procedures utilized in obtaining and analyzing the data.

Sample

This study was conducted at the University of Minnesota, Duluth. All the subjects were lower-division students, enrolled in an experimental non-traditional educational program entitled "Students' College."

The initial grouping of students was a total of 105 students. The numerical breakdown was 75 females and 30 males. The major criterion for the initial selection of subjects were: (1) All students had to be first quarter lower-division enrollees in Students' College, (2) All students had to be enrolled as tutors in the Duluth Public School System, and (3) All students could not have tutored in a formalized classroom setting prior to this experience.

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The 105 subjects were all pretested to aid in determining the matching process. The objective of the investigator was to derive 20 matched pairs. There would be 10 pairs of females and 10 pairs of males. The criterion which was used in determining whether or not a subject needed assertion training was based on the responses to item 1 and 21 of the Rathus Assertive Schedule. If the subject scored negatively on these two items then they were automatically placed in the category of prospective members of either the experimental or control group. This method of selection was used by Rathus in his experiment to establish test retest validity on the 68 college men and women. Of the 105 subjects tested, 62 scored negatively on both items. Of these 62 subjects only 40 were desired for the experiment.

The subjects were matched on the basis of sex and also on whether or not they scored negatively on both items. The final results produced 15 matched pairs of females and 5 matched pairs of males. Also, both members had overall scores that were close to one another's.

A member in each matched pair was randomly selected to be in the experimental group, and the other member was automatically assigned to the control group. The total sample = 40, 20 for the experimental group and 20 for the control group.

Tables 1 and 2 show the distribution in the grade level of the subjects. Table 1 shows the distribution of students in the experimental group, and Table 2 shows the distribution of students in the control group.

Table 1
Class Distribution of Sample Students
in the Experimental Group

<u>Males</u>		
Freshman	Sophomores	Total
3	2	5

<u>Females</u>		
Freshman	Sophomores	Total
3	12	15

Table 2
Class Distribution of Sample Students
in the Control Group

<u>Males</u>		
Freshman	Sophomores	Total
1	4	5

<u>Females</u>		
Freshman	Sophomores	Total
5	10	15

Instrumentation

The Rathus Assertive Schedule (RAS) is a 30-item schedule for measuring assertiveness. This schedule was developed by Dr. Spencer Rathus, the author describes the instrument in the *Journal of Behavioral Therapy* (1973, 4, pp. 398-406). The RAS is shown as having moderate to high test-retest reliability ($r \pm .78$). The range of possible scores are -90 to +90. The \bar{x} pretest score was .2941, with a SD = 29.121. The \bar{x} posttest score was 1.6176, with a SD = 27.6319. The results were gathered by Dr. Rathus.

Rathus established the test-retest reliability of the RAS. By administering the instrument to 68 undergraduate college men and women ranging in age from 17 to 27, and then retesting them after 8 weeks had passed. Moreover of the 30 items, 27 correlated significantly with the total RAS score. While none of the other three detracted from the total score. Items 1 and 21 indicated, respectively, whether respondents consider themselves to be as assertive as their peers and whether they consider themselves to be open and frank about their emotions. Although a client's own conception of his current status is not valid in terms of the impressions he makes on others, his self concept is likely to be related to his willingness to undergo certain types of treatments. For example, the meek individual who looks upon himself as assertive is likely to resist assertion training, though he/she may be in dire need of assertion training. The author of this research made use of this information in selecting subjects for the experimental and control groups.

Performance Rating Scale

The supplementary tool which was utilized along with the RAS was a Performance Rating Scale (PRS). This scale was a collection of situations which the investigator observed as being the areas or tasks which were the most difficult to overcome by first quarter enrollees of Students' College who were assigned the responsibility of a tutor in the public school system of Duluth, Minnesota. Twelve items were constructed for the PST, all focusing around a different area which could constitute a situation of risk.

The subjects of the experimental and control group were both given the measuring instruments. The PRS was first administered during the third week of the ten week period and again at the end of the ten week period.

Procedures

The title of the course was "Enhancing Risk-Taking Behavior Through the Use of Assertive Training." The course involved 10 sessions, and the experimental group met once a week for a 1 hour session. The control group was not involved in any of these sessions, i.e. it was not brought to the attention of the control group that the sessions were being held.

The ten sessions could be categorized into 3 major stages: (1) The orientation which involved 2 sessions of formal presentations that were made by the investigator, (2) The laboratory and behavior rehearsal stage, which involved 7 sessions of student-instructor

presentations. Each week the students were assigned the task of bringing to class a situation that occurred during their visit to their work site. This situation had to be an example of an incident which presented an element of risk for the student. This section was the longest of the three stages, and also the core of the treatment process. (3) The third and final stage consisted of the summary and conclusion of the course. This involved 1 session and it mainly consisted of an open discussion between the investigator and the members of the experimental group.

The first stage, or the "Orientation," involved three formal presentations by the instructor. The content of the presentations was as follows: (a) A thorough explanation of the objectives and goals of the course. (b) A discussion of the various constructs of assertive training, as well as insights on how to detect assertive statements and thus how to detect assertive behavior, and (c) A detailed analysis of the relationship between assertiveness and risk-taking behavior.

The second stage involved 7 workshops or "labs," as they were titled. The subjects were asked to tell about an incident from their tutoring experience, which embraced elements of risk. After each student made their verbal presentations they were asked by the investigator to rehearse how they would approach that incident if it took place again. They were asked to enact each incident by first using non-assertive tactics to handle the problem. They were then asked to use an aggressive verbal response to approach the problem. Finally, they were asked to use an assertive statement to respond

to the problem. The group members were encouraged to role play situations with one another, give reinforcement and also assist one another in choosing appropriate assertive responses.

The last stage involved the summation of the course by the investigator. Students were also asked to make responses about the general usefulness of the course. Finally, in this session the post-tests were administered to the experimental group.

Members of the control group were brought into the learning center of Students' College where they were given the post-tests. The members of the control group were tested at a different time, but on the same day as the experimental group.

The pretest for the PRS was not given until the third session of the course. The reason for this was to enable the site supervisors to have some contact with the tutors so they could develop an impression of the tutors. Fortunately all the site-supervisors were willing to participate in the experiment. The site-supervisors had an option to mail in the results or have the experimenter come to the site and get the forms.

The statistic that was used to calculate the data was the t test for matched pairs. This statistic was used in calculating the results of the Rathus Assertive Schedule. The Performance Rating Scale was used to accumulate data for further verifying any changes in risk oriented behavior. There was no reliability or validity data on the PRS. Therefore the author did not rely very heavily on the results of this measurement, to indicate behavioral changes. The

measurement was originally created to serve as an additional evaluative tool, for obtaining incidental data.

Hypothesis

Null hypothesis formulated for this study were as follows;

1. There will be no difference in one's risk taking behavior when exposed to the treatment of an instructional presentation of facts, skills and ideas on assertive responding.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE DATA ANALYSIS

Present in this chapter are the results of the statistical analysis of the findings of the study, and a discussion of related inferences based on the findings of the study.

The subjects for this study population consisted of 40 students, who were lower-division enrollees in a college liberal arts program. There were twenty subjects in the Experimental group and twenty subjects in the control group.

The instruments which were selected were the Rathus Assertive Schedule and a self-designed Performance Scale for lower-division students.

On the pretest of PRS, subjects in both the control group and the experimental group had a t value of 21.488 with 19df. This was not a significant difference. The highest score that any one student could receive was a score of 48, and the lowest possible score was that of 0. Here one can see that there was not a wide range of scores. The scores of the pretest for the PRS can be seen in Table 3. The scores of subjects 1-5 are the scores of the male subjects. The post test indicated a wider range of scores with the t value being 38.253, see Table 4 for their scores. This was a significant difference. The results of the pretest of the RAS indicated that there were no significant differences, between the control and

Table 3
Pretest Scores of the Match Pairs for the
Performance Rating Scale

		Control Group	Experimental
Males	(1)	15	16
	(2)	17	20
	(3)	20	14
	(4)	21	19
	(5)	18	15
	(6)	21	24
	(7)	12	16
	(8)	19	18
	(9)	32	31
	(10)	24	23
	(11)	21	19
	(12)	16	16
	(13)	13	12
	(14)	18	22
	(15)	16	17
	(16)	14	15
	(17)	14	15
	(18)	15	15
	(19)	14	12
	(20)	12	13
		$\bar{x} = 17.6$	$\bar{x} = 18.2$

Table 4
 Posttest Results of the Matched Pairs for the
 Performance Rating Scale

	Control Group	Experimental	
Males	(1)	20	39
	(2)	16	34
	(3)	19	27
	(4)	26	25
	(5)	19	23
	(6)	21	44
	(7)	12	42
	(8)	28	45
	(9)	37	40
	(10)	27	42
	(11)	20	42
	(12)	16	41
	(13)	17	40
	(14)	23	47
	(15)	16	41
	(16)	14	47
	(17)	19	44
	(18)	30	47
	(19)	25	47
	(20)	19	46
	$\bar{x} = 21.2$	$\bar{x} = 38.15$	

experimental groups. The t value for the pretest scores was 1.439 with 19 df. The scores for the pretest results can be seen in Table 5. The higher the score of the RAS, the more assertive was the individual. The pretest scores showed that in both groups the assertiveness of all 40 subjects was very weak. The matched pairs in Table 6 are the same matched pairs that are found in Table 5. The order is exactly the same with the first 5 scores representing scores of the male participants.

Table 5

Pretest Results from the Rathus Assertive Schedule

Control Group Scores		Experimental Group Scores	
(1)	-1	(1)	1
(2)	2	(2)	1
(3)	1	(3)	1
(4)	2	(4)	2
(5)	-3	(5)	-3
(6)	2	(6)	1
(7)	1	(7)	1
(8)	1	(8)	1
(9)	2	(9)	1
(10)	2	(10)	2
(11)	-2	(11)	3
(12)	3	(12)	2
(13)	1	(13)	1
(14)	1	(14)	1
(15)	2	(15)	3
(16)	3	(16)	2
(17)	0	(17)	0
(18)	2	(18)	4
(19)	2	(19)	1
(20)	2	(20)	1

The results of the RAS on the posttest produced a totally different picture. The correlated t test compared the scores of the control group and the experimental group producing a t value of 6.99;

Table 6

Posttest Results from the Rathus Assertive Schedule

Control Group Scores		Experimental Group Scores	
(1)	-1	(1)	4
(2)	3	(2)	4
(3)	1	(3)	6
(4)	1	(4)	5
(5)	0	(5)	5
(6)	2	(6)	7
(7)	2	(7)	9
(8)	1	(8)	11
(9)	3	(9)	8
(10)	2	(10)	8
(11)	-1	(11)	9
(12)	3	(12)	12
(13)	1	(13)	15
(14)	2	(14)	8
(15)	2	(15)	11
(16)	3	(16)	10
(17)	1	(17)	9
(18)	3	(18)	13
(19)	2	(19)	12
(20)	2	(20)	10

df = 19; p = .01. The findings were significant and the null hypotheses was rejected. The test results indicated that there was a significant difference between the control and the experimental groups, after treatment.

Major Findings of the Study

The data were analyzed by the correlated t tests and the principal findings derived from the analyses of the Performance Rating Scale and the Rathus Assertive Schedule were as follows:

1. The students who participated in the experiment improved their performance as measured by PRS and the RAS, comparison to the control group.

2. The females overall, improved and advanced above and beyond the male participants on the RAS and PRS.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Introduction

This chapter will review the objectives of the study. Also the major findings will be summarized, their implications discussed, and the conclusions and recommendations which seem to be suggested by the data will be present.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine whether or not risk-taking behavior could be enhanced through an instructional means. It was felt that one of the benefits of this would be an increase in the number of students who would report having experienced a much more positive encounter with Students' College and the respective agencies.

Discussion

Those students who came through the course decided to re-enroll in Students' College. All five of the male participants asked to be given more responsible roles in the college; such as members of the council or as site-supervisors. The author was able to see that each request for more responsible roles were somehow met. The females re-enrolled and many returned to their former work sites, of the females 11 requested that an advanced course be offered through

Students' College. The author was able to hand out and suggest reading material to those who desired more information on the topics of risk-taking and assertive behavior.

The Rathus Assertive Inventory was administered by the author in both the pre and posttest stages. The Performance Rating Scale was completed by the site supervisors. Here the site supervisor would collaborate with the subject on the reasons why he or she received a particular score. This collaborating was done as a segment of the evaluative process for receiving a grade. This was not considered to be a phase of the treatment process of the experiment. Among the males this seemed to be a special situation for saying what they were reluctant to say in the weekly group sessions. First hand feedback from the site supervisors reinforced the belief that the male subjects found the experiment to be boring and unnecessary. These feelings were not expressed during the group sessions. The author felt that the ability to confront the author with these feelings was a direct reflection of the nature and theme of the course itself. The author speculates that males could take risks in the defined learning environments when they were among supervisors who were the same racially and similar in cultural outlooks, but with the author who was racially and culturally different this risking and sharing didn't take place on any in depth level.

The author speculated in analyzing the data, that the low scores by the male subjects may to some degree be attributed to this dynamic of the experiment, and that the racial and cultural

dissimilarities probably may have also created a reluctance in the white males to be extremely cooperative, with the author, and a silent move to sabotage the experiment by not assuming a serious attitude towards answering the posttest openly and honestly. The implications of race could be an erroneous assumption, or it can be very real, and something not to be overlooked as a variable.

The females as a group were more enthusiastic about being involved and coming to the weekly sessions than the male participants. The females who historically have been denied the right to be assertive, seemed to reach out for each opportunity to say and do what their feelings were telling them to do. The experience became a revelation for many of the females. Most of the females stated that they always felt that they were being assertive people, but through the course they found out what assertive behavior was really about. The females became quite intimidating to the male participants. During discussions when the females dominated the floor, the males became almost reclusive, with the females almost daring them to speak out. The author found himself facilitating discussions where it was necessary to stop the dialogue and ask for input by the male participants.

When the females internalized the concept of assertive behavior and its effect on risk-taking, they seemed to run away with this new inspiration. Many stated that they felt much better about themselves, school, and their involvement in Students' College. The females defined the experience as an uplifting, rewarding and enlightening one, while the males felt that it was merely another

invisible form of witchcraft, and a revolutionary attempt to subversely alter the world, and dethrone them from their seat of power.

The dynamics of the scoring was also interesting among the females for 6 out of the 15 females had a male evaluator or site supervisor. These site supervisors in many instances were the same supervisors that the male subjects had. These supervisors expressed the noticeable differences in the verbalizing patterns of the females in relationship to the males. The males for the most part remained just as verbal as they did from the very beginning, but the females increased their frequency of verbalizing as opposed to the males remaining constant. This soft data was gathered by verbal reports from on site-supervisors. The male supervisors stated that they found the females to be more desirable when they were verbal as opposed to being quiet, shy, timid, withdrawn and lacking initiative to advance situations. The males felt that the supervisors were being biased towards the females especially when they became aware of the fact that the females had surpassed them in the final analysis. The author had 2 out of the 5 males who expressed a need to retake the posttest, but of course their request was denied, and it was during these two instances that the 2 male subjects began to openly share their feelings as to why they didn't take the posttest seriously. The males felt that a genuine effort was made to help the females to improve their risk-taking skills, but they were not given a great deal of attention by the author, and that their problems were not the focus of attention by the group. They felt disenfranchised by the experience, while the

females felt the course was created just for them.

Due to the fact that the experiment was comprised of white subjects there were no race differences which had to be considered except that of the experimenter.

During the initial screening for subjects the author asked the students if they were familiar with the concept of assertive behavior, or even if they had heard of the topic. The majority of sophomores were familiar with the topic but the freshmen were not. This gap was quite understandable due to the recent popularity of assertive training courses and the use of assertive training at colleges and universities. A person fresh out of high school may not come into contact with assertive training courses.

The freshmen learned a great deal from their sophomore counterparts and from the training experience. Even though they were not always the most verbal during group sessions, they did quite well out in the field. The site supervisors stated that Students' College was sending them a more "thirsty" group of learners. In the past the freshmen always acted like freshmen, but this group was different.

The sophomores who felt more astute than the freshmen took individuals under their wings and prepped them outside of the regularly scheduled sessions. This raised the possibility that students learn effective skills better and more rapidly when another student is teaching them these skills. The sophomores always seemed to be able to point out some dimension that the freshmen were overlooking as a determining factor in a situation. The only drawbacks came in the impatience that the sophomores had when the freshmen couldn't see or

agree to what they were trying to illustrate.

The author felt that a cross-section of classes was much more desirable than a group of all freshmen. Explicitly the older members were able to teach things to the younger members, this also affected the rate at which the sessions moved.

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are made:

1. That the course be instituted as a permanent learning experience for those students who demonstrate a need for assertive training, as determined by the RAS.
2. That the Rathus Assertive Schedule and the Performance Rating Scale be used as evaluative tools for pinpointing those students who may have a need, but are unwilling to openly admit their inadequacy.
3. The administrators within Students' College should continue to employ individuals who are capable and confident in carrying out the learning opportunity of conducting assertive training classes and allow them to administer the program.
4. That further research be conducted by the Students' College staff to design more effective learning opportunities for their enrollees, and that experiential non-supervised learning must be coupled with a structured supervised learning opportunity.

5. That further research be conducted to determine if the Rathus Assertive Inventory is related to other measures of adaptive behavior or to an external criteria of effective behavior, which Students' College enrollees display.
6. That Students' College should incorporate a plan to facilitate the interaction between lower and upper-division students.

The author found the study to be interesting, thought provoking and above all enjoyable. The reluctance of the male participants to put their best foot forward could be a statement of the societal conditions which produce and make men and women the way they are. Middle-class western sociology has defined men from birth as assertive risk-oriented people, while women must earn the definition, Lefcourt (1970).

The control group which was unaware that the study was being done manifested the usual complaints that students seemed to accumulate after being put in a situation without any structured orientation as to what is expected of them. The dropout rate among the control was 85% as opposed to a 100% re-enrollment of the experimental group.

The author observed that the experimental group felt as though that they were a part of something special, while the control group echoed feelings of being lost and unattended. This finding alone holds unmeasurable implications for the goals, objectives and definitions of higher education. Education seems to be one of the last real

attempts to nurture and shape people, and people expect to be recipients of this nurturing and shaping. Anyone who is omitted from this phase of the experience are those who will more than likely disappear from among your ranks.

The author feels that this study has produced some empirical evidence of the above notion. It is more probable that women more than men have felt what it is like to be left out of the educational mainstream. It is therefore probable that more women will leap at opportunities to be assertive, because this is a process that was not a right or privilege that was granted to women, and now that it is here the women are going to "wear it out" as was demonstrated during the group sessions.

The author found that for the most part assertive behavior was reflected in one's verbal reactions, but also the student became more physically assertive. During the group sessions the author observed the subjects walking up to another when they had something to say, as opposed to shouting across the room or looking out at the sky when they wanted to exchange a viewpoint. The physical contact and the eye contact seem to increase dramatically.

The relationship of assertive training as an enhancer of risk-taking behavior is a very direct and very strong relationship. The theory of Kogan (1964) that risk-taking was just not a group of people tossing rings, seemed to be learning towards humanizing the basic concepts that make studying risk-taking behavior so interesting. The author who believed that if systematic desensitization could enhance risk-taking behavior and if systematic desensitization could

be applied interchangeably with assertive training, then assertive training could be substituted to produce the same results.

This chapter contained a restatement of the study's objectives. These were to determine if a course could be established for assisting lower-division students in the process of enhancing their risk-taking behavior as it relates to their worksites. The study found that such a course could be created. The findings seemed to support the charge that structured learning opportunities are needed in concert with unstructured learning opportunities. As a follow up a similar course was administered by the author at Metropolitan State University, St. Paul, Mn., to a group of students who were interns. Similar results occurred, as far as students reporting that the course aided in their on-site effectiveness and participation.

APPENDIX A

Performance Rating Scale

Please circle the appropriate response

1. Does the student assert himself/herself as part of the educational team?
never seldom often always
2. Does the student take the risk to establish a state of rapport with helpees?
never seldom often always
3. Does the student take the risk to deal with dehumanizing biases, discrimination and prejudices?
never seldom often always
4. Does the student take the risk to orally confront small groups?
never seldom often always
5. Does the student take the risk of giving clear and explicit directions to helpees?
never seldom often always
6. Does the student take the risk to inform helpees of the expected behavioral objectives set by that helper?
never seldom often always
7. Does the student take the risk to manage deviant behavior?
never seldom often always
8. Does the student take the risk to use a variety of positive reinforcement patterns with helpees?
never seldom often always

9. Does the student take the risk to establish and maintain an atmosphere that is conducive to learning?
never seldom often always
10. Does the student take the risk to identify clues to helpes misconceptions or confusion?
never seldom often always
11. Does the student take the risk to counsel helpees with their personal and learning problems?
never seldom often always
12. Does the student take the risk to ask questions?
never seldom often always

APPENDIX B

Rathus Assertive Schedule

Name _____

Directions: Indicate how characteristic or descriptive each of the following statements is of you by using the code given below.

- + 3 very characteristic of me, extremely descriptive
- + 2 rather characteristic of me, quite descriptive
- + 1 somewhat characteristic of me, slightly descriptive
- 1 somewhat uncharacteristic of me, slightly nondescriptive
- 2 rather uncharacteristic of me, quite nondescriptive
- 3 very uncharacteristic of me, extremely nondescriptive

- _____ 1. Most people seem to be more aggressive and assertive than I am.
- _____ 2. I have hesitated to make or accept dates because of shyness.
- _____ 3. When the food served at a restaurant is not done to my satisfaction, I complain about it to the waiter or waitress.
- _____ 4. I am careful to avoid hurting other people's feelings, even when I feel that I have been injured.
- _____ 5. If a salesman has gone to considerable trouble to show me merchandise which is not quite suitable, I have a difficult time in saying--"No."
- _____ 6. When I am asked to do something, I insist upon knowing why.
- _____ 7. There are times when I look for a good, vigorous argument.
- _____ 8. I strive to get ahead as well as most people in my position.
- _____ 9. To be honest, people often take advantage of me.
- _____ 10. I enjoy starting conversations with new acquaintances and strangers.

- _____ 11. I often don't know what to say to attractive persons of the opposite sex.
- _____ 12. I will hesitate to make phone calls to business establishments and institutions.
- _____ 13. I would rather apply for a job or for admission to a college by writing letters than by going through with personal interviews.
- _____ 14. I find it embarrassing to return merchandise.
- _____ 15. If a close and respected relative were annoying me, I would smother my feelings rather than express my annoyance.
- _____ 16. I have avoided asking questions for fear of sounding stupid.
- _____ 17. During an argument I am sometimes afraid that I will get so upset that I will shake all over.
- _____ 18. If a famed and respected lecturer makes a statement which I think is incorrect, I will have the audience hear my point of view as well.
- _____ 19. I avoid arguing over prices with clerks and salesmen.
- _____ 20. When I have done something important or worthwhile, I manage to let others know about it.
- _____ 21. I am open and frank about my feelings.
- _____ 22. If someone has been spreading false and bad stories about me, I see him (her) as soon as possible to "have a talk" about it.
- _____ 23. I often have a hard time saying "No."
- _____ 24. I tend to bottle up my emotions rather than make a scene.
- _____ 25. I complain about poor service in a restaurant and elsewhere.
- _____ 26. When I am given a compliment, I sometimes just don't know what to say.
- _____ 27. If a couple near me in a theatre or at a lecture were conversing rather loudly, I would ask them to be quiet or to take their conversation elsewhere.

- _____ 28. Anyone attempting to push ahead of me in line is in for a good battle.
- _____ 29. I am quick to express an opinion.
- _____ 30. There are times when I just can't say anything.

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