*DELTA LIFE SKILLS*sm

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Integral Energy Psychology

Phillip W. Warren, B.A., Ph.C., Professor Emeritus, A.P.O.E.C., Cert.Edu-K.

4459 52A St., Delta, B.C., V4K 2Y3 Canada

Phone and Voice mail : (604) 946-4963. Toll free North America: 1-866-946-4963

EMail: <phillip_warren@telus.net> Website <www.rebprotocol.net>

U.S. mailing address: P.O. Box 1595, Point Roberts, WA 98281-1595

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PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICES OF "BEHAVIOR MODIFICATION", "CONTINGENCY CONTRACTING" AND "SKILL TRAINING"©

compiled and edited by Phillip W. Warren for the Life Skills Coach Training program

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UNIT I: INTRODUCTION

A. THREE ESSENTIALS

The three essential parts of any effective instructional system are:
1. A program of stimulus materials or tasks which moves the student in the direction of a desired behavioral repertoire.
2. Providing different consequences (knowledge of results, feedback, etc.), for '"correct" and "incorrect" responses.
3. Providing different consequences for performing the tasks versus engaging in other activities irrelevant to training goals.

The lessons contained in the Life Skills Coaching Manual provide the program of stimulus material, i.e. the "curriculum". The present unit describes ways of providing the differential consequences in addition to the usual methods of feedback, role modeling, VTR playback etc. For some groups the coach may have to institute a system of rewards and penalties to get them moving. If at all possible

this should be avoided and ONLY used as a last resort since there is danger that it will become a "power trip" for the coach and the group will never really develop on its own. However it may be necessary and if it does become so it is vital that the coach know how to institute it properly.

B. SOME FUNDAMENTAL REALITIES OF THE LIFE SKILLS COURSE

1. Briefly stated the Goal of Life Skills Training is to have people become increasingly skilled in whatever abilities help them handle life more effectively. This is a large and difficult task.
2. There is a relatively short time in which to accomplish this goal and thus time is of the essence.
3. You cannot work directly with attitudes and feelings except as these are expressed in the behavior of the person and so for this reason the focus is on behavior in order to change attitudes, feelings etc.
4. The focus is on the "here and now" since that is what is available to do something about.
5. You cannot work with the past hardships, and because of the constraints of the course, you cannot work with much of the life context of the student. You therefore must work with the student's present and potential behavior and skill.
6. The role of the Life Skills Coach is to use whatever means he has to deliberately and consciously have students improve in their level of skill. The coach is not mainly interested in being liked or approved of by the students, especially when this hinders skill development by students. The improvement must be demonstrated inside and outside of training (transfer) or else the change is not important. Students who like the course or the coach etc. but who show no improvement in skill are wasting their own and the staff's time.

C. SKILL TRAINING

The basic sequence of skill training is'
1. Identify needed skills for each student.
2. Break the skills down into trainable units (sub skills).
3. Get the student to practice the skills in training and improve while in training.
4. Get the student to use the skills in and out of training.
5. Get students to teach each other and to teach other relevant people the skills they have learned, both to increase the ability of the student doing the teaching and to broaden the learning base to the whole group - i.e. everyone becomes a "coach" in some respect.

D. COACH INFLUENCE

The coach needs to identify the kind and amount of influence he has over students, and the rewards that can be made contingent upon achievement/change. A typical problem is that training allowance is only contingent on coming to training and not on accomplishing anything; thus students are in training but that is no guarantee they will do anything unless there are rewards for improvement. So, the coaches must determine what types o-œ rewards they have control over, which they can make contingent on improvement (e.g. such things as breaks for coffee, use of facilities, approval, field trips, time out).

E. INVOLVING STUDENTS

The most effective method of behavior change is to have the person carry out the plan himself. That is, he pinpoints a behavior he wants to change, records it, decides what immediate goal he wishes to achieve, decides on what he can do to himself in terms of rewards/punishments which will effectively change his behavior, applies this and records the results and evaluates the success of his program of behavior change. In this procedure the simple act of recording behavior frequently serves as a powerful change agent. Thus, one goal is to get the person to do it himself--get a commitment and set up a program to have him change his own behavior.

F. A SIMPLE PROGRAM FOR BEHAVIOR CHANGE (see UNIT X)

The following suggested program can be implemented along with the regular Life Skills Course and is compatible with its content and methodology. In addition, it requires minimum change in administrative procedures, i.e. it is largely contained within the context of the training group and requires no additional administrative or scheduling support over and above that required by the Life Skills Course itself.

There are two basic sets of problems: that of pinpointing the behavior(s) and that of deciding on what types of reinforcements can be used (coach power and influence) to change (improve) behavior.

1. Pinpointing (defining) a behavior and recording it.

The program focuses on a specific behavior of each individual student. The coach and the student are to come to an agreement as to what the student will do or do better. This process of pinpointing is beneficial by itself, i.e. it produces change. The coach seeks a commitment from the student that he will work on this agreed upon task of behavior improvement (avoiding at all costs the "New Year's Resolution Game") and the coach commits himself to see that the student lives up to his commitment (or else...?).

In order to assist in the process of pinpointing the behaviour the coach asks the students these questions: "How will someone know you're improving?", "How will someone know when you have reached your goal?" These questions introduce the idea of recording and record keeping. The behavior has to be defined precisely enough to be counted by someone so that a frequency count can be obtained. This leads into the issue of who should record: the coach (an impossible task for all 10-15 students), another student (certain problems of definition will develop here) or the student himself (this is the recommended method).

Having students record each others' behaviors will probably not be too successful although it has the advantage of forcing a very precise definition of the desired behavior. However, arguments will likely develop about the number of times the behavior was emitted and this issue is off the track (i.e., the process of recording interferes with the progress of the group and the individual).

Since base rate data will not usually be available it is just as effective to have each student set himself a goal (e.g., perform the agreed upon behavior at least 'n' times during the period) and then keep a count to find if he achieved his goal. This will be quite effective and allow students to make commitments (set goals) that they are reasonably sure they can achieve.

One problem may develop in that some students may pinpoint behaviors that do not need improvement or set goals of very low frequency (i.e. they already do it that often). This must be challenged by the coach. The advantage of this approach is that it allows the student to determine how much work he wishes to commit himself to. The opposite problem may also occur that is, setting too high a goal and taking on too much change at once. This can be handled by explaining that the students are to start with something specific and immediately achievable and then expand their goals to include other types and/or amounts of behavior. We do not expect miracles (they can produce them if they want) but we do expect improvement in specific behavioral skills which they agree to work on.

The mechanics of recording on the spot are rather simple - students simply make a mark on a piece of paper each time they do the behavior. Then, these counts are transferred to graph paper. It is suggested that the coach make a large mobile display board with each student's graph posted on it. After each day's suitable activities the student is to plot his progress on the graph.

2 Coach Power and Influence.

This will be the major question and problem in instituting the techniques. The question is why should a student do anything different or improve his behavioral skills or fulfill his commitments? What is the pay off? It is not enough to say that the student will see the personal benefit of improving himself because in many cases this i~ not true. Thus, the coach must work on the problem of what types of power he has to increase the probability that students will fulfill their commitments and achieve their goals.

Fortunately the sequence of actions of listing, defining and selecting a specific bit of behavior (or task) to work on, stating a specific (countable) goal, keeping a record and making a graph of it to evaluate progress is sufficient to produce behavior change in many students. The motivational element tends to be built in since each student does his own analysis, definition, selection, and recording and the task is not imposed on him. What is imposed is that he must to through this sequence. What he chooses to work on is his decision, but he must work.

The question arises: if the student does not take action does not fulfill his commitment, what recourse does the coach have? If it is available the major source of influence is group and coach approval (support) or disapproval. This will work (assuming it is available) depending on how important this approval or disapproval is to the student. This may not be effective and the question is what other sources of power are available.

In general not much will be available to use as rewards to make contingent on improvement and behavior change and most coaches will be confronted with inefficient reward contingencies. The students and staff typically look upon all privileges as rights and it is very difficult to change the rules so that the privileges must be earned by improvement, achievement, etc. The reward contingency uses of coffee, time outs, field trips, fun events usually are "thrown away" - everybody gets them even if he does absolutely nothing; no one has to earn them.

The coach might try and change this situation and "con" the group into giving up their coffee breaks and field trips if they each do not fulfill their commitment. The coach has each student specify a behavior that the student wants to work on, (through a procedure of problem survey), making sure that each student is serious in his commitment in that the student really can do it. Then, he says to the group that he has a little plan which will help them reach their goals. They will probably be interested in this plan. Then he springs the clincher and tells them that when each has reached his

agreed upon goal for a session the group can break for coffee (each individual has a task and goal but the reward, coffee break, is contingent on each member achieving the goal so the whole group is rewarded, not individual members).

This plan will produce rather strong reactions since the coach leaves no trap doors: he tells them that they either were lying to him when the members stated a goal (they weren't serious) or they set too high a goal; there should be no problem in whether or not they have coffee since each student set a goal which he choose and could reach. The usual problem will be that the coach will not stick to the agreement and if one person does not fulfill his commitment the group will receive the reward anyway. Then the coach has the problem of what to do since one person got his reward when he did not deserve it and the agreement was not followed through. This is the constant danger with this approach, not sticking to it and making all kinds of exceptions, not having clear cut agreed-upon rules to begin with, sometimes being strict and sometimes lenient etc.

3. Rewarding Coaches for Systematic and Consistent Implementation of the Techniques.

This introduces the problem of supervision and setting up contingencies for the coaches to see to it that they systematically and consistently implement the techniques. Unfortunately, results, workability, professional concern, etc. does not guarantee that coaches (or any other professionals) will consistently and continually implement these techniques. Thus, there must be constant, a-periodic supervision, reinforcement and consultation for the effective implementation of these techniques.

4. Some Recommendations on how Available Facilities can be used for Efficient Achievement/Reward Contingencies.

a. Explain to the students at the start that each will be required to set self improvement goals, make a commitment to achieve these goals and be rewarded for this achievement.

b. The rewards available are described to the students: e.g. free coffee, recreational reading, games, conversation, free time, field trips, films, parties, etc. A room could be set aside where a variety of games and activities are available - e.g. table tennis, darts, shuffleboard, etc. - with use of the room restricted to those groups who have earned the privilege. This will involve administrative changes and may not be possible. All the "goodies" which are usually freely given regardless of whether or not students do anything or make any progress should be withdrawn and handed out only on the basis of progress. "No progress, no goodies".

c. In the beginning make it very clear that in Life Skills whether or not anyone in the group gets the reward depends on whether everyone has achieved their self selected goals. If one person has not achieved his goal then the whole group does not receive the reward until that person has fulfilled his commitment. This is necessary in order to build in a strong motive for cooperation and mutual help, simultaneously achieving individualized personal goal achievement, group solidarity and mutual help.

G. PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION AND DEFINITION

1. Introduction:

Very seldom do students begin by requesting help in accomplishing specific behavior changes. They do not say, "I want to learn to speak up in class," or "I wish to engage in information-seeking relevant to my career choice." When goals are so clearly and specifically expressed, it is relatively easy to devise some kind of procedure that might help. But students seldom behave this way. Most do not describe their difficulties in simple, straightforward language, nor specify what behavior they desire. They are usually confused and uncertain. Coaches can, however, help a student who does not know what he wants, who is confused and unhappy.

The coach begins by listening carefully to the student's concerns, trying to understand and assess his thoughts and feelings. He first tries to see things from the student's point of view communicating his understandings and attempting to determine if he is accurately perceiving the student's thoughts and feelings.

But the coach should do more initially than listen empathically and clarify perceptions of what the student is experiencing. He also seeks answers to questions. What precisely is going on in the student's everyday life? In what ways do others respond to the student's words, thoughts, and feelings? Much attention is directed to the student and the particulars of his living environment.

For some, the coach's empathic understanding is enough. Listening without condemning may relieve guilt feelings. The sympathetic audience may enable the student to verbalize his plans and proceed without any further action by the coach. All coaches must learn to be empathic listeners. But they must learn more. A good listener may suffice for some but not for most. Most students need further assistance once the coach understands their thoughts and feelings about their problems.

The coach must help the student describe how he would like to act instead of the way in which he currently acts and help the student translate his confusions and fears into a goal that he would like to accomplish and which would begin to resolve his problems. This can be accomplished by focusing on specific behaviors in the student's present situation.

2. Difficulties in Formulating Goals

This process of translating amorphous feelings into specific goals is, of course, not easy. The following sections examine seven stumbling blocks that coaches, face in making the translation and some ways they can step over them are indicated.

a. The Problem is Someone Else's Behavior

Frequently the problem as presented by the student has nothing to do with his own behavior but is attributed entirely to deficiencies in someone else's behavior. School counselors are often confronted by teachers who say, "Johnny is always causing trouble in my class. He won't pay attention. He won't do what I tell him. You are a counselor. You talk to him and straighten him out."

A similar situation exists for parents who bring their children to a counselor or child psychologist. The parent, like the teacher, hopes to shift responsibility on to someone else whom he or she can then blame if no progress is made .

Not only do persons in authority (teachers, parents, and employers) complain about the behavior of those for whom they are responsible, but peers often complain about each other. Students complain about the behavior of their group members, teachers about their colleagues, husbands and wives, about their spouses. The picture presented is one in which the presenter is virtuous--if only "they" would change their behavior, everything would be all right. The coach will probably be asked for help in getting the "offending party" to come in for help. However, the person complaining is the person bothered sufficiently by the problem to bring it to the attention of the coach. The coach remains understanding toward the person bringing the complaint but, in effect, insists, "Let us see what you can do that might possibly help this person change his behavior."

In summary, when a student presents as a problem someone else's behavior, the coach must structure the situation so that the student himself accepts responsibility for engaging in some kind of behavior that might in turn remedy the difficulty. The student might elect to change the other person's behavior, tolerate it, or withdraw from it, but the decision and resulting action must be seen as the student's responsibility.

b. The Problem Is Expressed as a Feeling

Problems are usually presented as descriptions of feelings. The student may say, "I feel stupid", "I feel nervous and jumpy", "I feel unwanted and unloved," "I feel lonely."

Just as a physician encourages his patient to "tell me where it hurts," so the coach would encourage the student to describe in detail his emotional sensations. The coach needs to listen to the student tell of his feelings in such a way that the coach will be able to describe the problem and the feelings involved to the student with considerable accuracy.

This reflecting and clarifying of the student's problems and his feelings, this careful attending, serves two important purposes: (1) It guarantees that the coach has accurately perceived the problem and the feelings so that he can better assess what needs to be done; (2) It establishes the coach as an important person in the student's life, one who is likely to be viewed as a social model and whose verbal responses may be effective rewards. A few students even find that the clear and accurate reflectionof their own problem i~ sufficient for them to resolve their own difficulties without further attention. There are two basic ways of dealing with problems expressed as feelings:

(1). Taking Action Incompatible with Undesired Feeling

A person who feels unwanted and unloved may be perceiving the environment quite accurately. And if he talks about being unwanted and unloved in front of others, he probably drives them away. The general approach a coach can take is to ask, "What could you do that would make at least some people want to have you around and be their friend?" Perhaps most people want to be loved and desired for themselves without the necessity of doing anything to deserve it. The truth of the matter, however, is that we want and love those people who do things we consider to be desirable. We do not usually love those who make us feel guilty, who punish us, who burden us, or who do nothing for us. There are countless ways to be useful and constructive in our society.

Some ways pay money and some do not. Social service and political organizations are always looking for volunteer workers for worthy causes. The goal of helping such people is that they engage in different activities until they find some pattern of behavior that gives them the satisfactions they want. Merely talking about their loneliness will not be sufficient.

Lonely people need to learn to take the initiative in meeting people. What does a lonely person do when he goes to a meeting of some organization or to a church service, for example. Does he merely stand there hoping that someone will come up and make him feel welcome? And would he know what to say if someone did greet him? He might learn to take the initiative and introduce himself to people near him, saying, "Hello, my name is . I'm new here."

People who feel inadequate need to develop skills. No one is inadequate in everything. There are an unlimited number of skills, hobbies, and interests at which one can become proficient. A coach can help a student suffering from feelings of inadequacy to build some competency so that he can be outstanding in at least one small area.

(2). Establishing more Realistic Standards for Comparing Feelings

Feelings of inadequacy are often found, however, among extremely competent persons. Those who are loved may feel unloved, and those with many friends, lonely. Building behaviors incompatible with these feelings is one approach, but for some people it is not sufficient. These people frequently have levels of aspiration unrealistically high and consider their feelings to be quite unique and unshared by others. The truth of the matter is that we all have these feelings of inadequacy and loneliness but seldom do we express such feelings to one another.

Our society does not generally reward the expression of such feelings. In subtle ways it actually punishes the expression of such feelings. Yet, each person knows how he alone feels. Since he hears none of his fellows describing feelings similar to his own, he assumes that his fellows do not share these feelings. Each of us thinks he is alone with his own particular set of unhappy feelings because he has no opportunity to learn that others share these feelings with him.

Perhaps one of the greatest values of coaching -in groups is the opportunity it provides for the sharing of feelings. The discovery that feelings of guilt, hostility, hatred, lust, fear, greed, and selfishness, mixed with desires for love, tenderness, and warmth are shared by his fellows is often a revealing experience for one who previously thought he was alone in these feelings. The goal of coaching is to enable the student and other group members to share their feelings openly with one another so that they can accurately perceive the extent to which these feelings are shared by others.

The problem of unrealistically high aspirations is a difficult one. High aspirations are undoubtedly instilled at an early age by perfectionistic mothers, fathers, and teachers, as well as mass media. To some extent the desire for perfection should not be discouraged, but some people who by objective standards appear to be successful actually lead unhappy lives because no amount of success can ever live up to the standards of perfection they have adopted. The difficulty is that they compare their own successes with those of the most successful people in each field of endeavor. The coach may sometimes help by bringing people like this into closer contact with the real world. Students with such unrealistically high expectations can adopt as their goal behaviors which will enable them to learn about the true range of ability that exists in each of the areas of competency to which they aspire. Discovering the number of people who are less competent, less happy, and less privileged is one possible approach to this problem. ("I cried because I had no shoes until I met a man who had no feet.") The coach must discover ways to help students take constructive steps to accomplish their highest goals, develop alternative plans if necessary, and learn that frustrations and setbacks have always accompanied great accomplishments.

c. The Problem Is the Absence of a Goal

Many people do not know what they want. If they knew what they wanted they would be able to get it, but they are unable to make up their minds about a goal. They are said to be purposeless, alienated, other-directed. Among young people, occupational goals must be decided. Older people may have settled on occupational goals, achieved some measure of success in their occupations, but feel that their lives lack real purpose.

Purposes are made, not born. "Man's chief purpose," wrote Lewis Mumford, "is the creation and preservation of values...this is what gives significance, ultimately, to the individual human life." A life does not have a purpose built into it, a purpose that must somehow be discovered. Instead, people can adopt or construct purposes for their own lives. They can adopt purposes advocated by different political, religious, or social organizations. The purposes one may adopt or construct can include making a million dollars, teaching the blind, eradicating poverty, discovering beauty, stopping war, creating world unity, or finding truth. Most mature individuals have committed themselves to the attainment of some type of goal, in many instances a long-term goal that is in fact incapable of achievement during their own lifetimes. Their goals give purpose and meaning to their lives.

How do people come to adopt or construct goals for their own lives? What kind of experiences lead them to adopt one goal rather than another? People troubled by the absence of a goal might be encouraged to explore how other people have solved this particular problem. They might well be encouraged to experiment with different organizations and causes. They could attend meetings with people and test the goals and procedures of many organizations against their own desires. Reading biographies of key individuals to see how they formed goals for their own lives may often be instructive. The process of exploration must be an active one. The goal of the student is to engage in the type of exploration which will lead him to try on for size an alternative series of goals with the expectation that eventually he will adopt or construct some goal or combination of goals that will give meaning to his life.

d. The Problem Is that the Desired Behavior is Undesirable

The students may desire to achieve goals that the coach is unwilling to help him achieve. In general, it is unwise for coaches to try to sell one choice or another to students facing a given decision. The coach's job is to help the student consider the alternatives and to make sure he is aware of all the consequences for each alternative. The final decision must be made by the student based on his own goals and values.

If the student asks for the opinion of the coach and says, "What would you do if you were in my shoes?", the coach should give a frank recommendation since the request for an opinion is interpreted as a request for information. The student asking for a recommendation is in essence asking for one more bit of information, namely, what would the coach do in his place. The student's attitude should be expressed like this: "In Life Skills I welcome the opinion of my coach, not that I always follow his recommendation, but his opinion is an important factor that I want to take into account in reaching my own decision."

No one can be forced to make a decision contrary to his own best judgment. The coach's job is to help the student investigate and evaluate those factors that will influence his happiness and success

in the years ahead. A thorough exploratory process means the evaluation not only of impartial information, but also a thorough exploration of the opinions of important people in the person's life.

Who is to say what really will make the happiest in the long run? The student must take responsibility for the success of his own decisions. The coach's responsibility ends when he has done all in his power to help the student learn to anticipate the probable consequences and weigh the values to be gained and sacrificed by each of the alternatives being considered.

e. The Problem Is that the Student Does Not Know His Behavior Is Inappropriate

One of the dangers in coaching is that the coach has but one side of the story -- the students version of what is happening. People tend to distort events to place themselves in a more favorable light and to justify their own actions. A coach may be totally unable to determine from the student's account exactly what the student should do in order to overcome the particular difficulty being faced.

Consider the case of an attractive young lady who wants to get married but finds that, although she attracts many dates, no man continues to date her more than three times. She blames the fickle nature of males, wants to know what to do about it, but is totally unable to diagnose the difficulty. The first goal of coaching in this situation would be for the coach to engage in behavior which would enable her to find out exactly what she was doing that was causing men to avoid her The coach might be unable to diagnose the difficulty himself because of his own personal commitments. Yet he must help the student structure a course of action that will enable her to find out what is wrong. Confrontation techniques might be useful. One value of marathon group counseling is that in a relatively short period of time, through enforced contact, members of a group are encouraged to tell one another exactly what they think of each other and share ideas about ways to improve.

Another technique available consists of the use of sociometric devices. for example, in the "guess who" technique students are asked to nominate group members who fit various descriptions. Most people in our society are reluctant to criticize another individual to his face. We seldom communicate our negative opinions directly to the person concerned. We may reject him in various subtle or not so subtle ways, but. almost never do we tell him why we are rejecting him. It is believed (probably quite accurately) that frank, critical evaluations will result in counter-aggression against the one voicing such criticisms. The result of this understandable reluctance is that most people who engage in inappropriate behavior are not aware of exactly what it is they do that causes people to shun them. Diagnosing problems of this type is extremely difficult, but clearly, if the student is to make any improvement, he must know what the difficulty is.

Our three-dates-only student, if she had sufficient "ego strength," could ask one of her girlfriends to interview boyfriends who had deserted her in an endeavor to discover their reasons for doing so. The student could ask that these interview reports be transmitted either to the coach or, depending on circumstances, to herself. But the identification of the difficulty is only the first step. Insight into the problem is seldom sufficient to overcome it. The diagnosis might be that the student is overly possessive, expresses jealousy, becomes bossy, attempts to demonstrate intellectual superiority, or any one of a number of possible behaviors which young men tend to avoid. Once the problem is identified, however, alternative ways of behaving can be learned.

f. The Problem is a Choice Conflict

Another problem that is sometimes difficult to translate into behavioral objectives occurs when the student has a choice conflict - two desirable alternatives, both of which cannot be attained. It is the old problem of wanting to possess the eaten cake. A young man may wish to be promoted in his company and yet not wish to put in the extra effort and time required to do a top-notch job because of pressure from his fellow employees. He sees a conflict between his desire for promotion and his desire to be accepted by his fellow workers. Or a wife may no longer love her husband but may wish to maintain the financial security she enjoys as his wife. She may be torn between wanting to leave her husband and wanting to stay with him.

If requested by the student, the coach's task is to help the student engage in a type of behavior that will enable him or her to resolve the conflict. Usually the student needs help in learning how to decide. The coach might well begin by asking whether all possible alternatives had been considered. In almost every choice conflict there are more than two alternatives available. The ambitious but affiliative young man might well be able to devise ways to accomplish his work well without necessarily antagonizing his peers. The unhappy wife might well be able to devise ways of living somewhat more harmoniously with her husband or may be able to become more financially independent. All possible alternatives must be uncovered and considered. "Brainstorming" by both student and coach may turn up possibilities neither would have thought of alone.

Once the possible alternatives are in the open the student can be encouraged to engage in activities which would test the feasibility of each possible alternative. The ambitious employee may experiment with taking some of his work home. The unhappy wife may try out some activities that she and her husband might enjoy together. The testing of alternative courses of action may eventually lead to a solution that they would find desirable.

g. The Problem Is a Vested Interest in Not Identifying Any Problem

Some students may not even have a problem, but may merely want someone to listen to them talk. People who will listen indefinitely are few and far between, and the discovery that coaches are trained to do just this may seem a godsend to some verbose persons. A coach must decide whether he wishes to have himself used in this manner. A more constructive approach would be to help the student establish friendships of his own, friends who would listen to him -provided, of course, that he in turn learned to listen to them!

The remaining units describe in considerable detail the rationale and methods of implementing various systems of "behavior modification" "behavioral contracting", "contingency contracting" and related topics. Hopefully they will not be necessary. If possible the coach uses intrinsic motivation, group and coach approval, VTR playback, confrontation and feedback etc. If these do not produce desired change then the more manipulative techniques described here can be used. The coach should not allow students to not improve. He must assume a role of the "Friendly Task Master". (Good luck!).

UNIT II: CONSEQUENCES: REWARDS ~ PUNISHMENTS

A. CONSEQUENCES CAN STRENGTHEN OR WEAKEN BEHAVIORS

Events which follow behaviors (consequences) can increase or decrease these behaviors. Those which increase behaviors are rewards and those which decrease behaviors are punishments. No longer following a behavior with a reward also decreases behavior. Whether or not the consequent events increases or decreases behavior is determined by investigation.

B. RULES AND CAUTIONS ABOUT CONSEQUENCES

1. Follow responses the coach wishes to increase with rewarding events (see units III - VII).

2. Follow responses the coach wishes to decrease with punishing events (but see unit VIII).

3. Withholding all forms of reward for a specified time period is a useful form of punishment (see unit VIII).

4. Behavior can be decreased by no longer rewarding it.

5. CAUTION: Generally avoid the use of punishment. Problems can be created when punishment is used in the wrong way. There is more about effective punishment in unit VIII. For now, focus on the use of reward to influence students.

Unit III: KINDS OF REWARDS AND PUNISHMENTS

Unit II stated that rewards can be used to increase and punishers to decrease behavior. Unit III aims to help you identify rewards and punishments, and to teach a rule about how to create new rewards and punishments.

A. UNLEARNED AND LEARNED REWARDS AND PUNISHMENTS

Unlearned rewards, such things as food, candy, toys, water, warmth, activity, and the like usually increase behaviors they follow without having to be paired with an effective reward. Unlearned punishments, such as loud noises, pain-producing events, excessive heat or cold, and like, usually decrease behaviors they follow without having to be associated with an effective punishment first.

Events which at first have no effect on behavior can become effective rewards and punishments. Praise from people like "good job, that's pretty good" become rewards for most people if they are closely followed in time by other "good things" (food, warmth, affection, special privileges, fun activities, pay raises). Similarly, words like "No," "Don't," "Stop that" become punishments if they are closely followed by pain or loss of privileges, etc.

RULE: To make some event (such as praise, a check mark on a chart, or money) a reward, follow them closely in time with effective rewards.

B. SOCIAL REWARDS

Social rewards involve the coach's behavior -- tone of voice, words of praise, feedback, giving attention and smiling. Most coaching is based on the use of social rewards as the immediate consequence for progress.

C. TOKEN REWARDS

Token rewards, another kind of learned reward, consist of such things as points, stars, trading stamps, poker chips, and written promises (IOU's) which have been made rewarding through being paired with other rewards.

Money, a very important token reward in our society, can be exchanged for a variety of rewards. The money by itself is useless. It is only when it is made a basis for obtaining other rewards that it has value. Poker chips quickly acquire value for the gambler. Trading stamps become valuable to the housewife who finds they can be traded for things she wants. In like manner a variety of objects can be made token rewards for people and used to motivate them to do things. The brass ring on the merry-go-round, tickets, bottle caps, and cigarette coupons have at various times been token rewards. Token rewards consist of things given to people which can be collected, saved, and usually exchanged for other rewards.

It can be very useful for a coach to know how to use token and social rewards in developing behaviors necessary for group functioning and individual skill development.

D. ACTIVITY REWARDS

Any preferred behavior can be used to reward less preferred behavior. To find out what is rewarding for any person watch what he chooses to do. If you observe that the children you want to teach to read spend most of their classroom time "running and screaming" you could make a rule: "Sit and listen for two minutes, and I'll let you run and scream." Gradually require longer sitting, listening, and working for less running and screaming.

E. A GENERAL PROCEDURE FOR USING REWARDS

The procedure for teaching that a particular type of behavior leads to an effective reward is to make the reward contingent upon desired and improved performance. If the person performs in the desired way, he gets the pay-off; if not, he does not get it.

F. SUMMARY

1. Events can be made rewarding by closely following them with effective rewards. Praise is made rewarding by pairing praise with food, warmth, and other rewards.

2. Events can be made punishers by pairing them with effective punishers. "NO" followed closely by a hand slap can quickly teach the two-year-old to stop reaching for the lamp when his mother says "No"

3. Three groups of rewards important to a coach are social rewards, token rewards, and activity rewards.

      a. Social rewards involve the coach's behavior -words of praise, attention, smiles, nearness.

      b. Token rewards are things which can be exchanged for other rewards such as money, poker chips, points, IOU's, and gold stars.

      c. Activity rewards are behaviors people like to perform when given a chance. These might include running, games, art activities, singing, eating, sleeping, talking, studying, etc.

4. Any behavior which a person will engage in can be used to reward behaviors which a person will not readily engage in. You simply require that the less preferred activity be performed before the more preferred activity is allowed.

5. The general procedure in using reward is to make the reward contingent upon the occurrence of the desired or imposed response. If the correct behavior occurs, the reward is given; if the correct behavior does not occur, the reward is not given.

UNIT IV: WHEN TO REWARD

There are three important rules about when-to-reward:

1. In teaching new skills reward immediately rather than permitting a delay between the response and reward.

2. In the early stages of learning a skill, reward every correct response. As the behavior becomes stronger, require increased skillfulness before rewarding while gradually shifting to unpredictable intermittent reward.

3. Reward improvement or steps in the right direction. Do not insist on perfect performance on the first try.

A. RULE 1: REWARD IMMEDIATELY

1. What Is Learned Is What Is Rewarded

People behave according to what they are rewarded for. If reward or feedback does not immediately follow the response to be strengthened, then some other response might be rewarded. Any delay in reward or feedback increases the chances that inappropriate or irrelevant behaviors will be learned. Immediate reward is very desirable, but there are ways to get around it when it is not possible.

2. Overcoming the Delay with Words

It is usually possible for the coach to bridge a delay period by using words, simply telling the person exactly what he or she did that was an improvement (or a mistake followed by instructions for improvement).

3. Learned Rewards and Delay of Reward

The principle of immediacy applies to <u>any reward</u>, learned or unlearned. Most of the time people use praise or other social rewards as the immediate rewards. Now and then, the social rewards are paired with a special treat privilege or whatever, to keep them important. Social rewards such as "You're right," "That's good," "That's better," "I like that," are easy to give immediately and are

always at hand. When praise doesn't work, then the coach must learn ways to make praise important for students. This problem is discussed in Unit V.

B. RULE 2: EARLY IN LEARNING, REWARD EVERY RESPONSE. LATER, REWARD SOME OF THE RESPONSES.

Early in learning, rewarding every right response or improvement helps the person learn more efficiently. Rule 2 may be easier to remember in this way: To get it going, reward every time. To keep it going, reward intermittently.

Coaches are most concerned about students learning behaviors and skills which will continue when they are no longer there to reward them and the students are out of the training setting. The behaviors must persist in the absence of direct rewards from the coach and the group. There are some very definite ways in which persistent behaviors can be built. For instance, notice how persistent gambling behavior can be. Even though the odds are against him, and the gambler loses practically every time, he keeps playing and playing and playing. Now and then he wins a little or a lot, but he can never tell whether he is going to win (get rewarded) or not. Games of chance generally involve unpredictable intermittent reward for the players. To build persistence, start by rewarding nearly every response and then gradually reward less and less and in an unpredictable way.

C. RULE 3: REWARD IMPROVEMENT

A school system which gives grades according to a standard level of performance creates the problem that those who know the most to begin with usually get the most reward. Under such conditions, the students who know less to begin with are rewarded less for trying than those who start out knowing more and the system defeats its objectives. Those who need to learn the most are rewarded the least, and thus are likely to "learn" less. This problem can be overcome if coaches focus on rewarding improvement. Coaches thus need to be sensitive to signs of improvement. Rewards should be given for getting better. Catch a student getting better and praise him for this behavior. Do not insist on perfection right off. Remember also that what is a big step for one may just be a small step for another. Another way to think about this point is to reward the student for trying. If he works hard and fails, still tell him you are pleased to see him try. "If you keep trying, you will get

This rule can also be used to get a student to work on his own by first praising the student for completing short tasks, and gradually lengthen the tasks (see unit XI).

D. CAUTIONS:

Do not reward the wrong behaviors: If a behavior is rewarded only now and then, it follows from what is known about intermittent reward, that such behaviors are likely to be persistent. Students can be accidentally trained into bad habits by occasionally giving in, even though the coach "knows better." To change an undesirable behavior, the coach must be very consistent in not rewarding that behavior.

E. SUMMARY

1. Immediate reward is most effective, but delays can be overcome by telling the student what he did that was good.

2. To get it going, reward every time. To keep it going, reward intermittently.

3. Reward improvement.

4. Be careful not to now and then reward undesired behaviors.

UNIT V: USING STRONGER REWARDS: SOME EXAMPLES

A. OVERCOMING SCHOOL AND TRAINING FAILURE WITH TOKEN REWARD SYSTEMS

For many people school work means failure and punishment. They skip school and drop out since school has not paid off for them. Thus, for many the use of strong, obvious, and immediate rewards may be necessary, along with programs which emphasize success. Token reward systems are one way to introduce stronger rewards in the training setting or the home.

The rules for planning a token system are:

1. Use tokens which can be quickly and easily given.

2. Tokens are <u>learned rewards</u> which can be traded for other rewards. A variety of payoffs increases the chances that you have a reward for most students.

3. Reward a lot in the beginning and gradually reward less as the behavior improves.

4. To get off the system, so you won't need it forever, tokens should be paired with praise and affection so that these social rewards will gain rewarding power.

5. With increased skill the activity should become either self rewarding or lead to better payoffs in the students' life.

Tokens have been used successfully where other approaches have failed. The following examples show the power of special rewards.

B. AN AFTER SCHOOL PROGRAM FOR POTENTIAL DROPOUTS

Wolf, Giles and Hall (1968) studied sixteen pupils from two elementary schools located in the low income district of a large U.S. city. The children were enrolled in a remedial program during the summer and after school hours during the regular school year. Comparisons were made with a similar group that went to the regular school but were not involved in a remedial program.

The token reward system used was as follows: The students had cards marked off into squares. The cards were checked by an instructor whenever a student had earned a point. Each checked square was a token. When a child first joined the program, points were given for each problem worked

correctly. As the child did better, the amount and difficulty of the work required to earn points increased. The number of points given for a particular bit of work was determined by the instructor alone or by bargaining with the child.

Filled pages of points could be exchanged for a variety of goods and events, such as a circus, swimming, zoo, daily snacks, candy, soap, novelties; or long-range goals, such as clothes or second-hand bicycles. A number of other contingencies were also used in the program. In some instances, favorite subjects or popular activities could be done only after completion of less favored work. A bonus was given for attendance. Improvement in grades led to a party after each grading period for all students who had improved. The students also received bonus points for reports of good behavior from their regular class teacher.

During each of the prior two years the median gain by the remedial groups on an achievement test of math, reading and other language skills had been .6 years. The gain during the year of the token group was 1.5 years. Comments by the regular teachers suggest that the remedial program benefited the regular classroom as well. Not only were the program children helped, but their increased participation and changed attitudes increased the achievement of other children in the classrooms.

C. AN IN-SCHOOL PROGRAM FOR AN ADJUSTMENT CLASS

Most studies of token programs have used at least one adult for each four or five children. O'Leary and Becker (1967) devised a token program used by one teacher with a classroom of seventeen nine-year-old children working at a beginning first grade level from "disadvantaged homes", who were placed in a special class because they were behavior problems and behind in class work.

Eight of the children averaged seventy-six per cent off task behavior[*"Off task behavior" includes being out of seat, talking out of turn, making noises with objects, talking to peers when it is not permitted, turning away from one's work, and so on. Behaviors that do not involve paying attention to teacher or working at a school task.*] before the token system was started. The teacher had a most difficult time carrying out any procedures which might be considered teaching and would usually leave the classroom worn out. The token program was in effect from 12:30 to 2:00 p.m. each day.

On the first day of the token program, the class rules were placed on the blackboard and the token procedures explained to the children. Small ten-cent notebooks were taped to each child's desk. The children were told that they would receive points in their notebooks each 15 minutes. At each period they could get from one to ten points. A mark of ten meant that they were following the rules very well, while a mark of one indicated that they were not doing their tasks.

The points could be traded for small prizes, such as candy, comics, perfume, and kites. A variety of items was provided to increase the chances that at least one of the items would be a reward for each child.
At first, the tokens were traded in at the end of the token period. Gradually, the children were required to work up to four days before trading tokens and the points required for a prize were increased.
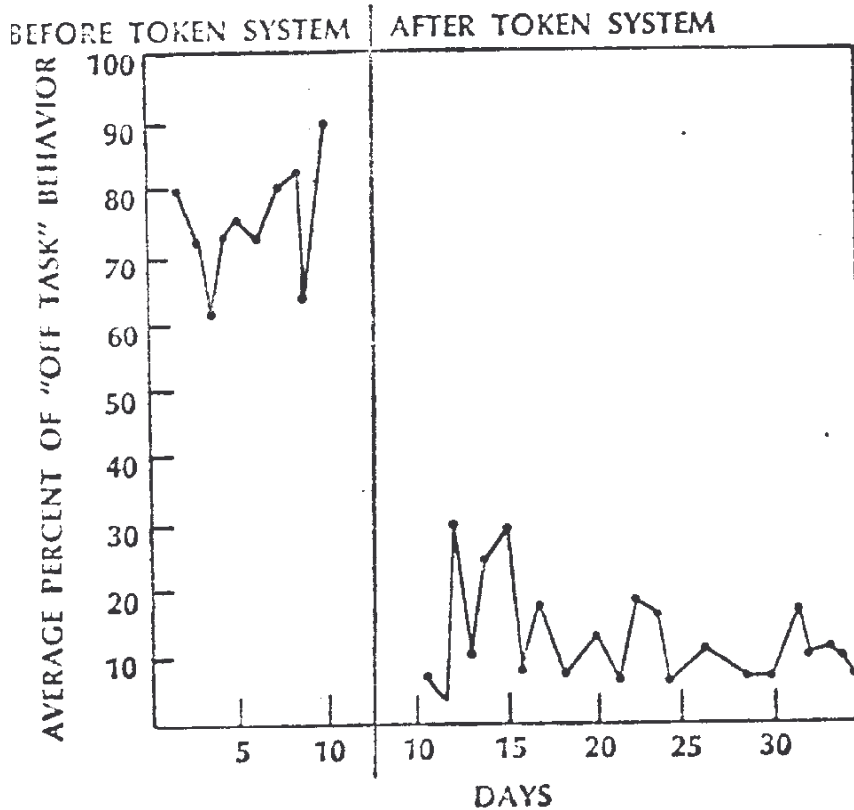
Figure 1: Average percent off task behavior during base and token periods for 8 children.

The results are summarized in Figure 1. Before tokens, the 8 children averaged seventy-six per cent off task behavior. This dropped to ten per cent during the token period. It was now possible to begin to teach. The children quickly learned to respond to the teacher's praise which was paired with the giving of points. The class became the best behaved class in the school; before, it was the worst. The children learned to tolerate delays in trading tokens for prizes. Reports indicated that the children also behaved better in other classroom activities when points were not given, and during music and library. The rewards for the programs cost $86.76 during the eight weeks it was in effect. Rewards appear to be less expensive that psychologists! Eighty dollars would pay for four hours of a psychologist's time.

D. INFORMAL TOKEN SYSTEMS

Here are some procedures tried and found to work in reward systems for individual children.

1. Jimmy was aggressive and did not complete class assignments. The teacher worked out a procedure with his mother. If Jimmy brought a note home each day he worked hard and was cooperative he could watch TV for a specified period that evening; without a note he could not. The note was a token or ticket earned for good classroom behavior which could be traded for the privilege of doing something Jimmy liked to do at home.

2. Aaron, a fourth grade boy, would not get down to work in class, preferring to mess around or play with his friends and was often reported to be aggressive with younger children coming to and from school. Aaron earned check marks, one check for each ten minutes of good working behavior. If he earned ten checks, he could spend thirty minutes in the kindergarten supervising younger boys in the use of carpentry tools. The younger children could use the tools

only when he was there. They liked him to come. Aaron learned to work in the classroom, and work cooperatively with younger children.

3. The problem was how to reduce the fighting among her four boys. Mrs. James solved it by having a family meeting where she suggested that each of the boys could earn "tickets" (pieces of colored paper which they cut themselves.) She would carry the tickets and give them out every so often when she saw the boys were playing nicely. She tried to give between five and ten to each boy each day if he earned it. She watched them when they were in the yard as well as in the house. When she gave tickets, she praised the boys and told them what she <u>saw them doing</u> that she liked: e.g.

"Ken, you helped your young brother get dressed. That's being cooperative." She gave him a blue ticket. "Tom, when you and Ken play together like that on the floor with that card game it pleases me to see you treat each other so nicely." She gave Ken one of his blue tickets, and Tom a green ticket.

Each week the family decided between them what the tickets could be traded for. The first week, twenty-five tickets were traded for a Saturday movie. Each ten beyond that was good for five cents spending money at the movie. The second week, they planned a trip to the zoo. It took twenty tickets to get to go, with the rest of the tickets to be traded for spending money as before.

Mrs. James reported that giving tickets <u>helped her to</u> remember to praise her boys for cooperating, instead of always scolding them after they got into a fight.

4. Lynn sucked her thumb. Mother set up a chart so that Lynn could earn three check marks a day, one before school, one after school, and one after dinner, if no thumb sucking occurred. Each twenty points earned could be exchanged for a ticket to a ride at Kiddie Amusement Park. After the first week showed progress, Mother had Lynn's teacher send home a daily note worth two more points, one for the morning and one for the afternoon. The procedure helped Lynn to remember about her thumb, and she was not sucking it at all two months later.

E. IS IT BRIBERY?

On the first look, the use of rewards with children is sometimes confused with bribery. What is the difference? With children, bribery usually refers to the situation where the child <u>will not do something</u> and the parent says, "Okay, Mary, I'll give you a dime if you'll do the dishes." Mary was supposed to do something and when she failed to do it, her mother "upped the ante" to get her to do it. That is bribery and it is not a good procedure because Mary is being rewarded for not doing what she is supposed to do.

The use of rewards proposed here involves setting up the conditions beforehand in the form of an explicit contract mutually agreed upon. "For these behaviors, you can get these payoffs. For those behaviors, you get those payoffs." People are awarded the payoff if it is earned, and not awarded it if it is not earned. If the terms are right, the person will fulfill his "contract". If the terms are wrong, they will have to revised <u>but not while the person is misbehaving or not performing adequately</u>.

F. SUMMARY

Turned off students are unmotivated students who <u>can</u> become motivated by rewarding them for the things they need to learn to do and the skills they need to practice. There has to be an effective payoff for behavior if the behavior is to persist. If the behavior or skill is not seen as rewarding by the student but will be so in the long run, then the introduction of extrinsic and contrived payoffs is an effective way to build skill until it becomes able to provide it's own payoffs. Where possible reduce or eliminate the use of punishment, except under special conditions covered in Unit VIII. Coaches need to increase their skill in the use of effective rewards.

When praise, attention, and affection do not work as rewards, then more basic unlearned rewards such as food or fun activities must be used.

Several approaches to using token reinforcers have been discussed in unit V. The goal is to get coaches thinking about the many ways they might be able to set up special systems when they appear to be needed.

The key to token systems is to:
1. Have some tokens which are easily given (paper, points, poker chips, marks, money, marbles).

2. Which can be traded for a variety of rewards or rewarding activities.

3. Remember to reward a lot in the beginning, and gradually reward less.

4. Finally, remember to praise when you give out tokens.

References:

O'Leary, K.D., and Becker, W.C.; "Behavior modification of an adjustment class: A token reinforcement program;" <u>Exceptional</u> Children, 1967, <u>33</u>, 637-642.

Wolf, M.M., Giles D.K., and Hall, R.V.; "Experiments with token reinforcement in a remedial classroom;" <u>Behavior Research and Therapy</u>, 1968, <u>6</u>, 51-64.

UNIT VI: WHY PARENTS AND TEACHERS GOOF! THE CRITICISM TRAP

A. THE MORE TEACHERS SAID "SIT DOWN" THE MORE THEY STOOD UP

The study involved a first grade of forty-eight children taught by two teachers. Two rooms were available for the class with a movable wall between them. The children's desks were grouped into six tables of eight children each. They were assigned work to do at their seats, while the two young and capable teachers were teaching reading in small groups.

For six days and for twenty minute time periods two observers recorded the number of children out of their seats during each ten second period and also, the number of times the teachers told the children to sit down, or to get back in their seats. During these first six days about three children

were out of their seats every ten seconds and the teachers would say "sit down" about seven times in a twenty minute period.

Then, some very strange events began to occur. The teachers were asked to tell the children to "sit down" more often. During the next twelve days the teachers said "sit down" 27.5 times each twenty minutes and the children stood up more -- an average of 4.5 children standing every ten seconds.

For the next eight days, the teachers went back to saying "sit down" only seven times in twenty minutes and "out of seat behavior" declined to an average of three times per ten seconds.

Again, the teachers were asked to tell the children to "sit down" more often (twenty eight times in twenty minutes) and the children stood up more again -- four times every ten seconds.

Finally, the teachers were asked to quit telling the children to sit down, but rather to praise sitting and working. They did this well, and less than two children were standing every ten seconds, the lowest standing observed.

What can be going on? How do we explain such happenings? There is one additional puzzling fact. The children actually did sit down when asked by the teacher to do so, so the result wasn't due to a few children standing up a lot.

The teacher's saying "sit down" follows standing up. When the teacher says "sit down" more often, the children stand up more often. When the teacher says "sit down" less often, the children stand up less often. "Sit down" is a rewarding consequence for standing up since "Sit down" is an event following a response which strengthens that response. It is a reward for standing up. But "sit down" also has another effect on the response of sitting. The children do sit down when told to, so "sit down" must also be a signal for sitting.

What a beautiful trap! Imagine, the teacher thinks that telling the children to "sit down" works, because they do sit down. But that is only the immediate effect. The effect on the standing is not seen until later and might be missed unless you learn what to look for. The teacher's words are having exactly the opposite effect on standing from that which she desires. (Madsen, Becker, Thomas, Koser and Plager, 1968).

B. MAKING A "BAD" CLASS OUT OF A GOOD ONE

In another study a "good" class was made it into a "bad" one for a few weeks by having the teacher no longer praise the children. When the teacher no longer praised the children, off-task behavior increased from 8.7 per cent to 25.5 per cent. The teacher criticized off-task behaviors and did not praise on-task behaviors.

When the teacher was asked to increase her criticism from five times in twenty minutes to sixteen times in twenty minutes, the children showed even more off-task behavior. Off-task behavior increased to an average of 31.2 per cent and on some days was above fifty per cent. Attention to the off-task behavior increased it. A return to praising brought back good working behavior. (Thomas, Becker, and Armstrong, 1968).

C. PARENTS GET CAUGHT TOO

Imagine the situation of the parent who tries to teach her child mainly by scolding rather than praising. A child misbehaves, she catches him and scolds him, and he stops for now.

Scolding and criticizing seem to work. <u>The parent is rewarded</u> for scolding, by the child stopping his misbehavior for awhile. She is trapped by being rewarded for scolding but the very same behaviors she does not want may be increased and so it will then be necessary to scold more. It is a trap. Only by clearly seeing what is going on can the parent avoid this trap and behave in ways which will help her child best.

D. CAUTIONS:

1. Criticism does not always work this way. If a coach is using reward and praise for good behaviors, then a little criticism will not hurt. It is only when the <u>main way</u> in which a student gets attention from others is through criticism that we run into the criticism trap.

2. A related trap is giving in. Just as criticism is usually not an effective punishment, other forms of punishment can be made ineffective if used the wrong way. A common fault is to rightly punish, perhaps a little too severely, and then feel sorry and let the student have his way, anyway. This teaches that misbehavior pays off and that punishment is followed by rewards. It may even teach the student to misbehave to get you to punish him so that then you will be nice to him.

E. HOW TO ESCAPE THE CRITICISM TRAP

To escape the criticism trap, it is necessary for the coach to make it possible to praise more and criticize less. This can be done by:

1. Providing for cues or reminders to praise more.

2. Getting practice in how to praise.

3. Making it possible to be rewarded for praising more. (Usually the improvement in your students is the best reward but that may take a little time.)

1. Providing Cues Or Reminders To Praise More

a. <u>The coach could give out</u> <u>tokens to prompt praising</u>. Imagine a situation where a coach has to give out an average of ten tokens each day to four students. Now also imagine that the coach is instructed to tell the students what they did well or improved on to earn the tokens. The stage is set for the coach to deliberately praise at least forty times each day. The tokens, used to cue praising, can produce a great change in a coaching behavior. To use this procedure to learn to praise more, the coach needs only a supply of "things" to pass out and some payoff when they are turned back in. Remember,-the coach must praise when giving out tokens.

b. <u>The coach could put up signs as reminders to praise.</u> Notes stuck up at convenient places can serve as cues to remind the coach what he is trying to do. They

should be specific, mentioning students and the behaviors for both the coach and the students.

2. Getting Practice In How To Praise

Some people need help in learning how to be good praisers. (Unit VII provides ideas for praising and using other rewards). The key is to think about all the situations where one now criticizes a lot, and figure out what would be the positive way to deal with those situations. An example, provided to give an idea about what is meant by practicing how to praise, would be when Jimmy comes running into the house for dinner and throws his coat on the floor and leaves the door open. What can a parent do besides shouting at him? They might say: "Jimmy, we would be glad to have you join us for dinner after you close the door and hang up your coat." Then thank him when he does those things.

3. Getting Rewarded For Praising More

Usually when one starts being more positive with others, they get more positive with us. When one praises others more, they are likely to do things which please you more. It is also possible to ask those around you to say nice things to you for praising more.

However, it sometimes takes a "little doing" to get things started. As an exercise for the coming week, the coach could record how often he praises and criticizes during a specific time of the day and then next week see if he can change that. The exercise sets up a method to help keep a daily check on progress. Actually, seeing that a desired change is taking place is a good reward for most people. (see the exercise described at the end of this unit).

F. SUMMARY

The criticism trap consists of thinking criticism works because the criticized behavior stops for a bit, when in fact the criticized behavior is being strengthened. This is most likely to happen when most of the attention received from others is in the form of criticism and punishment.

One can escape the criticism trap by:

1. Providing cues or reminders to praise more.

2. Getting practise in how to praise.

3. Making it possible to be rewarded for praising more.

While this unit has emphasized increasing praise behavior as a way out of the criticism trap, actually it is a special case of increasing the use of reward generally and reducing the use of criticism and punishment. The next unit deals with how to reward.

References:

Madsen, Jr., C.H., Becker, W.C., Thomas, D.R., Koser L., and Plager L.; "An analysis of the reinforcing function of 'Sit Down' commands," in R.K. Parker (ed.) Readings in Educational Psychology, Allyn and Bacon, 1968.

Thomas, D.R., Becker, W.C., and Armstrong, M.; "Production and elimination of disruptive classroom behavior by systematically varying teacher's behavior"; Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 1968, 1 35-45.

EXERCISE: A STUDY OF PRAISING AND CRITICIZING BEHAVIOR

This is a two-part project. For the first part you will only be recording how often you praise. During the second part you will be using one of the methods described in this unit and the information in the next unit to increase your praise behavior. A recording sheet is provided on the next page.

Steps to take:

1. Define The Behaviors To Be Counted.

We want you to count praise comments and critical comments.

> Praise Comments: Any statements of affection, approval, interest, or praise directed to a student, your spouse, the family, the children, friends, workers, etc. Examples: "good job", "Thanks", "nice", "great", "well done", "I'm proud of you" "that's interesting".

> Critical Comments: Any statements of complaint, criticism, wrongdoing, such as: "no", "don't", "cut it out", "wrong", "stop that", "grow up", "act your age", "don't be silly", "smart alec", "bad boy", "what did you do now ?"

2. Decide How To Count Them. Possible methods are:

> a. Have a paper and pencil beside you and make a mark after P or after C each time they occur.

> b. Instruct your spouse to count them for you. A high school aged child could also do this with practice.

> c. Borrow a tape recorder and tape the time period to count it later.

3. Decide On A Time And Place.

Try to pick a period each day when you are interacting with people for at least ten minutes. Count your praise and criticism each day for the same period of time, ten minutes, fifteen minutes, or twenty minutes. We would suggest dinner time as a good possibility, but you are free to choose another time.

4. Each Day Record Your Counts On The Report Form. (see below). Graph the results.

5. Bring Your Results To The Next Group Meeting (If you are working with a group.)

(The next instructions for this project are provided at the end of Unit VII).

REPORT FORM

Name: _____.
Time of day: _____.
Activity: _____.

DATE	PRAISE	CRITICISM	DATE	PRAISE	CRITICISM
1.			8.		
2.			9.		
3.			10.		
4.			11.		
5.			12.		
6.			13.		
7.			14.		

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19

Observation Days

x = number of praise comments
o = number of critical comments

UNIT VII: HOW TO REWARD

Using rewards effectively is a skilled art. Somehow, by the way in which the coach behaves he has to get the group members to improve their behavior and increase their skills rather than behaving because they are afraid of him. There are two big steps on the road to being a successful rewarder of students.

STEP 1 involves getting out of the criticism trap. This may require lots of practice with new ways of reacting in situations where criticism was used in the past. The coach must take the role of an actor playing at being a positive person until he IS that person. In this unit some materials and exercises are provided to increase skills in using social and activity rewards which can also be helpful in learning to escape the criticism trap. Remember also that token rewards can be used to deal with many problems and to cue praising.

STEP 2 involves learning to communicate emotionally(letting people know you care for them and are interested in them as you coach them.) with students while giving rewards or feedback. The coach must be aware that rewards can be misused in that he can get a student to improve but at the same time convey an uncaring attitude. Social activity, and token rewards can be used skillfully or they can be misused. When used skillfully they are hardly even noticed.

A. SOCIAL REWARDS

Social rewards include words of praise, expressions and gestures, nearness, and physical contact. The first step in learning to be a good social rewarder is to identify, study, and practice a variety of ways of producing potential social rewards.

1. Varieties Of Social Rewards

a. Possible Praising Words and Phrases

Good	You really pay attention
That's right	Thank you
Excellent	I'm pleased with that
That's clever	Great
Exactly	Groovy
Good job	I like that
Good thinking	I love you
That shows a great deal of work	That's interesting
That was very kind of you	You've really improved a lot

b. Expressions and Gestures

Smiling	Looking interested
Winking	Laughing
Nodding up and down	Clapping
Eye Contact	

c. <u>Nearness</u>

      Walking together
      Talking and listening to each other
      Eating together
      Playing games with the person

d. <u>Physical Contact</u>

Touching	Shaking hand
Stroking arm	Patting head, shoulder, or back
Hugging	Holding hand

2. Making Praise Work: Make Praise Descriptive: Praise The Behavior, Not The Whole Person

Often what the coach considers praise may not be seen that way by the student. Just think how you feel when someone tells you how great you are when you really felt nothing of the sort. A student who has been repeatedly told he is stupid and who has often failed is not likely to jump with joy when a coach tells him, "You are smart." The praise words do not fit with his own feelings. On the other hand, if this same student has been working hard for twenty minutes to bring up many ideas on leisure time in a brainstorming session and previously he had great difficulty contributing to the group, he might believe a statement like this: "You really gave us a lot of good ideas while we brainstormed. I think you really have made lots of progress in contributing your ideas in Life Skills. Today was one of your best days". These words describe what the student did and show appreciation by the attention the coach gives to the student's work or behavior. It's usually better to make praise descriptive rather than judging.

The less the coach knows about a student the more likely descriptive praise will be effective and judging praise will miss the mark. However, it is also possible to make judging words such as, "Good." "Great", "That's clever" effective for students by initially pairing such words with descriptions of what the student did to earn such praise. By providing many clear examples and descriptions of good working, good listening, good talking, good responding, good thinking, or being helpful coaches can teach students what they mean by such praise statements so that they are no longer empty words. The steps for the coach to improve his "praising behavior" are:

    a. Simply describe what the student did that was good.

    b. Associate such descriptions with short praise words.

    c. Use a mixture of short words and gestures to signify improvement or correctness, mixed in with more detailed behavior descriptions.

B. ACTIVITY REWARDS

Any preferred activity can be used to reward a less preferred activity. Next to the use of praise, the use of rewarding activities is the most readily available motivating tool the coach has. Yet so often, the coach throws them away, or gives them away for free.

Often a coach may want to teach students the general rule that "Learning more mature or helpful behaviors has a payoff." The coach does this by constantly talking about new examples of this general rule. Instead of just allowing time off or coffee breaks, <u>set it up so that the student has earned a privilege by behaviors he has learned which are more helpful or</u> <u>skillful.</u> Use activities the student likes as rewards for desired behaviors.

POSSIBLE ACTIVITY REWARDS (PRIVILEGES)

Seeing a movie	Going on field trips
Having a party	Having a party
Watching TV	Coffee breaks
Doing art work related to studies	Going outdoors for
Listening to music	activities
Making construction projects	Sleeping
Playing games with friends	Smoking

C. SUMMARY

1. Learning how to reward involves:

   a. Getting out of the criticism trap by learning positive ways of handling situations in which the coach was critical in the past.

   b. Learning to use rewards in ways which assures students that the coach is fond of them and likes them.

2. Most students are (or can be taught to be) responsive to praise, affection, and other social rewards. The coach needs to know a variety of ways of telling or showing students they are doing well.

3. There are a host of activities which are rewarding for students. The coach needs to know about these and how to use them as reward.

4. In using praise to reward behavior, the coach should describe, not judge; praise the behavior, not the student as a whole.

5. There are a large number of everyday events such as eating, playing, and going places which can be used by the coach to reward desired behaviors in students. The coach needs to get in the habit of using these events as consequences for desired behaviors.

6. If you must remind a student of a mistake or error, find something to praise first. This leaves little doubt about your liking for him. He is ready to listen to you.

7. Giving a choice between alternatives acceptable to the coach is one way of ruling out alternatives unacceptable to the coach without seeming to be punishing.

EXERCISE: INTRODUCING A PROCEDURE TO INCREASE PRAISE AND REDUCE CRITICAL COMMENTS (A continuation of project from Unit VI)

By now, you should be completing several days of recording your behavior using one of the procedures presented in Unit V. You should also have determined the behaviors to be recorded method of recording, and the time of recording. You are now ready to complete the program.

Steps to Take:

1. SELECT one of the change procedures from Unit VI.

2. WRITE OUT below your change plan and begin to follow it during the time when you are recording your praise behavior.

3. BRING YOUR RESULTS to the next group session.

CHANGE PLAN

Describe in outline the procedure to be used to increase praise and decrease criticism:

UNIT VIII: WHEN, HOW, AND WHY NOT TO (USUALLY) PUNISH

A. DEFINITION OF PUNISHMENT

Events which follow behaviors and decrease the future rate of such behaviors are called <u>punishers.</u> In general, we learn not to make responses which are punished. When we control consequent events to weaken the behavior of others, we talk about the process as <u>punishment</u>.

The topic of punishment probably generates more emotion, confusion, and misunderstanding than any other area. People have been told they should not use punishment because it doesn't work or it only produces temporary effects. Some believe it immoral to use punishment under any circumstances. Some believe we should ban the word from the English language, as if that would somehow make people more loving.

B. DOES PUNISHMENT WORK?

The answer is "Yes" since there are many consequences which can be shown to weaken behavior. The belief that punishment does work arises from observations that when punishment is stopped the punished behavior returns, but the same is true of reward and no one questions whether it works. As long as a behavior is rewarded, it occurs at a high rate; when it is removed, the rate decreases. Thus both reward and punishment work and in some ways are opposites of each other.

Most of the rules about rewards also apply to punishment, except we are talking about <u>weakening</u> rather that <u>strengthening</u> behavior. That is, punishment is more effective when it is immediate; it is more effective when it is intense or given in greater quantity; and the effects of punishment last longer when it is unpredictable and intermittent.

There is no question that it is possible to use punishment to produce strong and lasting effects on behavior. <u>However, that doesn't mean we should do so</u>. The coach will have almost no occasion when aversive punishment can be used effectively. Should the occasion arise, however, he should know what he is doing and the best approach to take under the circumstances. Other matters need to be considered in deciding about when and where to use punishment.

C. IS THE USE OF PUNISHMENT IMMORAL?

Some believe that hurting people in any way is evil. The advocates of unconditional love are often from the mental health professions, where they have rightfully learned that many problems of people stem from cruel treatment by others or a deprived environment. Rightfully, they see the need for much positive care in helping such person. Consider this situation, however: A child must be kept tied down in bed whenever left alone (nighttime, for example) to prevent him from digging into his flesh and cutting a blood vessel. Suppose that by applying an electric shock(about as painful as a doctor's needle) every time the child begins to hurt himself, this behavior could be eliminated in three days. What is the moral thing to do: to use punishment to get rid of a behavior which has completely restricted this child's chances of a normal life, or to cuddle him and be kind to him each time he begins to hurt himself, thus rewarding his self-destructive behavior?

Punishment does work and can be used to change undesired behaviors. When the long-term effects from the use of punishment lead to far more good than the failure to use punishment, the moral person will do what is best for the person and use punishment. It would be immoral not to do everything possible to help people learn what is needed to live freely in society. There are few mothers of two-year-olds who question the use of punishment when necessary to keep their child from being hurt or killed by automobiles, knives, gas, or fire. The use of punishment, *per se,* is not immoral, even though punishment may be used in ways which are harmful.

D. WHY IS PUNISHMENT TO BE AVOIDED, USUALLY?

Punishment involves presenting aversive consequences (e.g. humiliation, ridicule) or <u>withdrawing</u> rewarding consequences (e.g. taking away privileges). Coaches should usually avoid aversive punishments like humiliation, not because they can't be made to work, but because they cause undesirable results. Coaches want students to feel free to talk, to ask for help, to discuss problems, and the like. This goal is inconsistent with a major effect of punishment, namely, <u>learning to avoid and escape from those who punish.</u> Here are some avoidance and escape behaviors that students learn with respect to punishment:

CHEATING: avoiding punishment that goes with being wrong.

ABSENCE: avoiding or escaping punishments of unpleasant peers, personal failure and humiliation, boredom, punitive administration and management, etc.

RUNNING AWAY: escaping punishments used by parents, spouses, guards, peers, etc.

LYING: avoiding punishment following wrong doing.

SNEAKING: avoiding being caught "misbehaving".

HIDING: avoiding being caught.

Another reason for not using aversive punishment is that it shows people how to be aggressive. People imitate or model what they see others doing. Children whose parents show much aggression towards them in the form of punishment are more aggressive with other children.

E. HOW DOES ONE USE PUNISHMENT EFFECTIVELY?

Punishment teaches negative attitudes (hate and fear) toward, and avoidance of, the punishing person. Therefore, effective punishment must do at least four things:

　　1. Prevent avoidance and escape from the punisher.

　　2. Undo or avoid teaching the person a hateful attitude towards the punisher.
\
　　3. Reduce the need for later punishment.

　　4. Not provide a model of aggressive behavior.

As an example in a child rearing setting, consider the following:

Peter's mother used punishment effectively by placing him in his room with the door closed until he was quiet for five minutes. She used this only six times the first week and his behavior changed greatly. Positive responses to her increased after his demanding and aggressive behaviors were punished. She eliminated his objectionable behavior while improving the love between Peter and herself.

Look at what she did in view of the four points just listed.

L. Preventing Avoidance And Escape From The Punisher

　　Instead of spanking Peter, which might drive him away from her, she put Peter in his room where he could no longer get attention from her. By using a form of punishment consisting of taking away rewards (attention, in this case), she structured the situation so that Peter had to come back to her for reward. Furthermore, she was not associated with strong, painful, or fear-producing punishers. Peter returned to his mother as a rewarder rather than a punisher to be feared.

Generally, taking away rewards as a punishment can be effective <u>as long as there are clear-cut steps provided for earning</u> <u>the reward back.</u> Peter could earn his mother's attention back by by being quiet for five minutes. Taking away rewards for awhile provides one way to get around the problem posed by avoidance and escape behaviors. Another way to get around the problem is to be sure that the person cannot escape the punisher. This is only possible with very young children or in prisons. The coach seldom has this kind of control and should therefore usually avoid all aversive punishment. Also this approach can produce strong fears and hate.

2. Undoing Or Preventing A Hateful Attitude Toward The Punisher

a. Undoing possible hate

Peter's mother gave much attention and affection for co-operative behaviors. Being with mother was rewarding and positive contacts with mother were increased. Even if Peter did not like being alone in his room, he did like being with his mother and Peter could make this happen by being quiet for five minutes.

b. Preventing hate

Peter's mother did two things to reduce resentment or hate. First, she punished by taking away rewards (attention) rather than by hitting him which would build hate rather quickly and strongly. Secondly, she did not get angry when punishing but remained calm while putting him in his room. Punishing in anger is likely to increase the hate feelings in the person being punished.

Thus, by not using physical punishment, and by not punishing in anger, she was able to keep Peter's resentment at a low level. By being warm and praising for acceptable behaviors, she showed Peter that she really liked him even if it was necessary to punish him at times.

3. Reducing The Need For Later Punishment

Peter's mother did three things to reduce the need for later punishment.

a. She gave a warning signal before punishing Peter so that soon just the warning was enough to get him to behave. Saying "stop that" had become a learned punisher because it was followed by punishment several times.

b. She rewarded behaviors incompatible with his bad behaviors. Peter could receive lots of attention from Mother by being good so he was taught ways of getting his mother's attention that did not require him to be bad.

c. She made sure that she did not reward Peter's objectionable behaviors. If the same behaviors are sometimes rewarded and sometimes punished, it is much more difficult to get rid of them.

In sum punishment is not needed when a child has learned to be good or when he has learned to stop misbehaving when given a gentle warning.

4. Do Not Provide A Model Of Aggressive Behavior

Peter's mother also followed this rule in her choice of punishments.

F. RULES TO REMEMBER: Effective Punishment:

    1. is given immediately.

    2. relies on taking away rewards and provides a clear-cut method for earning them back.

    3. makes use of a warning signal, usually words.

    4. is carried out in a calm, matter-of-fact way.

    5. is given along with much reward for behaviors incompatible with the punished behavior.

    6. is consistent. Reward is not given for the punished behaviors.

G. WHEN SHOULD PUNISHMENT BE USED?

There are three situations where punishment may be needed because reward is likely to fail or be costly. These are:

    1. When a problem behavior occurs so often there is no good behavior to reward.

    2. When the nature or intensity of the problem behavior leads to serious questions of safety for the person or others.

    3. When the use of reward is not effective because other more powerful rewards are causing the problem behavior.

1. High Rate Behavior

With a few children the only way they know of interacting with other children is by hitting, pushing or fighting. They do not know how to play. A warning followed by being placed in a room by themselves for a few minutes if they fail to stop hitting helps reduce aggression but it is also necessary to teach them how to play nicely -- how to take turns, share, and win and lose -- otherwise it might be necessary to use punishment forever.

2. Questions Of Safety

Earlier there was the example of the child who dug into his own flesh and was punished with a mild shock to stop this behavior. The child might have killed himself before his behavior could have been changed by using rewards. Correctly used, punishment can train people quickly to stop certain behaviors.

It is important that a young child learn not to go into the streets until he can be taught to cross streets safely. A parent cannot afford to take the time to reward the child when he is not in the street and not reward him when he is in the street. A simple "No. We don't go into the streets," followed by one or two quick swats on the fanny can teach this lesson quickly. At the same time, the parent should reinforce staying out of the street.

A similar approach may be necessary with stoves, knives, poisons, matches, guns, and the like. For the very young child (under 18 months) careful watching and keeping dangerous things away from him is the best route. When the child can understand words and is walking well, the child is safer if he has been taught to avoid such dangers. The key to teaching is to follow the rules for effective punishment and use a brief physical punishment <u>following</u> the warning words. For example, if a child starts to reach for a pan of boiling water on the stove, say, "No. Hot," and slap his hand quickly, or take his hand and <u>briefly</u> touch it to the side of the hot pan.

H. SUMMARY

CAUTION: When you must use aversive punishment, be smart about it. Make sure it teaches the student to <u>avoid the danger, not you</u>. Effective punishment is given <u>immediately</u>, uses a <u>warning signal</u>, is carried out in <u>calm manner</u>, and is specifically <u>aimed</u> at a dangerous behavior you want to stop.

Punishment is an effective method for changing behavior. However, because the student punished may learn to avoid and escape from the punisher, this in not usually a preferred method. There are situations usually involving very intense or very frequent problem behaviors where the use of punishment is the most humane thing that can be done. When punishment must be used, care must be taken to ensure its effectiveness and to minimize the development of avoidance behaviors. Effective punishment: is given immediately, relies on withdrawal of rewards and provides clear steps for regaining them, makes use of a warning signal, is carried out in a calm, matter-of-fact way, is accompanied by much reward for behavior incompatible with the behavior being punished and uses procedures to make sure that undesired behaviors do not receive rewarding.

UNIT IX: REASONS, RULES, REMINDERS, CONTRACTS AND COMMITMENTS

A. CIRCUMSTANCES OF REWARD/PUNISHMENT.

Reasons, rules, reminders, contracts and commitments structure and define the context of behavior. They help make explicit the many implicit mutual expectations in interaction. When group members can come to an agreement on the ground rules of interaction in such a way that each person commits himself to these rules, the process of group development is facilitated (made more clear and hastened). For the type of group process used in the Life Skills Course and the type of students typically involved in Life Skills, this will probably be of great benefit. The orientation in Life Skills is skill development and the process is only partially a discovery process; i.e., there is not enough time to allow the group to discover and create by itself the repertoire of helpful group behaviors. Thus the behaviors are more or less specified but the group must discover what they mean in terms of their personal behavior and situation, i.e., how best to apply the rules and directions for effective group functioning.

The complete rule about "what is learned" states: The student learns to do, <u>under a given set of conditions</u>, what is rewarded. <u>A student learns both what to do and when to do it</u>. Reasons, rules, contracts, commitments and reminders help the student learn <u>when</u> he is supposed to do <u>what</u>; or, in the case of punished behaviors, when he is not supposed to do what.

The longer range goal is for a student to guide his own behavior, make good decisions, reason clearly about choices and consequences, fulfill commitments, solve problems on his own, and plan

ahead. When a student learns the rules about consequences of his own behaviors, he can make better decisions for himself when a coach is not there.

By giving reasons for actions students begin to "reason out" the consequences of their own behavior. Learning the words that connect actions with the consequences allows the student to know in advance what the consequences will be and, therefore, make better choices.

The steps involved in learning the rules of reward/punishment contingencies:

1. The student should be told what he <u>did</u> that earned a reward, or punishment.

2. After a student has been given or experienced many examples of reasons for reward or punishment, begin to ask him to state reasons using complete sentences describing the situation -- get detail to ensure he has a good understanding.

3. When the student is able to describe reasons for specific behavior, begin to work on more general rules for behavior.

4. When the student has learned some general rules for behavior, use them to make plans about actions to be taken.

B. SOME RULES ABOUT MAKING AND USING RULES AND COMMITMENTS

Clear rules for behaving facilitate the progress of the learning/helping group in Life Skills training and also make day-to-day living easier. Students should learn the rules for living comfortably with others in and out of training: how to be helpful, cooperative, responsible, clean, healthy, and so forth. By spelling out the rules, coaches and other group members are in a position to know when to reward, ignore, or punish. Rules provide guides to group members in being consistent in the process of Life Skills training. Rules also help students remember what is expected of them, since many actions are summarized in the rule.

1. Making Rules And Commitments

a. <u>Where possible, rules and commitments should be short, stated positively, and easy to remember.</u>

b. <u>Rules and commitments should specify a behavior and a consequence</u>.

<u>This Way</u>:
Goals must be achieved before you can have coffee

<u>Not This Way</u>:
Goals must be achieved each day

c. <u>Rules and commitments should be stated so that they can be easily enforced</u>

(1). <u>It should be easy to know whether the rule or commitment was followed or not</u>.

When it states the details of what has to be done, the student cannot make excuses for doing half of the job. You know it was done or it was not done. Vague rules and commitments are not enforceable. They must be specific about what is to be done.

<u>This Way</u>	<u>Not This Way</u>
You agreed to increase your contribution to the group before you went to coffee. That is, you must look at the people when talking, ask questions when you don't understand, and give your ideas and opinions.	You have to contribute more if you want a coffee break.

(2). <u>The consequences for following the rule or commitment</u> should be easily applied and known to be rewarding.

(3). <u>The consequences for not following the rule or commitment should be easily applied and known to be effective</u>.

 d. <u>Be sure the rule or commitment can be learned and is seen as reasonable</u>.

2. Using Rules And Commitments

 a. <u>Start new rules and commitments one at a time</u>. Get one rule or commitment going before starting a new one.

 b. <u>When a rule or commitment is broken, ask the student to state the rule or agreement as part of the correction.</u> Many times, just reminding the student what the rule or agreement is can stop the undesired behavior.

 c. <u>When a rule or commitment is broken, if possible, have the correct behavior performed before the student does anything else.</u>

 d. <u>Use reminders to teach following rules and adhering to commitments and then fade them out</u>. Reminders might consist of signs, notes, charts, check lists, or words spoken before the task is to be undertaken.

 e. <u>Ignore protests about agreed upon rules and commitments</u>. The coach should not get trapped into arguing about the "fairness" or "reasonableness" of a rule or commitment; he should not get trapped into making one exception after another. The coach behaves with the attitude "You agreed to do that so do it!" and stay firm, determined, calm and collected.

Protests are likely at first when there is a change from one approach to another i.e., when students discover that they are expected to fulfill their commitments and follow the rules they set up. Expect such protests, but he prepared to wait them out. They will go away if not reinforced by "giving in," "giving lots of attention to them" or "arguing about them."

C. FOLLOWING INSTRUCTIONS AND FULFILLING COMMITMENTS

Most coaches want students to do what they agreed to do or what they committed themselves to do without a lot of fuss and bother. However, coaches also do not want a fearful student who will follow any kind of authority figure. Use these rules:

1. Use positive consequences to teach students to fulfill their behavioral commitments. Minimize the use of threats and punishments.

2. Do not ask a student to do something unless you really want him to do it. Get a commitment from him if possible. Be prepared to insist on it by waiting until it is done.

To teach a student to follow instructions or fulfill commitments you start by asking him to commit himself to do things you know he can do and even likes doing. You then praise him or reward him in other ways for doing as he was asked or as he promised. The next step is to ask him to do more difficult things or things which are more like work. Slowly have him increase the task effort required, but continue to reinforce success. Finally, make reward intermittent and unpredictable.

D. SUMMARY

The complete rule about "what is learned" says: The student learns to do, under a given set of conditions, what is rewarded. Reasons, rules, reminders and commitments help the student learn when to do what, or when not to do something. They also help the student learn to manage his own behavior.

Helping the student to learn to reason about his behavior is accomplished in steps:

1. At first the student is told what he did to earn a reward or punishment.

2. Next, he is asked to describe the reasons for reward or punishment.

3. When the student can describe reasons for specific behaviors, tie these into more general rules about behavior.

4. When general rules for behavior have been learned these can be used to plan about actions to come.

Rules not only provide guides in helping students remember what is expected of them and what they committed themselves to; they also help the coaches and group members to be consistent in Life Skills training.

Making Rules and Commitments

1. Where possible (and it is not always possible or desirable,) they should be short, stated positively and be easy to remember.

2. They should specify a behavior and a consequence.

3. They should be stated so that they can be easily enforced.

    a. It should be easy to know whether the rule or commitment was followed or not.

    b. The consequences for following the rule or commitment should be easily applied and known to be rewarding.

    c. The consequences for not following the rule or commitment should be easily applied and known to be effective.

4. Be sure they can be learned or fulfilled and are seen as reasonable.

Using Rules and Commitments

1. Start them one at a time.

2. When broken, ask the student to state the rule or commitment he broke.

3. When broken, have the correct behavior performed if possible.

4. Use reminders to teach following rules and adhering to commitments, and then fade them out.

5. Ignore protests about agreed upon rules and commitments as long as you are sure they are reasonable.

UNIT X: PLAN OF ACTION FOR BEHAVIOR CHANGE

The six steps in a complete program of behavior change are:

1. Observe (pinpoint a behavior)

2. Record (establish a base line)

3. Decide on a goal

4. Reward

5. Record (establish the direction ~ amount of change)

6. Evaluate

The plan can be used either by a coach alone to change the behavior of a student or by the coach in combination with the student and the group. The purpose, in either case, is to change behavior in a improved direction. The plan is first discussed and described in the context of a coach initiating and directing the behavior change on his own. Then an alternate approach is presented involving the whole group in developing each students' plan of behavior change. The latter approach is preferred since it helps the whole group develop as a learning/helping force and avoids the danger of the coach going on his "power trip" and becoming over-impressed with his own power and wisdom.

A. COACH DETERMINED PLAN

1. Observe (Pinpoint A Behavior)

Any coach wishing to change behavior must watch the student in the training setting and isolate (pinpoint) a behavior he is going to help with. He must ask himself this question while watching: "What is the student doing right, even if it's in small amounts?" (think positive) If the student is doing nothing correctly, he asks, "What is the student doing incorrectly that I can change around and SHOW HIM/HER how to do correctly?" Make sure the student <u>can</u> do what is required.

2. Record (Establish A Base Line)

It is very desirable for the coach to keep records of the target behavior, otherwise the procedures for change will be subject to vagueness and "slippage." Also the coach might not remember what happened the previous day. Besides, there is nothing like "hard-nosed" data to prove a point.

In order to record something you have to be able to measure or count it. Two very simple ways to measure and record behavior are by recording: How many times it occurs (frequency, number, amount) and/or How long it occurs (durations, length, time). Sometimes either can be used and one has to choose the most accurate, convenient or useful method.

Observing and recording should occur over a sufficient period of time to obtain an accurate and representative measure of the behavior selected. This is important because behavior varies and if one just happens to observe on a "bad day" the amount or quality of behavior observed and recorded will not be an accurate reflection of the student's usual behavior.

If an inappropriate behavior, is pinpointed which should be decreased, then an appropriate behavior to increase must be given at the same time. Do not leave the student in a vacuum; let him know what is expected and more desirable. The coach always tries to increase appropriate behavior, not <u>just</u> decrease inappropriate behavior.

3. Decide On A Goal

Deciding on a goal involves being realistic about what is to be aimed at for the short-run since you do not want to discourage the student by setting unreachable goals. It is better to make the goal a little easier at first if the coach is not sure of the student's ability. A goal gives both the coach and the student something to "shoot for," giving direction to the efforts of both and telling when both have succeeded. Have the student make a decision about the goal based upon your observations of what the student is doing now. Involve the student in this decision as much as possible and get a commitment from him to reach his goal.

4. Reward Principles

These principles summarize the discussion in Units II through IX.

a. REWARDED BEHAVIOR TENDS TO BE REPEATED

Behavior is rewarded if: The results of the behavior are satisfying or desirable to the student; There are verbal, or other signs of approval given for it by others; The student gets what he wants from the behavior; The student avoids something unpleasant.

A student will tend to repeat a behavior that is rewarded or rewarding. Behavior is controlled by giving or taking away reward.

In many instances the problem lies in the fact that inappropriate behavior is the rewarded behavior. All behavior, whether appropriate or inappropriate, will tend to be repeated if rewarded. The trick is to reward appropriate behavior AND not to reward inappropriate behavior.

b. REWARD AS IMMEDIATELY AS POSSIBLE.

Whenever possible the coach should reward the student's behavior immediately or as soon as possible after he performs the desired behavior. He must be able to see the relationship between the behavior and the reward. Behavior, both good and bad, goes on continuously. If reward is not immediate there may be a possibility that inappropriate behaviors may also be rewarded. The closer the reward to the behavior the more powerful the meaning it conveys. Sometimes it is impossible to reward immediately after the behavior. The coach makes the best of the situation by bridging the delay with other learned rewards and feedback. In general when the coach rewards behavior it must be done as immediately as possible.

c. GRADUALLY SHAPE THE BEHAVIOR.

In many instances what the student should do is rather different from what he is or has been doing. If the coach asks for too much of the desired behavior he will discourage the student because the task is too big and overpowering; it might not appear worth the reward to make such a big change. It might also be that he cannot perform the required behavior at this point. The coach must get the "feel" for how much behavior change the student can do at any given time.

It is most important to make sure that the student can perform some approximation to the desired behavior and receive a reward. Start with where he is, behaviorally, now. Reward him for what he is doing correctly now and then gradually require more (in amount or quality) behavior to get the rewards. This way the student gains confidence in himself since he can perform the behavior, show improvement and be rewarded.

d. CHARACTERISTICS OF GOOD MANAGEMENT OF THE REWARD ENVIRONMENT.

In order to shape a student's behavior the coach, as manager of the reward environment, must:

∞   be objective

∞   be consistent

∞   select clear cut rules

∞   select appropriate and agreed upon rules

∞   emphasize what the student is doing correctly, rather that incorrectly.

(1) The Coach Must Be Objective.

To be objective the coach has to ask the following questions regarding his behavior with the student:

∞   exactly what is happening at this moment?

∞   how do I feel about the situation?

∞   if the student was someone I had never met before and I were asked to suggest a course of action after observing, what would I suggest?

∞   putting everything else aside, how can I help this student achieve the desired goal?

Also to be objective, the coach asks the following questions about the behavior of the student:

∞   what is his behavior at this moment?

∞   what is the appropriate behavior for this situation?

∞   what difference is there between these two?

∞   is there any way I can capitalize on his behavior to guide him in performing the appropriate behavior? how?

∞   DO IT !!

(2) The Coach Must Be Consistent.

Consistency means absolute constant adherence to the clear cut agreement. To the student it means that he now knows exactly what to expect if his behavior is not of a certain specified nature; that he must face the consequences if he does not perform the exact behavior. It also means every time and no exceptions. By being inconsistent the rewarding of appropriate behavior becomes confused with inappropriate behavior and the reward loses its effectiveness because the student cannot count on

the coach. He does not know when he will be rewarded for appropriate behavior or get away with undesired behavior.

(3) The Coach Must Create Clear-Cut Rules

If the coach is concentrating on changing group participation behavior he will probably have to set up some rules that both he and the student will agree upon. The student may dislike them, but if they are clear cut it will be very difficult for him to "wiggle" his way out of them. The coach has a right to demand no more or no less than what was exactly agreed upon. If the rule is attainable and made easy the student will have little difficulty in performing the desirable behavior. Reward will come easy and he will look forward to performing to receive the reward. A rule specifies the behavior that is appropriate. The behavior can then be rewarded.

(4) The Coach Must Select Appropriate And Agreed Upon Rules.

If the rule is extremely difficult to follow, the chances are that the student will not make a good attempt to perform the behavior. It is thus very important to make sure that he can actually do the behavior that the rule asks of him. If the coach asks for too much he might discourage the student from doing anything at all. Start with a rule which can easily be followed. After a while gradually increase the requirements if necessary or desirable to do so.

(5) The Coach Must Emphasize Correct Behavior.

It is most important to emphasize the correct aspects of a student's behavior, rather than the incorrect. Looking at what a student does correctly when making suggestions greatly increases the chances that the student will accept or consider the "constructive suggestions" and follow them through. Most students are on guard constantly and are very sensitive to other people's suggestions. One can actually see them "turn off" when they are about to be criticized. This is their way of not getting hurt when you are talking about something they are very sensitive to. Also being criticized by someone close to them is difficult. Thus it is important when trying to be objective and consistent to select clearcut and appropriate rules and adopt a positive approach in trying to change behavior. When observing the situation try to pick out a relevant behavior that is correct, even though infrequent and emphasize what the student is doing correctly. Remember, there are always correct behaviors present and the coach's job is to find them. Finding and criticizing wrong behaviors is very easy and always a temptation.

5. Record (Establish The Direction & Amount Of Change)

What is meant by record is exactly the same as in the second step. It involves keeping a running account of what is happening. By recording again, the coach can see if what he is doing is having the desired affect.

6. Evaluate

This means checking what has been done. If it has been effective make plans for shaping and further increase the amount or quality of the behavior. If not, try something else. If the behavior is at the desired level switch to a different behavior to work on.

Something can go wrong with the way the method is used. There are three checkpoints:

1. Does the reward work? Does the student like the reward? Sometimes what we think is a reward is not what the person enjoys. If in doubt ask him. It is a good policy to have him specify what he wants as a reward.

2. Does the student know exactly what he is being rewarded for?

3. Can the student perform the behavior asked of him? It may be too much, too long or too difficult.

Correct yourself; most errors using this method are caught at these checkpoints.

B. COOPERATIVELY DETERMINED PLAN

(reread first several pages of this paper)

The basic procedures are the same as in the coach determined plan except that in this approach the whole group helps develop the plan.

The group can begin with a low keyed exchange of the types of things which make for a more interesting and productive group. The coach will have the survey and description of the helpful and harmful behaviors to guide the group in this exchange and should guide the group to focus on very specific behaviors such as mumbling so that others cannot hear, looking down all the time, talking too loud or soft, talking too much or not enough, swearing or calling names, distracting habits and mannerisms etc. In each case of a negative behavior the coach and group must identify an appropriate behavior to substitute in place of the negative behavior; it is not sufficient to only eliminate a negative behavior.

Once several behaviors have been brought up with a suggested list of the desirable behaviors the group can, if they are prepared for this approach, conduct a "hot seat" feedback situation where each member receives ideas from the group on where he needs improvement. After this survey each member selects out one specific behavior to work on, a behavior he feels he will have the most success in improving at this time. Avoid all "pie in the sky" and "magnificent obsession" types of plans; they are simply an avoidance of the problem masked as "good intentions". The process of selecting a problem area and isolating a specific behavior to work on is similar to the skill training procedure described elsewhere (the first page & Unit XII of this paper).

Although six steps are given in the complete program, in practice steps one and two, for instance, may be combined since the process of pinpointing a behavior to change is facilitated by thinking about methods of recording that behavior.

Step three, setting a goal, depends in some way on knowledge of past performance. If there is no objective behavioral record of the past performance then the initial goal will be tentative, based on the judgments of the student, coach and other group members. The student may set a goal which is either under or over ambitious and this process of goal setting can be part of the group process and exchange of viewpoints on what would be a reasonable short term goal to work for. Thus, using the cooperative method the first three steps are collapsed into one process of deciding on a behavior (pin-pointing) facilitated by stating a method of recording the behavior and gaining a commitment from the student to achieve a certain "score" in his recording for a given period i.e., setting a goal. (see early pages of this paper).

One of the most difficult aspects of Life Skills Training is setting up differential consequences for student's improving and fulfilling their commitments to change. This is especially true when, as is usual, there is a long history of making commitments with very little intention to fill them. Thus, the forth step involves asking the question what will happen if the student does or does not achieve his goal; what is the consequence, payoff or penalty? If nothing happens that would not have happened anyway then the question must be raised of how serious the student is in his program of improvement. In general, the group and coach should insist on some differential consequence for success and effort, otherwise the student is probably playing the "new year's resolution game" with lots of promises and "good intentions" but no real intention of carrying through. Indeed, why should he since it makes no difference whether or not he fulfills his commitments or not?

Thus, a system of rewards should be set up to reward both improvement and goal achievement and a withholding of rewards if these things do not occur. Early pages of this paper suggest a possible contingency arrangement: i.e. the whole group receives the reward when everyone reaches his agreed upon goal. In order to determine whether or not progress is being made and goals are being achieved it is necessary to keep a record (step five). This is quite easy once the behavior is decided upon and is basically the same as step two except it is used here to plot progress and not to establish a base line of the behavior. This process of recording is <u>absolutely essential</u> and has many benefits -- e.g., it avoids many arguments about whether or not the goal was achieved or progress made since you can look at the record, it is in itself a motivating force (see early pages of this paper).

The evaluation, step six, involves both an assessment of progress toward the goal and a decision to set a new goal; either raise the goal for the present behavior or, if the present behavior has reached an optimum level, to pinpoint another behavior to work on while maintaining the level of the original behavior; i.e., the process is cumulative.

C. A TOKEN EXCHANGE SYSTEM TO FACILITATE DEVELOPMENT OF HELPING SKILLS IN GROUP INTERACTION

1. Rationale

It may be necessary to use a special technique to cue and reward helpful behaviors in the group. This system of immediate, behavior-contingent feedback for use in increasing the frequency and value of helpful behaviors rests on four assumptions:

a. While interpersonal behaviors are governed by social feedback, this feedback is rarely immediate, complete or fully accurate. Thus, it is difficult for a group member to know exactly what effect his actions have on how others feel about him.

b. The message communicated is not necessarily the intended one. For instance, a coach may wish to communicate respect for a student by saying "You have great potential to do well in Life Skills" but the student might respond as an attack because he interprets it only as a criticism of his efforts up to that time.

c. The mechanism of misinterpretation in group processes can be identified and changed via feedback. For example, some misinterpretation may result from intrusions of past problems or irrelevant present events into the present group situation. Proper feedback can overcome these errors.

d. Many interpersonal misinterpretations are a consequence of a lack of knowledge and skill in maintaining an effective exchange of views and thus can be improved with information and training in effective techniques of helpful interpersonal behaviors.

2. The Technique

A technique which can be used to achieve the increase in helpful behaviors is to use a concrete feedback system using the exchange of poker chips to cue evaluative reactions to specific behaviors. While this may seem like an extreme measure to use, it can be treated in a game-like manner even though the objective is quite serious; Life Skills does not have to be grim and serious.

The system is very simple and goes like this: Red or blue chips are given by any group member to any other member whenever he sees or hears something he likes and would like to have continued or repeated. White chips are given to signal dislike and the wish to have negatively valued behaviors stopped or not repeated. Each person receiving a white chip may ask one question seeking an explanation of why the behavior was negatively valued and he may not contest or argue about the answer to his question.

3. Expected Results

The results of this system are:

a. Helpful behaviors are cued.

b. Each student is given immediate feedback about his own behavior.

c. Each student in the group is given a means of expressing his evaluation of the interaction between him and another student or between any other two students.

d. Each student is provided information which aids him in behaving in a more helpful manner and thus is more likely to be positively regarded by the other group members.

When such a cueing system is established, each member of the group systematically monitors the behavior of every other member. When deficiencies occur, they are immediately identifiable and remediable. When social process is slow to govern the interactions this technique can be introduced to initially cue as well as reward helpful behaviors and the combination of social and mechanical feedback can change and maintain the change in intra-group behavior. Providing feedback via chips etc. is done during the Life Skills lessons with the coach beginning by modeling the signaling of helpful behaviors followed by his cueing group members when to provide positive feedback. When the techniques have been learned during Life Skills training the students may wish to follow the procedure outside of training, e.g. at home. This will take planning and it may not be feasible unless all those involved in the system have been trained to use it effectively, e.g. the other family members.

UNIT XI: CONTINGENCY CONTRACTING

A. INTRODUCTION

One of the problems coaches face in Life Skills training involves motivating some students to perform tasks, and learn skills whose desirability is not obvious but is felt to be so by the coaches. In traditional training settings, negative contingencies have been favored to motivate students. In other words, the person in power imposes a kind of "contract" which says in effect "In order to avoid punishment, you must perform such and such a task." The method advocated in this unit is, on the other hand, a method of positive contingencies. The contract in this case takes the form: "As soon as you demonstrate that you have learned a little more, you may do something which is more enjoyable."

When one goes shopping, takes a job, or hires an employee, positive contingency contracts are implicit. With the exception of the legal system, whose approach is basically negative [For example the statement: "If you do not violate the law, you will not be punished" can be converted into: "If you do violate the law, you will be punished," by removing the negatives from both sides. It does not convert into "If you obey the law, you will be rewarded."], our everyday life is largely run by positive contracts. Wherever such contracts meet the criteria of fairness and honesty, they fill important needs as bases for interpersonal relations. The purpose of this unit is to make the rules of contingency contracting explicit to those who work with people every day, especially those who work with students.

The principles and rules of positive contingency contracts can be used for the management of relationships between coaches and the students. Though people have, in fact, used these rules for countless generations, they have not been explicitly stated nor used consistently or systematically. The ultimate objective is to shift to self-management where the individual **assumes responsibility for his own behavior**. The reason for bringing up the "ultimate objectives" at this time is to reassure coaches who may be dubious about the whole idea of motivation management.

They may be saying to themselves, "Students should be motivated by a desire to succeed, not by the promise of a reward," or "This sounds like bribery to me." Or a parent may be thinking, "If I apply contingency contracting systematically now, won't the child grow up expecting rewards for every little thing he does?" Although users of programs such as this have similar concerns experience has proven otherwise. Children who participate in a program of systematic contingency management turn out to be happy, eager-to-learn children for whom learning itself becomes one of the most rewarding experiences.

B. RATIONALE, LOGIC AND METHOD OF CONTINGENCY CONTRACTING

Contingency contracts can be used in Life Skills training to schedule the exchange of reward and help between students in the group. Contracts make explicit the conditions where group members are expected to reward and help each other and increase the likelihood that obligations will be met. Contracts depend on four assumptions:

> 1. Receiving rewards in interpersonal exchanges is a privilege to be earned rather than a right which is conferred. This assumption is necessary to allow for behavioral change and the use of contracts to produce this change. If all change is automatic and occurs without reference to the participants then there is no need for concepts like

reward and contract. However, if it is assumed that all privileges are earned, then each person may increase his privileges by increasing the quality or quantity of his behavior. When this is the case the contract can be used to structure interactions and make the expectations of interactions explicit.

2. The norm of the interpersonal exchange is explicitly agreed upon such that each person is given an opportunity to be rewarded/helped to the extent that he rewards/helps others. Since reciprocity is the agreed upon norm of interaction the group members may refer to the expected behavior when there is a violation of this agreement. The explicit criteria based on this norm can be used to judge the quality and appropriateness of behaviors of group members.

3. The value of an interpersonal relationship is dependent on the value of the reward/help exchanged. This means that improvements in interpersonal relations can be achieved by directly manipulating and making them more rewarding/helpful. In marital counseling, for instance, the spouses often state that they will only change their behavior toward each other when they "feel" inclined to do so. But they will only feel inclined to do so when they change their behavior. The behavior change must be before the emotional change. This is true of group relationships. When more reward/help of greater value is available within a group the value of becoming involved in the group increases. As involvement and liking for the group increases the amount of control they have over their members increases and thus the more potential for behavior change.

4. Rules, contracts, commitments etc. create freedom in interpersonal exchanges when they make explicit how each person can earn the privileges which he wants or expects. Rules etc. are a necessary condition for freedom in social behavior. Without them no one is able to predict with accuracy when he will receive which privileges or what consequences will follow either his efforts to enjoy his privileges or his failure to fulfill his commitments. Rules etc. in the group define both the nature of the privileges and the conditions under which they are obtained.

All contingency contracts for behavioral change consist of at least five major elements:

1. The contracts should state the privileges each member expects to gain from the relationship. The privileges must be behavioral descriptions of rewarding activities which are mediated and controlled by other group members. Examples of a family situation would be the privilege of an adolescent to be with his friends during certain hours of the evening or the privilege of a parent to know when an adolescent daughter can be expected to return in the evening.

2. Following a statement of privileges, every contract should include a statement of the responsibilities which must be met in order to earn each privilege. The responsibilities must match (i.e., not exceed the scope of) the privileges. If they are greater than the reward value of the privileges, the "cost" of meeting the privileges may become too great and the contract may cease to exercise positive control. Also, the responsibilities chosen must be ones monitored by the group members. Thus all responsibilities chosen must be in balance with the privileges which they produce and must be observable by the group members.

3. A system of sanctions or penalties for failure to meet responsibilities must also be developed since it is sometimes more rewarding for the student to ignore his contracted commitments and get outside rewards (rewards not mediated by the group). When sanctions are built into the contract, added incentives are provided for adherence to the terms of the contract. In addition, agreed upon sanctions provide the members with built in means for responding to violations without subverting the entire contract. The provision of sanctions both reduces the likelihood of contract violations and provides a relationship preserving response to violations when they do occur.

4. It is also desirable to provide bonuses which provide additional rewards for prolonged periods of contract adherence. This helps overcome the tendency to pay attention only to contract violations. Bonuses help focus attention on positive behaviors so that they will not be overlooked or taken for granted and make certain that out-standing positive behaviors are adequately rewarded.

5. A fifth element of contracts is a system of monitoring. Interpersonal exchanges governed by the contract will run smoothly only when each student is made aware of his responsibilities as they arise. When a check-off monitoring or recording system is used, each student is induced to indicate when he has fulfilled his responsibilities which in turn entitles him to the corresponding privileges which is the responsibility of the others. By making these exchanges explicit through written monitoring or record sheets, errors are avoided, each student can know where he stands relative to the agreement and students are cued when to grant privileges.

C. RULES OF CONTINGENCY CONTRACTING

Rules of contracting are not entirely unknown to the average person. In fact, much of contingency contracting may be summed up in Grandma's Law, which states: "First clean up your plate, then you may have your dessert."

More formally and precisely, we can identify ten basic rules. The first five refer to the use of the reward in contracting (summary of principles in Units IV and X), the last five describe characteristics of proper contracting (summary of principles in Units IX and X).

1. The contract payoff (reward) should be immediate.

This rule must especially be observed early in the game when the student is just learning about contracting. Initial contracts (see Rule 2) should demand a small bit of behavior and skill, then a progress check to see whether the behavior was executed to the contract's specifications. Then the reward should be offered IMMEDIATELY. It is important that the presentation of the reward be contingent ONLY on the adequate performance of the behavior/or skill and not, for example, on the passage of time. The system will work well to the extent that the precision of the performance-reward relationship is respected.

2. Initial contracts should call for and reward small approximations

If the initial performance requested from the student is a SMALL, SIMPLE-TO-PERFORM approximation to the final performance desired, few difficulties will be encountered. If, on the other hand, the performance requested is too precise and too difficult for the student to perform, no

amount of reward will help. In fact, the major thing wrong with intuitive contingency contracting (as it sometimes occurs in everyday situations -- see Grandma's Law above) is that the intuitive contingency manager does not settle for small steps or approximations. The intuitive contract is likely to say, "Clean your room," rather than, "First, put your shoes in the closet." The intuitive contingency contract is likely to say, "Do all the arithmetic problems at the end of the chapter correctly, then you may watch a movie." The systematic motivation manager is more likely to say, "Do the first two problems correctly, then we will watch a movie for five minutes." The employer, when he is training a new employee, always has to reward approximations. If the new employee were to be rewarded only for expert performance at the start, he would never obtain the offered reward and would more than likely void the contract (i.e. leave the job).

3. Reward frequently with small amounts.

Experience has shown that it is far more effective to give frequent, small rewards than a few large ones. As Rule *2* indicates, this is of particular importance early in the game.

4. The contract should call for and reward accomplishment rather than obedience.

Thus, the contract should say: "If you accomplish such and such, you will be rewarded with such and such," not, "If you do what I tell you to do, I will reward you with such and such." Reward for obedience leads only to continued dependence on the coach to whom the student learns to be obedient.

5. Reward the performance after it occurs.

At first glance, this is the most self-evident of all the rules: first performance, then reward. The reader may be saying to himself by now, "Why, that's nothing but the old 'first work, then play' rule." This is correct; but the rule must be taken much more seriously than is usually the case.

The difference in contingency management is that the "first work, then play" sequence does not occur just once, twice, or three times a day. The task performance and reward are broken down into small components, so that the sequence will occur many times each day (see Unit XII on Skill training).

When one observes the ORDER of events in everyday life frequently the order is reversed. For example, "Just one more game of cards" (a rewarding activity), "then you've GOT to do your homework" (a task event). Or, "Stop watching television" (a rewarding event), "and carry out this trash" (a task event). The examples illustrate that these events do not, by themselves, automatically get broken down into small units and arranged in the correct order. The purpose of this unit is to demonstrate the method of correctly managing contingencies.

6. The contract must be fair.

This rule simply means that the terms of the contract, on both sides of the agreement ("If you will do X, I will do Y"), must be of relatively equal weight. Imagine a contract, for example, in which a parent says to the student, "If you get all A's throughout the school year, I will take you to the movies." This kind of a contract could hardly be called fair. On the other hand, the parent's saying, "If you sit quietly for two minutes, I will take you to the movies," would also be an unbalanced contract. In this case, the weight of what is offered by the initiator of the contract would be

immensely greater than the weight of the behavior demanded by the contract. In general, one must try to relate the amount of reward to the amount of performance.

7. The terms of the contract must be clear.

The terms on both sides of the agreement must be explicitly stated. For example, an unclear contract would say, "Do a few arithmetic problems and then we will do something more interesting." A more clearly stated contract would say, "Do ten arithmetic problems correctly and then we will watch the first four minutes of this film." The student must always know HOW MUCH performance is expected of him and WHAT HE CAN EXPECT AS A PAYOFF.

8. The contract must be honest.

An honest contract is one which is (a) carried out immediately, and (b) carried out according to the terms specified in the contract.

9. The contract must be positive.

An appropriate contract should NOT say "I will not do X, if you will do Y." The terms of the contract should CONTRIBUTE something to the student's experience, rather than take something away from him. Note that often contracts used in the school and in the home are implicitly of a negative type. E.g., "Behave as I tell you" implies "You will not get punished if you behave as I tell you." The outstanding characteristic of negative contracting is that it involves a threat of punishment.

10. Contracting as a method must be used systematically.

Perhaps the most difficult thing to learn about the laws of contingency is that they go on working all the time, whether one pays any attention to them or not. That is to say, these laws do not hold only during the lesson or only during training hours.

A reward following a bit of behavior will strengthen that behavior whether or not it occurs during training hours. As one becomes familiar with contingency management procedures one might ask, "What is the payoff for the person?" for almost every behavior requested of the person.

D. CONTRACTING AND THE COURSE CONTENT

Setting up the contracting situation described here involves certain changes in the structure and support services required in Life Skills and this may not be possible. Other, less formal contracting arrangements may be more practical but they should attempt to incorporate as many of the rules as possible.

1. The Setting of the Contract Situation.

The kinds of tasks the coach may want a student to perform can range from simply "paying attention" to role playing or presenting something in front of the group. Regardless of the subject matter, or the particular tasks to be performed, there usually will be something else which some students would prefer doing. In view of this, the first steps of MOTIVATION management are (a) specifying the skill task (i.e., something the student has to do) and (b) identifying an appropriate

reward. (i.e., something the student would rather do). It must be remembered that a rewarding event may be any desirable change in the student's environment. The coach must identify those student-desired changes which are also acceptable in the classroom situation.

2. Establishing the Contract.

The contract must be stated in simple language, easily understood by the student. The occasion may dictate different ways of wording a particular contract, but in each case the terms of the contract will fit the model, "If first you do X, then you may do (or will get) Y." The term YOU, may refer to an individual student or a group of students. It is possible to reward the group as a whole for certain accomplishments. However, because of individual differences such as rate of progress through material, tasks, degree of motivation, and the kind of reward that is rewarding in any particular situation, it is easier and more desirable to establish individual contracts with students.

This of course, implies a need for the preparation of individual "skill assignments". One method is the use of skill training methodology (Unit XII). The important thing is to establish contracts with SPECIFIABLE AMOUNTS of work for each student, to determine their success in completing these assignments, and to appropriately reward their successful completion. Exactly what rewards are used depends a great deal on the coach's observation of the student.

In general, the rewarding event can be of two types. It can be purely ENTERTAINING, such as talking with the coach or students, playing a game, watching a movie, having coffee etc.; or, what is most desirable from an educational point of view, it can be a preferred learning activity which rewards a less preferred one. For example, it is possible to establish contracts in this manner: "First, complete the next ten arithmetic problems correctly, then you may read for ten minutes." In this example, the teacher detected that reading was a rewarding activity for that particular student at that particular time. If a student's preference is for arithmetic problems over reading, the contingencies would of course be reversed. In general, the student is the best source of information on what is rewarding to him at any one time.

In any case, it is crucial that (a) the amount of work required and the criteria of its completion be specified, (b) the amount of reward be specified, and (c) there be some clear indication of the beginning and end of tasks as well as of rewards.

3. The Rewarding Events (RE) Area.

One way of emphasizing the separation of the task from the reward is to assign a place for task events, and another place for rewarding events. When this is done it is customary to refer to the area in which the rewards are given as a "rewarding event area" or, more simply, the RE Area.

4. Contracting in the Classroom.

If there is one predictable reaction to a description of the contingency management system, it is this: "I can see how contingency contracting might work fine with individual students, but how do I handle a whole group at once?" The coach may be asking how to get 15 students to do the same thing at the same time and reward them all with the same activity. One of the main points of this section is to point out that this is not only an almost impossible task -- it is unnecessary.

There are three reasons for considering it almost impossible: (a) not all students need the same amount of work in the same area; (b) although there are exceptions to this, not all students find the

same events rewarding; (c) most important not all students finish a task at the same time. Therefore, the reward could not be made contingent only upon the completion of the task; it would be contingent on two events: finishing the task and waiting for the other students to finish. This means that what would actually be rewarded would probably be sitting quietly and waiting which is not the task which was intended to be rewarded.

5. Diagnosing a Student's Weaknesses.

The coach, the student and the group should know from personal experience and observation what some of the student's weaknesses are. Together, with prodding from the coach, they should select a general area and some specific skills to work on; e.g. general area is becoming a better group member; specific skills are looking at people, nodding, etc., verbal following, giving own opinions, asking others for contributions, etc. (see Units I and XII).

6. Skill Cards.

Once a student's weaknesses have been determined, a plan for strengthening these areas usually suggests itself to the coach. With this plan in mind, he can break the Skill to be performed into sub-skills; these can then be written on separate cards for convenience. It is customary to refer to these cards as skill cards.

For example, skill cards for a particular period may read as follows:

Card 1. Look at the people who are talking in the group. Keep a record of the number of times you look down. If you did not look down during 10 minutes of the discussion, take 15 minutes for reward time. If not passed, see the coach.

Card 2. Ask for other's contributions in the discussion period at least 10 times. If passed, you may work on Basic Education for the rest of the period. If not passed, see the coach.

7. An RE Menu.

For technical as well as practical reasons, it is convenient and efficient to have a "Rewarding Event Menu" which lists a wide variety of available events that reward the students in the group. The student may be allowed to choose from the menu before his task is begun or upon completion of each task. The RE menu may be updated in accordance with the student's suggestions.

8. Progress Checks.

Progress checks are perhaps the single most important and valuable component of the contingency contracting system. First, they provide the coach and group with clear indicators of the student's completion of a skill assignment; if the student has not achieved his objective he has not yet completed his part of the contract. Second, achieving an objective indicates to the student when his task is finished. Third, and perhaps most important, achieving an objective leads to immediate desirable consequences. By being associated with reward, the knowledge of having successfully achieved an objective becomes reinforcing in itself.

E. SHIFTING FROM COACH DETERMINED TO SELF DETERMINED CONTRACTING

The coach seeks to help students develop attributes of self-control, initiative, and self-discipline. Everyone agrees that these characteristics are important. The trouble is that there are, at best, inadequate methods to teach the behavior characteristics that these terms describe or label. Contingency contracting in which the student is his own contractor -- called SELF-CONTRACTING -- offers promise of a concrete way to begin teaching self-management. Since little is known about the teaching of self-management, it offers a great opportunity for the experimentally minded coaches to try out various techniques of his own.

At first someone, other than the student determines both the task requirement and the length of reward time. The difficulties encountered in eventually bringing a student to the point where he determines both of these factors for himself are, at present, not well known. This section presents an analysis of the ways in which the contingency contracting system may lead by successive approximations to self-management through the possibilities available in the system.

1. Types of Contingency Contracting.

There are three basic types of positive contingency contracts depending on whether the terms of the contract are determined by a coach, the student himself, or by both in a number of TRANSITIONAL possibilities.

In COACH-CONTROLLED contracts the amounts and levels of task performance required and the reward offered are determined by a coach or someone in a position to deliver rewards for accomplishment. This kind of contracting is very different from STUDENT-CONTROLLED contracts where both the amount and level of task performance and the amount of reward are determined by the student himself. The aim of the contingency contracting system is this: to lead the student from the coach-controlled contracting method to the student-controlled contracting method. This may be accomplished by a transition through five levels called TRANSITIONAL contracting (see Figure 2).

In the following analysis of the three types of contracting, it will be assumed that the rules specified in Unit XI, part C "Rules of contingency contracting" are followed. In addition, it is assumed that the amount of the reward is determined and made known to the student PRIOR to the establishment of the amount and level of the required task performance.

2. Level One: Coach-Controlled Contracting (0% Student Control)

In the coach-controlled contracting system, the procedural steps are as follows:
Step 1. The coach determines the amount of reward to be given.

Step 2. The coach determines the amount and level of task performance required.

Step 3. The coach presents this contract to the student.

Step 4. The student accepts the contract and performs.

Step 5. The coach delivers the reward.

In the STUDENT-CONTROLLED contracting system situation, the procedure is similar to the one described above, but the student himself determines the amount of the reward and the amount and level of the task performance agrees to his own contract, performs and delivers the reward himself. In TRANSITIONAL contracts, both the coach and the student are involved in determining the terms of the contract.

3. Level Two: First Transitional Step -- Partial (25%) control by student

The first transitional step follows coach-controlled contracts. Either (form A) the student assumes joint control with the coach over the amount of reward to be given, while the coach retains full control of the amount and level of performance; or (form B) the student assumes joint control with the coach over the amount and level of performance, while the coach retains full control of the amount of reward. Whichever of the two forms (A or B) follows level one, the other form must also be practiced before going on to level three.

The first-level procedural steps, therefore, expand outward as in the figure.

4. Level Three: Second Transitional Step -- Equal control by coach and student (50/50)

The next transitional step requires three forms of contracting. In one of these (form A), the student and the coach share joint determination of both the amount of reward and the amount and level of task performance. In the second (form B), the student assumes responsibility for the amount of reward, while the coach retains control of the amount and level of task performance. The roles reverse for the third (form C), where the coach controls the amount of reward while the student assumes control of the amount and level of his task performance.

Again, it is important that the student practice all three forms of level three contracting before going on to level four.

5. Level Four: Third Transitional Step -- Partial control by coach (75% control by student)

The student now becomes involved in the determination of both the reward and the task performance. In the first (form A), the student has full control over the amount of reward, and shares joint control with the coach over the amount and level of task performance. In the second (form B), the student shares joint control with the coach over the amount of the reward, while assuming full control of the amount and level of task performance.

The student must practice both forms of level four contracting before going on to level five.

6. Level Five: Student Controlled (100%) Contracting

From the completion of level four, it is a natural consequence that the student take over complete control.

7. Implementation Of The Transition

In order to speed the student's arrival at the final stage of self-management, the making and fulfilling of contracts may be considered as major or large tasks in large contracts which are prepared specifically to reward contracting as a behavior. The large contract in such a case might

say: "If you make and complete twenty small contracts, you will earn a ticket to the movies." The small contracts constitute tasks under large contracts. In this sense, the first three sections of this unit deal with the types and uses of small contracts. It is obvious, however, that to the extent that the student is involved in making, or at least accepting and fulfilling such small contracts, he is performing tasks. It then follows that these contracting tasks can also be contracted according to the principles of contingency contracting. Therefore, what has been said so far about contracting will generally hold true equally well for both small contracts and large contracts, the only difference being that in large contracts the task events are ALWAYS small contracts.

It is possible that some students, after only a few illustrative examples, will be able to start making small contracts at levels higher than level 1. Some of them may even be able to make self-controlled (level 5) contracts. The making of such small contracts should, therefore, be rewarded according to the principles of contracting defined in this unit.

In this section we have stressed that if the student's motivation is to continue progressing under conditions outside of the relationship established between himself, the group and the coach, it seems necessary for him to learn how to establish himself as his own "contingency manager." Shifting from management-by-contracts to self-management must also be followed with these large contracts. Control of the specification of the large tasks will eventually be shifted from coach-control to student-control, and the student will have to be able to reward himself under such large contracts.

The ultimate goal of contingency contracting can now be redefined as getting the student ready to both establish and fulfill his own contracts, and to reward himself, under large contracts, for doing so. Having had such practice in self-determination, the student becomes ready to take over full control and determine for himself the amounts of both rewards and task. Through these transitional procedures, we arrive at a point where the student is capable of making his own contracts, determining his own tasks, and determining his own rewards. At this stage, it is expected that the student can maintain motivational independence by using contingency management as a procedure for systematic self-management.
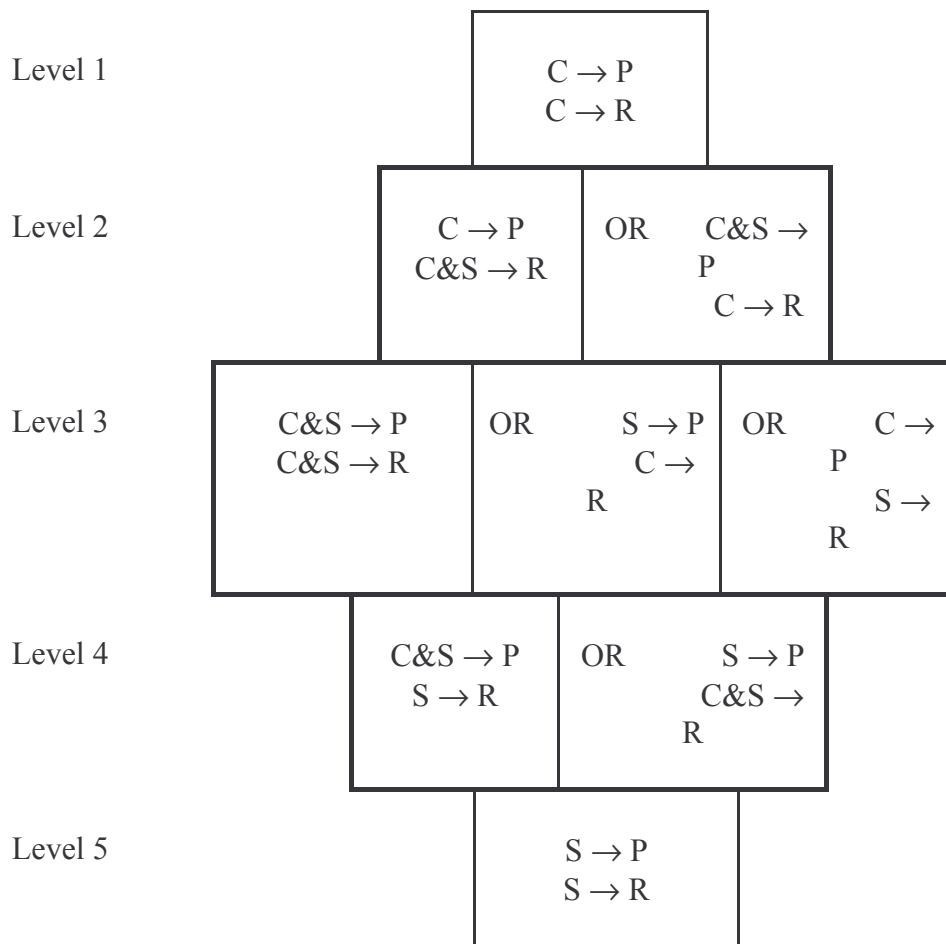
Level 1

C → P
C → R

Level 2

C → P	OR	C&S → P
C&S → R		P
		C → R

Level 3

C&S → P	OR	S → P	OR	C →
C&S → R		C →		P
		R		S →
				R

Level 4

C&S → P	OR	S → P
S → R		C&S →
		R

Level 5

S → P
S → R

FIGURE 2: Transition from coach to student determined contracting

Symbols: C = coach   S = student   P = Performance   R = Reward
→ = determines, controls, decides on

F. MANAGING REWARDING EVENTS (REs)

1. Rewarding Events (REs)

In the contingency managed setting, the coach should provide the students with activities which they enjoy and which serve as rewards for students who have successfully completed their task performance. Perhaps the coach may want to have the students bring REs from home.

2. Specification of Time Spent in RE Area

The coach should establish a method for determining how long a student may stay in the RE area at a time. The criterion for determining the amount of time can be established in several ways. The coach could correlate the amount of time with the difficulty of the task performance, e.g., the more difficult the task the longer the amount of time the student could spend in the RE. The coach could determine the amount of time on a pre-specified basis, e.g., RE time would always be 15 minutes. Another possibility would be to determine time on a varying schedule based on random selection of intervals of from 10 to 20 minutes.

3. Methods of Controlling Time in RE Area

In addition to determining the amount of time the students may spend in the RE area, the coach should have some means of assuring that the students are not spending more time than is allotted to them. Possible methods for controlling this factor are:

a. The use of sign-in/out sheets. Students would sign in, stating the time they begin, and sign out, stating the time they leave the area. The coach could spot-check the sheets, and those students who have overstayed their time would be sent back to the task area.

b. In some cases, it might be possible to use time clocks or other timing devices. With time clocks, the buzzer would sound at the end of the allotted period. This system is most easily implemented when there are few students in the class.

c. Peer pressure can also be used. The students themselves will often remind others that time is up. When the coach notices this occurring, he can send the overstaying student back to the task area. Students who consistently overstay can be controlled by being deprived of as much RE time as the overtime they already had, or by being told that their RE time is used up.

UNIT XII: SKILL TRAINING METHODOLOGY

A. BASIC SEQUENCE OF TRAINING: The basic sequence of the method can be outlined as follows:

1. The first step involves the presentation or identification of a behavioral skill/role which is described, demonstrated, discussed, analyzed, modeled, etc., in settings of the whole group and/or in groups of 2-3 people.

2. The students practice the behavioral skill/role in two and three person groups.

3. Each student, assisted by the coach and fellow students, evaluates the level of performance and concentrates on aspects which need improvement.

4. Then the behavioral skill/role is tried in a simulated life situation, usually a role play format but it could involve a game format.

5. Again each student, with help evaluates the level of performance in the simulated situation and recycles to steps 1 or 2 if some aspects need improvement.

6. Each student is required to use the behavioral skill/ role in a real life situation outside of the training context. This is usually a "take home assignment".

7. Each student then evaluates the level of performance in real life and describes the situation in which the behavioral skill/role was used. This is usually in the form of a report on the "assignment" presented to the whole group. The evaluation/discussion emphasizes the various settings in which the skill/role is useful and appropriate.

Some students may decide to recycle to earlier steps in the sequence or to go on to other behavioral skills/roles and repeat the sequence.

8. After the students have become familiar with the training sequence some of the discrete steps will be combined where applicable. This is especially true of the evaluative parts; the intent is to have students continually evaluate their performance and not rely on discrete periods of evaluation.

B. DESCRIPTION OF THE SKILL TRAINING METHOD: INSTRUCTIONS TO STUDENTS

1. The first step is to recognize and identify the skill or skills to be learned or improved. This can be done in a number of ways, e.g. (a) by studying the group "here and now", watch how people act and behave, how people affect each other, what things help people understand each other better and so on; (b) by watching the TV playbacks (VTR) of yourself and others and noticing what people do and how they do it; does the behavior tell you what they think or feel or do you feel confused when you watch some people?; who has the most skill in communicating with others, and how does he do it? The VTR provides a good way of seeing yourself as others see you; you can stop the VTR and talk about any part.

2. Once you have found skills that need improvement, you will probably find that they are too complicated to learn all at once and you have to work on parts of these skills. If you want to improve your skill of "communicating with other people" you will have to divide this very complex skill into smaller, simpler parts or sub-skills; some of these are relaxing, eye contact, following what others say verbally, being aware of feelings, expressing your feelings and so on.

To use an example from another part of life we use the very complex skill of "deer hunting." In order to train someone to be a skillful hunter he has to learn about the land where he hunts, how to follow trails, how to survive off the land in case he gets lost; he has to learn about the life of dear and their behavior; he has to know about weapons and so on. These areas of knowledge are still very complex and each one needs to be broken into simpler skills. For instance, the skill of shooting a rifle is still very complex and can be broken into the sub-skills of how to hold it steady, how to aim, how to pull the trigger without moving the rifle, how to keep your eyes open when you fire, how to steady your hands and relax, how to achieve good footing and good balance, how to know your target, how to judge distance and wind, how to know when to shoot and so on. And yet, you must know more; you must know where to find the game. No matter how good a shot you are you won't find anything to shoot unless you know how to stalk. Thus, the skills in stalking game need to be learned. One could go on and on with this example. The basic idea is that you must analyze the complex skills into simpler ones in order to improve your skill in general.
It is not possible, usually, to practice a complex skill without breaking it into simpler skills. You learn these simpler skills well and then combine them all again into the complex skill.

3. In learning a skill it is useful to have some picture or idea of the skill and behavior you want to learn. In the skills we are dealing with in the Life Skills Course, it is useful to have someone skilled in a particular behavior to model the behavior for everyone to copy. You can only get so far with describing the behavior in words; with a model to watch, the words have more meaning. In skill training we will try to follow this method: each person watches the model (for instance on the VTR) and then each student copies the model; if possible this will be VTRed for later viewing. Once you have practiced the behavior you watch your VTR (if it is available) and compare your performance with that of the model. This comparison will be hard to do if the two performances are not both recorded. If they are not, we must use the other group members' observations as a source of feedback on how successful you were in your performance compared to the model.

4. The purpose of practicing and comparing is to decide what aspects of the skill need the most improvement and emphasis and what aspects of the skill need only a little work. By doing this analysis of your own performance you put your time only on those things which need improvement and do not waste time practicing things you already do well.

5. When you practice a skill, you try to come closer to the goal of good performance of the skill. It helps to have someone who can observe you and tell you when you are doing better and when you are doing worse. The observer is to tell you in effect "That's better, do more of that..." or "That's not as good as last time; try to do more..." This helps you move little by little to the final goal of doing at least as well as the model.

6. One of the major ways in which we do this training is as follows:

   a. A certain behavior is described in a handout or it comes up in a group discussion but you probably do not know exactly how you would do it. To help you to define the behavior we divide the group into small groups of two or three people. In these small groups each one of you writes out the actions, words, expressions, gestures and so on that you could use to behave like the model. You can discuss this and exchange ideas about how to put the description into action.

   b. When you interact with people one of your goals is to communicate clearly to the other person what you think and feel. You do this by giving him cues about what you think and feel. These cues are both verbal (words) and non-verbal (e.g., gestures of your hands, expressions on your face, loudness, pitch, speed, inflection of your voice, your posture and the way you stand). In order to understand others and be understood by others we need to define, analyze and practice these verbal and non-verbal cues so that they feel right (natural) for us and also clearly communicate to the other person what we want to say and how we feel. We need to practice all methods of communicating that we can use and not depend only on words or gestures or facial expressions. We need to use all of these and any others available to communicate to others.

   We also need to make sure all our cues (verbal and non-verbal) send the same message. For instance, when we say that we are not upset but act upset by frowning and wringing our hands then we just confuse

people and they do not know how to "read" us. If we do this often, other people will not want to be around us; it's uncomfortable and others can't relax when they don't know how to take us -- we say one thing and act another.

c. Once you have a good idea of what to say, how to look and how to act to clearly communicate to another person, then IT IS NECESSARY TO <u>DO IT</u>. It is not enough to say that you will do this and that -- the coach will not believe it until he sees you do it. The real test of whether you know how to do something comes when you try it. Do you really <u>communicate</u> to the other person what you intend or does he get more than one message; is he confused as to what you are trying to tell him?

In order to find out how you come across to the other person you try out your behavior/skill/ role in small groups of two or three people. Each person takes turns trying out the behavior while the other(s) judge his performance. These criteria can be used to judge:

∞ Does the person look and sound natural with the behavior or does he look and sound artificial, forced, tense, unnatural?

∞ Does the person communicate clearly, forcefully, or does he communicate in an unclear, weak and confused manner?

∞ Does the person use several ways of communicating (verbal <u>and</u> nonverbal) or does he only use one or very few ways?

∞ Does the person send the same message with his words and his actions or do they say different things; is he consistent or inconsistent in his verbal and non-verbal communication?

7. Once you have learned the skill/behavior/role you try it in a life-like situation by role playing in the group. You try the skill in situations like real life but not <u>for</u> real in that the mistakes you make will not hurt you and you can learn from your own and other's mistakes how to do better. Some examples of the situations which could be used for role playing are, job interviews, husband-wife discussions or arguments, parent-child problems, applying for a loan, handling a difficult sales clerk, handling a policeman, handling a drunken friend, talking to the boss, interviewing an official (e.g., in welfare, C.M.C., Indian Affairs, schools, etc.). Any type of situation can be used for practice before you use the skill in a life situation outside of the group. These trials ("dry runs") will be VTRed and we will watch them to find out how well we did, what went well and what needs more work.

8. Since the whole purpose of the Life Skills Course is to learn how to handle your problems more skillfully, it is important to try these skills <u>in real life.</u> If you cannot use them in life or if they don't work for you then they are not worth learning. You are just wasting time in the course. Thus, after each skill session is done you try the new skills in your life outside of the course and then, in the next session report to the group what happened: tell about the situation, what you did, what the result was,

how you could improve your skill, what other situations it would be useful to try it in and so on.

C. TEACHING A SKILL

The two conditions of teaching are: (1) That no one can teach more than he knows; (2) That no one can teach faster than the student can learn.

There are five basic steps in teaching a skill:

1. Preparation

The first step is to make the necessary preparations and obtain the essential equipment and supplies in sufficient quality to permit the skill to be demonstrated, taught, and practiced.

2. Explanation

The explanation serves two purposes: First, to introduce the subject by presenting some background information about its usefulness and application; second to describe the subject in detail, sufficient to be complete, but not confusing.

The explanation should create a desire to become proficient in the skill. Unusual facts or illustrations arouse interest and create an appreciation of the value of learning the skill.

3. Demonstration And Modeling

This is the showing process and is the first step in actual teaching. The demonstration should be performed so well and simply that the student will have confidence in his own ability to achieve success. When demonstrating a skill it is not the opportunity for the coach to show his proficiency, but should be used primarily to show the steps in acquiring the skill.

4. Practice

Hearing and seeing are not enough. The learning process begins to be complete when students have the opportunity to attempt the skill themselves under the guidance of a coach, "Learning by Doing" is an effective method of instruction.

5. Teaching

We often learn best those things we teach to others. Whenever possible, each student should have an opportunity to demonstrate and practice teaching others. Occasionally a summary or review are desirable. The extent to which they are used depends on the type of skill under study and how well the student has learned.

D. COACHING IN A SKILL

1. Be able to perform the skill yourself.

2. Review your own experience in learning it, and work out a series of steps for teaching it.

3. Keep the coaching on a personal basis by working with small groups of learners, perhaps only one to start with. Get additional coaches and use students if necessary, to keep the groups small.

4. Size up those you are coaching, both as to abilities and personality traits that affect their power to learn this particular skill.

5. If a student has acquired little, or none, of the skill through reading, discussion, or some other method, go slowly, especially at the start.

6. Do not interfere with the student trying to do it on his own. Also, avoid interrupting his efforts unless he bogs down or goes off on the wrong track.

7. Let him make mistakes as they will impress on him the right way. However, definitely point out mistakes.

8. Never make corrections sarcastically or for the entertainment of onlookers.

9. Encourage the student by remarks on his progress pointing out the completion of each step and the steps he has done well.

10. Urge him to practise and perhaps to coach someone else when he has mastered the skill.

E. GIVING A DEMONSTRATION

There is a difference between using a skill and demonstrating it to others. A few suggestions are outlined here.

1. Prepare For The Demonstration

a. Plan it to appear as natural as possible, even if you cannot perform the skill exactly as you would in use.

b. Collect and prepare the needed equipment.

c. Know your group to determine their present knowledge of the skill and how much detail you ought to give them.

d. Think through and possibly make notes on the comments needed to explain the action.

e. Practise the demonstration from beginning to end until you can do it smoothly.

f. For a long demonstration, write down an outline of the steps.

2. Give The Demonstration

a. Briefly tell your group the major points to watch for.

b. Adjust your speed to the difficulty in learning various steps, and go slower at the start of the demonstration than toward the end.

c. Watch for the student's reactions, and fit the amount of detail and pace of action to them.

d. If necessary, repeat difficult or important steps, either as you go along, or after all steps are completed.

e. If you warn against the wrong way by showing it, always demonstrate the <u>right</u> way both before and after the wrong way.

3. Summarize The Demonstration

a. Briefly review the important steps in order. Use a blackboard or flip chart.

b. Give your group a chance to ask questions, or preferably, a chance to practise while you coach.

UNIT XIII: THE HELPING PROCESS: RULES FOR BEHAVIORAL SKILL ORIENTED GROUP HELP

This is a brief summary of the main points in performance centered counseling.

1. Work in the present:

The past, especially past failures, is de-emphasized. The past is useful when it provides information, methods, options, and ideas to work on for the present. Concentration on past inabilities or searching for past causes for present problems usually only provides students with excuses and justifications for current poor behavior.

2. Deal with behavior:

Avoid "reasons" or "justifications", even if they are true. Also avoid "motives" and "intentions", except when they relate directly to behavior; i.e., a student may intend one outcome and act in a way which produces an outcome different from or opposite to his intention. This incongruence should be worked on. Behavior can be worked on directly with little or no guessing needed. The issue is what does his behavior tell people about himself and his "intentions".

3. Get a commitment for change from the person:

The student should decide whether his present behavior has the desired result. He should ask, "Is this helping me?", "What <u>can</u> I do about it?", "What <u>will</u> I agree to do about it?". This constitutes an important part of the problem solving process. The student must make a commitment and he must understand that meeting it is <u>his</u> responsibility. Great care must be made to see that the student makes a realistic plan to meet his commitment.

4. Take no excuses.

Usually students test others and the group to see if they will take excuses for not fulfilling their commitments. If the group accepts excuses they are in effect telling the student "You are worthless, ineffective, you really can't do it." If they ask the student "Why didn't you do it?" they are looking for excuses. Instead, when following up on a commitment, the group asks, "When can you do it?". If the group accepts no excuses they let the student know they think he is worthwhile and they are willing to wait for him to fulfill his commitment. If the student continues to have trouble changing his behavior, the group should examine the plan that they made with him. Change it if necessary, but do not give up.

UNIT XIV: TRAINING IN BALANCED SELF-DETERMINED (BSD) BEHAVIOR

A. INTRODUCTION

Note: Throughout this unit <u>BSD</u> stands for <u>Balanced Self-Determinism;</u> OD stands for <u>Other Determinism;</u> and <u>SD</u> stands for <u>Selfish Determinism.</u>

1. Initial Definitions And Examples.

Has anyone ever cut in front of you in a line? Do you have difficulty saying "no" to persuasive salesmen? Can you comfortably begin a conversation with strangers at a party? Have you ever regretted "stepping on" someone else in trying to achieve your own goals?

Most people find situations such as these uncomfortable, worrisome, or irritating, yet often seem at a loss for just the "right" response. Behavior which enables a person to act in his own best interests, to stand up for himself without undue worry, to exercise his rights without denying the rights of others is called <u>Balanced Self-Determined</u> <u>Behavior</u> (abbreviated as BSD behavior). The <u>Other-Determined</u>, passive person (abbreviated as OD) is likely to think of the appropriate response after the opportunity has passed. The <u>Selfish Determined</u>, aggressive person (abbreviated as SD) may not give it another thought, but make a deep, and negative impression and may later be sorry for it. The coach needs to assist students in developing a more adequate array of BSD behaviors so that they may choose an appropriate and self-fulfilling response in a variety of situations.

2. What This Unit Contains

This unit describes some methods of dealing with worry and fear through BSD training since BSD behavior inhibits or weakens worry and fear previously experienced in specific interpersonal relationships. When a student becomes more able to stand up for himself and do things on his own initiative, he reduces his usual worry or tenseness in key situations, and increases his sense of worth as a person. Each individual has the same basic right as the other person in an interpersonal relationship -- roles and titles not withstanding. More people must learn to exercise their rights, without infringing upon the rights of others.

Learning to assert one's rights as a human being is a vital issue in anyone's life. If the student must go through life inhibited, cowing down to the wishes of others, holding his own desires inside himself, or conversely, destroying others in order to get his way, his feeling of personal worth will be low. Even such bodily complaints as headaches, general fatigue, stomach disturbances, rashes , and asthma have often been attributed to failure to develop BSD behavior. The BSD individual is in charge of himself in interpersonal relationships, feels confident and capable without cockiness or hostility, is basically spontaneous in the expression of feelings and emotions, and is generally looked up to and admired by others. Commonly, people mistake SD and aggression for BSD, but the BSD individual does not malign others or deny their rights, running roughshod over people. The BSD person is open and flexible, genuinely concerned with the rights of others, yet at the same time able to establish very well his own rights. The coaches must therefore avoid presenting this as a gimmick on "how to manipulate others". They are only concerned with facilitating enduring, positive behavior patterns.

The unit includes definitions of the concepts of OD, BSD, and SD behavior and describes how to bring about positive behavior changes giving specific instructions on the technique. A section discusses issues of concern in the use of BSD behavior. The last section includes a collection of situations useful for facilitating individual or group interactions in BSD training.

3. The Necessity For Bsd Training

If one analyses the family, church, education, and business he will note that BSD behavior is frequently squelched. One common source of confusion involves interpreting all BSD behavior as SD (selfish, aggressive, pushy, etc.) behavior. Another source is the fact that those in power value OD (passive, agreeing) behavior for others but not for themselves. Yet another source of confusion is the contrast between "recommended" and "rewarded" behavior. Even though it is typically understood that one should respect the rights of others, all too often parents, teachers and churches contradict these values by their own actions. Tact, diplomacy, politeness, refined manners, modesty, and self-denial are generally praised, yet to "get ahead" it is often acceptable to "step on" others.

The male child is encouraged to be strong, brave, and dominant. His aggressiveness is condoned and accepted, as in the pride felt by a father whose son is in trouble for busting the neighborhood bully in the nose. Ironically (and a source of much confusion for the child), the same father will likely encourage his son to have "respect for his elders," "to let others go first," and "be polite."

Although only just recently openly admitted, the athlete who participates in competitive sports knows that when he has been aggressive or perhaps "bent" the rules a little, it is O.K. because "it is not important how you play the game, it is important that you win." (The physical fitness purist who

would argue with this statement is invited to contrast the rewards for winning coaches with those for losing coaches who "build character.")

In the family, children are frequently censored if they decide to speak up for their rights. Hearing admonitions like "don't you dare talk to your mother (father) that way," "children are to be seen, not heard," "never let me hear you say that word again," is obviously not conducive to a child's assertion of self .

Teachers and school personnel discourage BSD behavior in basically the same manner as parents. Quiet, well behaved children who do not question the system are rewarded, whereas those who buck the system in some way are dealt with sternly. Many educators believe that children's natural and spontaneous desire to learn is lost by the fourth or fifth grade.

The residue of parental and educational upbringing affects students' functioning in jobs and daily lives. Every employee is aware that frequently one must not do or say anything that will "rock the boat" in an organization. The boss is "above" and others are "below" and feel obliged to go along with what is expected even if obviously inappropriate. Employees' early work experiences teach that if you "speak up" you are likely not to obtain a raise or recognition, and may even lose the job. They quickly learn to be a "company man," to keep things running smoothly, to have few ideas of their own, to be careful how they act lest it "get back to the boss." The lesson is quite clear, in effect, to not be BSD in work.

The teachings of contemporary churches seem to indicate that to be self-determined in life is not the "religious" thing to do. Such qualities as humility, self-denial, and self-sacrifice are usually fostered to the exclusion of standing up for oneself. There is a mistaken notion that religious ideals of brotherhood are incompatible with feeling good about oneself and with being calm and confident in relationships with others. However, being assertive in life is in no way incongruent with the teachings of the major religious groups. The escape from freedom restricting behavior <u>allows</u> one to be of more service to others as well as to one self.

It is common for a person who has been selfish or aggressive in a given situation to feel some guilt as a result of his behavior. It is less widely recognized that the self determined person also experiences guilt produced by childhood conditioning. The institutions of society have so carefully taught inhibiting expression of even one's reasonable rights, that one may feel badly for having stood up for himself.

It is not healthy for a person to suffer guilt feelings for being himself. Although families, schools, businesses and churches have tended to deny BSD behavior, the contention is that <u>each person has the right to be and to express himself,</u> and <u>to feel good -- not guilty -- about doing so, as long as he does not hurt others in the process</u>. The anti-BSD influence of these basic social systems produces "built-in" limits on the self-fulfilling actions of many persons.

4. Use Of This Unit

This unit is for all who wish to develop a more enhancing personal existence on their own, and for those instrumental in facilitating the personal growth of others. The concept of balanced self-determinism is needed by many persons.

This unit is written with practical applications in mind. To be of greatest use the coach must familiarize himself with the concept of BSD, recognize its validity in his own experience, and then apply its principles in his personal life and in Life Skills coaching.

BSD behavior inhibits worry and fear in such a way that the two conditions are mutually exclusive. That is, when BSD increases, worry and fear decreases. Thus the goal of balanced self-determinism is the same as the goal of reducing worry and fear by substituting good behavior for bad.

B. DEFINITIONS AND EXAMPLES

1. General Definitions

Each person should be able to <u>choose for himself</u> how he will act in a given circumstance. If his "polite restraint" response is too well developed, he may be unable to make the choice to act as he would like to. If his aggressive response is overdeveloped, he may be unable to achieve his own goals without hurting others. This freedom of choice and exercise of self-control is made possible by the development of BSD responses for situations which have previously produced fear based OD or SD behavior.

Illustrations contrasting BSD with OD and SD actions help clarify these concepts. The pattern which appears in the following chart is demonstrated in each of the illustrations which follow. The chart displays several feelings and consequences typical for the person whose behavior is OD, BSD, or SD. Also shown, for each of these modes of behavior, are the likely consequences for the person toward whom the action is directed (the other (s)).

As may be seen in the chart, in the case of an <u>Other Directed</u> (OD) response in a given situation, the "self" is typically non-assertive, denying and inhibited from expressing actual feelings, seldom achieving own desired goals, allowing others to choose instead, and often feeling hurt and anxious as a result of inadequate behavior.

OTHER DETERMINED (OD)	BALANCED SELF-DETERMINED (BSD)	SELFISH DETERMINED (SD)
Self Self-denying Inhibited, Passive Does not achieve desired goal(s) Allows others to choose for him Hurt, anxious	Self Self-enhancing Expressive, Active May achieve desired goal(s) Chooses for self Feels good about self	Self Self-enhancing at expense of other Expressive, Aggressive Achieves desired goal(s) by hurting others Chooses for others Depreciates others
Other(s) Guilty or angry Depreciates "Self" Achieves desired goal at "Self's" expense	Other(s) Self-enhancing Expressive May achieve desired goal(s)	Other(s) Self-denying Hurt, defensive, humiliated Does not achieve desired goal(s)

Persons who carry their desire for self-determinism to the extreme of Selfish Determined (SD), aggressive behavior reach their goals at the expense of others. Although the "self" frequently finds his behavior self-enhancing and expressive of his feelings in the situation, he usually hurts others in the process by making choices for them, minimizing their worth as persons. SD behavior commonly results in a "put down" of the other(s). The other's rights have been denied, and he feels hurt, defensive, and humiliated. His goals in the situation, of course, are not achieved.

In contrast, Balanced Self-Determined (BSD) behavior in the same situation is appropriately assertive and would be self-enhancing for the self, an honest expression of feeling. He will usually achieve his goals, having chosen for himself how he will act. A good feeling about himself typically accompanies the BSD response.

Similarly, when the consequences of these three contrasting behaviors are viewed from the perspective of the other(s) (i.e., the individual(s) toward whom the behavior is directed) a parallel pattern emerges. OD behavior often produces feelings ranging from sympathy to outright contempt toward the "self". Also the other(s) may feel guilt or anger at having achieved goals at the "self's" expense. In contrast, a transaction involving BSD enhances feelings of self-worth and permits full expression of self. In addition, while the "self" achieves his goals, the goals of other(s) may also be achieved.

In summary, then, it is clear that the "self" is hurt by his own self-denial in OD behavior; the other(s) toward whom he acts may be hurt in SD behavior. In the case of BSD neither person is hurt, and unless their goal achievement is mutually exclusive, both may succeed.

2. Examples

a. Mr. and Mrs. A are at dinner in a moderately expensive restaurant. Mr. A has ordered a rare steak, but when the steak is served, Mr. A finds it to be very well done, contrary to his order. His behavior is:

Other Directed (OD): Mr. A grumbles to his wife about the "burned" meat, and observes that he won't patronize this restaurant in the future. He says nothing to the waitress, responding "Fine'" to her inquiry "Is everything all right?" His dinner and evening are highly unsatisfactory, and he feels guilty for having taken no action. Mr. A's estimate of himself, and Mrs. A's estimate of him are both deflated by the experience.

Balanced Self-Determined (BSD): Mr. A motions the waitress to his table. Noting that he had ordered a rare steak, he shows her the well done meat, asking politely but firmly that it be returned to the kitchen and replaced with the rare-cooked steak he originally requested. The waitress apologizes for the error, and shortly returns with a rare steak. The A's enjoy dinner, tip accordingly, and Mr. A feels satisfaction with himself. The waitress is pleased with a satisfied customer and an adequate tip.

Selfish Determined (SD): Mr. A. angrily summons the waitress to his table. He berates her loudly and unfairly for not complying with his order. His actions ridicule the waitress and embarrass Mrs. A. He demands and receives another steak, this one more to his liking. He feels in control of the situation, but Mrs. A's embarrassment creates friction between them, and spoils their evening. The waitress is humiliated and angry, and loses her poise for the rest of the evening.

b. Mr. and Mrs. B, who have been married nine years, have been having marital problems recently because he insists that she is overweight and needs to reduce. He brings the subject up continually, pointing out that she is no longer the girl he married, (who was 25 lbs. lighter); that such overweight is bad for her health, that she is a bad example for the children, and so on.

In addition, he teases her about being "chunky," looks longingly at thin girls, commenting how attractive they look, and makes references to her figure in front of their friends. Mr. B has been reacting this way for the past three months and Mrs. B is highly upset. She has been attempting to lose weight for those three months but with little success. Following Mr. B's most recent rash of criticism. Mrs. B is:

OD: She apologizes for her overweight, makes only feeble excuses or simply doesn't reply to some of Mr. B's comments. Internally, she feels alternately hostile toward her husband for his nagging, and guilty about being overweight. Her feelings of anxiety make it even more difficult for her to lose weight and the battle continues.

BSD: Approaching her husband when they are alone and will not be interrupted, Mrs. B indicates that she feels that Mr. B is correct about her need to lose weight, but she does not care for the way he keeps after her about the problem or the manner in which he does so. She points out that she is doing her best and is having a difficult time losing the weight and maintaining the loss. He acknowledges the

ineffectiveness of his harping, and they work out together a plan in which he will systematically reward her for her efforts to lose weight.

SD: Mrs. B goes into a long tirade about how her husband isn't any great bargain anymore either! She brings up the fact that at night he falls asleep on the couch half the time, is a lousy sex partner and doesn't pay sufficient attention. None of these comments are pertinent to the issue at hand, but Mrs. B continues. She complains that he humiliates her in front of the children and their close friends and acts like a "lecherous old man" by the way he eyes the sexy girls. In her anger she succeeds only in wounding Mr. B and driving a wedge between them by "defending" herself with a counter-attack on him.

c. Mr. and Mrs. E have a boy two years old and a baby girl two months old. Over the last several nights their neighbor's son who is 17, has been sitting in his own driveway in his car with his stereo tape player blaring loudly. He begins just about the time the E's two young children go to bed. The loudness of his music has been awakening the children each night since their bedrooms are on the side of the house where the boy plays the music. It is impossible for the E's to get the children to bed until the music stops. Mr. and Mrs. E are both disturbed and decide to be:

OD: Mr. and Mrs. E move the children into their own bedroom on the other side of the house, wait until the music stops around 1 a.m., then transfer the children back to their own rooms. Then they go to bed much past their own usual bedtime. They continue to quietly curse the teenager and soon become alienated from their neighbors.

BSD: Both Mr. and Mrs. E go over to the boy's house and indicate to him that his stereo is keeping the children awake at night. They offer to work out an arrangement concerning the music so that it would not disturb the children's sleep. The boy is reluctantly agreeable to setting a lower volume level during the late hours, but appreciates the E's cooperative attitude. Both parties feel good about the outcome.

SD: Mr. and Mrs. E call the police and protest that "one of those wild teenagers" next door is creating a disturbance. They demand that the police "do their duty" and stop the noise at once. The police do talk with the boy and his parents, who become very upset and angry as a result of their embarrassment about the police visit. They denounce the E's tactic in reporting to the police without speaking to them first, and resolve to avoid further association with them.

d. Mark, 28, came home today to find a note from his wife saying that she has initiated divorce proceedings against him. He is emotionally upset by his wife's actions, especially since she did not tell him face to face. As he attempts to control himself and understand why she reacted this way, he re-reads her note: "Mark, we have been married for three whole years and you have never for one instant let me stand up for myself and act like a human being. You constantly tell me what to do and you make all of the decisions! You will never learn to show tenderness and warmth toward anyone. I dread having children for fear they will be treated as I am. I have learned to lose all respect and admiration for you. Last night was the final straw when you beat me, Mark, and I am divorcing you." Mark decides to react to her note by being:

OD: He feels all alone, sorry for himself and yet remorseful. He begins drinking and finally gets up enough nerve to call his wife at her parent's home. On the phone he pleads for her forgiveness, asking her to return, promising he will reform.

BSD: Mark phones his wife indicating that he realizes it is basically his fault, but that he would like to change. He tells of his plan to make an appointment with a marriage counselor and is hopeful that she would attend with him.

SD: Mark becomes violently angry at his wife's behavior and seeks her out. He roughly grabs her arm and demands that she come home where she belongs. He indicates that she is his wife and <u>Must</u> do what he says. She struggle and resists and her parents intervene and call the police.

e. Russell is a twenty-two year old school drop-out who works in a plastics factory. He lives alone in a small one-room walk-up apartment. Russell has had no dates for the past fourteen months. He left school after a series of depressing events -- academic failures, a "Dear John" letter, and some painful harassment by other students in his residence hall. He has been in jail overnight for drunkenness on two recent occasions. Yesterday he received a letter from his mother, inquiring about his well being, but primarily devoted to a discussion of his brother's recent successes. Today his supervisor berated him harshly and somewhat unjustly for a mistake which was actually the supervisor's own responsibility. In addition, a secretary in the plant turned down his invitation for dinner. When he arrived at his apartment that evening, feeling particularly depressed and overwrought, his landlord met him at the door with a tirade about "drunken bums" and a demand (one week early) that this month's rent be paid on time. Russell's response is:

OD: He takes on himself the burden of the landlord's attack, feeling added guilt and even greater depression. A sense of helplessness overcomes him. He wonders how his brother can be so successful while he considers himself so worthless. The secretary's rejection and the boss's criticism strengthen his conviction that he is "no damn good." Deciding the world would be a better place without him, he finds the small revolver he has been hiding in his room, and begins loading it for the purpose of committing suicide.

BSD: Russell responds firmly to the landlord, noting that he has paid his rent regularly, and that it is not due for another week. He reminds the landlord of a broken rail on the stairway and the plumbing repairs which were to have been accomplished weeks earlier. The landlord leaves without further comment. The following morning, after giving his life situation a great deal of thought Russell makes an appointment with the local mental health clinic to begin a treatment program. At work he approaches the supervisor calmly and explains the circumstances surrounding the mistake. Though somewhat defensive, the supervisor acknowledges his error and apologizes for his aggressive behavior.

SD: The landlord has added the final straw to Russell's burden. He becomes extremely angry and pushes the landlord out of the way into his room. Once alone, he resolves to "get" the people who have been making his life so miserable recently, the supervisor, the secretary, the landlord, and possibly others as well. He finds his revolver and begins loading it, with the intent of going out after dark to shoot the people who have hurt him.

3. General And Situational Other Determinedness

Two concepts of OD are useful in the development of more adaptive responses to life situations which call for BSD behavior. The first concerns those individuals whose behavior is typically adequate and self-enhancing; however, <u>certain situations</u> stimulate a great deal of anxiety in them which prevents fully adequate responses to that particular situation. We identify this category as <u>situational Other Determinedness.</u>

      The second category, <u>generalized other determinedness,</u> includes those persons whose behavior is typically OD across situations. This individual, often observed as shy, timid, non-assertive, or reserved, finds himself unable to assert his rights or act on his feelings under <u>most or nearly all circumstances.</u> He will not do anything to disturb anyone. He is constantly giving in to any request made of him or feels guilty for turning someone down. He has always done what his parents wanted of him. He feels he has no ideas of his own and is cowed by others. Whereas most persons will at least protest a little when their rights are badly abused, the general OD person will say nothing at all. For example, if others are making undue noise and interfering with one's enjoyment of a performance, most of us will, when sufficiently provoked, ask them to respect our desire for quiet, whereas the generally OD person will suffer in silence. He may even accuse himself of being non-accepting or non-loving at having the slightest thought that the other person is wrong. It is not unusual for him to go out of his way to let others take advantage of him.

Some general OD people ask permission to do what most regard as commonly accepted. One woman felt it necessary to ask her husband if she could kiss him or sit on his lap! One man let someone borrow his car, supposedly for the day. When, three days later, the person returned the car with little gas and no explanation whatsoever as to what had happened, the owner said nothing although his head was in a "fog" and his stomach in turmoil.

The generally OD person, therefore, is one who finds his own self-esteem very low, and for whom very uncomfortable anxiety is generated by nearly all social situations. His feelings of inadequacy, his lack of acknowledgment of his own self-worth, and his physical discomfort brought on by generalized anxiety call for in-depth treatment. The extreme inhibition and lack of emotional responsiveness of this OD person may require a depth of attitude and behavior development which is possible only in a relationship with a trained therapist.

The situational OD person will readily recognize his problem and, without too much preparation or prompting, will successfully initiate, BSD behavior. He also has a tendency to recognize ways in his life to become more BSD and assert himself with others spontaneously without being specifically instructed to do so by the coach.

An example is a 27 year-old female college student who told of how others took advantage of her a good deal of the time. Her present difficulty was with a classmate who had borrowed her notes sometime ago and now had them for over a month. The girl needed them back in order to prepare for student teaching and had even asserted herself to some extent by asking for them back one time, but the other girl did not return them. The concepts of BSD were explained to her, the difficulty she had asserting herself properly pointed out to her, and she role played calling the girl again, this time being firm and insistent. During the next several days she did call the girl, spoke firmly about needing her notes, and soon got them back. She also complained about an unjust parking ticket and won. In addition, she spoke up to one of her roommates about some matter that upset her. In the

past, this woman would have let these things slide or pass, however she learned her lesson quickly with a much improved self-image as a result.

In the case of situational OD, we may assume we are dealing with a relatively healthy person who wishes to develop new ways of handling situations which are now uncomfortable, self-denying, and non-adaptive for him. If he did nothing about these situations he would still be able to function in a relatively healthy manner. However, by learning BSD behavior in certain key situations he will make his life run more smoothly and feel much more fulfilled as a person. The teacher, counselor, or friend may observe this person's inability to act in his own best interest. Or the individual may himself seek help in overcoming anxiety in a given situation.

4. General And Situational Selfish Determinism

In the preceding section, we described the behavior of the person whose anxiety inhibited Balanced Self Determined responses. Another person may respond to such anxiety by becoming Selfishly Determined and aggressive, "putting himself up" by "putting others down."

It is not uncommon for BSD behavior to be confused with SD behavior. However, BSD does not involve hurting another person. Often the SD individual <u>wishes</u> to stand up for himself without hurting others but has not <u>learned</u> responses which are appropriately self-determined. It is easy to misunderstand SD acts and to hold low esteem for SD people. Hopefully, an acknowledgment of SD behavior as an inadequate response to anxiety and a recognition of the ease with which one may learn more adaptive responses will reduce the out-of-proportion concern many have about individual SD behavior.

The concepts of "general" and "situational" may be applied to SD behavior in a similar fashion to our discussion of OD behavior. The <u>generally Selfishly Determined</u> individual is characterized by behavior toward others which is <u>typically</u> selfish and aggressive in every type of situation. He may appear, on the surface, to have a high level of self-confidence, to be in command of every situation, to be strong and able to cope with life on his own terms. He may live according to his view of the masculine cultural ideal: the image of the aggressive, masculine figure who dominates his environment and demonstrates his "manhood" by bravado. If he is more intellectually oriented, he may typically dominate conversations, belittle the opinions of others, and leave no doubt that he considers himself the final word on nearly any topic.

One who is generally SD appears to have friction with the majority of people with whom he comes into contact. He is extremely sensitive to criticism and feels rejected a good portion of the time. General SD is characterized by the ease at which one is triggered into aggressive outbursts. In extreme cases he is so volatile that the slightest threat to his security causes an adverse reaction. He is typically very autocratic in his family relationships with a submissive spouse and cowering children and may be physically abusive with his spouse. Often a loner type who is considered sullen and moody, he may have great difficulty holding a job.

This generally SD person, because his behavior is so offensive to others, finds himself with few friends and little esteem from his acquaintances. His need for affection and acceptance are as great as anyone's but he does not know how to assert himself (and thus gain acceptance) or how to ask for affection. His attempts at reaching out to others for human contact usually end in frustration because of his abusive behavior.

Again, as in the case of the generally OD person, the generally SD individual is anxious in nearly all social situations. His unwillingness or inability to respond to an emotional event honestly, deceiving others and often himself may call for a professional therapeutic relationship.

The situationally Selfishly Determined person responds with aggression only under certain conditions. He will usually recognize this condition and may voluntarily seek assistance for the specific problem, or respond readily to the suggestion of another that he may need to change. He may respond willingly to the suggestion that he may easily learn a more adaptive response than SD behavior.

Two examples of situational SD aggressive behavior will perhaps bring the idea into clearer perspective. Two individuals were referred by the same college instructor on separate occasions. The first, a male sophomore, was described as having a "chip on his shoulder;" the second, a female senior, was sent for "being too pushy" with an instructor and her classmates. The boy was a disrupting influence in the classroom for the teacher and other class members. He would ask questions in an aggressive manner which intimidated the teacher and in class discussions would barge in with his opinions, showing no respect for the opinions of others. His opinionated attitude was offending but made worse by his contempt for others who did not accept his "obvious" conclusions. He literally disrupted the entire classroom climate by rejecting the validity of any viewpoint other than his own. To say the least, he alienated everyone in this classroom situation even though many of his points were well thought out and logical.

The senior girl only became aggressive after an extended period of Other Determined behavior. As she felt others taking advantage of her more and more, she finally could stand it no longer and would have an aggressive outburst. After her display of anger, she would appear to function well again until the build up occurred again, producing another outburst. Both of these individuals were correct in their opinions, but ruined the effectiveness of their ideas by inappropriate actions. Both found their academic lives improved by learning how to handle situations with Balanced Self-Determined behavior.

Another example is that of the woman, 37, who was being counseled with her husband after having worked individually with a therapist for some time. She was extremely angry with her husband for his preoccupation with activities outside the home, but avoided direct confrontation. Instead, her responses to him were "super-sweet," including a direct statement that she "didn't mind" his involvements elsewhere. Nevertheless, she expressed her bitter resentment by such actions as taking the car when she knew he needed it, cutting him down verbally in front of others, and leaving the children with him when he was particularly busy at home. Such subtly aggressive acts were all a substitute for the honest confrontation she could not achieve.

C. THE PROCESS OF BALANCED SELF DETERMINISM (BSD) TRAINING

1. Introduction

The process of Balanced Self-Determinism (BSD) training has four main aspects: the role of the coach (facilitator), the techniques of BSD behavior facilitation, self-directed development of BSD behavior, and group techniques of BSD Behavior development. In the first, the coach may serve to motivate one to change, to guard against dangers involved in BSD, to act as a model and prompter for the student as he rehearses new behavior, and to be a mediator with significant other persons in the student's life. The technique of BSD behavior facilitation includes specific step-by-step methods for the coach (facilitator) to employ in teaching BSD behavior. Self-directed development of BSD

behavior is a means whereby the individual learns BSD on his own without the help of a coach. Finally, consideration is given to how BSD facilitation may be adapted to the group setting.

2. The Role Of The Coach

a. Motivation to Change:

After initially deciding whether the student was too OD or SD the coach must be certain that the student understands fully the consequences of such behavior. In the case of the OD student this usually is an easy task, since the majority of individuals readily recognize themselves as lacking in assertion and wish to overcome the dilemma. If such adequate motivation is not present, the coach points out conditions in one's present relationships which will become worse unless the student seeks change.

Motivation of the SD person is frequently a somewhat different matter. Although many SD individuals wish to improve their ability to relate effectively to others, it is often more difficult for the SD to seek help since he is accustomed to controlling his environment to suit his own needs. Generally we have found that the person who behaves in an SD aggressive manner finds his way into therapy as a result of the suggestion of others or out of his own frustration with the inadequacy of his responses.

One example, which interestingly demonstrates both OD and SD responses to worry and fear, is the case of a young woman who was having fits of anger, expressed toward the boy she planned to marry. Her worry was caused by his lack of consideration; he would pick her up quite late for dates, not inform her until the last minute about engagements he wanted her to attend with him, and other similar discourtesies. She would not assert her right to demand due courtesy, until her anger had built up to an irrational level, then she would explode at him. Once she was aware that the situation would likely only grow worse after marriage, what it would be like to be married for years with such a relationship existing, and the potentiality of her marriage ending in divorce, she agreed to BSD training. Unfortunately many women go through their entire marriage "under the thumb" of their husbands because they feel it is "their place" in the marriage relationship.

Usually when suggesting Balanced Self-Determinism to individuals, the coach speaks of the fact that no one has a right to take advantage of another simply on a human being-to-human being level. For instance, as an employer no one has a right to take advantage of an employee's natural rights to courtesy and respect as a human being. A doctor does not have the right to be discourteous or unfair in dealing with a patient. A lawyer should not feel he can "talk down" to a common laborer. Each person has a perfect right to speak his piece even though he may "only have a grade high school education" or be "from the wrong side of the tracks" or be "just a secretary in a large office." Men are indeed created equal on the human-to-human plane and each as the privilege of expressing his inborn rights. The coach also points out that there is so much more to be gained from life by being free and able to stand up for oneself, and from honoring the same right for others. By being Balanced Self Determined one is actually learning to give and take more equally with others, and to be of more service to himself and others.

Another facet of motivating a person to become BSD is for him to become aware of the likelihood that his somatic ailments will be reduced as BSD behavior progresses. Complaints such as headaches, asthma, gastric disorders, and general fatigue often times clear up. The reduction in guilt and anxiety which is experienced by OD and SD persons who learn to be BSD often results in the elimination of such physical symptoms.

Another effective motivator is for the coach to cite cases of past quite similar to or even worse than the individual with whom one is working. Hearing case descriptions that sound very much like himself, and learning how others then successfully overcame the difficulty often gives one sufficient hope and courage to initiate training. Generally speaking a person is able to "see himself" in one of these descriptions of others, and as a result desires to overcome his problem.

One implication of BSD recurs time and again with OD individuals, self-denying behavior subtly rewards another's bad or unwanted behavior. Two illustrations will best make this point clear.

A married woman, 35, had a husband who desired sexual intercourse every evening. At times she, on the other hand, would clearly be too tired from the day's activities as a housewife and mother of three and not wish intercourse. However, when she would refuse him, her husband would begin to pout and feel hurt, carrying on until she would finally "feel sorry" for him and give in. This sequence was a consistent pattern in their marriage and the more she would not give in, the more he would pout until she did so. Of course, by eventually giving in she promptly rewarded all of his pouting, not to mention the reward value of his sexual gratification'

Another example is a college student, age 20, who, although surviving quite well on her own, was a self-styled "hippie" type, living off-campus in a cheap habitat with another girl and boy. By living together they cut expenses and saved a good deal of money. This young lady was also to a degree "anti-administration."

Word of her behavior and living conditions got back to her parents, who then confronted her with a long tirade about the younger generation, respect for authority, her mother's health, being disgraceful, and so on. This happened on several occasions and each time the girl would eventually get upset and either ask what she could do to help ease things or simply give in to some of their demands. Here again, by her action of getting upset and giving in, she simply rewarded her parents unwanted behavior; she taught them now to have these tirades against her.

Although it may be more difficult for the generally SD individual to admit the negative consequences of his actions, he usually recognizes the reaction of others to his denial of their rights. He reacts internally with acknowledgment and pain when confronted with the alienation his behavior brings about. If he has sought help, he may, once he feels he can trust the coach admit his concern and guilt for the hurt he causes others, noting that he simply does not know how to gain his own goals with BSD behavior. At this point he is an excellent candidate for BSD training.

One individual of this type was "reached" in a group setting. After considerable time had been spent listening to his loud dominance over the group, several members took him to task. Although he was a large rugged man, he soon responded to this caring but confronting response by the others and began to cry. He confessed that he had developed this facade of bravado to protect himself from a fear of closeness. He really felt himself to be quite an inadequate person, and had used the "strong man" mask to keep others at a distance. The group responded to his need for others to care for him and later helped him to shape adequately BSD responses to replace his previously gruff, bellicose behavior.

b. Precautions for the coach:

Once the person is well motivated and ready to begin BSDism the coach must make certain that the individual -- the <u>student</u> -- understands thoroughly the basic principles of BSD. The examples of the differences between BSD and SD are important and should be made clear to him. When the coach feels the student is ready from a theoretical standpoint, he must decide whether or not the student can begin BSD behavior on his own. Most clients voice their agreement to try BSD behavior on their own. These usually are the <u>situationally Other Determined</u> or <u>situationally Selfish Determined</u> who, with a small amount of coaxing, are able to begin Balanced Self-Determinism quite successfully.

With the <u>generally Other Determined</u> and <u>generally Selfish Determined</u> however, much more caution is involved and we feel it is best to make very certain that much practice and work with the coach be involved.

The students' initial attempts at being BSD should be chosen for their high potential of success, so as to provide reward. This point, of course, is important with all beginning students but especially the <u>generally OD</u> and <u>generally SD</u>.

The more successfully one asserts himself the more likely he is to do so from then on. Additionally, when the individual reports to the coach an instance of successful BSD behavior, he obtains added reward. The coach must indeed be very capable of providing verbal reward for each of the student's successful BSD acts.

Initially then, the student should begin with small BSD acts that are likely to be rewarding and from there proceed to more difficult BSD acts. Ideally each step should be explored with the coach until the student is capable of being fully in control of most situations. He should be warned against taking it upon his own initiative to attempt a difficult BSD act without special preparation. The coach also should be aware not to instigate an BSD act where the student is likely to fail miserably, thus inhibiting further attempts.

If the student does suffer a setback, which very well may happen, the coach must be ready to help him to analyze the situation and to help him regain his confidence. Especially in the early stages students are prone to mistakes either of inadequate technique or of over zealousness to the point of SD.

Either miscue could cause negative returns, particularly if the other individual, the "acted upon," becomes hostile and highly aggressive. Therefore, the coach must be prepared to serve as a buffer and help to re-establish motivation.

c. Behavior Rehearsal, Role Playing and Modeling:

Training to become more BSD can be facilitated by practicing the intended act before attempting it. Usually it is best for the coach to be present to offer hints on techniques plus reward, but at times the student can practice with a tape recorder or in front of the mirror or both. The coach may role play the student's part in order to demonstrate his inadequate behavior showing him his faulty approach and giving a model for improvement. The coach may also serve as a model for the student in order to demonstrate correct procedure including non-verbal as well as verbal cues. Life Skills groups are helpful too, offering support, more ideas on how to approach matters, the modeling

benefit gained from watching others, and the sharing of examples of successes and failures by group members.

d. Relationships with Primary Group Members (e.g. parents, spouses):

Typically, patterns of OD and SD behavior have been operational in an individual for a long period of time. The student then will have well established patterns of interaction with those significantly close to him, such as family, spouses, and friends. Acting out a typically SD or OD reaction to a recorder, or before the mirror, and following this with an acted-out BSD reaction to the same situation is a recommended technique. It is important "to see ourselves as others see us." A change in these established relationships is very likely to be quite upsetting to the others involved. Generally speaking, parents are often targets of SD behavior, especially during the late teens and early twenties, when children are striving for independence.

Of course, some people defer to their parents wishes and commands as long as they are living (because it is the "right thing" to do to respect one's elders, primarily your parents, who sacrificed so much for you, etc., etc.). Many parents believe this same line of thinking and therefore are likely to be quite disconcerted when their child "rebels" with BSD acts. On the other hand, parents who have patterned their lives in response to an SD child could be equally unsettled to find his behavior changing to BSD even though they have often wished for such a day. Consequently, the coach can often intervene and talk to the parents to prepare them for what is to come. This intervention can often prevent their reactions from becoming exacerbated, and deeply strained relations between parents and child can be avoided.

Marriage relationships which have been functioning for years based upon the OD or SD actions of one partner are similarly prone to be turned "topsy-turvy" when BSD commences. If the spouse is not properly prepared, and possibly willing to change to some degree, a marital break-up is a definite possibility. Cooperation from the spouse through one or more conferences with the coach can help a great deal in "cushioning" the students' change in behavior. Hopefully BSD training for one spouse will also strengthen the marital relationship. Nevertheless there is a potential for damage to an intimate relationship from a significant behavior change by one partner, and caution must be observed in proceeding with these likely consequences in mind. A conference with parents and/or spouse is definitely recommended.

3. The Technique Of BSD Behavior Facilitation

It is assumed that the coach is a person whose personal characteristics and skills have qualified him to assist another person in the development of behavior. It is also fundamental to this discussion that the decision to develop new behavior is entirely in the hands of the student in question. The skilled coach places himself on call for the student in order to help him gain behavioral skills of his own choosing.

When the OD and/or SD behavior has been identified, and the person to be helped has chosen the kind of help he wants (i.e. specified a skill he wishes to develop), the coach is in a position to begin the systematic process of helping the student to learn new ways to respond to previously threatening situations. Application of a sequence of logical steps will improve the student's ability to cope with nearly all such situations as he learns the process of BSD behavior. (These steps are designed for use by an individual coach on a one-to-one basis with the student. Following sections discuss adapting these procedures to self-directed or group settings.)

<u>Step 1</u> The coach helps the student to re-create as vividly as possible the scene in which the student finds himself ill-at-ease, upset or otherwise functioning poorly. Details of the setting are important to producing in the student the feelings he has in the real situation.

<u>Step 2</u> The student's response to the situation and the consequences resulting from his behavior are left open ended.

<u>Step 3</u> The student and coach now act out the scene, with the student portraying himself, and acting as he would usually under these circumstances in reality. The coach, while playing the part of another person, carefully observes the student's behavior. Use of video tape recording (or in its absence, audio recording) is helpful at this point.

<u>Step 4</u> The coach utilizing his own observations and recordings, reviews the student's behavior with him. Particular attention should be drawn to the ways in which the student's OD and/or SD tendencies manifest themselves (e.g. expressions, actions, mannerisms, speech) and to the positive points in his behavior. If a video tape recorder is not available, it is often helpful for the coach to re-enact the student behavior for him, to mirror for him his own actions. With some students it may be useful in the re-enactment to overemphasize certain behaviors in order to make a point (e.g. giving an extra-limp handshake, speaking inaudibly, overacting rudeness). This step should be worked through thoroughly so that the "feedback" is adequate. The student needs to see clearly his inadequate behavior patterns, and also recognize his strengths.

<u>Step 5</u> Using the Problematic Practice Situations section along with their own ideas about the situation, the coach and student next consider alternative approaches to the situation. How might the student have handled it differently, more to his own advantage, or less offensively? A thorough discussion of alternatives and their likely consequences is in order at this time. Referring to the chart of definitions and distinctions, the student should differentiate between OD, BSD and SD responses.

<u>Step 6</u> When the student and coach agree that this review has made the student aware of how he could more effectively act in the situation, it may be appropriate for him to attempt a BSD response in the actual situation without further practice (Step 11). Generally, however, it is preferable to complete all 14 steps in sequence.

<u>Step 7</u> Because of the importance of social models in the process of learning new behavior the coach should next select one of the more desirable alternatives and take the part of the student demonstrating the more effective behavior in the situation. During this procedure, the student should pay careful attention to the coach's actions, noting facial expressions, speech volume and tempo, body movements, gestures, and choice of words. The consequences of the coach's approach should then be discussed, as well as possible ways to improve on his actions.

<u>Step 8</u> Having examined his own behavior, considered alternatives, and observed a model of more adaptive action, the student is now prepared to begin trying out for himself new ways of dealing with the problem situation. (If he is unwilling to go on at this point, a repeat of Steps 4, 5, and 7 may be necessary until he is ready to proceed). It is important for the student to select an alternative, more effective way of behaving in the problem situation. (He may wish to follow the model of the coach and enact the same approach taken by his model in Step 7. Such a choice is appropriate, but should reflect an awareness on the part of the

student that he is a unique person, and he may not find the coach's approach one which he could feel good about adopting for himself). After selecting a more effective alternative behavior, the student is now to role-play the situation, attempting to act in accord with the new response pattern he has selected. As in Step 3, the coach makes careful observations of the student's behavior, using available mechanical recording aids.

Step 9 This step essentially repeats Step 4; however, at this time the feedback emphasis is on the positive aspects of the student's behavior. He should be strongly rewarded for the strengths of his performance, encouraged positively to develop weaker areas.

Step 10 Steps 8 and 9 should be repeated as often as necessary to "shape" the behavior of the student -- by this process of successive approximations of his goal -- to a point wherein he feels comfortable dealing in a self-enhancing manner with the previously threatening situation.

Step 11 The student is now ready to test his new response pattern in the actual situation. Up to this point his preparation has taken place in a relatively secure environment. Nevertheless, careful training and repeated practice have prepared him to react almost "automatically" to the situation. He should thus be reassured if necessary and encouraged to proceed with an in vivo trial. If he is unwilling to do so, further rehearsals may be needed. (Persons who are chronically anxious and insecure, or who seriously doubt their own self-worth may need professional therapy. The untrained coach is urged to seek professional assistance if indicated.)

Step 12 The student should be encouraged to return as soon as practical to the coach following his in vivo trial, in order to review his effort and the consequences thereof. The coach should reward whatever degree of success the student experiences, and offer continued assistance.

Step 13 The coach will wish to encourage the student to repeat such procedures as may be appropriate in the development of the desired behavior, and to invite the student to undertake a similar behavior development program relative to other situations in which he wishes to develop a more adaptive repertoire of responses.

Step 14 As a final step in establishing an independent behavior pattern, the coach should help the student to understand the need for on-going self-reward. It will be very important for the student, in order to maintain his newly-developed BSD behavior, that he achieve a system of rewards in his own social environment. He will typically no longer have the benefit of regular reward from the coach so he must gain rewards for his BSD behavior from other sources in his life.

For example, the student now knows the good feeling which accompanies a successful BSD act and he can be assured that this good response will continue. Admiration received from others will be another continuing positive response to his growth. The coach and student should develop a check list of specific rewards available which are unique to the student's environment.

Although we emphasize the importance of this systematic learning process, it should be noted that no lock-step forced pattern is recommended without consideration for the needs and objectives of the student. Coaches are encouraged to provide a learning environment in which the student may grow in BSD and to carefully avoid "shoving it down his throat."

4. Development Of Self-Directed BSD Behavior

After exposure to the preceding material and gaining a thorough understanding, certain individuals may decide that they can instigate BSD acts in their own lives without the help of a coach. Such use of these materials is perfectly acceptable, but only with situational OD and situational SD people. One should simply follow the guidelines presented in this unit, being careful to proceed step-by-step. The importance of the feedback process (steps 3, 4, and 9) should be recognized and the use of a tape recorder, mirror, or other devices should not be overlooked. Possibly the help of a spouse or friend could also be elicited.

It is important to remember to begin with BSD acts where one is somewhat certain of success before proceeding to more difficult ones requiring greater confidence and skill. One should not forget that it is often quite helpful and reassuring to obtain support and guidance from an objective helping person. Consider, for example, the relative success of weight loss programs undertaken with medical supervision versus those which are self-supervised.

5. Group Techniques Of BSD Training

As noted earlier, the process of BSD behavior development may be effectively applied in a group setting. With some students this approach may be more effective than the individual one-to-one relationships because of the expanded potential for interaction with others during the training process.

Several specific advantages result from a small group. The OD or SD person typically encounters great anxiety in certain life situations when he is faced with confronting other people in order to assert himself. Learning BSD behavior in a group, provides a "laboratory" of other people with whom to work. Discovering that they share similar problems, each is less "alone". The group must be understanding and supportive, providing a social environment in which each person can be accepted as he is, and thus be comfortable enough to experiment with new behavior.

With several individuals undertaking BSD training together, there is a broader base for social modeling. Each student sees several others learning to act in a more BSD manner, and each is able to learn from the strengths and weaknesses of the others.

A group provides greater feedback than can an individual coach. The advantage of hearing from several perspectives can speed the behavior-shaping process for each student.

Social situations involving several people are a frequent source of anxiety for OD or SD people. Work in a group gives a realistic opportunity to face several people and overcome that difficulty in a relatively safe training environment.

A significant disadvantage to be recognized in the use of the small group setting for BSD training is that some students are so worried about their interpersonal contacts that they may be unable to face even a congenial group of others with similar problems. In such cases, of course, individual work is essential, at least until the student feels able to enter a group.

The developmental process spelled out above may be adapted to the group setting simply by involving the group members in the role-playing and feed-back processes (Steps 3, 4, 8 and 9) and in the discussion and modeling of alternative behaviors (Steps 5 and 7).

Preparation of the group for working effectively together will depend upon the institutional setting, the skill and attitudes of the coach and the readiness of group members to respond openly and honestly to one another. An atmosphere of trust and concern for one another should grow out of the training process, and that growth toward common objectives may provide sufficient cohesiveness to develop an effective working group. The coach himself, acting as model and guide, sets the initial tone, and by his example encourages trust, support and positive regard for each member of the group.

D. CAUTIONS. LIMITS AND POTENTIAL PROBLEMS IN USING BSD TRAINING

1. Introduction

The value of BSD behavior to the individual seeking self direction in his life, and particularly in his interpersonal relationships, is clear. However, it is necessary to recognize some of the potential shortcomings and hazards inherent in BSD actions. Sensitivity is required in taking into account some of these limitations and potentially negative consequences of standing up for oneself.

Although for most, BSD behavior will be its own reward, the consequences on occasion may deflate its value. Consider, for example, the young boy who refuses the bully's request to ride his new bike, and finds himself nursing a black eye as a result! His act was perfectly legitimate, but the other person was unwilling to accept the denial of his desire. Therefore, without suggesting that a BSD act be avoided if it appears hazardous, we do encourage persons to consider the probable consequences of their BSD acts. Under certain circumstances, the personal value of BSD behavior will be outweighed by the value of avoiding the probable response to that behavior.

It may be useful to review a number of possible situations in which the potential value of BSD behavior is weighed against the likely consequences. Each person should be able to choose for himself how he will act. If an individual c act in a BSD manner under given conditions, but chooses not to, then the training goal has been accomplished. If he is unable to act in a BSD manner -- i.e. cannot choose for himself how he will behave, but is cowed into OD behavior or triggered into SD acts -- his life will be governed by others and his mental health will suffer.

2. Potential Adverse Reactions

When facilitating BSD behavior negative results can occur. Certain people do react in a disagreeable manner when they face BSD acts from another. Therefore, even if the behavior is handled properly one may at times still be faced with uncomfortable situations such as the following:

a. Backbiting

After you have acted the other person involved may be somewhat disgruntled, but not openly. For example, if you see others in line jumping ahead of you and you assert yourself, the person may grumble as he passes you to go to the end of the line. You may hear such things as "Who does he think he is anyway?", "Big deal!", "Big man!", and so forth. The best solution is simply to ignore the childish behavior. If you do retort in some manner you are likely to only complicate the situation by rewarding the fact that his words "got to you."

b. Aggression

In this case the other party may become outwardly hostile toward you. Yelling or screaming could be involved, or physical reactions like bumping, shoving, or hitting. Again, the best approach is not to make the condition worse. You may choose to to express regret that he is upset by your actions, but you must remain steadfast.

This is especially true if you will have further contacts with him. If you back down on your BSD act, you will simply reward his negative reaction. As a result, the next time you act in a BSD manner, the probability will be high that you will receive another aggressive reaction from him.

c. Temper Tantrums

In certain situations you may act in a BSD manner with someone who has had his own way for a long period of time. He may then react by looking hurt, saying his health is precarious, saying you don't like him, crying and feeling sorry for himself.

d. Psychosomatic Reactions

Actual physical illness may occur in some individuals if you thwart a long-established habit. Abdominal pains, headaches, and feeling faint are just a few of the possibilities. To reiterate, however, one should choose to be firm in the BSD act, recognizing that the other person will adjust to the new situation in a short time. You should also be consistent in your BSD act whenever the same situation recurs with this individual. If you are inconsistent in asserting your rights, the other person involved will become confused. Most likely he or she will eventually just pay no attention to any of your BSD acts.

e. Over-apologizing

On rare occasions after you have acted in a BSD manner the other party involved will be overly apologetic or overly humble to you. You should point out his behavior to him indicating that such is unnecessary. If, in later encounters with him, he seems to be afraid of you or overly deferent toward you, you should not take advantage of him. You could help him develop more BSD behaviors for himself.

f. Revenge

If you have a continuing relationship with the person to whom you have acted in a BSD manner there is the chance that he may seek revenge. At first it might be difficult to see what he is attempting to do, but as time goes on his taunts will become quite evident. Once you are certain that he is trying to make your life miserable, you should squelch his actions immediately. A recommended method is to take him aside and confront him directly with the situation. Usually this is enough to get him to cease his revengeful tactics .

3. Choosing Not To Act In A Self-Determined Manner

Choice is the key word in the BSD process. As long as you know in your own mind (from previous successful BSD encounters) that you <u>can</u> act in a BSD manner, you may decide not to do so in a given instance. Following are some circumstances where one may choose to not act in a BSD manner.

a. Overly Sensitive Individuals

On occasion, from your own observations, you may conclude that a certain person is unable to accept even the slightest BSD act. When this is apparent, it is much better to resign yourself to this fact rather than chance it. Although there are over-sensitive types who use their apparent weakness to manipulate others, we are all aware that there are certain individuals who are so easily threatened that any little disagreement causes them to explode, either inwardly (thus hurting themselves) or outwardly (thus hurting others). You could avoid contact with him as much as possible, but if you must be around someone of this type there are alternative responses. One is to accept him as he is and cause no friction, if such is feasible. If not, and he does cause your life to be miserable, you may wish to use Wolpe's technique of "Life manship." [Wolpe, J. <u>The Practice of Behavior Therapy</u>, Pergamon Press, 1969]This technique allows you to become free of the other person's control of you by using manipulation of a vulnerability of the other person.

b. Redundancy

Once in a while the person who takes advantage of your rights will notice, before you get a chance to assert yourself, that he has done so. He will then remedy the situation in an appropriate way. Obviously, you should not wait for an extended period of time wishing that the other person will notice. Also, you should not hesitate to act if he fails to make the amends you feel should reasonably be made. If you see, on the other hand, that the person recognizes what has happened, it is not appropriate on your part to <u>then</u> pipe up and assert yourself.

c. Being Understanding

Now and then you may choose not to act in a BSD manner because you notice that the person is having difficulty, otherwise your rights would not be taken advantage of. At a restaurant one evening, having ordered our meal a certain way, we noticed that there was a new cook who was having great difficulty with everything. Therefore when our meal arrived, not exactly as we had ordered, we choose not to be assertive, rather than "hassle" him further. Another example is when someone you know well is "off" or having a rare bad mood. In these cases you may <u>choose</u> to overlook things that may be going wrong between you, or postpone a confrontation to a more productive time. (Caution: It is easy to use "not wanting to hurt the other fellow's feelings" as a rationalization for OD behavior when BSD action would be appropriate. If you find yourself doing this more than occasionally, we suggest you carefully examine your real motives.)

4. When You Are Wrong

Especially in your early BSD acts, you may act when you have incorrectly interpreted a situation. Also, you may act with poor technique and offend the other person. If either of these do occur, you should be very willing to say that you have been wrong. There is no need to get carried away in making amends, of course, but you should be open enough to indicate that you know you have been

mistaken. Additionally, you should not be apprehensive about future BSD actions with that person if you again feel the situation calls for it.

E. PROBLEMATIC PRACTICE SITUATIONS

1. Introduction

The following examples depict typical situations in which BSD behavior is called for, but which often cause difficulty for OD and/or SD persons. Each situation is first presented, but without a response on the part of the "self". Several alternative responses are enumerated to suggest possible actions which may be selected by the "self" as his choice of behavior in the situation. Each alternative response may be characterized in the "OD -- BSD -- SD" paradigm.

Each of the situations presented are designed for use as described in The Process of BSD Training.

1. Select a situation appropriate to the needs of the student.

2. Read the situation description, filling in such details as may be desired.

3. Enact the role-playing and feedback exercises described in Steps 3 and 4.

4. Follow Step 5 utilizing the alternative responses suggested here for the situation, as well as others you may think of.

5. Continue with remaining steps of The Process of BSD Training.

The situations are grouped according to several characteristic situations: customer behavior, family behavior, school behavior, social behavior, work behavior. In each case only three situations are suggested although the number of categories and examples is as infinite as life. From this series of representative illustrations, one may on his own initiative apply BSD behavior to examples from his own life.

2. Customer Behavior

a. Situation

At the barber shop, the barber has just finished cutting your hair and turns the chair toward the mirror so you can inspect. You feel that you would like more taken off the top.

Alternative Responses:

(1). you either nod your head in assent or say "That's OK" or say nothing.

(2). abruptly you state that he should have done a more thorough job or say "You sure didn't take much off the top did you?"

(3). you point out that you would like to have more cut off off the top and ask if he would do so.

b. Situation

As you are leaving a store after purchasing some item, you discover that you have been short changed by 70 cents.

Alternative Responses:

      (1). pausing to think for a moment, you try to decide if 70 cents is worth the effort. After a few moments, you decide it is not and go on your way.

      (2). re-entering the store, you catch the attention of the clerk saying that you were short changed by 70 cents. You display the change you received back in the process of explaining.

      (3). you hurry back in the store and demand that you receive back your 70 cents, making a derogatory comment about "cashiers who can't add."

c. Situation

You are standing near a cash register waiting to pay for your purchase and have it wrapped. Others who came after you, are being waited on first. You are getting tired of waiting.

Alternative Responses:

      (1). in a loud voice, you indicate that you sure get poor service in this store, then slam the item you were going to purchase down on the counter and walk out of the store.
      (2) in a voice loud enough to be heard, you state that you were ahead of many people who had already been waited upon. Further state that you would like to be waited on now.

      (3). either take the article back to where you picked it up or edge up closer trying to catch the eye of the clerk.

3. Family Behavior

a. Situation

Your twelve-year-old daughter is having a slumber party with five other girls. It is past 2 a.m. and the girls should have settled down to sleep by now, but are still quite noisy.

Alternative Responses:

      (1). jumping out of bed, you go and thoroughly scold and berate the girls, especially your daughter, for their unladylike conduct.

      (2). talking to the girls in a tone which they will recognize as meaning business, you tell them that they have had enough fun for tonight. You point out that you need to arise early tomorrow, and that everyone needs to get to sleep.

(3). you toss and turn in bed wishing your husband would get up and say something to the girls. You do a slow burn, but just lie there trying to block out the sounds.

b. Situation

Your husband was supposed to be home for dinner right after work. Instead, he returns hours later explaining he was out with the boys for a few drinks. He is somewhat tipsy.

Alternative Responses:

(1). you say nothing about how discourteous he has been to you, but simply start preparing something for him to eat.

(2). screaming, yelling, or crying, you make the point very clear that you think he is a drunken fool, doesn't care about your feelings, is a poor example for the children, and ask what will the neighbors think. You tell him he can get his own dinner.

(3). you calmly and steadfastly let him know that he should have informed you beforehand that he was going out for a few drinks and would likely be late. You inform him that his cold dinner is in the kitchen.

c. Situation

Aunt Margaret, with whom you prefer not to spend much time, is on the telephone. She has just told you of her plans to spend three weeks visiting you, beginning next week.

Alternative Responses

(1). you think "Oh, no!" but say "We'd <u>love</u> to have you come and stay as long as you like."

(2). you tell her the children have just come down with bad colds, and the spare bed has a broken spring and you'll be going to (cousin Bill's weekend after next -- none of which is true.

(3). you say "We'll be glad to have you come for the weekend, but we simply can't invite you for longer. A short visit is happier for everyone, and we'll want to see each other again sooner if we keep it brief."

4. School Behavior

a. Situation

You are in a physics lecture with 300 students. The professor speaks softly and you know that many others are having the same trouble hearing him that you are experiencing.

Alternative Responses

(1). you raise your hand, get the professor's attention, and ask if he would mind speaking louder.

(2). you yell out "Speak up'"

(3). you continue to strain to hear, eventually move closer to the front of the room, but say
	nothing about his too-soft voice.

b. Situation

You are in an English class. The teacher is discussing the contributions of classical languages to modern English. You are puzzled by several of the references, and believe he has misstated an important concept.

Alternative Responses

(1). you interrupt, telling him he has made an error, pointing out the mistake and correcting
	him from your own knowledge of the subject. Your tone and choice of words make
	him look somewhat ill-at-ease.

(2). you say nothing, but continue to puzzle over the concept, looking up another source at
	the library later in the day.

(3). you ask the teacher to further explain the concept, expressing your confusion and noting
	the source of your conflicting information.

c. Situation

You are one of eleven students in a psychology group discussion on human sexuality. The concepts being supported by three or four of the more verbal students are contrary to your personal moral code.

Alternative Responses

(1). you speak up in support of your own beliefs, identifying yourself with an apparently
	unpopular position, but not disparaging the beliefs of others in the group.

(2). you listen quietly, not disagreeing openly with the other members or describing your
	own views.

(3). you loudly denounce the views which have been expressed. Your defense of your own
	belief is strong, and you urge others to accept your point of view as the only correct
	one.

5. Social Behavior

a. Situation

At a party where you don't know anyone except the host, you want to circulate and get to know others. You walk up to three people talking.

Alternative Responses

 (1). you stand close to them and smile but say nothing, waiting for them to notice you.

 (2). you listen to the subject they are talking about, then break in and state you disagree with someone's viewpoint, or you break in while they are talking and introduce yourself.

 (3). you wait for a pause in the conversation then introduce yourself and ask if you may join in.

b. Situation

There is a girl you have met and talked with three or four times recently, but have not dated. You decide she is quite nice and desire to call her to ask for a date.

Alternative Responses

 (1). you phone and as soon as she answers you respond by saying "Hi baby, you're going out with me this weekend." Seemingly taken back, she asks who is calling.

 (2). calling her, when she answers you ask how she is and she replies "Fine, except I am worried about a test I will be taking soon." Following her lead, you talk for a few minutes about the test. Then you say that there is a show downtown this Friday evening and wonder if she would attend with you.

 (3). you sit around the telephone going over in your mind what you will say and how she will respond. Several times you lift the phone and are almost finished dialing, then hang up.

c. Situation

You are in a large room waiting for a lecture to begin. A man enters the room and sits down next to you, puffing enthusiastically on a large cigar. The smoke is very offensive to you.

Alternative Responses:

 (1). you suffer the offensive smoke in silence, deciding it is the right of the other person to smoke if he wishes.

 (2). you become very angry, demand that he move or put out the cigar and loudly assail the evils and health hazards of the smoking habit.

 (3). you firmly but politely ask him to refrain from smoking because it is offensive to you, or to sit in another seat if he prefers to continue smoking.

6. Work Behavior

a. Situation

You and your wife have an important engagement which has been planned for several weeks. Today is the date and you plan to leave immediately after work. During the day, however, your supervisor approaches you indicating that he would like you to stay late this evening to work on a special assignment.

Alternative Responses

    (1). in a nervous, abrupt voice you say "No, I will not work late tonight." Then you criticize the boss for not planning the work schedule better. You then turn back to the work you were doing.

    (2). you say nothing about your important plans and simply agree to stay until the work is finished.

    (3). talking to the supervisor in a firm, but pleasant voice, you tell of your important plans and say you will not be able to stay this evening to work on the special assignment.

b. Situation

You have made a mistake on some aspect of your job. Your supervisor discovers it and is letting you know rather harshly that you should not have been so careless.

Alternative Responses

    (1). you bristle up and say that he has no business whatsoever in criticizing your work. You tell him to leave you alone and not bother you in the future because you are capable of handling your own work.

    (2). you agree that you made the mistake, say you are sorry and will be more careful next time. You add that you feel he is being somewhat harsh and you see no need for that.

    (3). over-apologizing, you say you are sorry, you were stupid, how silly of you, you'll never let it happen again.

c. Situation

One of your subordinates has been coming in late consistently for the last three or four days.

Alternative Responses

    (1). you grumble to yourself or to your wife about the situation, but say nothing to the person, hoping he will start coming in early.

    (2). you tell the worker off, indicating that he has no right to take advantage of you and that he had better get to work on time or else you will see that he is fired.

(3). approaching the worker, you point out that you have observed him coming in late recently and wonder if there is an explanation. If he does not have a legitimate excuse, you say firmly that he should start coming to work on time. If the excuse seems legitimate you still say that he should have come to you and explained the situation rather than saying nothing at all, leaving you "up in the air.

UNIT XV :SOURCES

Unit(s)	is (are) based on:
XIV	Albeti, R.E. and Emmons, M.L.; <u>Your Perfect Right</u>; Impact, San Luis Obispo, Calif., 1970.
II THRU IX	Becker, W.C.; <u>Parents are Teachers</u>; Research Press, 1971.
XI	Homme, L.; <u>How To Use Contingency Contracting in the Classroom</u>; Research Press, 1969.
I,G	Krumboltz, J.D. and Thorsen, C.E.; "Problem identification in behavioral counseling"; in Krumboltz and Thorsen (eds.); <u>Behavioral Counseling: Cases and Techniques</u>; Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1969, pp. 7-18.
X,C	Stuart, R.B.; "Behavioral control of delinquency"; in Hammerlynck, L.A. and Clark, F.W.(eds.); <u>Behavior Modification for Exceptional Children and Youth;</u> University of Calgary Press, 1971, pp. 97-128.
XII	Warren, P.W.; "Behavioral skill and role training approach to Life Skills"; in <u>Life Skills: A Course in Applied Problem Solving</u>, 4th ed.; Saskatchewan NewStart, Inc., 1971, pp. 86-117.
X,A	Zifferblatt, S. M.; <u>You Can Help Your Child Improve Study and Homework Behaviors</u>; Research Press, 1970.
I,A thru I,F, X,B	Warren, P.W. written especially for this volume, 1972.
XIII	Job Corps Counseling Notes, "Performance-centered counseling"; Office of Economic Opportunities, 1968-1969.