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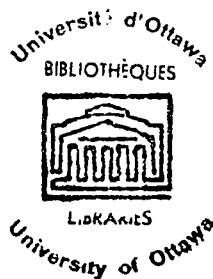
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PERCEIVING THE CAUSES OF SOCIAL SUCCESSES
AND FAILURES: A STUDY IN SELF-ESTEEM
AND HETEROSEXUAL RELATIONS

by Susan E. Dotzenroth

Thesis presented to the School of
Graduate Studies of the University
of Ottawa as partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree
of Doctor of Philosophy



S.E. Dotzenroth, Ottawa, Canada, 1978

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ABSTRACT

Two studies designed to examine the attributional-behavioral-affective factors underlying heterosexual social relations were undertaken. The first study compared measures of social avoidance and distress, fear of negative evaluation, attribution bias, risk taking, and hope for future success between persons high and low in social self-esteem in success and failure heterosexual social circumstances. Two hundred and fifty-four male undergraduate university students served as the subjects. High social self-esteem subjects were characterized by low scores on SAD and FNE. They attributed successful social experiences to internal and stable causes, and failure social experiences to external and variable causes. In contrast, low social self-esteem subjects were characterized by high scores on SAD and FNE. They attributed successful social experiences to external and variable causes, and failure social experiences to internal and stable causes. It was the Stability-Variability dimension which characterized the success and failure attributions of high social self-esteem subjects, while it was the Locus of Control dimension which characterized the success and failure attributions of low social self-esteem subjects.

In the second study, 39 subjects were assigned to one of six treatment conditions: social skills training; cognitive re-attribution; combined skills training and re-attribution; homework assignments; self-monitoring; and test-retest control. These subjects were selected on the basis of low scores on the SSEI, high scores on the SAD and FNE scales, and a demonstrated negative attribution bias. Results did not show significant differences between the treatment conditions. However, the small number of subjects in each group seriously reduced the statistical power of the analyses. Significant overall treatment effects were obtained from pre- to posttesting. It was suggested that the self-monitoring of social contacts was the variable to account for these effects. Implications for future research were discussed. Attempts were made to relate self-monitoring to cognitive aspects of behavior change.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

People come to cities for contact. That's what cities are: meeting places. Yet the people who live in cities are often contactless and alienated. A few of them are physically isolated . . . almost all of them live in a state of endless inner loneliness. They have thousands of contacts, but the contacts are empty and unsatisfying (Alexander, 1967, p. 60).

Social loneliness has become a prevailing and widespread problem in the Western world. Only recently have researchers realized the nature and extent of social loneliness, and only within the past 10 years have they begun to study interpersonal relationships within this context. Although there are certainly aspects of modern society which work against the establishment and maintenance of close emotional relationships, research points out that even marriage is no guarantee against loneliness and social maladjustment. Bock (1972) found that although a successful marriage relationship was associated with a lack of negative feelings about life, just as important was successful participation in a social network outside of marriage for positive feelings to ensue. What's more, these two kinds of relationships were found to be independent of each other.

Weiss (1973) distinguished between two kinds of loneliness: (1) emotional loneliness, which stemmed from the absence of close emotional attachments; and (2) social

loneliness, caused by a lack of an engaging friendship or kin network. It is social loneliness which has recently received widest attention. In a recent Psychology Today survey (August, 1976) more than 52,000 men and women ranging in age from 15 to 95 answered questions designed to probe into their degree of happiness and what they thought contributed to it. For both single men and women, responses indicated that having "friends and a good social life" came first in importance, and outranked such things as "an adequate sex life," "a good financial situation," and "good health."

From a survey of students across four universities, Sermat (1974) found 79% who responded that they had experienced "quite upsetting" loneliness at some time in their lives. Ninety percent of a noncollege population admitted to the same.

Loneliness and social isolation are related to indicators of a variety of problems in modern living, including attempted and successful suicide. The extensive implementation of telephone crisis centers is only one source of evidence testifying to this fact. Research conducted at a Toronto Distress Center, for example, (Sermat, 1973) found that a very high proportion of the nearly 20,000 calls they receive per year are related to the problem of loneliness.

Two California community service centers compared their "clients" with samples reflecting the community as a whole (Kammeyer & Bolton, 1968). Responses to the question

"About how often do you get together with friends?" revealed that 72% of the community service "clients" in one center, and 56% of the "clients" in the other, answered "occasionally" or "never," while only 33% and 36% of the respective whole community samples gave these answers. These data further support the notion that social relations as they are connected to friendships are related to emotional adjustment.

Recent research indicates that social loneliness is closely connected to social interpersonal anxiety, non-assertiveness, and lack of social skills. This general fear of other people blocks the establishment of healthy interpersonal transactions that could eventually lead to more intimate personal relationships. Research indicates that social anxiety is a real and fairly common phenomenon. At the University of Iowa in 1971 and 1973 Borkovec, Stone, O'Brien, and Kaloupek (1974) found that 16% of college males and 12% of college females report some degree of fear of being with a member of the opposite sex, and 32% of males and 39% of females feel some element of fear or meeting someone for the first time.

Zimbardo, Pilkonis, and Norwood (1974, 1975), in a survey of 817 students, found that over 40% described themselves as presently shy and 82% as having been shy in some past situation. Only 1% said they had never been shy.

Results of an inquiry conducted by the Indiana University Counseling Center revealed that students were more concerned with learning how to get along better with the opposite sex than with receiving help in choosing a vocation or learning about their abilities, interests, intelligence, and personalities (Martinson & Zerface, 1970). With these findings in hand, the basis for research in the area of interpersonal social anxiety and minimal dating behavior (MBD) was set. Much of this research, however, had its genesis in assertive training procedures.

Assertion and Social Skills Training: The Beginning

Training in the acquisition of social skills is a current and a major focus of therapeutic intervention in the behavioral field of psychology. Assertion training refers to the treatment of a specific lack of assertiveness, while social skill training refers to a broad spectrum of behavior designed to help a person improve or enhance any deficit in his social performance. Lewinsohn (1974) defines social skill as a complex ability to emit behaviors which are positively reinforced by others and not to emit behaviors which are punished or extinguished by others. This involves a complex kind of interpersonal reciprocity where the sequence of behavior consists of both actions emitted by a person and the reactions he elicits from the social environment.

Thus, social skill is defined in terms of social consequences. A person is considered skillful to the extent that he elicits positive feedback and avoids eliciting negative consequences from the social environment. Lack of social skill is associated with a low rate of positive reinforcement.

Much of the work dealing directly with social skills was begun by Michael Argyle (1969) in England. Originally, he devised a social skill training program for training managers in an industrial setting (Argyle, Smith & Kirton, 1962). However, more recently he has focused on social skill training programs in the treatment of psychiatric patients (Argyle, Bryant & Trower, 1974; Argyle, Trower & Bryant, 1974). This treatment approach with psychiatric populations has been used with varying degrees of success by other researchers in the field (Goldstein, 1973; Gutride, Goldstein & Hunter, 1973; Rivlin, 1974). For example, Edelstein and Eisler (1976) dealt with specific behavioral components of social skills (i.e., eye contact, speech characteristics, head and arm gestures, and affect) as they compared different behavioral treatment techniques in hospitalized male schizophrenic patients. The results of these and other studies give substantial support to the efficacy of social skills training as a treatment technique for alleviating interpersonal distress within a psychiatric population. Assertive training and training in social skills has also found its roots in the clinical-behavioral studies of depression.

McLean, Ogston, and Grauer (1973) took a behavioral approach to the treatment of depression, viewing depression largely as unsuccessful attempts to control one's interpersonal environment. Results showed a significant effect from a treatment which involved: (1) training in social learning principles; (2) giving immediate feedback concerning the perception of verbal interactions; and (3) training in the construction and use of reciprocal behavioral contracts. Significant changes were noted in problematic behaviors, Depression Adjective Checklist scores, and in the verbal communication style of subjects so trained, compared with a control group.

Lewinsohn (1974) and his colleagues (Lewinsohn, Shaffer & Libet, 1969; Lewinsohn, Weinstein & Alper, 1970; Lewinsohn, Weinstein & Shaw, 1969; Libet & Lewinsohn, 1973) have extensively researched the behaviorally oriented theory of depression. This orientation speaks to the relation between socio-environmental reinforcement conditions, assessment and treatment strategies, as well as to the relationship of the behavior of depressed persons to their social skill. Lewinsohn believes that depressed persons are less socially skillful than nondepressed persons, and that depression further reduces social skill because of a reduced behavioral repertoire. These investigators examined the interpersonal behavior of depressed and nondepressed persons and found the

following factors to be related to depression: (1) the total rate of behavior omitted by a person; (2) interpersonal efficiency, which focuses upon reciprocity of relationships; (3) interpersonal range, which concerns the number of individuals with whom a person interacts, i.e., toward whom he emits behaviors and from whom he elicits behaviors; (4) the rate of positive reactions, which deals with the extent to which a person's behavior toward another is positively reinforcing (a function both of the quantity and quality of emitted behavior); and (5) action latency which refers not only to the lapse of time between the reaction of one person to another's verbalization, but also to the appropriate timing of such responses. Thus, depressed persons were found to emit interpersonal behaviors at about half the rate of nondepressed controls; the interpersonal transactions of depressed persons tended to be less reciprocal overall (the depressed person either did more for the other person than the other person did for him, or vice versa); and they were found to emit a smaller proportion of positive reactions, and had a longer action latency, than their nondepressed counterparts.

Closely connected with the findings relating social skill and depression is the work of Marshall, Cherniavsky, and Malcolm (1978) where the behavioral validation of an inventory designed to measure social self-esteem was obtained. In terms of behavioral correlates and prediction, Marshall

found that the Social Self-Esteem Inventory (SSEI) correlated positively with social competence and negatively with behavioral manifestations of anxiety. The SSEI has also been found to discriminate psychiatric patients from normals, and depressed from nondepressed patients (Gauthier, Marshall & Hoaken, 1977). There are other areas in which social skills have been found to be related to affective dimensions of psychological functioning. One, for example, is related to heterosexual social anxiety.

Social Skills and Heterosexual Social Anxiety

An area of research and study which has recently received wide attention is that of heterosexual social anxiety, and minimal dating behavior. Subjects in these studies, as opposed to previous research in social skills training, are generally psychiatrically normal individuals whose major complaint centers on a high degree of anxiety in social interpersonal heterosexual situations. They have a low frequency of dating behavior and express a desire to reduce their anxiety and increase their dating. Heterosexual social anxiety has been treated with various behavior therapy techniques, most of which are categorized under "Social Skills Training." Two major hypotheses focus on the etiology of minimal dating behavior as opposed to those conditions which maintain such behavior. One hypothesis states

that nondaters avoid heterosexual encounters because they lack the necessary interpersonal skills (MacDonald, Lindquist, Kramer, McGrath & Rhyne, 1975; Twentyman & McFall, 1975), while other investigators contend that low frequency daters (LFD) have appropriate social skills in their repertoire, but do not exhibit them because of: (1) conditioned anxiety in heterosexual encounters; (2) negative self-evaluations in such situations; (3) prior failures in heterosexual encounters leading to their avoidance; (4) lack of knowledge of when and how to display social skills; (5) misconceptions about and unrealistic fears of dating situations; and (6) a lack of exposure to dating situations (Gambril, 1973; Martinson & Zerface, 1970; Melnick, 1973; Rehm & Marston, 1968).

Experimental investigations of the treatment of heterosexual social anxiety have been numerous. For example, MacDonald et al. (1975) compared two direct social skills training programs with attention placebo and waiting list controls. The social skills training groups were given instructions, behavioral rehearsal and verbal feedback, and additionally were specifically taught to discriminate between approachable and inapproachable females, how to initiate and maintain conversations, how to listen and ask appropriate questions, how to respond to nonverbal cues, and when and how to terminate conversations appropriately.

While the results were not unequivocal, both social skills groups showed behavioral improvement on role-played interactions with female confederates. MacDonald went on to suggest that social anxiety may dissipate after mastery of a situation, supporting the lack of skill hypothesis to explain minimal dating behavior.

Twentyman and McFall (1975) trained 15 "shy" college males on specific aspects of dating skill and compared them with a group of assessment-only controls on measures of physiological responsivity, self-report of anxiety, and ratings of social skill on a number of arranged social situations. Results showed that behavioral training significantly improved the heterosexual performance of shy subjects on the three measures used.

Curran and his colleagues (Curran, 1975; Curran & Gilbert, 1975; Curran, Gilbert & Little, 1976) have done extensive work in devising skill training programs and in examining their effectiveness in reducing heterosexual anxiety as compared with other behavioral techniques. Specifically, they compared high heterosexually anxious males and females following two different treatment programs: social skill training, and systematic desensitization. Results of these studies revealed no significant differences between the two programs on measures of general social anxiety. However, trends seemed to indicate a significant generalization effect on followup for the skill training group.

Christenson, Arkowitz, and Anderson (1975), in a rather innovative study, used practice dating as the treatment package for dealing with heterosexual anxiety and for increasing dating frequency in college males and females. Results indicated that the practice dating procedure was an effective treatment with significant improvement for subjects on self-report, self-monitoring, and behavioral measures of social anxiety and social interaction over the control group, and additional maintenance of treatment gain on a 3-month followup. Christenson et al. account for the success of such a treatment approach with two hypotheses. The treatment procedure resembles an in vivo systematic desensitization procedure for the reduction of anxiety, and is in some ways similar to the work of Curran. On the other hand, success can also be attributed to direct social skill training since subjects did learn to respond with more effective interpersonal behaviors through practice. Christenson suggests that persons do not lack the skills necessary for improved behavior, but rather do not behave because of inhibiting anxiety. His findings on the absence of increases in social skill ratings from the first three to the last three practice dates led him to conclude that social skill acquisition was not the major factor in the effectiveness of his treatment procedure.

Arkowitz, Lichtenstein, McGovern, and Hines (1975) obtained behavioral measures of social competence and found that the only behavioral difference between high and low frequency dating males was their number of silences. In another comparison of daters with nondaters who wanted to date more, Arkowitz (Valentine & Arkowitz, 1974) found striking differences in how nondaters perceived their social skill. Nondaters underestimated their social skill, while daters overestimated their social skill. Overestimations and underestimations failed to appear when participants were asked to estimate social skill in others. Socially anxious people were found to remember more of their faults than nonanxious people (O'Banion & Arkowitz, 1974), and nondaters downgraded themselves but not others. Furthermore, when provided with success experiences, the nondaters attributed their successes more to external causes than did the daters. These results suggest that this kind of inhibited behavioral responding is more consistent with a (negative) self-evaluation hypothesis than it is with a deficit in social skills hypothesis.

Rehm and Marston (1968) felt that heterosexual social anxiety, in otherwise adequately functioning males, resulted from negative self-evaluation when they did contact girls and thus they would avoid heterosexual contact because of such negative self-evaluation. Rehm and Marston's

treatment approach focused on self-reinforcement and systematic self-help procedures, as well as graduated exposure to heterosexual social encounters. This proved to be significantly more effective than nondirective techniques or instructions to "work on the problem on your own" in improving heterosexual social relations.

Martinson and Zerface (1970) found that their non-dating college subjects not only had misconceptions about dating and "inappropriate" fears related to dating, but also lacked information concerning dating behavior, suffered obvious lack of exposure to dating behavior, and had simply never learned how to date. These authors' intervention strategy involving arranged interactions proved more effective than counseling and waiting list controls in helping subjects to achieve their stated aim of dating behavior. Subjects in the arranged interaction group reported a significant decrease in self-reported fear of dating and an increase in frequency of dating, when compared with other groups.

Melnick (1973) originally assumed that his non-dating college subjects possessed the necessary behavioral skills to date adequately and needed only information as to when to employ them, and thus had many prior failures which resulted in avoidance. His results were somewhat discrepant, leaving the question as to whether these subjects did possess the necessary skills unanswered.

However, his findings that a self-observation group was judged to be significantly improved on pre-post changes in a simulated dating task led him to entertain the notion that self-observation leads to self-corrective and self-evaluative changes similar to what Rehm and Marston (1968) had proposed. Thus, self-evaluation, more than behavioral skill alone, was effective in producing behavioral change.

Gambril (1973) also assumed that many people who would like to have more social contacts did possess the necessary skills for effective social relations. Gambril believed that what was needed were instigational procedures as well as some additional skill suggestions in order to prompt the behavior. In addition, she was interested in seeing whether a self-reinforcement technique would enhance treatment effects. Using only female subjects, Gambril studied the effectiveness of textual material (a manual) and behavioral assignments in increasing social contacts. Her results showed significant differences in treatment groups as compared with self-help and control groups, with a strong indication that the addition of self-reinforcement can augment the effects.

The above studies vary considerably in results obtained from different treatment approaches. All, however, support both a skill deficiency and/or an inhibiting anxiety hypothesis to some degree. Since many of these studies did

not determine the pretreatment skill level possessed by the subjects, results may in fact point to the efficacy of different treatment approaches being "tailored" for specific populations, as suggested by Curran (Little, Curran & Gilbert, 1976).

Cognitive factors have become the most recently investigated phenomena in Behavior Therapy. Glasgow and Arkowitz (1975) and Rehm and Marston (1968) have alluded to a cognitive component underlying social anxiety. Glass and Gottman (1976) found that subjects trained in cognitive self-statement coping showed greater transfer of training to untrained situations, made more phone calls in a real-life situation, and made a better impression on the women they called, than subjects in a response acquisition group and control groups. It was suggested that, at least for subjects who already possessed the necessary repertoire of dating skills, learning how to cope with negative self-statements appeared to be the most facilitative technique.

Zimbardo et al. (1974) have been engaged in research attempting to discover the nature and prevalence of the shyness syndrome. In a profile of the shy individual, Zimbardo has emphasized cognitive components and likens shyness to a form of imprisonment, emphasizing that shy persons do not lack the skills necessary to behave, but rather, shy people have a peculiar cognitive attribution belief system concerning

their performance. Shy persons are characterized by their tendency to negative self-evaluation and are more inclined to be ruled by their (faulty) assessment of private events, and this, at times, in spite of their adequate behavioral capabilities. This kind of preoccupation with negative self-evaluation results in avoidance of others, thus confirming to the shy person that indeed he is shy. Avoidance of social interaction not only reduces practice and the potential of skill attainment, but also eliminates the possibility for self-reinforcing experiences through social contacts and using one's social "skills"; the end result can be low self-esteem and often depression (Lazarus, 1968).

These studies lend strong support to the notion that persons with much interpersonal social anxiety do not, in fact, lack the social skills necessary for socially rewarding behavior, but are anxious because of the kinds of self-evaluations they make. Secondly, these studies suggest that perhaps the cognitive component is the crucial factor in maintaining anxiety, inhibiting behavior, and in lowering social self-esteem.

Studies in the area of the social self-concept have largely been concerned with the role of environmental influences and interpersonal relationships as a source of social self-esteem (Webster & Sobieszek, 1974). The concept of a "significant other" (Sullivan, 1947) has also been an

instrumental one in discussions of the formation of a person's self-concept. A significant other, in this regard, is one whose esteem a person values and whose disapproval a person seeks to avoid. In Sullivan's schema, interpersonal relationships are most important to the development of personality. Anxiety is seen as the chief disruptive force in interpersonal relations and, consequently, an internal threat to self-esteem. According to Sullivan, knowledge and development of the "self" results from the "reflective appraisal" of others, and persons who have customary low self-esteem "may minimize their anxiety by concealments and social isolation" (Sullivan, 1947, p. 35).

Alluded to here is the notion that behind interpersonal social anxiety is a cognitive thinking style which operates to perpetuate and maintain social isolation, loneliness, and low self-esteem. This heavy emphasis on cognitive factors mediating social self-esteem and behavioral/affective components of heterosexual social relations offers numerous research possibilities which should hold great potential for making significant advances in understanding and treating shyness and the social problems it creates. For instance, there exists a large body of findings which connects self-esteem to achievement motivation (Atkinson & Feather, 1966) but, more specifically, research data which has well documented the important role of cognitive factors in mediating between successful achievement and self-esteem.

It is possible to view social self-esteem in achievement oriented terms. In this context, social successes can be seen to be the product of exercising social skills (much like using intellectual capacities in attaining academic success) combined with effort, directed at attaining a particular goal or objective. Self-esteem becomes a relevant concept when it is understood that attributing the cause of success or failure to either internal or external components plays a crucial role in determining the self-esteem consequences. We shall now look briefly at this literature.

Attribution Theory and Achievement Motivation

The way in which a person attributes the causes of his successes and failures has implications for his self-concept and self-esteem. Research in the area of attribution theory has dealt with the concept of achievement and the study of the achievement motive (Atkinson & Feather, 1966; Heckhausen, 1967; McClelland & Steele, 1973). From this work came the development of a causal attribution bias, the notions of "fear of failure" (FF) and of "hope for success" (HS) as self-reinforcing motivating systems (Heckhausen, 1967, 1975). The majority of the studies in this area have dealt strictly with task performance in achievement related activities. Although some authors have attempted to relate high trait anxiety and high task difficulty with poor performance

(Spence, Farber & McFann, 1956), others have found that high anxiety levels do not necessarily affect performance and that they can in fact enhance performance in some persons (Heckhausen, 1967; Sarason, 1961; Weiner, 1966; Weiner & Schneider, 1971). Thus, Heckhausen (1975) concluded that it is not necessarily the task difficulty, but "aroused failure anxiety as a motivating state, that causes debilitating effects on performance in fear of failure subjects" (p. 3).

Contrary to the notion that achievement motivation is solely the product of social learning and social reinforcement, Heckhausen (1967) has argued that "the sine qua non for the origin of the motive is cognitive maturation, which causes the outcome of performance to be referred back to the self and, thus, to be experienced as an effect of one's own competence" (p. 148). It follows, therefore, that a person's motive for achievement and performance can be intricately tied to social recognition and self-esteem.

Marston (1965) views self-reinforcement as the link between the self-concept and overt behavior. Self-reinforcement is the means by which a person implements his self-concept changes. When the self-concept is verbalized it involves self-evaluative statements which are either positively or negatively reinforcing (i.e., I am a success, competent, capable, strong; or I am a failure, less than adequate, inferior, weak, etc.).

This kind of cognitive activity seems to be what characterizes high fear of failure persons. Since high fear of failure persons attribute successful experiences to external causes and failure experiences to internal causes (Heckhausen, 1975), the self-evaluative statements which they set up for themselves are highly negative and thus negatively self-reinforcing. Consequently, an inhibited motive to behave and some damage to the self-concept and self-esteem ensues.

Studies in the area of achievement motivation, fear of failure, and causal attribution illustrate a cognitive attributional bias, which has implications for self-esteem and motivation (Heckhausen, 1975; Weiner, Frieze, Kukla, Reed, Rest & Rosenbaum, 1971; Weiner, Heckhausen, Meyer & Cook, 1972). Relevant studies are reviewed in the following section.

Causal Attribution Bias and the Fear of Failure Motive

In achievement related contexts, success and failure experiences are perceived as chiefly the result of four causal factors: ability, task difficulty, effort, and luck (Freize, 1973; Heider, 1958). Weiner et al. (1971) and Weiner (1974) have illustrated how these four causal factors can be classified along two dimensions: (1) a locus of control dimension (i.e., internal or external); and

(2) a stability dimension (i.e., stable or unstable [variable]). Ability and effort are both seen as internal factors; task difficulty and luck as external factors. Along the stability dimension, ability and task difficulty are relatively stable, with effort and luck much more variable. What can be set up, then, is a 4-celled 2 X 2 table into which various attributions of success or failure can fall:

S T A B I L I T Y	Locus of Control	
	Internal	External
	Stable	Task Difficulty
	Variable	Luck

Attribution theorists have also concerned themselves with the motivational processes implicit in these two dimensions in relation to expectancy shifts (James, 1957; Phares, 1957; Rotter, Liverant & Crowne, 1961). More recently, Weiner (Weiner, Nierenberg & Goldstein, 1976) has demonstrated with some clarity that the stability dimension of causal attributions, rather than locus of control, is related to expectancy of success. Prior to Weiner's work, expectancy shifts were investigated by comparing an internal stable cause (ability) to an external unstable cause (luck), thereby imputing either dimension in any differential expectancy shifts displayed. Weiner measured expectancy of future

success by having subjects respond to rating scales which were anchored along either the stability or locus of control dimensions. Thus, responses were given within a single causal dimension. Elsewhere, Weiner (1974) has discussed the locus of control dimension as being instrumental in influencing affective reactions to events.

In terms of the 2 X 2 table, causal attribution to a particular cell has different implications for self-esteem. For example, if a person attributes a failure experience to lack of ability--an internal and stable factor--not only does his expectancy for future success on that particular task decline, but his self-esteem or affect may also be impaired. It is much easier to preserve self-esteem following a failure experience if the failure can be attributed to an external factor. The opposite is true for success experiences: self-esteem increases the more a person is able to attribute a successful experience to an internal (and stable) factor, such as ability. Thus, the way in which people "construe" situations has important implications for self-esteem, as well as (self) reinforcement; and reinforcement has further implications for future behaving.

Heckhausen (1967, 1968) has done extensive work in the area of achievement motivation, and recently has been exploring the "fear of failure" (FF) motive in terms of cognitive and attributional factors (Heckhausen, 1973, 1975).

A number of interesting observations comparing persons found to have high FF with persons found to have high "hope for success" (HS) have laid the groundwork for Heckhausen's theory: (1) in terms of risk-taking, high FF persons prefer either very low or very high risks, or goals, avoiding intermediate levels of task difficulty. Persons high in HS, however, prefer intermediate risks and avoid very high or very low risks; (2) FF people tend to ascribe success more to external and less to internal factors, compared with HS persons; (3) FF people tend to ascribe failure more to lack of ability (an internal-stable factor) than to an external factor, i.e., task difficulty or bad luck. HS people, on the other hand, tend not to ascribe failure to lack of ability and, if an external factor does not lend itself as an obvious cause, HS people tend to see failure as having been caused by a momentary lack of effort; and (4) a long series of successes does not change an FF outlook and behavior to one of confidence and future hope for success. The reverse, however, holds true for HS people in the face of a long series of failures (Heckhausen, 1975).

It is in light of these findings that Heckhausen views such a cognitive attribution bias as a "self-reinforcing motive system"; a system of cognitive processes which has stabilized a belief system and action preferences over time. The FF motive is not simply a result of poor reinforcement

history, but rather the result of evaluative cognitions already established in a person's motive system.

Cognitive attributional processes have been found to play a central role in the relation between response-reinforcement contingencies and learned helplessness (Klein, Fencil-Morse & Seligman, 1976; Seligman, 1972, 1973, 1974, 1975; Seligman, Maier & Solomon, 1971) and depression (Lazarus, 1968, 1974; Lewinsohn, 1974). Relevant studies are reviewed in the following section.

Cognitive Attribution Bias in Relation to Self-Esteem

Attributional processes may also account for emotional disorders. Lazarus (1968) contends that depression results from a lack of adequate or sufficient reinforcers. As positive reinforcers are weakened or removed, what results is a diminished behavioral repertoire and response extinction, all characteristic of depressed behavior.

Through the work of Seligman (1972, 1973, 1974, 1975) and his colleagues (Klein et al., 1976; Seligman et al., 1971) a "learned helplessness" model of depression has been developed. This model ties in closely with the response-reinforcement contingencies of socially skilled behavior.

Seligman's model suggests that depression is caused by uncontrollable situations which lead a person to perceive that his responses are ineffective in obtaining reinforcement.

The expectancy that responding will be ineffective results in a reduced incentive to initiate instrumental responses. This reduction in responding has further repercussions for depression because a reduction in responding disrupts subsequent learning of response-reinforcement contingencies. Thus, a person perpetuates his own maladaptive behavior through a lack of responding and a lack of opportunities for learning appropriate contingencies of (self) reinforcement.

Investigators are paying more and more attention to cognitive factors which could mediate in both the etiology and the treatment of depressed persons. Beck (1967) has emphasized the cognitive aspects of depression in terms of misinterpretation of experiences which leads to a negative view of the self, the outside world, and the future. Costello (1972) proposed that depression is more than simply a loss of reinforcers, but rather a loss of reinforcer effectiveness. This view is similar to Ferster's (1966) proposition that depression resulted from the removal of a discriminative stimulus and not just the removal of the reinforcer for behavior. Lewinsohn (1974) touches upon these concepts when he notes that "giving (i.e., non-contingently) to depressed individuals does not decrease their depression" (p. 68).

Miller and Seligman (1973) have studied the relation between the perception of reinforcement in depressed and

nondepressed individuals. They propose that depressed persons possess a peculiar cognitive distortion of the perception of the ability of their own responses to change the environment. They found that, in situations where reinforcement is response dependent, depressives tend to perceive reinforcement as more response independent than nondepressives. These interpretations also gain support from research dealing with skill determined as opposed to chance determined success, as well as expectancies for future success (James & Rotter, 1958; Phares, 1957; Rotter et al., 1961). These investigators found that reinforcements on previous trials have a greater effect on expectancies for future success when a person perceives reinforcement as response dependent (skill determined) than when he perceives reinforcement as response independent (chance determined). Miller and Seligman also found that depressed persons showed less change in expectancy following reinforcement than nondepressed persons in a skill task, supporting the notion that depressed persons perceive reinforcement as more response independent and less in their own control.

These concepts of learned helplessness and reinforcement-independent responding connect closely with Rotter's (1966) concept of "locus of control" and have been further explored in relation to the learned helplessness model by Hiroto (1974). Rotter found that internals tend

to perceive reinforcements as under their control and externals tend to perceive reinforcements as not being under their control. Hiroto's findings supported the learned helplessness notion and led him to conclude that three variables--inescapability, externality, and chance instructions--engender the similar state of the expectancy that reinforcement is independent of responding.

Klein et al. (1976) have examined the cognitive attributional processes of depressed persons and found that depressed persons were more likely than nondepressed persons to attribute their performance to lack of ability rather than to task difficulty when they failed, but not when they succeeded. Depressed people, like FF people, are less affected by success experiences than nondepressed persons, a finding consistent with the clinical observation that depressives selectively forget or devalue success experiences (Miller & Seligman, 1973). FF people and depressed people are also similar in their tendency to give up sooner, and thus in restricting their opportunities to attain successful experiences. Before they even begin, they anticipate failure. Their limiting behavioral repertoire thus becomes reactive and fulfills the two behavioral components of Seligman's learned helplessness model: (a) cognitive--a dampened ability to learn that responding produces reinforcement, and (b) motivational--lowered

response initiation. In terms of social skill, the relationship is indeed obvious. Depressed persons have been found to be less socially skilled because of their restricted behavioral repertoire and inhibited propensity to behave (Lewinsohn et al., 1973). As these people reduce their opportunities to behave, they also reduce any learning of social skills and the possibility of experiencing response-contingent reinforcement.

These studies indicate that, in achievement related contexts, causal attribution processes take place, and that a causal attribution bias exists as a motivational process system, which differs for certain subgroups of the population. These studies have also indicated that similar cognitive attributional processes play a central role in emotional disorders, and have consequences for a person's self-evaluative cognitions for self-concept and self-esteem.

Although studies of a social skills training approach to the treatment of interpersonal social anxiety have proved equivocal, a variety of cognitive therapies have recently shown more definitive results and bear directly upon attributional processes in attempts to induce people to attain control over their own functioning.

Cognitive-Behavioral Therapies in Relation to
Attributional Processes

Meichenbaum (Meichenbaum & Cameron, 1974; Meichenbaum & Goodman, 1971) has done extensive work on a self-talk therapy where the general therapeutic attempt is to use covert thought to control overt behavior. Self-instructional training procedures began when Meichenbaum (1969) attempted to aid schizophrenic patients in attending to task demands without any internally generated distracting stimuli interfering. The self-talk method emerged out of a series of studies with impulsive children, since it was hypothesized that one factor which contributed to the poor self-control of impulsive children was the inefficient, immature manner in which they used private speech (Meichenbaum, 1971; Meichenbaum & Goodman, 1969; Meichenbaum & Goodman, 1971). The training procedure proved effective in facilitating the development of self-control in impulsive, hyperactive children. Meichenbaum's research pointed out that, with impulsive children and schizophrenic patients, appropriate self-statements were absent from their repertoires prior to training. Thus, subjects were specifically trained in self-instructional statements which they had to add to their behavioral repertoire in order to achieve self-control.

In a similar vein, there is abundant research which points to the notion that many individuals do not lack

self-statements, but rather emit a variety of maladaptive, anxiety-engendering self-statements which result in maladaptive behavior. This is the theoretical basis of the treatment approaches put forward by Jerome Frank (1961), Albert Ellis (1962), and Aaron Beck (1970), who view negative self-statements and maladaptive behavior as a result of a person's faulty belief system and faulty thinking patterns. Intervention strategies here focus upon making people aware of their self-statements or faulty beliefs which produce maladaptive behavior, and train them to produce incompatible self-statements and behaviors.

Research findings on cognitive factors in the production and maintenance of maladaptive behaviors all highlight the fact that, what a person says to himself, the kinds of attributions he makes, influence his self-evaluations and have repercussions for self-esteem and motivation. One of the goals of the kind of self-awareness engendered by such cognitive-behavioral therapies is that the person gain a sense of internal control over his behavior and emotional state. Response reinforcement contingencies become self-controlled and the sense of learned helplessness is replaced by a sense of "learned resourcefulness" (Meichenbaum, 1975).

Recently, investigations of minimal dating behavior have been concerned with the cognitive aspects of a person's

repertoire, and not simply the lack or presence of appropriate social skills. Schwartz and Gottman (1974) studied dating behavior and found that a person's internal dialogue played a major role in fostering poor interpersonally assertive behavior. Low assertive subjects emitted more negative and fewer positive self-statements than did high assertive subjects. Interestingly, low assertive subjects did not differ from high assertive subjects in their knowledge of appropriate assertive responses.

Glass and Gottman (1976) found that female-shy males trained in cognitive self-statement coping showed significantly better performance in role-played situations, made more phone calls, made a better impression, and showed a greater transfer of training to untrained situations, than subjects in other groups.

Only a few studies have dealt directly with attributional processes in treatment attempts. Dweck (1975) investigated whether altering attributions for failure would enable learned helpless children to deal more effectively with failure in an experimental problem-solving situation. By inducing learned helpless children to attribute the amount of effort exerted as a determinant of success and failure, Dweck was successful in improving these children's performance on future tasks in terms of increased persistence and expectancy of future success.

Fontaine (1974) assessed the effects of comparison group outcomes, attributions, and similarity on expected control and expected performance in a novel task situation. His findings also revealed that expectancies were high when attribution could be made to effort rather than simply to internal as opposed to external factors.

Valins and Nisbett (1971) advocated an "attribution therapy" for the treatment of some emotional disorders. They discussed the various consequences of making internal versus external attributions in terms of differing situations or circumstances. In this regard they also identified "effort" as an important causal attribution for behavior change: "attribution to the stimulus is likely to be beneficial when . . . there is in fact something that the individual can do, through his own efforts, to produce the desired behavior or symptoms" (p. 9).

It seems that if people can learn to re-attribute the causes of events in their lives to factors which will foster greater perception of self-control, greater self-esteem will also ensue. The "misattributions" of fear of failure, depressed, and low self-esteem persons are an open target for cognitive treatment approaches. Heckhausen (1975) acknowledges how feedback, not simply success or reinforcement, readily alters performance of fear of failure persons. Perhaps, as Kelley (1967) suggested, fear of failure persons

do not have the ability to tune into the "cues" of appropriate attribution without first an awareness of their self-defeating and self-perpetuating cognitive and behavioral style.

Study 1

Statement of the Problem and Hypotheses To Be Tested

The purpose of the first study was to investigate the extent to which a cognitive attribution bias is implicated in social self-esteem, self-evaluations, and how interpersonal anxiety is related to these two factors. The investigation was designed to tap this anxiety as it related to heterosexual social situations and minimal dating behavior. Although an attribution bias was found to exist in connection with achievement motivation, such a cognitive attributional process has never been investigated to account for self-esteem that is derived from social successes and failures.

Hypothesis I:

On the basis of evidence from previous investigations which showed high FF persons to have a negative attribution bias, as opposed to that of HS persons' attribution bias, it was hypothesized that persons with low social self-esteem as measured by the SSEI, would have a similar bias for attributing the causes of their successes and failures in heterosexually socially oriented situations.

Hypothesis II:

From what is known of achievement motivation serving as a self-reinforcing motive system, "fear of failure" persons would also have higher scores on Social Avoidance and Distress, Fear of Negative Evaluation, and would tend to date less often than persons with "hope for social success."

CHAPTER II

METHOD - STUDY 1

Subjects

Two hundred and fifty-four male subjects enrolled in undergraduate classes at either the University of Ottawa or Carleton University volunteered to complete a 28-page questionnaire designed to assess social self-esteem, social avoidance and distress, fear of negative evaluation, cognitive attribution bias, risk taking, and expectancy of future success. These subjects ranged in age from 17 to 51 years. A copy of this questionnaire appears in Appendix 1.

Procedure

The Measures

Social Self-Esteem Inventory (SSEI). This instrument was designed by Lawson, Marshall, and McGrath (1977) as a self-report measure of self-esteem stemming from various social situations. Reliability, factorial structure, and normative data were provided (Lawson et al., 1977). The inventory contains 30 self-evaluative statements, and requires subjects to rate each statement on a 6-point scale in terms of how accurately it describes their self-perceptions. Higher scores reflect a greater amount of self-esteem in

social situations. This scale is highly reliable over a 4-week test-retest period ($r = 0.88$), and its validity is supported by evidence that it discriminates depressed from nondepressed psychiatric patients (Gauthier, Marshall & Hoaken, 1977), and sexual offenders (Marshall, Christie & Lanthier, 1977) from normal controls, and by the observation that scores on the SSEI can predict skilled and unskilled behaviors in social situations (Marshall, Cherniavsky & Malcolm, 1977). The normative mean is 132.5 with a standard deviation of 22.5.

Social Avoidance and Distress Scale (SAD). The SAD was developed by Watson and Friend (1969) to measure the tendency to avoid and experience negative affect (fear, anxiety, etc.) in interpersonal situations. The scale contains 28 items that are answered true or false. Scoring is in the direction of high anxiety. Items are not confined to heterosexual social anxiety, but deal with general interpersonal anxiety. The scale was standardized with a population of male and female undergraduates at the University of Toronto. Test-retest reliability was .68 and the KR-20 index of homogeneity was .94, indicating adequate reliability and item consistency. The mean score for the standardization sample was 9.11 and the standard deviation was 8.01. The correlation between the SAD and the Crowne-Marlowe Social Desirability Scale was low and negative. This indicates

that responses to the SAD are not heavily influenced by the social desirability of items.

Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale (FNE). This scale was also developed by Watson and Friend (1969) and taps two components of social-evaluative anxiety: (1) negative affect and discomfort in social situations, and (2) fear of receiving negative evaluations from others. The FNE is a 30-item true-false inventory which assesses the fear of evaluation component of social anxiety. The FNE was developed in conjunction with the SAD, using the same standardization sample. Both the test-retest reliability (.78) and KR-20 index of homogeneity (.94) were satisfactory. The mean score and standard deviation for the standardization sample were 15.47 and 8.62, respectively. The correlation of the FNE and the SAD was .51, suggesting that the two tests have moderate amount of common variance.

Cognitive Attribution Bias. A measure of cognitive attribution bias was obtained from questions compiled by the author and based on previous research by Weiner et al. (1976). Subjects are asked to respond to a series of forced-choice alternatives which assess the frequency with which they attribute their successes and failures in socially oriented success/failure situations, across four different social circumstances. In this study, subjects could attribute their success or failure to either internal causes (ability,

effort), external causes (task difficulty, luck), stable causes (ability, task difficulty), and variable causes (effort, luck). Every possible combination of these four causes were paired. Thus, for each of the four social situations presented, subjects responded to six pairs of alternatives in choosing their attribution preferences for both successes and failures. The same four social situations were presented for both success and failure attributions. The situations attempted to tap a variety of heterosexual social encounters progressing from: (1) being introduced to a female by a friend (a situation requiring very little initiative on the part of a person); (2) initiating a conversation with a female; (3) requesting and arranging a date with a female; and (4) spending a couple of hours on a date with a female (a situation requiring a person to be much more active). Subjects were asked to consider the occasions upon which they had experienced both successful and unsuccessful occasions of each situation and then were to indicate, over six forced-choice paired alternatives, to what 2 X 2 cell they attributed their success or failure.

Risk Taking and Hope for Success. Three questions concerning risk taking and five questions concerning hope for future success were presented. These questions focused on four different illustrative social-interpersonal situations. Subjects were to assign a value along a 21-point

scale which was anchored either in terms of risk taking (e.g., "very likely" . . . "not very likely"), or hope for success (e.g., "very successful" . . . "not very successful"). Higher scores indicated greater degrees of both risk taking and hope for success.

Dating Frequency and Satisfaction with Social Relationships. Subjects were also asked to indicate how frequently they went out on dates, whether they would like to date more often, and to indicate on a 21-point scale their degree of satisfaction with their social relations with members of the opposite sex. Again, high scores indicated a higher frequency of dating (a 6-point scale), and a greater degree of satisfaction with opposite sex relations.

Scores of SSEI, SAD, FNE, attribution bias, risk taking and hope for success were obtained. Data analyses included a comparison of scores obtained on these measures between subjects scoring high and low on the SSEI.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS - STUDY 1

Population Description and Analysis

The population had a mean age of 22 years which ranged from 17 - 51 years. They went out on dates an average of once every two weeks. Fifty-one percent indicated they would like to date more often and 52% said they would be willing to participate in a program designed to help them in their heterosexual social relationships. The means and standard deviations from these measures and the SSEI, SAD, and FNE scales appear in Table 1.

Attributional preferences for social successes and failures were shown to be stable and reliable across four different situations using Kendall's tau correlation coefficient. Analyses of attributional choices were conducted on 75 subjects. Twenty-five subjects were randomly selected from each of the three SSEI groups: (1) those who were at least one standard deviation above the mean (≥ 159); (2) those who were at least one standard deviation below the mean (≤ 108); and (3) those between one standard deviation in either direction ($\geq 109 \leq 158$). This selection was undertaken primarily to simplify the data analyses. All intercorrelations across situations and between causal attribution forced-choice questions, with the exception of

Table 1
Means and Standard Deviations of the Major Self-Report
Instruments. (N=254)

	$\bar{X}$	<u>SD</u>
Age	22.03	5.00
Dating score	3.84	2.00
Satisfaction with opposite sex relations	14.49	5.90
SSEI	133.62	23.75
SAD	7.70	6.41
FNE	12.30	7.98

one, were significant at or above the .05 level. This indicated that responses were quite consistent across the four situations. These correlation coefficients are presented in Table 2.

Frequency tables were established on the basis of which of the four attributional cells a subject could be characterized; that is, ability, effort, task difficulty, or luck. The forced-choice paired comparison method of the questions led to results whereby choosing one cell the maximum number of times possible automatically resulted in less frequent occurrences of attribution to other cells. Thus, for the four success and failure situations a subject could show an attributional preference where one cell was chosen more times than another. In this case, the subject would be counted as responding in a manner that was predominantly characteristic of that kind of attribution style. On occasions where a subject showed equal attributional choices to two or more of the cells, he would be counted fractionally in these respective cells. Responses were examined not only in terms of individual cell placement, but also by the two dimensions (Internal/External; Stable/Variable). What resulted was an analysis of the proportion of the population which attributed to the Locus of Control dimension and to the Stability-Variability dimension. These data are summarized in Table 3.

Table 2
Nonparametric Correlation Coefficients (Kendall's τ)
for Consistency of Success and Failure Attributions
across Four Situations ($n = 75$)

	Success						Failure							
	Question Pairs						Question Pairs							
	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6	
S	1,2	.30**	.51***	.52***	.38***	.59***	.70***	1,2	.44***	.62***	.23*	.54***	.22*	.52***
I	1,3	.52***	.47***	.60***	.32**	.37***	.35***	1,3	.57***	.40***	.33**	.35***	.59***	.45***
T	1,4	.34**	.48***	.45***	.31**	.42***	.39***	1,4	.44***	.52***	.45***	.44***	.49***	.54***
U	2,3	.27**	.44***	.53***	.33**	.44***	.43***	2,3	.65***	.46***	.47***	.42***	.45***	.62***
A	2,4	.22*	.43***	.54***	.13	.44***	.38***	2,4	.43***	.36***	.41***	.56***	.41***	.62***
T	3,4	.29**	.47***	.53***	.41***	.51***	.35***	3,4	.51***	.67***	.58***	.58***	.56***	.57***

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

Table 3

Percentage of the Population Attributing Their Social Successes
and Failures to One of the Four Causes

Success		Failure	
Locus of Control		Locus of Control	
Internal	External	Internal	External
Ability	Task Difficulty	Ability	Task Difficulty
15.2%	Stable 59.8%	18.7%	Stable 50.6%
Effort	Stability- Variability	Effort	Stability- Variability
30.9%	Luck 9.3%	27.4%	Luck 22.0%
46.1%	53.9%	46.1%	53.9%

Chi square analyses showed that attributional preferences were equivalent across the two dimensions of Stability-Variability and Locus of Control. Subjects' attributions of their successes and failures were proportionally similar for the four causes except for one significant difference which was found between success and failure attributions to "task difficulty" and "luck." Subjects generally attributed their successful experiences more to "task difficulty" and less to "luck," compared with their attributions of social failures ($\chi^2 = 6.50$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$).

Attributional preferences were also depicted by examining the mean number of times one cell was chosen over another. In other words, frequency counts were obtained on the number of times a subject chose one or another of the four cells across all situations for successes and failures. Results showed a similar pattern to that found on the population proportions. However, significant mean differences between attributions of successes and of failures were found for three of the four attributional causes: task difficulty, effort, and luck. These means and t values are presented in Table 4.

Measures of risk taking and hope for future success showed that the overall mean risk score was 12.31 and the

Table 4

Means and t Values of the Attributional Preferences for Social
Successes and Failures ($N=254$)

Causes	Success		Failure		t Value
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	
Ability	4.91	3.20	5.26	3.34	1.28
Task difficulty	8.01	2.96	6.97	2.92	3.85**
Effort	6.28	3.62	5.56	3.95	2.12*
Luck	3.88	3.02	5.13	3.40	4.14**

* $p < .02$

** $p < .005$

overall mean hope for success score was 14.92. The means and standard deviations of these questions appear in Table 5.

A four-week test-retest reliability assessment was conducted on all of the above measures using Pearson's correlation coefficient. The population which comprised the test-retest group was 26 male and 38 female undergraduate university students enrolled at the same university from which the overall sample was drawn. Their mean age was 26 years and they went out on dates an average of once every two weeks. While reliability coefficients for SSEI, SAD, and FNE had been established by the originators of these measures, in this study the reliability coefficients obtained for these measures were .76, .86, and .81, respectively. Reliability coefficients obtained for frequency of dating (.77) and satisfaction with a person of the opposite sex (.70) were both significant at the .001 level.

For attributional preferences, correlation coefficients on the cell scores for successes and failures were all high and significant beyond the .01 level. Similarly, the coefficients obtained on all risk taking and hope for success questions were high and significant. The test-retest correlation coefficients appear in Table 6.

Table 5
Means and Standard Deviations of Risk Taking and Hope for
Future Success on the Population ($N=254$)

	$\bar{X}$	<u>SD</u>
Risk 1	12.04	6.12
Risk 2	12.56	6.11
Risk 3	12.33	5.53
Hope 1	12.09	4.53
Hope 2	14.02	4.63
Hope 3	13.13	4.32
Hope 4	17.68	3.30
Hope 5	17.69	3.20

Table 6

Test-Retest Reliability Correlation Coefficients of the
Self-Report Instruments ($n=64$)

<u>SSEI</u>	<u>SAD</u>	<u>FNE</u>	<u>Dating Score</u>	<u>Satisfaction with Opposite Sex Relations</u>			
.76***	.86***	.81***	.77***	.70***			

	<u>Attribution</u>			
	<u>Ability</u>	<u>Task Difficulty</u>	<u>Effort</u>	<u>Luck</u>
Success	.78***	.69***	.65***	.71***
Failure	.63***	.56***	.67***	.35***

<u>Risk 1</u>	<u>Risk 2</u>	<u>Risk 3</u>	<u>Hope 1</u>	<u>Hope 2</u>	<u>Hope 3</u>	<u>Hope 4</u>	<u>Hope 5</u>
.78***	.77***	.43***	.76***	.54***	.61***	.28*	.31**

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

Correlational Analyses

There were several significant intercorrelations among the above measures using Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient. SSEI correlated negatively with both SAD and FNE, and positively with both frequency of dating and satisfaction with a person of the opposite sex. SAD and FNE correlated positively with each other, and negatively with frequency of dating, satisfaction with a person of the opposite sex, as well as with SSEI. These results appear in Table 7.

Significant correlations were found between the major self-report instruments and measures of risk taking and hope for success. SAD correlated negatively and significantly with all risk and hope questions. FNE, SSEI, and satisfaction with a person of the opposite sex correlated with all questions except the one of risk taking involving a "blind date" situation. These intercorrelations are presented in Table 8.

Subgroup Analyses

Three groups of subjects were selected for special study on the basis of scores on the SSEI: a high group consisted of all subjects whose SSEI score was equal to or above a score one standard deviation above the mean (≥ 159); a low group consisted of all subjects whose SSEI score was

Table 7

Intercorrelation Coefficients among the Major Self-Report
Instruments (N=254)

	Dating Score	Satisfaction with Opposite Sex Relations	SSEI	SAD
Satisfaction with opposite sex relations	.61**			
SSEI	.41**	.57**		
SAD	-.39**	-.54**	-.76**	
FNE	-.18*	-.34**	-.47**	.57**

* $p < .01$

** $p < .001$

Table 8
Correlation Matrix of Risk Taking and Hope for Success with
the Major Self-Report Instruments (N=254)

	Risk 1	Risk 2	Risk 3	Hope 1	Hope 2	Hope 3	Hope 4	Hope 5
Satisfaction with opposite sex relations	.05	.39**	.43**	.31**	.49**	.41**	.44**	.41**
SSEI	.08	.50**	.49**	.29**	.65**	.42**	.42**	.42**
SAD	-.16*	-.56**	-.52**	-.30**	-.53**	-.41**	-.33**	-.34**
FNE	-.03	-.38**	-.37**	-.21*	-.33**	-.31**	-.20*	-.25**

* $p < .01$

** $p < .001$

equal to or below a score one standard deviation below the mean (≤ 108); and a middle group was all subjects whose SSEI score fell between one standard deviation above and below the mean ($\geq 109 \leq 158$). The t tests between the high and low SSEI groups revealed significant differences on all of the major self-report instruments. These means and t values appear in Table 9. Data for the middle SSEI group is presented throughout the tables as illustration for the reader. Statistical comparisons were not conducted between the middle SSEI and other groups.

When attributional preferences for social successes and failures were examined for cross-situational consistency, differences were found between the high and low SSEI groups. An examination of the two situations which were considered to be most different in terms of social context and complexity (situations 1 and 3) showed that subjects in the low group gave consistent responses across these two situations, for both success and failure experiences; however, subjects in the high group were less consistent. These correlation coefficients appear in Table 10.

The subgroups also revealed marked differences in attributional preferences when both the cell proportions and means were examined. As can be seen in Table 11, 92% of the high SSEI subjects viewed their successes as caused by stable forces, and 61% viewed these stable forces as

Table 9

Means and t Values of the Self-Report Instruments for the Subgroups

	High SSEI (n=36)		Low SSEI (n=42)		t Value
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	
Age	22.26	6.11	22.48	5.70	
Dating score	5.11	1.58	2.64	1.97	6.18*
Satisfaction with opposite sex relations	18.25	4.51	8.44	6.42	7.72*
SSEI	166.31	5.69	93.26	13.49	30.31*
SAD	2.03	2.14	16.07	5.39	14.63*
FNE	5.88	3.48	16.63	8.58	7.03*

* $p < .001$

	Middle SSEI (n=176)	
	$\bar{X}$	SD
Age	21.87	4.61
Dating score	3.87	1.93
Satisfaction with opposite sex relations	14.98	5.07
SSEI	135.65	13.42
SAD	6.87	5.24
FNE	12.53	7.70

Table 10

Nonparametric Correlation Coefficients for Consistency of Success
and Failure Attributions across Four Situations Using
Kendall's τ Reliability Coefficient, for the
Subgroups

Situation	High SSEI (n=25)						Low SSEI (n=25)					
	Success						Success					
	Question Pairs						Question Pairs					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4	5	6
1,2	.44*	.43*	.24	.22	-	.72**	-.16	.25	.31	.48**	.85***	.50**
1,3	.36*	-.11	-.08	-.13	-.09	.46**	.65***	.38*	.50**	.51**	.33*	.29
1,4	.28	.17	-	.22	.69***	.46**	.59**	.16	.10	.45**	.20	.49**
2,3	.29	-.15	-.08	-.22	-	.58**	.01	.30	.27	.51**	.46**	.29
2,4	.21	.33*	-	.00	-	.41*	-.03	-.05	.49**	.28	.26	.49**
3,4	.26	-.13	-	.05	-.06	.50**	.28	.42*	.26	.60**	.44*	.14
Failure												
1,2	.43*	.51**	.05	.76***	.56**	.54**	.00	.37	.20	.28	.05	.36*
1,3	.62***	.07	.27	.22	.59**	.40*	.33*	.52**	.34*	.43*	.37*	.53**
1,4	.43*	.74***	.27	.37*	.46**	.40*	.51**	.36*	.27	.43*	.37*	.60***
2,3	.74***	.26	.66***	.30	.66***	.76***	.33*	.71***	.43*	.69***	.36*	.69***
2,4	.49**	.33*	.42*	.60**	.54**	.60**	.09	.14	.53**	.71***	.52**	.60**
3,4	.43*	.41*	.34*	.52**	.64***	.68***	.64***	.53**	.52**	.67***	.36*	.46**

Table 10 (Continued)

Middle SSEI (n=25)													
Situ- ation	Success						Situ- ation	Failure					
	Question Pairs							Question Pairs					
	1	2	3	4	5	6		1	2	3	4	5	6
1,2	-.10	.38*	.50**	.30	.12	.91***	1,2	.27	.70***	-.05	.55**	.28	.68***
1,3	.36*	.27	.62***	.24	.45**	.34*	1,3	.26	.16	.11	.38*	.85***	.43*
1,4	-.15	.46**	.60**	.08	.59**	.16	1,4	.09	.27	.45**	.49**	.72***	.56**
2,3	.19	.34*	.34*	.44**	.20	.43*	2,3	.50**	-.09	.13	.22	.36*	.38*
2,4	.25	.30	.34*	-.03	.58**	.22	2,4	.39*	-.03	-.04	.08	.04	.67**
3,4	.16	.13	.44*	.28	.58**	.45	3,4	.21	.87***	.65***	.54**	.68***	.51**

*p < .05

**p < .01

***p < .001

Table 11

Percentage of Population of the Three Subgroups, Attributing Their Social Successes and Failures to One of the Four Causes

High SSEI (n=36)				Low SSEI (n=42)			
Success				Success			
Locus of Control				Locus of Control			
Internal	External	Task		Internal	External	Task	
Ability	Difficulty	Stable		Ability	Difficulty	Stable	
55.6%	36.1%	91.7%	Stability- Variability	6.0%	37.0%	42.9%	
Effort	Luck	Variable		Effort	Luck	Variable	
5.6%	2.8%	8.3%		29.8%	27.4%	57.1%	
61.1%	38.9%			35.7%	64.3%		
Failure				Failure			
Task				Task			
Ability	Difficulty	Stable		Ability	Difficulty	Stable	
4.2%	27.8%	31.9%	Stability- Variability	47.6%	7.1%	54.8%	
Effort	Luck	Variable		Effort	Luck	Variable	
43.1%	25.0%	68.1%		19.0%	26.2%	45.2%	
47.2%	52.8%			66.7%	33.3%		

Table 11 (Continued)

Middle SSEI (n=176)			
Success		Failure	
Locus of Control		Locus of Control	
Internal	External	Internal	External
Ability	Task	Ability	Task
	Difficulty		Difficulty
9.1%	48.3%	14.8%	38.6%
	Stable		Stable
	57.4%		53.4%
	Stability-		Stability-
	Variability		Variability
Effort	Luck	Effort	Luck
36.4%	6.3%	26.1%	20.5%
	Variable		Variable
	42.6%		46.6%
45.5%	54.5%	40.9%	59.1%

under internal control. In contrast, 57% of the low SSEI subjects saw their successes as caused by variable forces, and 64% saw these as under external control. In terms of attribution of social failure experiences, 68% of the high SSEI subjects attributed their failures to variable forces, and 53% saw these as external, while 55% of the low SSEI subjects attributed their failures to stable forces, and 67% attributed the cause to internal factors. Chi square analyses between the high and low SSEI groups showed significant differences for attribution of both success and failure experiences on the two major dimensions (Success--Stability-Variability: $\chi^2 = 53.19$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$; Success--Locus of Control: $\chi^2 = 12.10$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$; Failure--Stability-Variability: $\chi^2 = 10.16$, $df = 1$, $p < .01$; Failure--Locus of Control: $\chi^2 = 7.32$, $df = 1$, $p < .01$).

In addition, chi square analyses within each group revealed that the high SSEI group attributions along the Stability-Variability dimension were significantly different, and reversed, for successes versus failures ($\chi^2 = 75.10$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$); for the low SSEI group it was the Locus of Control dimension which was significantly different, and reversed, for their success versus failure attributions ($\chi^2 = 18.71$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$). These results indicate that different dimensions distinguish the high and low SSEI subjects, and this for both success and failure attributions.

When specific causes were examined, results showed that many high SSEI subjects attributed their successes to ability (56%) and very few attributed them to luck (3%). A very small percentage of the low SSEI subjects attributed successes to ability (6%) and the highest percentage attributed to task difficulty (37%). For failure experiences, these results were reversed. More high SSEI subjects attributed failure to lack of effort (43%) and fewest attributed to lack of ability (4%). On the other hand, more low SSEI subjects attributed failure experiences to lack of ability (48%) and only a few attributed to task difficulty (7%). Chi square analyses showed the high and low SSEI groups to be significantly different in their attributions to the four causal factors for failure experiences. In other words, when the two internal causal factors (ability & effort) were compared between highs and lows, a significant difference was found ($\chi^2 = 42.31$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$). Similarly, for the two external factors (task difficulty & luck) $\chi^2 = 7.18$, $df = 1$, $p < .01$; the two stable factors (ability & task difficulty) $\chi^2 = 45.86$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$; and the two variable factors (effort & luck) $\chi^2 = 4.04$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$. For attributions of success experiences, the differences between these comparisons were all significant except for the two variable factors. Chi square analyses yielded the following: (1) ability and effort

($x^2 = 51.09$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$); (2) task difficulty and luck ($x^2 = 13.29$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$); and (3) ability and task difficulty ($x^2 = 24.17$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$).

These same comparisons within the high and low SSEI groups revealed significant differences in attribution of successes and failures for all pairs compared, except for the two variable causes. That is, for highs, attributions of successes differed from attributions of failures for: (1) the two internal factors (ability & effort) $x^2 = 71.65$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$; (2) the two external factors (task difficulty & luck) $x^2 = 16.25$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$; and (3) the two stable factors (ability & task difficulty) $x^2 = 19.30$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$. For lows, attributions of successes differed from attributions of failures for the same pairs: (1) ability and effort ($x^2 = 27.00$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$); (2) task difficulty and luck ($x^2 = 10.17$, $df = 1$, $p < .01$); and (3) ability and task difficulty ($x^2 = 49.99$, $df = 1$, $p < .001$). These results are summarized in Table 11.

Mean differences of each attributional causal factor between the high and low SSEI groups were significant for all factors, except success attributions to task difficulty. The means and t values appear in Table 12.

There were also significant differences between the subgroups on measures of risk taking and hope for future success. The t tests showed that significant differences

Table 12

Means and t Values of the Attributional Causes of Social Successes and Failures between the High and Low SSEI Groups

	High SSEI (n=36)		Low SSEI (n=42)		t Value
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	
Success					
Ability	8.86	2.96	2.51	2.33	10.67**
Task difficulty	8.12	2.70	7.66	3.12	.61
Effort	4.39	3.24	6.35	3.37	2.67**
Luck	2.14	2.03	6.15	3.60	2.79**
Failure					
Ability	2.37	2.68	7.97	3.30	8.12**
Task difficulty	7.26	2.66	5.32	2.43	3.51**
Effort	7.25	3.82	4.78	3.90	2.84**
Luck	6.57	3.43	5.22	3.59	1.77*
* $p < .05$					
** $p < .001$					
	Middle SSEI (n=176)				
	$\bar{X}$	SD			
Success					
Ability	4.76	2.75			
Task difficulty	8.08	2.97			
Effort	6.69	3.64			
Luck	3.71	2.73			
Failure					
Ability	5.33	2.97			
Task difficulty	7.36	2.95			
Effort	5.38	3.91			
Luck	4.79	3.28			

existed between the high and low SSEI groups on all measures of hope for success and all but one measure of risk taking. These means and t values appear in Table 13.

Correlational Analyses

Correlations between the major self-report instruments were similar for both the high and low SSEI groups. The middle SSEI group was most similar in intercorrelational pattern to the overall population. For both the high and low SSEI groups, SSEI correlated negatively with SAD. For the low SSEI subjects SAD correlated with FNE, but for high SSEI subjects this correlation was only approaching significance. It should be noted that for this coefficient the power of the correlation with an n of 36 is .44 at $p < .05$ (Cohen, 1969). Therefore, a larger N would have been required for the coefficient to have reached significance. For both groups, satisfaction with opposite sex relations correlated with dating frequency. The one major difference between high and low SSEI subjects on this variable was, while for high SSEI subjects satisfaction with opposite sex relations correlated negatively with FNE, for low SSEI subjects, satisfaction with opposite sex relations correlated negatively with SAD. A comparison of these intercorrelations for the subgroups appears in Table 14.

Table 13

Means and t Values of Risk Taking and Hope for Future Success
between High and Low SSEI Groups

	High SSEI (n=36)		Low SSEI (n=42)		t Value
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	
Risk 1	12.17	7.34	12.00	6.39	.11
Risk 2	17.83	3.15	8.45	6.37	8.02*
Risk 3	16.72	3.93	8.88	5.21	7.40*
Hope 1	13.68	5.61	9.75	4.80	3.36*
Hope 2	17.75	2.62	8.83	4.93	9.91*
Hope 3	16.11	3.30	10.55	5.02	5.67*
Hope 4	19.58	1.70	14.86	4.49	5.97*
Hope 5	19.53	1.89	15.07	4.04	6.02*

* $p < .001$

	Middle SSEI (n=176)	
	$\bar{X}$	SD
Risk 1	12.03	5.81
Risk 2	12.44	5.72
Risk 3	12.23	5.27
Hope 1	12.33	4.02
Hope 2	14.49	3.79
Hope 3	13.07	3.94
Hope 4	17.96	2.77
Hope 5	17.94	2.80

Table 14

Intercorrelation Matrix of the Major Self-Report Instruments
for the Three Subgroups

	High SSEI (n=36)			Low SSEI (n=42)		
	Dating score	Satisfaction with opposite sex relations	SSEI	Dating score	Satisfaction with opposite sex relations	SSEI
Satisfaction with opposite sex relations	.53***			.55***		
SSEI	-.10	.05		.11	.32	
SAD	.34*	.17	-.35*	-.19	-.51**	-.46**
FNE	-.21	-.42*	-.04	.21	-.07	-.13
			.33			.34*

	Middle SSEI (n=176)		
	Dating score	Satisfaction with opposite sex relations	SSEI
Satisfaction with opposite sex relations	.54***		
SSEI	.29***	.38***	
SAD	-.30***	-.36***	-.56***
FNE	-.12	-.24**	-.38***
			-.54***

* $p < .05$
 ** $p < .01$
 *** $p < .001$

Significant correlations found between the major self-report instruments and measures of risk taking and hope for success also showed differences between the high and low SSEI groups. For the high SSEI subjects, satisfaction with opposite sex relations correlated significantly with one risk taking and four of the five hope for success questions. For the low SSEI subjects, satisfaction with opposite sex relations correlated significantly with two risk taking questions and all of the hope for success questions. For the low SSEI subjects, SAD correlated negatively with all risk taking questions and three hope for success questions, but for the high SSEI subjects SAD did not correlate with either risk taking or hope for success. These correlations are presented in Table 15.

Interpretation of Results - Study 1

The results of the foregoing investigation point out that different cognitive attributional processes operate for persons who are high, as opposed to those who are low, in social self-esteem.

Subjects with high SSEI scores were found to attribute successful social experiences significantly more frequently to internal and stable causes, and most often to their own ability. Subjects with low SSEI scores, on the other hand, attributed successful social experiences more frequently to

Table 15

Intercorrelation Coefficients of Risk Taking and Hope for Success with the Major Self-Report Instruments for the Three Subgroups

Instruments for the nine subgroups															
Low SSEI (n=42)															
Risk															
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*p < .05

**p < .01

***p < .001

external and variable causes, and least often to their own ability. In terms of social failure experiences, subjects scoring high on the SSEI attributed their social failure experiences significantly more often to external and variable causes, while subjects scoring low on the SSEI attributed their social failures significantly more often to internal and stable causes, especially to their lack of ability.

This kind of attributional style for social experiences very closely parallels the differences in the attribution bias for "fear of failure" and "hope for success" people found in achievement related contexts (Heckhausen, 1975). The results also represent the first time causal attribution phenomena have been demonstrated outside of traditional achievement oriented contexts.

Additionally, the findings suggest that high or low social self-esteem is distinguished by one or the other of the two dimensions of the attributional causal factors. For subjects with high scores on the SSEI, the Stability/Variability dimension was the dominant causal factor for both success and failure experiences. In contrast, for subjects with low scores on the SSEI, the Locus of Control dimension distinguished their thinking style for successes and failures. The first evidence of this was seen in a simple chi square analysis of the proportion of subjects in each group who were characterized by their attributions to one cause or another, as well as t tests which

revealed significant differences between the high and low SSEI groups on the four causal factors. A second set of findings pointing to different cognitive styles in high versus low SSEI people is revealed in the correlation coefficients between the major self-report instruments and the measures of risk taking and hope for future success. Weiner has found that the Locus of Control dimension is linked with affect. Our results lend support to Weiner's findings in that, for subjects scoring low in social self-esteem, significant correlations were found between measures of risk taking, hope for success, SAD and SSEI, which were not found for subjects with high social self-esteem. Weiner also found that the Stability/Variability dimension is linked with a person's hope for future success. Somewhat indirectly, our findings for the subjects high on the SSEI, for whom the Stability/Variability dimension is operative, show that hope for success is not tied in with their affect (i.e., SSEI and SAD do not correlate with hope for success and risk questions).

Seligman's work has shown that depressives tend to perceive reinforcement as more response independent than nondepressives. The expectancy that responding will be ineffective results in a reduced incentive to initiate instrumental responses. This reduction in responding disrupts subsequent learning of response reinforcement contingencies. Our findings also lend further support to this evidence. Subjects

scoring low on the SSEI demonstrate that they feel little control over their social experiences, in that Locus of Control is the dominant discriminating factor. However, as Weiner has stated, it is not sufficient to talk about simply a person's perceived control of his own behavior. Implications for a person's future behavior have their roots in the ability to see stability and/or changeability in events. Our findings have shown that differences in social self-esteem relate to different characteristic thinking styles and that two fundamentally different principles maintain these cognitive biases. We have also found that high SSEI subjects appear not to be as inhibited by SAD as are the low SSEI subjects. The evidence that high SSEI people engage in more social events and take more risks is seen in the pattern of intercorrelations on the measures of SAD, risk taking, and hope for success. High SSEI subjects show no correlation between SAD and risk taking; rather, risk taking for high SSEI people appears to be characterized more by scores on the FNE. An examination of the correlation coefficients of subjects' attributional responses of the two most diverse social situations presented to them (1 and 3) revealed that low SSEI subjects appear not to respond discriminately to different situations to the extent that high SSEI subjects do. Thus, while those with high social self-esteem may hold self-evaluative concerns about their behavior, it seems that

at least they are willing to act and to take risks in social situations.

In support of Heckhausen's (1975) self-reinforcing motive model, the above results illustrate how social self-esteem is maintained, enhanced, and perpetuated by the cognitive attributional processes which are operating. Possibly, because people with high social self-esteem appear not so inhibited by SAD, the fact that they do behave can be what allows for a greater number of occasions for feedback. Also in support of Heckhausen's findings concerning the different risk taking styles of "fear of failure" and "hope for success" people, the present study demonstrates that high SSEI subjects are more selective in the social events in which they will risk, and are more able to recognize the levels of risk appropriate to the situation. In contrast, subjects who have low SSEI scores maintain a cognitive attributional style which offers no positive self-reinforcement. They also possess high degrees of both SAD and FNE, and it may be these consequences which result in a lower range of behavioral responses from which they can obtain feedback. The resultant inexperience is reflected in their risk taking style which appears undifferentiated across situations. They take less risks and have less expectancy of future success, both of which are tied in very closely with their level of social self-esteem.

On the basis of these results, the hypothesis that Heckhausen's "fear of failure" self-reinforcing motive model can also be applied in social interpersonal contexts has received some support. In addition, further support is lent to Weiner's findings that affect is related to the Locus of Control dimension and expectancy of future success is related to the Stability/Variability dimension.

In response to this, and the large body of literature which points to a need for a treatment paradigm for people who are suffering from low social self-esteem, inhibited by SAD and FNE, and also are characterized by a negative cognitive attribution bias, an exploratory study was undertaken. If people who are low in social self-esteem can be made to engage in behaviors which will provide for feedback, perhaps they will eventually see that they can in fact exercise some control over their behavior. The question remains whether achieving the perception of control over one's behavior is also the precedent for subsequently perceiving stability in events. In other words, does a thinking style which is characterized by the Stability/Variability dimension have its history in the Locus of Control dimension, or are the systems mutually exclusive? The following treatment paradigm attempted to investigate the extent to which a cognitive restructuring procedure could change a negative attribution bias into a positive one and to what extent this could mediate changes in heterosexual social behavior.

CHAPTER IV

METHOD - STUDY 2

The last question on the original questionnaire asked subjects if they would be willing to participate in a program designed to help them in heterosexual social relations. On the basis of the results obtained in the first study, a second study designed to explore the application of various cognitive manipulations in low social self-esteem people was undertaken.

Statement of the Problem and Hypotheses To Be Tested

The second study was undertaken to examine: (1) whether a Cognitive Attribution Restructuring procedure could effectively increase social self-esteem, reduce social avoidance and distress, reduce fear of negative evaluation, and thereby increase the frequency of social behavior; (2) whether persons who demonstrate a negative attribution bias can be taught to re-attribute the causes of their successes and failures in such a way that would ultimately result in a thinking style characteristic of HS persons; and (3) to examine the differential effectiveness of a Social Skills Training procedure as compared with a Cognitive Attribution Restructuring procedure, both singly and in combination. The population consisted of

male undergraduate university students who were preselected on the basis of their low scores on the SSEI, high scores on SAD and FNE, and who demonstrated a negative attribution bias for attributing the causes of their social successes and failures.

Hypothesis I:

Since, on the basis of the first study, it was found that a negative attribution bias correlated with low social self-esteem, high fear of negative evaluation and high social avoidance and distress, it was hypothesized that subjects exposed to a Cognitive Attribution Restructuring procedure would show, on posttesting, a decrease in scores on SAD and FNE, an increase in scores on SSEI, and a positive change in their attribution bias.

Hypothesis II:

Since, on the basis of the literature reviewed, it had been shown that information on social skills (what, where, and how to behave) increases the likelihood that a person will have increased confidence to behave, and thus would be more likely to engage in interpersonal contacts, it was hypothesized that subjects exposed to a Skill Training procedure, and subjects who were induced to undertake specific social assignments, would show a reduction in anxiety in interpersonal relationships, but would not necessarily demonstrate a significant change in attribution bias, fear of negative evaluation or social self-esteem, from pre- to posttesting.

Hypothesis III:

It was hypothesized that subjects who were exposed to the combined treatment of Skill Training plus Cognitive Restructuring would show the greatest change in attribution bias and social self-esteem, as well as a significant reduction in their social anxiety and fear of negative evaluation scores, from pre- to posttesting.

Subjects

Thirty male subjects between the ages of 17 and 35 years, selected from those in the first study, volunteered to participate in a treatment program designed to help them handle heterosexual social situations better. Pre-selection criteria demanded that subjects had scored below the mean on the SSEI and had demonstrated a negative attribution bias. Originally, only subjects from the "low SSEI" group of Study 1 were selected, but volunteers from among this group were not readily forthcoming and so the SSEI criteria scores were expanded to allow for more potential volunteers.

Procedure

The measures used were the same as those in Study 1. The existing data on the treatment subjects served as the pretest material. Subjects were telephoned by the female experimenter and asked to participate in the program. The words "treatment," "shy," and "experiment" were not used, either verbally or in textual material, throughout the study. The entire procedure was referred to as a "Social Relations Program." The primary reason for this was to induce greater participation on the part of the college students who were interested in improving their social relationships.

Subjects were randomly assigned to one of five experimental conditions. All subjects were seen together at

the first meeting where they were greeted by the female experimenter. They were asked to listen to a short introductory message delivered via videotape, welcoming them to the Program and giving a brief description of what they would be involved in over the next 4-week period. All videotaped information was presented by a male experimenter, who was a Clinical Psychologist at the University of Ottawa and was presented to the subjects as Chief of the Program. These introductory remarks appear in Appendix 2.

At the end of the videotape, the experimenter gave each subject a "self-monitoring booklet," along with complete detailed instructions on how to monitor their "social contacts" over the next 7-day period. Measures obtained from the self-monitoring included the following: (1) frequency of males and females contacted; (2) frequency of acquaintances and strangers contacted; (3) frequency of contacts initiated by subjects; (4) duration of social contacts; (5) age of social contacts; (6) self-reported degree of enjoyment of social contacts; (7) self-reported level of anxiety during interactions; and (8) the degree of novelty of the transaction. The self-monitoring instructions and booklet are presented in Appendix 5. Before leaving the first meeting, each subject was given an appointment to return in one week for the next phase of the Program. At the end of the first week, subjects returned in their respective treatment conditions for the

second phase of the Program. All in-session information was given on videotape. The content of the tape varied according to each of the five treatment conditions.

Behavioral Skills Condition. This group viewed a 45-minute videotape giving information and illustrating specific behavioral components of skilled behavior. These components included verbal characteristics such as loudness of voice, voice tone and modulation, fluency of speech, response duration and latency; and nonverbal characteristics such as body orientation, posture, eye contact, facial expression, and gestures. Models of each of these behaviors illustrated both an appropriate and an inappropriate expression of these components of social skill. A script of the skill videotape material is presented in Appendix 3.

A second brief videotape was also presented explaining that subjects would be asked to undertake some "homework assignments" over the next 3-week period, as well as to continue the daily self-monitoring. This information was cast within the context of task-motivational instructions (Barber, 1969), which were designed to encourage and to maintain their participation. The information introducing the homework assignments is presented in Appendix 6.

At the end of the videotape, subjects were given a "Manual of Social Interaction Techniques" compiled by the author, based on research by Gambril (1974). This manual

reviewed all the behaviors viewed on the videotape and presented information on: (1) where to meet people; (2) how to initiate a conversation; (3) how to maintain a conversation; (4) how to terminate a conversation; and (5) how to make arrangements for a future meeting. Great care was taken to omit any mention of notions related to causal attribution, and this included the specific omission of such terms as: success, failure, ability, easy, difficult, effort, and luck. The "Skill" manual is presented in Appendix 9. Subjects were asked to read the manual over the next three days and were given an appointment to return in three days to discuss the points presented and any questions they may have. This discussion took place with the male experimenter whom they had seen on the videotape and whom they were told was Chief of the Social Relations Program. They were also told that at that time they would be given the homework assignments.

The discussion with the male experimenter was done primarily for two reasons. First, to ensure that the subjects would, in fact, read the manual, or, at least, be exposed to the information via the discussion. Secondly, the discussion with a male experimenter was to alleviate any anxiety or defensiveness which might ensue if subjects had to discuss these sensitive issues with the female experimenter.

When the subjects returned for the discussion they were presented with the homework assignments and self-

monitoring sheets for the next 3-week period, by the female experimenter. Measures obtained from the homework assignments included the following: (1) self-reported anxiety, both in anticipation of and during the task; (2) degree of enjoyment felt for the task; (3) duration of the transaction; and (4) self-reported satisfaction of performance of the task. They were also provided with three self-addressed envelopes in which to return this material at the end of each week. The homework assignments and instructions are presented in Appendix 7. They then spent one-half hour in a discussion of the manual with the male experimenter. At the same time, the male experimenter reiterated task motivational instructions to encourage participation and completion of the assignments.

Cognitive Re-attribution Condition. This group viewed a 30-minute videotape giving information on causal attribution bias in achievement oriented situations and its effect upon a person's social self-esteem and behavior. The major manipulation here was an attempt to induce the subjects to re-attribute the causes of their social successes and failures and to get them to see that their failure experiences were due to a lack of "effort." The information presented on the attribution videotape is presented in Appendix 4. At the end of the videotape, subjects were given a "Manual of Social Interaction Techniques" which

reviewed the material covered on the videotape, as well as some additional material pertinent to cognitive thinking styles (Girodo, 1978). There was no mention whatsoever of social-behavioral skills. Subjects were induced to "try harder next time" and to re-attribute any unsuccessful social events to external causes and any successful social events to internal causes. The "Attribution" manual is presented in Appendix 10. The second videotape explaining the homework assignments was also presented. Subjects were then asked to read the manual within the next three days and were given an appointment to return in three days to discuss the points presented and any questions they may have with the male experimenter. They were also told that at that time they would be given the homework assignments.

Three days later, the subjects returned and the female experimenter presented them with the homework assignments and their self-monitoring sheets for the next three weeks. They were also provided with self-addressed envelopes to return the material at the end of each week. They then spent one-half hour in a discussion of the points in the manual with the male experimenter, who again reiterated the task motivational instructions to encourage participation and completion of the assignments.

Combined Skills and Attribution Condition. This group first of all viewed the 45-minute videotape giving

information on behavioral social skills. After a brief break they then viewed the 30-minute cognitive attribution videotape, and the videotape introducing the homework assignments. At the end of the videotapes, the subjects were given a "Manual of Social Interaction Techniques" which was a combination of both the manuals given to the Skill Training group and the Re-attribution group and which further induced subjects to "try harder next time" when unsuccessful social situations occurred. The "Combined" manual is presented in Appendix 11. As in the first two groups, subjects were asked to return in three days, after having read the manual, at which time the points presented were discussed with the male experimenter. At that time they were also given the homework assignments and instructions for the continuing self-monitoring.

Homework Condition. This group viewed only the videotape introducing and explaining the homework assignments and the daily self-monitoring, to be undertaken over the next 3-week period, all of which was cast within the framework of task motivational instructions to complete the assignments. They were then given the homework booklet, self-monitoring sheets, and self-addressed envelopes for the next three weeks.

Self-monitoring Condition. This group viewed a brief videotape which explained the merits of self-monitoring,

all cast within the framework of task motivational instructions. Details of the information presented on this videotape, and the self-monitoring instructions can be found in Appendix 8. Subjects were then given the self-monitoring sheets for the next 3-week period, along with self-addressed envelopes to be returned at the end of each week.

Control Condition. Nine subjects, selected on the basis of the screening criteria from the test-retest sample, served as a no-treatment control group.

At the end of the 3-week treatment period, all subjects returned to complete the pretest questionnaire once more. At the same time, all subjects were asked to complete a Program Evaluation questionnaire and an evaluation of each of the two experimenters. This was undertaken to ensure the subjects' homogeneous assessment of the treatment on the part of the experimenters, across all five groups. The Evaluation questionnaire appears in Appendix 12.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS - STUDY 2

Thirty male subjects completed the 4-week program designed to help them improve their social relationships with persons of the opposite sex. The subjects were randomly assigned to one of five treatment conditions. Throughout the course of the treatment program a number of subjects dropped out and these were replaced by other subjects who met the selection criteria. The uncontrollable replacement of subjects resulted in an uneven distribution of SSEI scores among the five conditions. However, neither one-way analyses of variance nor t tests showed significant differences between the treatment conditions on SSEI mean scores. The mean age for the final treatment sample was 20.8 years, their average degree of satisfaction with opposite sex relations was 10.2, and they dated on the average once every three weeks. Scores on the SSEI scale ranged from 79 to 133. After attrition, the following numbers of subjects and range of SSEI scores remained in each of the treatment conditions: Skill, $n = 8$, range 83-130; Attribution, $n = 7$, range 105-130; Combined, $n = 6$, range 79-129; Homework, $n = 4$, range 106-133; Self-monitoring, $n = 5$, range 72-132; Test-retest Control, $n = 9$, range 94-127.

The attributional preferences of the treatment sample on pretesting are presented in tabular form and appear in Table 16. Chi square analyses showed no significant differences between the treatment sample and the "low SSEI" population on attributional preferences for social successes. For failure experiences, chi square analyses showed no significant differences in attributional preferences between the treatment sample and criterion group along the two major dimensions. However, the treatment sample did differ significantly from the criterion group in subjects' attribution to one particular cell. The treatment sample attributed more frequently to "task difficulty" for failure experiences ($\chi^2 = 4.86$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$). This, however, is only a minor distinction since there were no significant differences on the major dimensions.

Analyses of Variance and Covariance

One-way analyses of variance showed no significant differences in the pretesting scores on the major self-report instruments and attributional style between the treatment conditions. On posttesting, one-way analyses of variance showed no significant differences between the treatment conditions on SSEI, SAD, FNE, and attributional style. Similarly, analyses of covariance on posttest scores, using the pretest scores as the covariate, and on pre- to

Table 16
 Pretest Attributional Preferences of the Treatment Sample
 (Proportion of Subjects Choosing Each Cause)
 (n = 30)

Success		Failure	
Locus of Control		Locus of Control	
Internal	External	Internal	External
Ability	Task	Ability	Task
7.7%	Difficulty	37.7%	Difficulty
	47.7%		21.7%
Effort	Luck	Stable	Luck
26.0%	18.3%	59.3%	
		Variable	
		40.3%	
33.7%	66.0%	53.7%	46.0%

post-change scores, revealed no significant differences between the treatment conditions on the major self-report instruments. Thus, no major treatment effects were obtained. However, the power of the F tests for the covariate analyses of SSEI, SAD, and FNE were all less than .20 (see Appendix 13).

One-way analyses of variance of change scores on all of the measures obtained during the self-monitoring of social contacts (i.e., frequency of males, females, strangers, acquaintances, anxiety level, etc.), from baseline to the third treatment week, revealed no significant differences between the treatment conditions. Thus, the five treatment conditions self-monitored to the same extent during the 4-week period, and treatment did not affect the extent to which subjects engaged in social contacts. Analyses of covariance were undertaken on each week of self-monitoring with the previous week(s) as covariate, respectively. A few significant changes were found based on treatment effects:

- (1) During the first week of self-monitoring, subjects in the Combined condition interacted with more strangers than subjects in the other treatment conditions ($F(4,25) = 3.03$, $p < .04$). However, this effect was not maintained over the 3-week period.
- (2) Into the third treatment week, subjects in both the Skill and Combined treatment conditions were significantly less anxious in their social contacts than subjects in the other treatment conditions ($F(4,25) = 5.16$, $p < .004$).

One-way analyses of variance showed no significant differences between the five treatment conditions on either the number of homework assignments completed over the 3-week period, or the difficulty level of the assignments undertaken. There were no significant differences between conditions on any of the measures reported during homework tasks (i.e., anxiety level, enjoyment, etc.) over the three treatment weeks. Analyses of variance of changes on the homework measures over the 3-week period showed no significant differences between the treatment conditions. Analyses of covariance on all the recorded homework measures, with the respective self-monitoring measures as covariate(s), revealed no significant differences between the treatment conditions.

Within Group Comparisons

Two-tailed t tests on the means of the major self-report instruments from pre- to posttesting revealed significant changes in the treatment sample as a whole. Both SAD and FNE significantly decreased from pre- to posttesting. As well, SSEI, satisfaction with opposite sex relations, and dating frequency significantly increased. No significant changes from pre- to posttesting were obtained for the test-retest control group on these measures. The means and t values of the pre- to posttest scores for the treatment sample and the control group appear in Table 17.

Table 17

Means and t Values of Pre-to-Posttest Scores for the Treatment
Sample and Control Group on the Major Self-Report
Instruments

	Treatment Sample (n=30)			df	t Value	Test-retest Control Group (n=9)			df	t Value
	Pretest $\bar{X}$	Posttest $\bar{X}$				Pretest $\bar{X}$	Posttest $\bar{X}$			
Dating score	3.00	3.55	28	2.29*	3.29	4.00	6	1.70		
Satisfaction with opposite sex relations	10.41	12.85	26	2.65**	12.78	14.44	8	.98		
SSEI	111.97	125.37	29	4.22***	114.33	117.89	8	.70		
SAD	13.11	7.67	26	5.27***	12.33	12.33	8	.00		
FNE	17.96	11.75	27	5.61***	16.44	12.67	8	1.49		

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Changes in causal attribution for social successes and failures yielded some significant changes when the mean number of times subjects chose an attribution was examined. On pretesting, subjects generally attributed their social successes less to "ability," and their failures more to "lack of ability." On posttesting, however, these means were reversed in their direction of change and were significantly different from pretesting scores. Subjects also attributed successes significantly less to "good luck" on posttesting. Again, there were no significant changes found for the test-retest control group on the measures of attribution. These means and t values are presented in Table 18.

In terms of overall changes in risk taking and hope for future success, two of three risk items, and two of five hope items showed significant differences from pre- to posttesting. Only one significant pre-to-post difference was found for the test-retest control group on a measure of risk taking. It is interesting to note, however, that the risk item which was significant for the test-retest group was the only item not significantly different for the treatment sample. These means and t values for the risk taking and hope for success items appear in Table 19.

Table 18

Means and t Values of the Attributional Preferences for the Treatment Sample and Test-retest Control Group from Pre- to Posttesting

	Treatment Sample (n=30)			df	t Value	Test-retest Control Group (n=9)			df	t Value
	Pretest $\bar{X}$	Posttest $\bar{X}$				Pretest $\bar{X}$	Posttest $\bar{X}$			
Success										
Ability	3.11	4.32		27	2.23*	1.77	2.33		8	.71
Task difficulty	8.30	8.04		22	.37	6.78	7.56		8	.86
Effort	6.18	7.27		21	1.34	8.78	8.00		8	.77
Luck	4.74	3.26		26	2.63**	6.67	6.11		8	.51
Failure										
Ability	7.63	5.33		23	3.37**	6.89	7.00		8	.23
Task difficulty	6.40	7.15		19	1.07	6.44	8.11		8	1.32
Effort	4.89	5.67		26	1.01	4.11	3.11		8	.75
Luck	4.82	4.39		27	.63	5.89	5.11		8	.56

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

Table 19

Means and t Values of Pre- to Posttest Scores in Risk Taking and Hope
for Success for the Treatment Sample and Test-retest Control
Group

	Treatment Sample (n=30)			df	t Value	Test-retest Control Group (n=9)			df	t Value
	Pretest $\bar{X}$	Posttest $\bar{X}$				Pretest $\bar{X}$	Posttest $\bar{X}$			
Risk 1	11.46	13.82	27	2.50**	10.89	10.22	8	.78		
2	8.48	11.44	26	2.42**	9.78	10.33	8	.35		
3	9.80	9.04	24	.73	8.56	12.56	8	1.95*		
Hope 1	10.39	12.25	27	2.58**	13.00	12.50	8	.66		
2	10.50	12.71	27	2.90***	13.67	11.33	8	1.81		
3	10.84	11.04	24	.34	9.25	11.62	8	1.16		
4	16.53	17.27	29	.84	16.67	16.89	8	.29		
5	16.43	17.63	29	1.56	15.67	17.00	8	.24		

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .02$ *** $p < .01$

Treatment Conditions

The treatment conditions were examined individually for significant mean changes on the major self-report instruments. Results of two-tailed t tests showed no significant changes in SSEI scores for any treatment condition. However, SAD scores decreased significantly for three treatment conditions: Combined, Attribution, and Homework. FNE scores significantly decreased for all treatment conditions except Homework and Control. These results appear in Table 20.

When the individual treatment conditions were analyzed in terms of causal attribution, significant changes in only one treatment condition were found: Subjects in the Combined condition attributed the causes of their social failures significantly less to "lack of ability," and their social successes significantly less to "good luck" ($t = 2.96$, $df = 5$, $p < .03$; $t = 2.93$, $df = 5$, $p < .03$, respectively).

The treatment groups did not change significantly from pre- to posttesting in mean scores on the risk taking and the hope for success items. It should be noted, however, that for all of the above comparisons which were not significant, the small number of subjects in each group reduced the power of the t tests to .25 or less (see Appendix 14).

Table 20

Means and t Values of Pre- to Posttest Scores on the Measures of SSEI, SAD, and FNE for the Treatment Groups

	n	Pretest $\bar{X}$	Posttest $\bar{X}$	df	t Value
<u>SSEI</u>					
Skill	8	109.63	123.13	7	2.10
Attribution	7	119.29	133.43	6	1.67
Combined	6	111.00	118.17	5	1.48
Homework	4	123.25	134.00	3	2.75
Self-monitoring	5	97.60	119.40	4	2.22
Test-retest control	9	114.33	117.89	8	.70
<u>SAD</u>					
Skill	8	11.29	7.29	6	1.56
Attribution	7	16.17	8.50	5	2.82*
Combined	6	13.50	7.67	5	5.13**
Homework	4	8.00	4.00	3	4.90*
Self-monitoring	5	16.25	10.75	3	1.54
Test-retest control	9	12.33	12.33	8	.00
<u>FNE</u>					
Skill	8	16.25	9.75	7	3.42**
Attribution	7	20.71	12.57	6	2.82*
Combined	6	15.50	9.25	3	9.93**
Homework	4	17.75	17.50	3	.18
Self-monitoring	5	19.00	11.20	4	2.72*
Test-retest control	9	16.44	12.67	8	1.49

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Correlation Analyses

The intercorrelation coefficients of the major self-report instruments for the treatment sample showed the same significant correlation coefficients on pretesting as the "low SSEI" subjects in Study 1. In addition, however, two significant correlation coefficients appeared for the treatment sample. These coefficients showed a significant and positive correlation between SSEI and frequency of dating ($r = .42$, $p < .05$); and SSEI and satisfaction with opposite sex relations ($r = .74$, $p < .001$).

A comparison of the intercorrelation coefficients of risk taking, hope for success and the major self-report instruments also revealed some differences between the treatment sample and the "low SSEI" subjects on pretesting. The major difference appeared between risk taking and SAD. While all of the risk taking items correlated significantly with SAD for the "low SSEI" subjects, only one was significant for the treatment sample. In terms of hope for success, the major difference appeared between the two samples on SSEI coefficients; for the treatment sample, four of five hope items were significantly correlated with SSEI, while for the "low SSEI" subjects only two significant coefficients appeared. These intercorrelation coefficients for the treatment sample are presented in Table 21.

Table 21
Pearson Correlation Coefficients of Pretest Scores of Risk
Taking and Hope for Success for the Treatment Group
($\underline{n} = 30$)

	Risk 1	Risk 2	Risk 3	Hope 1	Hope 2	Hope 3	Hope 4	Hope 5
Satisfaction with opposite sex relations	-.19	.25	.39	.36	.54**	.43*	.41*	.51**
SSEI	.01	.28	.29	.60***	.65***	.36	.42*	.51**
SAD	-.25	-.51**	-.38	-.60***	-.46**	-.44**	-.21	-.23
FNE	-.10	-.36	-.34	-.46*	-.23	-.49**	-.05	-.17

* $\underline{p} < .05$

** $\underline{p} < .01$

*** $\underline{p} < .001$

Correlational analyses were conducted on pre-to-post change scores for the major self-report instruments. For the overall treatment sample, results yielded the following significant correlations. As SAD decreased, both dating frequency and satisfaction with opposite sex relations increased significantly. A change in SSEI correlated positively with a change in satisfaction with opposite sex relations. No significant correlations were found for changes among the SSEI, SAD, and FNE measures. These results appear in Table 22.

For risk taking and hope for future success, correlation coefficients showed that, as a person's risk taking changed for a particular social event, his hope for success for that same event changed also, in the same direction. This was found to be significant for all items presented to the subjects. These correlation coefficients are presented in Table 23.

Significant correlation coefficients between change scores on risk taking, hope for success, and SSEI, SAD, FNE, and attribution were few. Significant changes in FNE scores and attributional preferences, however, revealed that as FNE scores decreased, subjects' attribution of social successes to "ability" increased, and at the same time, attribution of social failures to "lack of ability" decreased. In addition, subjects' attribution of failure

Table 22

Pearson Correlation Coefficients of Change Scores from Pre- to Posttesting for the Treatment Sample ($n = 30$)

	Satisfaction with opposite sex relations	SSEI	SAD	FNE
Dating score	.27	.17	-.56*	-.03
Satisfaction with opposite sex relations		.51*	-.48*	-.23
SSEI			-.26	-.30
SAD				.24

* $p < .01$

Table 23

Change Score Correlation Coefficients between Risk Taking and
Hope for Success Items for the Treatment Sample ($n = 30$)

	Risk			Hope				
	1	2	3	1	2	3	4	5
Risk 1		-.21	-.38*	.55**	-.03	-.21	-.08	.00
2			.16	-.01	.49**	.11	-.00	.00
3				.01	-.02	.47**	.02	.07
Hope 1					.07	.03	-.05	-.04
2						.31	.44*	.43*
3							.05	.17
4								.83***

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

experiences to "lack of effort" increased as FNE scores decreased. As satisfaction with opposite sex relations increased, attribution of failures to "lack of ability" decreased also. These results are presented in Table 24.

Intercorrelation coefficients of changes in attributional causes showed the following significant changes:

(1) an increase in attribution of successes to "ability" correlated with a decrease in attribution to both "effort" and "luck," as well as an increase in attributions of failure to "lack of effort"; (2) as attribution of successes to "effort" decreased, an increase in attribution of failures to "lack of effort" occurred; and (3) for social failure experiences, as attribution to "lack of ability" decreased, attribution to "lack of effort" increased. The correlation coefficients for pre-to-post change scores between attributional causes are presented in Table 25.

Correlation coefficients between changes on the self-monitoring measures and the major self-report instruments yielded the following significant coefficients:

(1) as time in social contacts increased, SAD decreased ($r = -.37, p < .05$); (2) as self-reported anxiety decreased, FNE decreased ($r = .39, p < .03$); and (3) as SAD decreased, the frequency of "unusual" social contacts also decreased ($r = .62, p < .001$). Correlation coefficients between changes on the self-monitoring measures and changes in

Table 24

Correlation Coefficients of Change Scores between the Major Self-Report Instruments and Measures of Risk Taking, Hope for Success and Attribution Bias, for the Treatment Sample
($n = 30$)

	Risk			Hope		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
Dating frequency	-.28	.40*	.36*	-.13	.30	.27
Satisfaction						.24
with opposite						
sex relations	.03	.04	.16	-.09	.23	.01
SSEI	.08	.02	.11	.24	.34	.51**
SAD	-.17	-.44*	-.27	-.17	-.25	.53**
FNE	.25	-.08	-.06	.12	-.20	-.04
						-.18
						-.07

	Success			Failure		
	Ability	Task difficulty	Effort	Ability	Task difficulty	Effort
Dating frequency	-.20	.29	.16	-.28	-.16	-.12
Satisfaction						.22
with opposite						
sex relations	.05	.25	-.16	-.14	-.43*	.19
SSEI	.15	.22	-.18	-.17	-.11	.32
SAD	-.02	-.22	.15	.08	.31	.07
FNE	-.42*	.18	.04	.20	.43*	-.29
						-.51**
						.07
						-.03
						.27

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

Table 25

Intercorrelation Coefficients of Changes in Attribution Preferences
for the Treatment Sample ($n = 30$)

	Success			Failure		
	Ability	Task difficulty	Effort	Ability	Task difficulty	Luck
Success						
Ability		-.20	-.38*	-.40*	-.28	.01
Task difficulty			-.50**	-.26	.35*	.01
Effort				-.26	-.02	.02
Luck					-.06	-.05
Failure						
Ability					-.20	-.17
Task difficulty						-.19
Effort						-.33

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

attributional preferences showed that as "usual" social encounters decreased, attribution of success to "effort" increased ($\underline{r} = -.39$, $\underline{p} < .03$).

There were no significant correlation coefficients between changes on the homework measures and changes on the major self-report instruments. The only significant correlation coefficients for the homework measures concerned a change in attribution of social successes and yielded the following: an increase in attribution of social successes to "effort" correlated positively with (1) anticipatory anxiety of the homework task ($\underline{r} = .48$, $\underline{p} < .007$); (2) with an increase in anxiety during the homework task ($\underline{r} = .47$, $\underline{p} < .009$); (3) with an increase in enjoyment of the homework task ($\underline{r} = .47$, $\underline{p} < .009$); (4) with an increase in time spent doing the homework task ($\underline{r} = .54$, $\underline{p} < .002$); and (5) with an increase in self-reported satisfaction with performance ($\underline{r} = .47$, $\underline{p} < .009$). Neither the number nor difficulty of the homework assignments which subjects completed was found to correlate significantly with pre-to-post changes on any of the major self-report instruments, nor on risking or hope for success measures.

Program Evaluation

The original purpose of the program and leader evaluation was to check for any significant differences among the treatment conditions in terms of how they perceived the two experimenters. In addition, however, the evaluation also provided feedback regarding the usefulness of the program, and the specific instruments used, as well as the value such a program had as a learning experience for the participants.

Subjects were asked to rate, on a 7-point scale, the extent to which they enjoyed and benefited from the program. They were also asked to rate each of the following components of the program in terms of its helpfulness to them: (1) the self-monitoring; (2) the manual; (3) the videotapes; (4) the homework assignments; and (5) the discussion with the male experimenter.

Although the majority of the subjects indicated that they thought the length of the program should be decreased, results showed that, on the average, subjects both enjoyed and benefited from the program. As well, the five components of the program were generally viewed as helpful--the discussion was seen as the most helpful and the videotapes as the least helpful, of the five components. The male and female experimenters were evaluated on a 5-point Likert-type scale for eight behavioral components. Both experimenters were seen as generally enthusiastic, interested in students, warm and

supportive, approachable, and as expressing ideas clearly. Although no groups felt the experimenters were either disinterested in them or lacked enthusiasm, subjects in the Attribution, Homework, and Self-monitoring groups felt the female experimenter was somewhat more interested in students than the subjects in the Skill and Combined treatment conditions ($F_{(4,21)} = 4.50, p < .01$). Subjects in the Attribution and Combined groups felt the male experimenter to be somewhat more enthusiastic than subjects in the Skill group ($F_{(2,12)} = 4.32, p < .04$).

Interpretation of Results - Study 2

The results of the second study failed to show significant treatment effects to distinguish a cognitive attribution restructuring procedure from skill training, homework assignments, self-monitoring, and no treatment control procedures. However, caution must be taken in assuming that the treatment procedures cannot be instrumental in producing cognitive and behavioral change. Because of the very small number of subjects in each treatment condition, the power of the F tests was reduced to less than 20%, and of the t tests to less than 25%. A substantial increase in the numbers of subjects in each treatment group would most probably have resulted in significant treatment effects. In spite of this,

however, there were some significant trends which suggest a treatment effect over all subjects.

Although no significant changes from pretest to posttest were obtained on SSEI scores for the treatment groups, the statistical powers of the t tests were all 25% or less. Thus, subsequent research with a substantial increase in the number of subjects would be necessary before one rejects the null hypothesis. The same is true for pre-to-posttest differences on SAD scores. For three of the treatment conditions (Combined, Attribution, & Homework) a significant decrease in SAD from pre-to-posttesting was observed; and for two of these comparisons the power was statistically high. For the treatment conditions, which did not change significantly, the statistical power was again less than 25%, and thus an increased N would be necessary to obtain significant changes.

The strongest trend is seen in pre-to-posttest changes in the FNE scores. Here, four of the treatment conditions show a significant decrease in FNE scores at posttesting (Skill, Combined, Attribution, and Self-Monitoring); and two of these significant changes were obtained with a statistical power of less than 50%. These results indicate that a significant decrease in FNE scores might also have been obtained for subjects in the Homework

condition with a larger N , since the statistical power was less than 25% in that case (i.e., $n = 4$).

Significant treatment effects were also obtained when the whole treatment sample was compared with the test-retest control group. Scores of SSEI, satisfaction with opposite sex relations, and dating frequency significantly increased from pre-to-posttesting, while SAD and FNE significantly decreased, for the treatment sample. No significant changes were found for the control group on these measures. As well, significant changes in attributional causes of social successes and failures suggest that a definite trend toward re-attribution was occurring. Subjects changed significantly toward attributing social successes more to "ability" and social failures less to "lack of ability," on posttesting. As well, the treatment sample indicated that they were significantly more willing to risk both "going on a blind date," and "beginning a conversation" with a female acquaintance, and had greater expectancy of success for these two events on posttesting, compared with no treatment control group subjects.

Significant correlations of changes on FNE scores and attribution bias also suggest an overall treatment effect. It was found that as FNE scores decreased, subjects' attribution of social successes to "ability" increased. At the same time, attribution of social failures to "lack of

ability" decreased, while failure attributions to "lack of effort" increased. Significant changes were also found within the attributional causes. An increase in attribution of social successes to "ability" correlated with a decrease in attribution to both "effort" and "luck," as well as an increase in attribution of failures to "lack of effort." As attribution of successes to "effort" decreased, attribution of failures to "lack of effort" increased; and as attribution of failures to "lack of ability" decreased, attribution to "lack of effort" increased.

Although one can only speculate, the general treatment effects observed in the foregoing results suggest that perhaps the common element of the self-monitoring of social contacts was the instrumental factor in producing significant changes from pretest to posttest. The significant correlations between changes on the self-monitoring measures and SAD and FNE scores lend support to this notion, in addition to the finding that no significant correlation coefficients were obtained between the major self-report instruments and the homework measures. This result must also be interpreted with caution, however. The important role of the homework assignments may have been made more evident with a larger treatment sample.

Even though significant SSEI changes (an increase in 13 points from pre-to-posttest) were obtained with 30 subjects,

and it was argued that self-monitoring may be the treatment variable to account for those changes, the impact of such a self-monitoring treatment may not be as dramatic as is that produced by other cognitive interventions. Indeed, SSEI changes of the magnitude of 36 points have been obtained with 18 subjects using a much less complicated cognitive intervention procedure (e.g., Marshall et al., 1977). On the other hand, if we artificially reduce our N by half (i.e., $N = 15$), the power remains at 60%. This then suggests that the self-monitoring effect is a real and stable phenomenon which could be obtained with a reduced N , but that the psychological impact of such a treatment is not as provocative as are other treatments. The point remains, however, whether self-monitoring effects, however minimal, are much more long lasting than other high magnitude treatment effects which may only be temporary.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

The first study clearly suggests that self-esteem from socially oriented contexts is closely tied to cognitive attribution biases, and that these biases are similar to the "hope for success" and "fear of failure" biases which exist in achievement related contexts (Heckhausen, 1975). In the same way that Heckhausen has found that HS and FF attribution biases are self-reinforcing motivating systems, it is highly probable that the same principles operate to maintain high or low self-esteem, with consequences for social avoidance and distress and for fear of negative evaluation. In addition, the first study also illuminates a fundamental difference in the two attribution biases in terms of the two major dimensions (Stability vs. Locus of Control) which distinguish their functioning.

The ability to recognize a lawful relation between behavior and its consequences characterized people with high social self-esteem. Because they see stability in their behavior and its outcomes they are able to recognize the predictability of events. As well, high social self-esteem people have a sense of appropriate internal control over the social events which occur about them. They recognize that their own skills and abilities bring about successes.

Perhaps, because they know that they can cause their successes, they are more apt to recognize that their failures are not due to any lack of ability, but result either because the task was too difficult, because they were unlucky, or because they just did not try hard enough.

On the basis of the present findings, we suggest that what maintains the behavior and adjustment of people with high social self-esteem is not so much in the sense of appropriate internal control, but in the fact that the stable connections between their behaviors and the consequences have been represented and anchored in their past experiences. High social self-esteem people know that the outcomes of their behaviors are not random. This belief is brought about by the high level of behavior which affords increased opportunities for reinforcement.

In contrast, what characterizes people with low social self-esteem is their tendency not to see themselves able to exercise control over directing their lives successfully. Recall that for these subjects high scores on social avoidance and distress correlated positively with a low frequency of dating. This depressed behavioral output reduces occasions for obtaining reinforcement, and it is a scant or meager social history which robs the person of the opportunities for learning the possible contingencies between behavior and its consequences. The faulty lawfulness that

these low self-esteem persons happen to see (the causes of failure are stable and the causes of success are variable) results first from their faulty internal attributions.

While they may be correct in the belief that they caused their own failures, and failed to cause their own successes, low self-esteem people miss recognizing that failure has its roots in their lack of behavior. They feel helpless not because they see events as random, but because they think that they cannot be instrumental in effecting positive consequences.

Closely connected here, however, are the possibly unrealistic self-evaluative criteria which low self-esteem people hold for success. Recall that FF persons set either extremely high (unattainable) goals, or extremely low goals which, when achieved, provide little opportunity for internal attributions. The stringent self-evaluative criteria which come from setting unrealistic goals do not provide the cognitive basis for positive self-esteem. It follows, then, that the unrealistic goals that low social self-esteem people set up as criteria for success are maladaptive. Rehm (1977) suggests that perhaps people with maladaptive self-evaluations can be "helpless" for two reasons. First, they can believe there is a high degree of independence between performance and consequences (the world is random and/or externally controlled). In this instance, Rehm argues that

the person would merely be passive and apathetic, but not necessarily self-derogating. On the other hand, a person can believe the world contains lawful performance-consequence relationships (and makes internal attributions, however faulty), but feels that he/she is incompetent and thus ineffective (i.e., lacks ability). In this case the person would be self-derogatory and express inappropriate low self-esteem. Thus, the setting of appropriate goals and realistic criteria for self-evaluation appears to be the first corrective necessity.

The Importance of Self-monitoring

Stringent self-evaluative criteria have been found to be a characteristic of depression. Kelley (1967) has suggested that perhaps high FF people do not have the ability to tune into the "cues" of appropriate attribution, and that they cannot do this without first an awareness of their self-defeating and self-perpetuating cognitive and behavioral style. The literature on depression points out that depressives tend to attend selectively to negative events and to attend selectively to immediate versus delayed outcomes in their behavior. Lewinsohn (1974) has suggested that depressed behavior functions to elicit reinforcement from the social environment at the expense of more important forms of delayed reinforcement, and Lazarus (1968, 1974) has

suggested that depressed persons lose "future perspective" and attend to immediate outcomes instead. It would seem, therefore, that getting people to attend to the consequences of their behavior for an extended period of time is what should be indicated.

Although the small number of subjects in the treatment conditions in Study 2 only allowed us to talk about trends, the results seem to indicate that self-monitoring was the single most important instrument to get people to "cue into" more appropriate attributions of success and failure. Several of our findings support this conjecture. First of all, the self-monitoring was set up in such a way that subjects were told what to focus upon. We found that an increase in the self-monitored amount of time people spent in social contacts was directly related to a reduction in their social avoidance and distress. Secondly, a reduction in self-reported anxiety was directly related to a decrease in fear of negative evaluation. Thirdly, as SAD decreased, the frequency of engagement in "unusual" social encounters increased.

Perhaps focusing on the "correct" aspects of social encounters, and the systematic self-monitoring of behavior and its outcomes, also resulted in more accurate attributions. Kelley (1971), for example, found that attributions of causality varied as a function of the observed covariance

between events. Indeed, one of our most important findings suggests that perhaps there is a relationship between self-evaluative criteria and appropriate attributions. Changes in FNE were the only significant ones which correlated with changes in attributions of success and failure. As the attribution of successes to "ability" increased, and as the attribution of failures to "lack of ability" decreased, FNE also decreased.

Although there was insufficient statistical power in the data to examine any possibility of change in the major attributional dimensions which discriminated high SSEI subjects from low SSEI subjects, we did find that corrected attributional changes occurred for particular causes. As attribution of successes to "ability" increased, attribution to "effort" and "luck" decreased, and failure attributions to "lack of effort" increased. Conversely, as failure attributions to "lack of effort" increased, attribution to "lack of ability" decreased.

The findings also indicated support for Heckhausen's observation that a series of successful experiences will not change the outlook or attribution style of FF persons. The homework assignments, which were designed to systematically desensitize subjects and afford them successes, appeared to have no significant effect. Again, it was possibly only through the monitoring of the specific "cues" provided along

with the homework tasks, that subjects corrected their mis-attributions. The findings which lend support to this notion showed that, although subjects felt more anxious when perceiving themselves as trying harder to succeed, successes which were attributed to "effort" also correlated with an increase in the time, enjoyment, and satisfaction subjects felt doing the task. What may be implied here is that the importance of doing "homework assignments" may reside, not in merely engaging in the tasks, but in the monitoring of specified behaviors in situations that provide increased opportunities for feedback, which would otherwise not necessarily occur under typical conditions.

The notion that the "reactive" effect of self-monitoring is to be looked at as a "methodological artifact" only is no longer tenable. Recent research on the "self-management" aspects of self-monitoring (Thoreson & Mahoney, 1974), together with the suggestions resulting from the present investigation, leads us to believe that effects of self-monitoring are something to be encouraged for therapeutic reasons rather than avoided for methodological ones.

Suggestions for Future Research

If self-management and other treatment techniques are to be used in further research in the mediation of social self-esteem, it is our impression that the best

approach would be to deal with subjects on an individual basis rather than in groups. Since social self-esteem strikes at the very heart of the problem, a group milieu merely increases the anxiety and defensiveness of the subject in, first of all, addressing himself to the problem and, secondarily, in disclosing it in front of others. The fact that subjects are willing to disclose social anxieties and problems on a questionnaire and to admit to their need for help in social relations, is no guarantee that they will be willing to do the same when they are cast in a context of the social conditions that prompt the problem to begin with.

The present research has focused on ways to correct attributions of successes. While there may be a great deal of conceptual validity for this therapeutic thrust, it is difficult to ignore the origins of thought on the whole subject of shyness. Statements by Jung (1933) and Eysenck (1947, 1952) have spoken of "introversion" and "neuroticism" as primary constructs which may underlie the shyness syndrome. In looking at recent research on the psychology of "introverted neurotics," a key factor which may shape social learning experiences focuses on the person's reaction to punishing experiences (Eysenck, 1970, 1972; Gray, 1972). If socially punishing experiences can be equated with perceived negative evaluation and/or other aversive events, these could conceivably be closely tied to social failures in "achievement"

oriented contexts. We have been arguing in favor of a social learning theory interpretation of cognitive and behavioral change; that the motivation to engage in social behavior and to risk social contacts is the underlying vehicle for giving a person the occasion to learn stimulus-response contingencies. A large body of literature points to the fact that punishment has the effect of suppressing further responding (Gray, 1972). Given this, and given the suggestion from psychophysiological studies that introverted neurotics are much more reactive and conditionable to events which are followed by punishment--all this would suggest that a shy person's predisposition to overreact to such aversive consequences might be a central factor in curtailing the badly needed risk taking. We suggest that it is the person's willingness to continue trying social experiences which results in the disconfirmation of inadequacy and the eventual self-correction of an erroneous self-descriptive cognitive bias. Future research would do well to focus on the extent to which hypersensitivity to punishment is the variable which curtails the motive to try again. A start in this direction might be to cast this hypothesis in terms of the Asch (1956) social paradigm on conformity, where positive and negative consequences of social acts could be easily manipulated. Measures of verbal, nonverbal,

vocal, and risk taking following positive and negative social feedback might yield the kind of data that would make such an hypothesis worthy of extensive exploration.

Summary and Conclusions

The results of the foregoing investigations point to the following:

1. Social self-esteem possesses certain cognitive factors and processes which are markedly similar to the "self-reinforcing motive" system found in the achievement and self-esteem literature.
2. High social self-esteem people are best characterized as having a "hope-for-success" motive, while low social self-esteem persons are characterized as having a "fear-of-failure" motive. While these two groups can be represented as extremes on the same continuum (i.e., SSEI), they are characterized as being qualitatively different cognitively and dynamically.
3. These cognitive differences are seen as attribution biases. These predispositions in turn affect the possibility for self-reinforcement and a perpetuation of low self-esteem. This attribution bias is conceptually and empirically related to dynamic functioning in that: (i) by failing to give himself credit for social successes, the FF person is left thwarted with respect to obtaining a positive self-evaluation; (ii) he lacks the "self-confidence" which would make him want to risk social challenges; (iii) because he doesn't risk participating in social reality, he provides himself with no grounds for disconfirming his self-evaluative hypothesis.
4. The fact that high social self-esteem persons attribute successes to the Stability dimension rather than to the Locus of Control dimension speaks directly to the two factors of "ability" and "task difficulty." It is as if these people

are more aware of their degree of skill and the extent to which a particular task is difficult or easy. There is a key element in developing social self-esteem: This centers around having many social experiences in which various skills are tested and social contexts can be sampled for their ease or difficulty. Knowing the connection between X skills and Y situations can only be the product of actions, and for one to have confidence in oneself and the environment, these connections must be represented in experience.

5. In this sense, we should not be too surprised to have found the effect associated with self-monitoring. Indeed, the beneficial "by-product" of this procedure may have been caused by the forced reality testing these people incurred. This reality testing can perhaps be seen in terms of increasing the person's awareness of the connection between response-consequence contingencies.
6. Finally, these results suggest that successful experiences per se may not contribute a great deal to elevating and maintaining self-esteem. The implications here are that the cognitive attribution bias will have to be altered if successful experiences are to produce their emotional equivalents. It remains to be tested whether forced reality testing over a protracted period can serve to change this cognitive attribution bias.

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APPENDIX 1

PRETEST-POSTTEST QUESTIONNAIRE



SOCIAL RELATIONS PROGRAM

This research project is sponsored by the Faculty of Psychology at the University of Ottawa with Dr. Michel Girodo as the principal investigator.

We recognize that many people experience varying degrees of difficulty in their social relationships--especially those that relate to meeting and interacting with those of the opposite sex.

Our interest in this area of what we can call "heterosexual social anxiety" is two fold: First, we would like to find out more about what constitutes the nature of this social difficulty, and secondly, we are interested in helping people learn to become more confident, capable and less anxious in relating with persons of the opposite sex.

Attached you will find what appears at first glance to be a lengthy questionnaire. It is not that long and should take you about 20-25 minutes to complete. Please answer all questions and follow the instructions carefully.

At the end of the questionnaire we ask you if you would be willing to participate in a program designed to help you in heterosexual social relations. If you agree, you would be contacted in a couple of months. At that time, more information will be given to you.

We are following the "code of ethics" layed out by the Ontario Psychological Association and the Canadian Psychological Association in our work; as such please be assured that all your responses will be handled in the strictest confidence.

Thank you.

NAME: _____ Course No.: _____

SEX: _____ AGE: _____

Married		Separated
or		or
Attached: _____	Single: _____	Divorced: _____

Local Address: _____

Local Phone: _____

Permanent Address: _____

Permanent Phone: _____

SOCIAL SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY

130

Please place a number in the space provided beside each of the statements below according to the following scale:

COMPLETELY UNLIKE ME 1 2 3 4 5 6 EXACTLY LIKE ME

Thus, for example, if you felt that a statement described you exactly, you would place a '6' beside that item. If the statement was completely unlike you, then you would place a '1' beside the item. The numbers '2' through '5' represent varying degrees of the concept "like you". Please choose the number that appropriately reflects your similarity to the position expressed in the statement.

- _____ 1. I find it hard to talk to strangers.
- _____ 2. I lack confidence with people.
- _____ 3. I am socially effective.
- _____ 4. I feel confident in social situations.
- _____ 5. I am easy to like.
- _____ 6. I get along well with other people.
- _____ 7. I make friends easily.
- _____ 8. I am lively and witty in social situations.
- _____ 9. When I am with other people I lose self confidence.
- _____ 10. I find it difficult to make friends.
- _____ 11. I am no good at all from a social standpoint.
- _____ 12. I am a reasonably good conversationalist.
- _____ 13. I am popular with people my own age.
- _____ 14. I am afraid of large parties.
- _____ 15. I truly enjoy myself at social functions.
- _____ 16. I usually say the wrong thing when I talk with people.
- _____ 17. I am confident at parties.
- _____ 18. I am usually unable to think of anything interesting to say to people.

- ___19. I am a bore with most people.
- ___20. People do not find me interesting.
- ___21. I am nervous with people who are not close friends.
- ___22. I am quite good at making people feel at ease with me.
- ___23. I am more shy than most people.
- ___24. I am a friendly person.
- ___25. I can hold people's interest easily.
- ___26. I don't have much "personality".
- ___27. I am a lot of fun to be with.
- ___28. I am quite content with myself as a person.
- ___29. I am quite awkward in social situations.
- ___30. I do not feel at ease with other people.

The following questionnaire concerns what you personally think or believe about your own success or failure, in a variety of heterosexual situations. You will find four different circumstances, involving interactions with females, outlined for you. Following each brief description is a series of questions concerning what you believe about either your successes or failures in such situations. Although the questions sound similar, they are not. It is important that you read the questions carefully and answer every question according to your own belief. In some cases you may find that neither alternative is exactly what you believe. However, pick the alternative which best corresponds with what you believe to be the case. Do not leave any questions unanswered!

For purposes of this questionnaire the terms SUCCESS and FAILURE have been defined for you below. Read each definition carefully and refer to them if necessary, as you fill out the questionnaire.

Success: You interacted with a person of the opposite sex in such a way that you found the experience pleasant, enjoyable, emotionally positive, rewarding and having positive consequences for you.

Failure: You interacted with a person of the opposite sex in such a way that you found the experience unpleasant and embarrassing, or generally emotionally upsetting, unrewarding and having negative consequences for you.

I. If you think about it, there have been times in the past when you were in a social situation and a friend introduced you to a female who you thought was attractive. In other words, you did not initiate the contact with the female, but instead, you were introduced by a friend. On such brief occasions you may have found that your experience in relating to this female was pleasant and successful for you.

- A. Consider the times when you have been introduced to a female by a friend and have been successful in relating to this female.
Would you say that your success was because:

Check one alternative (a or b) in each of the 6 questions below.

1. ☐ (a) you are good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) it was not very difficult
2. ☐ (a) you are good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) you try hard in these situations
3. ☐ (a) you are good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) you are usually lucky in these situations
4. ☐ (a) it was not very difficult
☐ (b) you try hard in these situations
5. ☐ (a) it was not very difficult
☐ (b) you are usually lucky in these situations
6. ☐ (a) you try hard in these situations
☐ (b) you are usually lucky in these situations

II.

If you think about it, there have been times in the past when you have approached a female whom you had never met before, and who you thought was attractive. That is, you were active in making contact with this female, and were not simply introduced by a friend. On such occasions you may have found that your experience in initiating a conversation with this female was pleasant and successful for you.

- A. Consider the times when you approached a female whom you had never met before, and were successful in initiating a conversation with her.

Would you say that your success was because:

Check one alternative (a or b) in each of the 6 questions below.

1. ☐ (a) you are good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) it was not very difficult
2. ☐ (a) you are good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) you try hard in these situations
3. ☐ (a) you are good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) you are usually lucky in these situations
4. ☐ (a) it was not very difficult
☐ (b) you try hard in these situations
5. ☐ (a) it was not very difficult
☐ (b) you are usually lucky in these situations
6. ☐ (a) you try hard in these situations
☐ (b) you are usually lucky in these situations

III.

If you think about it, there have been times in the past when you have asked a female out on a date with you who you thought was attractive. In other words, you approached the girl on your own and made the request and arrangements for a date. On such occasions you may have found that your experience in obtaining a date with this female was pleasant and successful for you.

- A. Consider the times when you have asked a female out on a date with you and have been successful in obtaining a date with her.
Would you say that your success was because:

Check one alternative (a or b) in each of the 6 questions below.

1. ☐ (a) you are good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) it was not very difficult
2. ☐ (a) you are good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) you try hard in these situations
3. ☐ (a) you are good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) you are usually lucky in these situations
4. ☐ (a) it was not very difficult
☐ (b) you try hard in these situations
5. ☐ (a) it was not very difficult
☐ (b) you are usually lucky in these situations
6. ☐ (a) you try hard in these situations
☐ (b) you are usually lucky in these situations

IV.

If you think about it, there have been times in the past when you have been on a date with a female and have spent a couple of hours with her on this date. On such occasions you may have found that your experience during this date was pleasant and successful for you.

- A. Consider the times when you have been on a date with a female and have been successful in the couple of hours that you may have spent with her.
Would you say that your success was because:

Check one alternative (a or b) in each of the 6 questions below.

1. ☐ (a) you are good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) it was not very difficult
2. ☐ (a) you are good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) you try hard in these situations
3. ☐ (a) you are good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) you are usually lucky in these situations
4. ☐ (a) it was not very difficult
☐ (b) you try hard in these situations
5. ☐ (a) it was not very difficult
☐ (b) you are usually lucky in these situations
6. ☐ (a) you try hard in these situations
☐ (b) you are usually lucky in these situations

I.

If you think about it, there have been times in the past when you were in a social situation and a friend introduced you to a female who you thought was attractive. In other words, you did not initiate the contact with the female, but instead, you were introduced by a friend. On such brief occasions you may have found that your experience in relating to this female was unpleasant and not successful for you.

B. Consider the times when you have been introduced to a female by a friend and have not been successful in relating to this female.

Would you say that your failure was because:

Check one alternative (a or b) in each of the 6 questions below.

1. ☐ (a) you are not good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) it is very difficult
2. ☐ (a) you are not good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) you do not try very hard in these situations
3. ☐ (a) you are not good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) you are usually not lucky in these situations
4. ☐ (a) it is very difficult
☐ (b) you do not try very hard in these situations
5. ☐ (a) it is very difficult
☐ (b) you are usually not lucky in these situations
6. ☐ (a) you do not try very hard in these situations
☐ (b) you are usually not lucky in these situations

11.

If you think about it, there have been times in the past when you have approached a female whom you had never met before, and who you thought was attractive. That is, you were active in making contact with this female, and were not simply introduced by a friend. On such occasions you may have found that your experience in initiating a conversation with this female was unpleasant and not successful for you.

- B. Consider the times when you approached a female whom you had never met before, and were not successful in initiating a conversation with her.
Would you say that your failure was because:

Check one alternative (a or b) in each of the 6 questions below.

1. ☐ (a) you are not good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) it is very difficult
2. ☐ (a) you are not good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) you do not try very hard in these situations
3. ☐ (a) you are not good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) you are usually not lucky in these situations
4. ☐ (a) it is very difficult
☐ (b) you do not try very hard in these situations
5. ☐ (a) it is very difficult
☐ (b) you are usually not lucky in these situations
6. ☐ (a) you do not try very hard in these situations
☐ (b) you are usually not lucky in these situations

III.

If you think about it, there have been times in the past when you have asked a female out on a date with you, who you thought was attractive. In other words, you approached the girl on your own and made the request and arrangements for a date. On such occasions you may have found that your experience in obtaining a date with this female was unpleasant and not successful for you.

- B. Consider the times when you have asked a female out on a date with you and have not been successful in obtaining a date with her.
Would you say that your failure was because:

Check one alternative (a or b) in each of the 6 questions below.

1. ☐ (a) you are not good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) it is very difficult
2. ☐ (a) you are not good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) you do not try very hard in these situations
3. ☐ (a) you are not good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) you are usually not lucky in these situations
4. ☐ (a) it is very difficult
☐ (b) you do not try very hard in these situations
5. ☐ (a) it is very difficult
☐ (b) you are usually not lucky in these situations
6. ☐ (a) you do not try very hard in these situations
☐ (b) you are usually not lucky in these situations

IV.

If you think about it, there have been times in the past when you have been on a date with a female and have spent a couple of hours with her on this date. On such occasions you may have found that your experience during this date was unpleasant and not successful for you.

- B. Consider the times when you have been on a date with a female and have not been successful in the couple of hours that you may have spent with her.
Would you say that your failure was because:

Check one alternative (a or b) in each of the 6 questions below.

1. ☐ (a) you are not good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) it is very difficult
2. ☐ (a) you are not good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) you do not try very hard in these situations
3. ☐ (a) you are not good at that kind of thing
☐ (b) you are usually not lucky in these situations
4. ☐ (a) it is very difficult
☐ (b) you do not try very hard in these situations
5. ☐ (a) it is very difficult
☐ (b) you are usually not lucky in these situations
6. ☐ (a) you do not try very hard in these situations
☐ (b) you are usually not lucky in these situations

The questions which follow are similar to the questions you have just answered, in that they are concerned with what you believe about your own experiences of success or failure with persons of the opposite sex. This time, however, you are to answer the questions by simply putting a circle around the point on the scale which best corresponds to your position. Remember, each point represents a different degree of that category on the scale.

EXAMPLE:



I.

- A. Consider the times when you have been introduced to a female by a friend and have been successful in relating to this female.

Indicate on each of the scales below the degree to which the description applies to you.

Was your success because of:

1. How good you are at that kind of thing.

Very Good Not Very Good

2. How difficult it was.

Very Difficult Not Very Difficult

3. How hard you try in these situations.

Try very hard Do not try very hard

4. How lucky you usually are in these situations.

Very lucky Not very lucky

II.

- A. Consider the times when you approached a female whom you had never met before and were successful in initiating a conversation with her.

Indicate on each of the scales below the degree to which the description applies to you.

Was your success because of:

1. How good you are at that kind of thing.

Very Not Very
Good Good

2. How difficult it was.

Very Not Very
Difficult Difficult

3. How hard you try in these situations.

Try very Do not try
hard very hard

4. How lucky you usually are in these situations.

Very Not very
lucky lucky

III.

- A. Consider the times when you have asked a female out on a date with you and have been successful in obtaining a date with her.

Indicate on each of the scales below the degree to which the description applies to you.

Was your success because of:

1. How good you are at that kind of thing.

Very Good Not Very Good

2. How difficult it was.

Very Difficult Not Very Difficult

3. How hard you try in these situations.

Try very hard Do not try very hard

4. How lucky you usually are in these situations.

Very lucky Not very lucky

IV.

- A. Consider the times when you have been on a date with a female and have been successful in the couple of hours that you may have spent with her.

Indicate on each of the scales below the degree to which the description applies to you.

Was your success because of:

1. How good you are at that kind of thing.

Very Good Not Very Good

2. How difficult it was.

Very Difficult Not Very Difficult

3. How hard you try in these situations.

Try very hard Do not try very hard

4. How lucky you usually are in these situations.

Very lucky Not very lucky

I.

- B. Consider the times when you have been introduced to a female by a friend and have not been successful in relating to this female.

Indicate on each of the scales below the degree to which the description applies to you.

Was your failure because of:

1. How good you are at that kind of thing.

Very Not Very
Good Good

2. How difficult it was.

Very Not Very
Difficult Difficult

3. How hard you try in these situations.

Try very Do not try
hard very hard

4. How lucky you usually are in these situations.

Very Not very
lucky lucky

II.

- B. Consider the times when you approached a female whom you had never met before and were not successful in initiating a conversation with her.

Indicate on each of the scales below the degree to which the description applies to you.

Was your failure because of:

1. How good you are at that kind of thing.

Very
Good

Not Very
Good

2. How difficult it was.

Very
Difficult

Not Very
Difficult

3. How hard you try in these situations.

Try very
hard

Do not try
very hard

4. How lucky you usually are in these situations.

Very
lucky

Not very
lucky

III.

- B. Consider the times when you have asked a female out on a date with you and have not been successful in obtaining a date with her.

Indicate on each of the scales below the degree to which the description applies to you.

Was your failure because of:

1. How good you are at that kind of thing.

Very Not Very
Good Good

2. How difficult it was.

Very Not Very
Difficult Difficult

3. How hard you try in these situations.

Try very Do not try
hard very hard

4. How lucky you usually are in these situations.

Very Not very
lucky lucky

IV.

- B. Consider the times when you have been on a date with a female and have not been successful in the couple of hours that you may have spent with her.

Indicate on each of the scales below the degree to which the description applies to you.

Was your failure because of:

1. How good you are at that kind of thing.

Very Good Not Very Good

2. How difficult it was.

Very Difficult Not Very Difficult

3. How hard you try in these situations.

Try very hard Do not try very hard

4. How lucky you usually are in these situations.

Very lucky Not very lucky

In answering the following questions simply circle the point on the scale which best corresponds to what you personally believe.

1. Your friend has just set up a blind date for you with a female you know nothing about and have never seen before.

How likely are you to agree to go on this date?

Very
likely

Not very
likely

How successful do you think the date will be?

Very
Successful

Not Very
Successful

2. In the coffee shop, you see a girl who is in one of your classes. You think that she is attractive and would like to get to know her better. She is sitting at a table alone.

How likely would you be to go up to her and begin a conversation with her?

Very
likely

Not very
likely

How successful do you think you would be in carrying on a conversation with her?

Very
Successful

Not Very
Successful

3. On a previous occasion, you met a female who you thought was attractive. You are interested in asking her out on a date with you.

How likely would you be to approach her and ask her for a date?

Very
likely

Not very
likely

How successful do you think you would be in obtaining a date with her?

Very
Successful

Not Very
Successful

4. You have dated a particular female once in the past and both you and the girl seemed to have a good time.

How successful do you think you will be in obtaining another date with this same female?

Very Successful Not Very Successful

How likely do you think you will be in having another successful date with this female?

Very likely Not very likely

SOCIAL AVOIDANCE & DISTRESS SCALE

Please reply to the following questions by writing T or F (true or false) in the box before each question. Your answers should reflect how you habitually feel or behave.

- ☐ 1. I feel relaxed even in unfamiliar social situations.
- ☐ 2. I try to avoid situations which force me to be very sociable.
- ☐ 3. It is easy for me to relax when I am with strangers.
- ☐ 4. I have no particular desire to avoid people.
- ☐ 5. I often find social occasions upsetting.
- ☐ 6. I usually feel calm and comfortable at social occasions.
- ☐ 7. I am usually at ease when talking to someone of the opposite sex.
- ☐ 8. I try to avoid talking to people unless I know them well.
- ☐ 9. If the chance comes to meet new people, I often take it.
- ☐ 10. I often feel nervous or tense in casual get-togethers in which both sexes are present.
- ☐ 11. I am usually nervous with people unless I know them well.
- ☐ 12. I usually feel relaxed when I am with a group of people.
- ☐ 13. I often want to get away from people.
- ☐ 14. I usually feel uncomfortable when I am in a group of people I don't know.

- ☐ 15. I usually feel relaxed when I meet someone for the first time.
- ☐ 16. Being introduced to people makes me tense and nervous.
- ☐ 17. Even though a room is full of strangers, I may enter it anyway.
- ☐ 18. I would avoid walking up and joining a large group of people.
- ☐ 19. When my superiors want to talk with me, I talk willingly.
- ☐ 20. I often feel on edge when I am with a group of people.
- ☐ 21. I tend to withdraw from people.
- ☐ 22. I don't mind talking to people at parties or social gatherings.
- ☐ 23. I am seldom at ease in a large group of people.
- ☐ 24. I often think up excuses in order to avoid social engagements.
- ☐ 25. I sometimes take the responsibility for introducing people to each other.
- ☐ 26. I try to avoid formal social occasions.
- ☐ 27. I usually go to whatever social engagements I have.
- ☐ 28. I find it easy to relax with other people.

FNE SCALE

Please reply to the following questions by writing T or F (true or false) in the box before each question. Your answers should reflect how you habitually feel or behave.

- ☐ 1. I rarely worry about seeming foolish to others.
- ☐ 2. I worry about what people will think of me even when I know it doesn't make any difference.
- ☐ 3. I become tense and jittery if I know someone is sizing me up.
- ☐ 4. I am unconcerned even if I know people are forming an unfavorable impression of me.
- ☐ 5. I feel very upset when I commit some social error.
- ☐ 6. The opinions that important people have of me cause me little concern.
- ☐ 7. I am often afraid that I may look ridiculous or make a fool of myself.
- ☐ 8. I react very little when other people disapprove of me.
- ☐ 9. I am frequently afraid of other people noticing my shortcomings.
- ☐ 10. The disapproval of others would have little effect on me.
- ☐ 11. If someone is evaluating me I tend to expect the worst.
- ☐ 12. I rarely worry about what kind of impression I am making on someone.
- ☐ 13. I am afraid that others will not approve of me.

- ☐ 14. I am afraid that people will find fault with me.
- ☐ 15. Other people's opinions of me do not bother me.
- ☐ 16. I am not necessarily upset if I do not please someone.
- ☐ 17. When I am talking to someone, I worry about what they may be thinking about me.
- ☐ 18. I feel that you can't help making social errors sometimes, so why worry about it.
- ☐ 19. I am usually worried about what kind of impression I make.
- ☐ 20. I worry a lot about what my superiors think of me.
- ☐ 21. If I know someone is judging me, it has little effect on me.
- ☐ 22. I worry that others will think I am not worthwhile.
- ☐ 23. I worry very little about what others may think of me.
- ☐ 24. Sometimes I think I am too concerned with what other people think of me.
- ☐ 25. I often worry that I will say or do the wrong things.
- ☐ 26. I am often indifferent to the opinions others have of me.
- ☐ 27. I am usually confident that others will have a favorable impression of me.
- ☐ 28. I often worry that people who are important to me won't think very much of me.
- ☐ 29. I brood about the opinions my friends have about me.
- ☐ 30. I become tense and jittery if I know I am being judged by my superiors.

1. How often do you go out on dates?

____ More than once a week

____ Once a week

____ Once every two weeks

____ Once every three weeks

____ Once a month

____ Less than the above

2. Would you like to date more often?

YES ____ NO ____

3. Are you satisfied with your social relations with the opposite sex?

Very
satisfied

Not very
satisfied

4. Would you be willing to participate in a program designed to help you in heterosexual social relations?

YES ____ NO ____

APPENDIX 2

INTRODUCTION TO THE SOCIAL RELATIONS PROGRAM
VIDEOTAPE REMARKS

APPENDIX 2

INTRODUCTION TO THE SOCIAL RELATIONS PROGRAM
VIDEOTAPE REMARKS

We will be listening to Dr. Michel Girodo discuss the nature of the Social Relations Program as well as hearing him talk on specific components of the Program. Dr. Girodo is a Consultant Psychologist and Professor at the University of Ottawa. He is interested in interpersonal social anxiety. He has done a great deal of research in the area of stress and anxiety and has recently written a book on interpersonal social relations. Later on, in the Program you will be meeting Dr. Girodo and will have a chance to discuss some aspects of this particular Program with him.

Hi! Welcome to the Social Relations Program. We are sure that all of you are wondering just what this Program is all about. We also understand that you may have some feelings of apprehension and concern over what you will actually be doing. This is a common feeling when people join any program for the first time.

There are various phases to this Program. Although we would like to tell you right away tonight how these phases all fit together, and why they are all important, we will not be

able to just yet. We recognize that as a consequence you may not immediately see the purpose behind some of the things we will be asking you to do. Please, let us assure you that we have very carefully prepared this Program so that you can only gain and profit from it, provided you participate to the full extent. Be assured also that you will not be asked to do anything which in any way may cause you embarrassment or make you feel silly.

We have put a vast amount of time and careful thought into preparing this Program and ask for your full cooperation in helping us to make the Program work to your advantage. Part of this means that you will have to attend a few (no more than 3) meetings with us which are scheduled on evenings during the week. We understand that although this might at times conflict with other plans you may have, we again ask your cooperation in attending the meetings with us, even if this means having to change other plans. We wish we could accommodate any unforeseeable conflicts you may have. However, in this instance, we ask that you help us make the Program work effectively by meeting the schedule we have set up.

The gains you will make by participating in this program depend entirely on your cooperation and willingness to do the tasks we will ask you to do.

For example, the first task we will be asking you to do is to monitor/record your social contacts for various

periods of time. Most people are able to do this with no problem because the task itself requires nothing more than behaving as you would normally, and marking down on specific sheets certain aspects of your behavior. Although you may not see the importance of doing the self-monitoring, we ask for your cooperation in completing it carefully and returning your records at the times we have designated.

During this first phase of the Program we ask that you self-monitor for one week (7 full days). Complete instructions on how to do this will be given to you tonight, along with a structured booklet. We will give you an appointment to return in one week and at that time we will discuss the self-monitoring, and the second phase of the program will begin.

Again, the self-monitoring requires no more than your behaving as you would normally, and marking down in the booklet certain aspects of your behavior.

We ask your full cooperation and participation in completing this, the first phase of the Program. Thank you and see you next week.

APPENDIX 3

VIDEOTAPE SCRIPT OF SOCIAL SKILLS
TRAINING

APPENDIX 3
VIDEOTAPE
SOCIAL SKILLS TRAINING

162

M: Moderator
SA: Skilled Actor
US: Unskilled Actor

Segment I

Introduction

M: The way one sounds is as important as the way one looks and what one says. This session focuses upon aspects of your behavior, both verbal and non-verbal, of which you are probably not even aware when interacting with other people. However, these behaviors play a vital role concerning how you come across and how you are received by others when engaged in any social exchange.

Two basic categories of socially skilled behavior will be illustrated: (1) Verbalization and Speech Characteristics; and (2) Body Language and Non-Verbal Characteristics. You will see two models of each behavior portrayed. One model will demonstrate an unskilled or inappropriate approach. The other model will demonstrate a skilled and appropriate approach. Watch both models carefully. Try to pick out those aspects of both models' behavior which have beneficial or nonbeneficial results for them.

After each short segment you will have the opportunity to practice, with a trained participant, what you have learned from watching the videotape. Be sure you pay close attention to what you see on the tape.

The first segment will deal with some verbal characteristics of skilled behavior. The voice is one very crucial factor

in eliciting either good responses from other people or in making them turn away, partly because the voice reflects an emotional state as well as being a barometer of one's self-confidence. Very competitive and angry people sound harsh and too loud. Shy, insecure people speak in very low tones and with low intensity. In this segment we are going to focus on voice loudness and voice tone and modulation.

In the forthcoming scene you will see John and Mary, both of whom have just joined the same department of the company where they are employed. They are assigned to work together on a special project. They need to communicate!

In the first segment you will see John attempting to get Mary's attention in order to discuss the project with her. Pay attention to the loudness of John's voice.

SCENE 1

US: John: (Voice is soft, hardly audible)

Mary, when would be a good time for us to meet and discuss the details of the project?

SA: Mary: (Voice is audible, appropriate loudness. Mary recognizes John is speaking to her late in his statement, not when he first calls her name).

I beg your pardon, what did you say?

M: What did you notice was the consequence for John when he spoke in a very soft voice?

(1) he was unable to gain Mary's attention; (2) he will have to repeat his request.

Watch again and see what happens when John raises his voice appropriately.

SCENE 2

SA: John: (Voice appropriate and audible)

Mary, (pause...Mary looks at John) when would be a good time for us to meet and discuss the details of the project?

SA: Mary: (Voice appropriate)

I am free on Tuesday at 2:00 p.m. John, why don't we set up an appointment for that time.

SA: John:

Great, that suits me too. See you Tuesday!

M: This time John gained Mary's attention and was able to arrange an appointment because he spoke loudly enough for her to hear, but not too loudly so that he was yelling at her. Watch the two segments again. Pay close attention to the change in John's voice!

REPEAT SCENES 1 & 2

Now you are going to have a chance to practice speaking in different voice volumes.

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STOP VIDEOTAPE--PRACTICE

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Segment II

M: Now we are going to look at the effects of the tone of a person's voice. Tone can also reflect a person's emotional state as well as indicate his interest in and enthusiasm for the other person. A very high pitched tone can reflect nervousness or fright. A very low and flat monotone can indicate disinterest and often itself becomes boring to listen to. Some tones are nasal or whiny and also become aversive to listen to.

Watch John and Mary again in the same interaction. This time John's voice is loud enough, but listen to the dull and monotonous tone.

SCENE 3

US: John: (Voice audible but monotone)

Mary, when would be a good time for us to meet and discuss the details of the project?

SA: Mary: (Voice is audible, appropriate loudness and tone)

I beg your pardon, what did you say?

M: Even though John's voice was loud enough he was not able to gain Mary's attention or interest because of the tone. Watch John speak in a "modulated" tone this time. That is, a tone which is neither flat and dull, nor a tone that is high pitched and squeaky. A modulated tone is one which moves evenly up and down, not too high, and not too low.

SCENE 4

SA: John: (Voice audible and modulated)

Mary, when would be a good time for us to meet and discuss the details of the project?

SA: Mary: (Voice appropriate)

I am free on Tuesday at 2:00 p.m. John, why don't we set up an appointment for that time.

SA: John:

Great, that suits me too. See you Tuesday!

M: Did you notice the improvement in John's voice? It was both loud enough and expressed enthusiasm because his tone was modulated--that is, it went up and down, emphasizing some words more than others, some words being louder, some words softer. Listen to John again.

REPEAT SCENE 4

M: Now listen to both segments again and compare.

REPEAT SCENES 3 AND 4

M: What would a nasal or whiny voice sound like? Listen to John this time and see the impact his voice has on you.

SCENE 5

US: John: (Voice nasal, whiny and high)

Mary, when would be a good time for us to meet and discuss the details of the project?

SA: Mary: (Voice is audible, appropriate)

I am free on Tuesday around 2:00. Maybe we can make it short.

M: How long could you listen to someone who spoke like that? It soon would become very aversive. Unfortunately for John, if he continues to speak in that tone he may end up by driving people away.

Now listen to both John and Mary speaking in an audible voice and a modulated tone.

REPEAT SCENE 4

M: Now you are going to have a chance to practice speaking in a modulated tone.

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STOP VIDEOTAPE--PRACTICE

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Segment III

M: Now let's review what we have learned so far. First, we talked about the loudness of one's voice as being important for skilled behavior. As we said before, loudness of voice conveys emotional state as well as self-confidence. It also has consequences for getting people to respond to us. If you speak too softly, you will not be heard and thus no one is able to respond to you. Secondly, we spoke about the tone of one's voice as well as voice modulation. These characteristics are also important for conveying emotions, interest, and enthusiasm. Additionally, they are important in eliciting favourable responses from others so that social interpersonal relationships can develop and maintain themselves.

Now we are going to examine the importance of body language and other nonverbal skills. One factor which is a vital part of effective communication is body orientation when interacting with another person. Do you face the person you are speaking to, or do you stand off in such a way that he may get the impression that you are either aloof and disinterested or snotty, or that you are shy and insecure? How a person stands or sits when interacting with another is important for: (1) eliciting a response from the other; and (2) how you are perceived, either as open, friendly, and interested, or shy, aloof, insecure or disinterested.

In the following scenes you will see the different effects of body orientation. John is applying for a job and is being interviewed by his potential employer.

SCENE 6

SA: Employer:

Well Mr. Jones, could you tell me about what qualifications you have which prepare you for this particular job?

US: John: (sitting slouched and sideways to employer, does not face employer, looks down)

Well, I have worked on this type of job for the past 5 years, and am also quite familiar with your company, in particular.

M: If you were the employer, what kind of impression would John make on you? Would you think he was interested, friendly, self-confident and secure? Would you hire John to work in your company? Let's see how his employer responds.

SCENE 7

SA: Employer:

Well Mr. Jones, could you tell me about what qualifications you have which prepare you for this particular job?

US: John: (sitting slouched and sideways...)

Well, I have worked on this type of job for the past 5 years and am also quite familiar with your company in particular.

SA: Employer:

Well Mr. Jones, you don't seem to be very enthusiastic about either your experience or the job. Are you sure you have held a responsible position in the past?

US: John: (soft, timid, looking up slightly but still slouched and facing away)

Oh yes.

SA: Employer:

Well, thank you for coming for the interview. I will let

you know if I have a suitable position for you.

M: John did not get the job. Are you surprised? Watch John again and see what he does differently to create a better impression.

SCENE 8

SA: Employer:

Well Mr. Jones, could you tell me about what qualifications you have which prepare you for this particular job?

SA: John: (this time John sits up straight, faces his employer, looks at him when he speaks, and smiles)

Well, I have worked on this type of job for the past 5 years and am also quite familiar with your company in particular.

SA: Employer:

You seem very interested and enthusiastic about this line of work. I can also see that you have had a lot of experience. You certainly are qualified for the position, and of all the applicants I've interviewed I feel you would be the best one to fill the job. Can you start on Monday?

SA: John:

Oh yes, I'd be very pleased to begin Monday. Thank you.
See you Monday.

M: In his response to the employer, John's words were the same as the first scene. However, there were several aspects of his behavior that were different. Did you notice what they were? First of all, he was sitting up straight in his chair, not slouching. A person's posture conveys a lot about his mood. A slouched stance gives a depressive impression. Someone who stands or sits up straight appears alive, alert, and

happy, and at the same time can feel relaxed.

Secondly, John turned his body toward the person to whom he was speaking. His face, shoulders, and torso were toward the other person and conveyed that he felt comfortable and confident speaking to his employer.

John made eye contact with his employer. Instead of looking down or off to the side, John looked at his employer showing interest as well as confidence.

Finally, John smiled occasionally as he spoke and used his hands casually to gesture. He did not reply stone faced, and stiff, but, while sitting up straight and maintaining eye contact, also managed to convey that he was confident and relaxed by slight gestures and smiles. Facial expression conveys a lot about a person's mood. In this situation, John wanted to appear pleased about the possibility of working at that company, as well as pleased with himself and his own qualifications. So, smiling was appropriate. In a different set of circumstances John might have a different expression on his face; smiling may not be the appropriate expression. If for example, he was discussing his best friend's funeral arrangements, it would be quite inappropriate to see a smile on John's face.

Watch John again in the interaction with his boss. Notice the nonverbal messages.

REPEAT SCENE 8

M: Now watch the first inappropriate approach and then the confident and appropriate approach.

REPEAT SCENES 7 AND 8

M: The behaviors that John did differently were all nonverbal.
He said the same words but the impressions that he conveyed
were very different.

Remember what John did that created a different impression:
(1) posture--he sat up straight in his chair; (2) body
orientation--he turned his body toward the person to whom he
was speaking; (3) he made eye contact with the person to
whom he was speaking; and (4) he smiled and made casual
gestures as he spoke.

Now let's practice each of these nonverbal behaviors.

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STOP VIDEOTAPE--PRACTICE
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Segment IV

M: There are certain characteristics of verbal behavior other than loudness and tone of voice, which are important qualities of communication, and which give the impression of self-confidence.

The first of these is fluency of speech. That is, does the person show anxiety when he is speaking by being repetitious or stuttering, using "ahs" or "ums" that convey uncertainty or interfere with communication? People who appear confident, self-assured, and relaxed, speak clearly and rhythmically without the characteristics mentioned above. Watch John engaged in a conversation with Mary. John is very nervous and shows it in how he speaks.

SCENE 9

SA: Mary: (appropriately)

I notice that you have quite an interest in music since I frequently see you walking around with new record albums. I am quite interested in music myself. What kind of music is your major interest?

US: John: (nervous, shakey voice, many pauses, short curt replies)
---Oh well, I, uh, like classical music.

SA: Mary:

Oh yeah, I'm keen on classical music too. I especially like Beethoven. How about you, who's your favourite composer?

US: John:

---oh---uh---uh, Chopin.

SA; Mary:

Oh! I'm also interested in composing. I play the piano occasionally, not very well though. Do you play any musical

instruments?

US: John:

---Uh---Yeah---Piano too,---Uh--- I play--uh--the piano---
sometimes.

SA: Mary:

Oh (pause), well, perhaps I am bothering you, you seem to be
preoccupied. See you around sometime.

M: Actually, John was not preoccupied with anything but his
own shyness in talking to Mary. He really wanted to speak
more to Mary about music, but gave her the impression otherwise
because his style of conversation was choppy and curt, making
it difficult for Mary to communicate with him. Consequently,
she left the conversation. If John had spoken more "fluently",
how do you think the impression he created on Mary would
have been different? Watch.

SCENE 10

SA: Mary: (appropriately)

I notice that you have quite an interest in music since I
frequently see you walking around with new record albums. I

am quite interested in music myself. What kind of music is your major interest?

SA: John: (appropriately)

I am really interested in classical music. As a matter of fact I have about 50 or 60 albums and still adding to my collection.

SA: Mary:

Oh yeah, I'm keen on classical music too. I especially like Beethoven. How about you, who's your favourite composer?

SA: John:

You like Beethoven eh? I like his music too, but my real favourite is Chopin.

SA: Mary:

Oh! I am also interested in composing. I play the piano occassionally, not very well though. Do you play any musical instruments?

SA: John:

Oh yeah, I play the piano and also the guitar. I like fooling around on both, hopeful that I might become good enough to get a composition of my own together sometime.

SA: Mary:

Gee, that sounds really intriguing. I'd like to hear some of the music you've put together already.

SA: John:

Yeah? Well, I'd like to hear more about your collection too. Why don't we get together this weekend and "make music together".

SA: Mary:

Oh, I'd really like that too. How about Saturday?

SA: John:

Great, Saturday is perfect!

M: This time John made quite a different impression on Mary.

Did you notice the fluency in John's speech the second time around? He did not stumble over his words, he did not pause unnecessarily and fill in with many "ahs" and "ums".

There were two other important differences about John's speech the second time. First of all, did you notice that he said much more. His responses to Mary were much longer and he gave more information than the first time. This had a lot to do with showing Mary that he was interested in her, as well as in the topic of conversation. It also showed that he was not "afraid" of talking to Mary. Secondly, he responded much more quickly to Mary's questions and comments. That is, he did not pause for a long period of time after she spoke before giving his reply.

These three characteristics: (1) fluency of speech; (2) how much you say (response duration); and (3) how long you take to respond (response latency), have been shown to be very important in conveying skill, assertiveness and self-confidence. Watch the two segments again and pay close attention to John's different performance with regard to these three characteristics.

REPEAT SCENES 9 AND 10

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STOP VIDEOTAPE--PRACTICE

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Segment V

M: The previous four segments focused on specific behaviors which have been found to be important components of social skill in interpersonal exchange. People who utilize the appropriate skills that you have seen are generally happy, self-confident, and have satisfying interpersonal relationships. Now we will simply review the skills that have been presented. They are divided into two basic categories: (1) Verbal and Speech Characteristics; and (2) Non-Verbal characteristics and body language.

First we talked about loudness of voice as well as voice tone and modulation. Remember John who once spoke in a very soft monotone and was unable to get Mary to hear him and become interested in what he was saying as he mumbled through his words. There were other verbal characteristics which were demonstrated as being very important for effective communication. One was fluency of speech, and the others had to do with how much was said (response latency), and how long it took to make a reply (response duration). Remember John when he stumbled through his words with pauses, "ahs", and "ums". When he spoke fluently, and revealed more in his replies he was able to carry on a conversation with Mary.

Remember, you convey more than just words when you speak. You also convey how you feel and give clues as to the kind of person you are by the way in which you speak. Loudness of voice, tone, modulation, speech fluency, latency and duration, all give some expression of mood, emotion, and self-confidence.

Body language or nonverbal characteristics are also of vital importance. Eye-contact expresses interest as well as self-confidence. Similarly, posture, body orientation, facial expression, and gestures, convey what kind of mood you are in, as well as how you feel about your own confidence. When John slouched in his chair, did not face his employer, and looked off to the side, he was unable to convey that he was confident in himself, even though he was qualified for the job. When he sat up straight, turned his body toward the employer, smiled as he spoke, and made eye contact, he came across as self-assured.

To put it all together, you are about to see two different interactions. The first one shows all the unskilled and inappropriate behaviors. The second scene will show a skilled and appropriate interaction, including all the skills with which you have been presented in this videotape. Watch. John would like a date with Mary.

SCENE 11

US: John: (Mumbles, looks away, etc.)

Hi.

SA: Mary:

Hi

US: John:

Uh...You're in my class...eh?

SA: Mary:

Oh yes, I guess we are in the same class. I seem to recall seeing you at the back of the room.

US: John:

...Uh...Yeah.

SA: Mary:

How do you like the course so far?

US: John:

...Uh...Well, um...it's OK.

SA: Mary:

You don't seem very enthused about it. I really like it myself, and the professor is great, don't you think?

US: John:

...Yeah, um... he is pretty good... uh... I think...um.

SA: Mary:

Well, I guess coffee break is just about over. I think I'll head back to class. See you!

M: John really blew it! Grant it he was nervous, but his stumbling and mumbling around resulted in Mary taking off and there John was again, without a friend and without using the opportunity to ask for a date.

If John could put to use the skills you have been presented with perhaps his social interactions would be very different. Watch John and Mary again. This time John has changed many aspects of his behavior. He will speak in an appropriately loud, modulated, tone of voice. His speech will be fluent. He will give Mary some information about himself in his replies to her. And his body language will show Mary that he is interested in her, friendly and altogether confident. Watch.

SCENE 12

SA: John:

Hi. You're in my class aren't you?

SA: Mary:

Oh, hi! Yes I think so. I've noticed you answering questions several times.

SA: John:

Really! I've noticed you too. My name is John. What's yours?

SA: Mary:

I'm Mary. Nice to meet you John.

SA: John:

How do you like the course so far?

SA: Mary:

Oh, I think it's great. The professor is really enthusiastic about what he's teaching.

SA: John:

Yeah, he sure is. That makes the course so much more fun, don't you think?

SA: Mary:

Yeah, it sure does.

SA: John:

Listen, coffee break is just about over and we'll have to be heading back to class. How would you like to have lunch with me tomorrow after class? There's a really good delicatessen just two blocks down.

SA: Mary:

That sounds great. I don't have any plans for lunch tomorrow.

SA: John:

Great. I'll meet you in the main foyer around noon.

SA: Mary:

OK, see you tomorrow!

M: John changed certain aspects of his behavior and made a friend.

Try to monitor yourself on these skills when you interact with other people and see what behaviors would be best for you to practice. By practicing the skills you have been presented with in these videotape sessions you will begin to feel that they will become a natural part of your behavioral repertoire.

Before you leave today you will receive a Manual which covers all of the behaviors you have been presented with here. In addition the Manual will provide you with information concerning where to meet people, and how to initiate, carry on, and terminate conversations with people.

Please read this Manual carefully. You will be given an appointment to return in three days to discuss the Manual and review the skills. It is important that you make a real effort to continue practicing these skills when you are on your own, in order for the time and energy you have invested in these sessions to prove worthwhile.

APPENDIX 4

VIDEOTAPE SCRIPT OF COGNITIVE
RE-ATTRIBUTION

APPENDIX 4

VIDEOTAPE SCRIPT OF COGNITIVE
RE-ATTRIBUTION

Over the past couple of years a lot of research has been undertaken to look at what we call social self-esteem. More specifically, we have been examining how good or bad a person feels about himself in his social interactions with people of the opposite sex. What I would like to do today is to let you know the nature of the results of this research, how significant it is, and what you can do specifically to help yourself in social situations.

We have been working with people who have high social self-esteem and people who have low social self-esteem. We found that people who have high social self-esteem are confident, self-assured, relate easily with people of the opposite sex, and can approach them and initiate a conversation comfortably. These people do not worry about any successes or failures they may have in the social situations in which they participate. In contrast, we found that people who have low social self-esteem are usually tense, nervous, timid, and shy. They are very apprehensive about social situations, especially those which involve people of the opposite sex, and usually avoid participating in social events.

The crucial difference between people who are high in social self-esteem as opposed to those who are low in social

self-esteem has to do with the way they think about, assess, and evaluate their social situations and the experiences that they have.

Take a minute and think about some of the social situations you have been involved in recently. When the situation turns out favorably or successfully, to what do you attribute this outcome? If the situation turns out unfavorably, or is one you might consider a failure, what then do you tell yourself is the cause? For example, say you have a 30-second encounter with a person of the opposite sex. After the encounter, you more or less decide whether it was a pleasant and satisfying interaction or whether it was unpleasant or unsatisfying. In other words, you consider the social interaction to have been either a success or a failure.

Most people encounter dozens of situations throughout the day and consider some of them as successful social encounters and others as unsuccessful. What's more important, though, is not so much whether a person has successful or unsuccessful social experiences, but to what a person attributes the causes of his successes or failures. How a person attributes the causes of his social successes and social failures determines his self-esteem; that is, how good or bad he feels about himself socially.

A person can have hundreds of social encounters in the course of a week which will vary in kind, in duration,

and in terms of how much he must contribute. No matter what personality or character one has, no matter how confident and skilled a person may be, some of his social encounters will be successful, and others will not; and this is true for everyone.

People with high social self-esteem, however, attribute the causes of their successes and failures differently than do people with low social self-esteem. Here's how they differ, and here's what happens as a result.

People with high social self-esteem give themselves credit for the social successes that they have. For the majority of their successful experiences they tell themselves that they succeeded because of their abilities. They do not say their success was because of good luck, or that the task was easy. No. Instead, they give themselves credit for their own ability and effort when they succeed. In this way they can continue to feel good about themselves, and when they feel good about themselves socially they want to keep on participating in social events. When people with high social self-esteem have unsuccessful social experiences, that is, when they consider a social event a failure, they do not blame themselves by telling themselves that they failed because of their poor abilities. Instead they most often examine the situation carefully and recognize that perhaps the situation they were in was simply much too difficult;

or perhaps it just wasn't their day; and sometimes they have to admit that they really just did not try hard enough. Their self-esteem does not suffer, because they know that on another occasion they can either try harder or they can realistically examine the situation and set their goals accordingly.

People who have low social self-esteem attribute their social success and failure experiences in just the opposite way. Instead of giving themselves any credit in socially successful experiences, people with low social self-esteem tell themselves that they succeeded because the task was easy, or because they were just lucky. Because these people believe that when they are successful it has nothing whatsoever to do with them, their self-esteem never gets any reinforcement. But, when they fail in social encounters, they are extremely hard on themselves and blame themselves for the outcome. They tell themselves that they were unsuccessful because they don't have the ability to succeed. Because they believe this to be true, they feel very negative about their social abilities and end up by doubting themselves and avoiding social events.

This process which goes on in a different way for high and low social self-esteem people is called attribution. It is this attribution process which is the key to changing from being inhibited, shy, and having low social self-esteem,

to being confident and active and having high social self-esteem. Take a minute and think about this: To what do you attribute your social successes and social failures? your abilities? the difficulty of the task? your efforts? or good or bad luck?

By attributing your successes to your abilities and your efforts, you give yourself credit for what you have done and you can then feel good about yourself. You know that both of these factors are components of you, and your efforts are under your own control--you can always try harder if a particular social event does not turn out the way you would like. If, however, you blame yourself for events that turn out badly, you only end up by increasing negative thoughts and feelings about yourself, and in this way maintain a low level of self-esteem. Consider the situation, and consider that perhaps your goals were too high or your expectation too great. Perhaps the situation was simply much too difficult for anyone to succeed at; and sometimes you may simply be unlucky.

These four factors: your ability, the difficulty of the task, your effort, and just plain luck, all play a role in your attributions of your social successes and failures and result in high or low self-esteem.

You have been given a manual which describes these factors and explains the attribution process and shows how

and why high and low social self-esteem people differ. It is important that you think about your attribution style and try to think more like people with high social self-esteem. Our research points to definite differences in social self-esteem as a result of these different thinking styles. You can profit from this knowledge by making yourself aware of your cognitive attribution style and then practice thinking in the style of those who have high social self-esteem.

Please read your manual carefully and become very familiar with your own thinking style when you experience social successes and failures.

APPENDIX 5

INSTRUCTIONS AND BOOKLET FOR
DAILY SELF-MONITORING

Instructions for Daily Self-Monitoring

We would like you to record your social contacts for the next 7 days. Keeping track of (monitoring) behavior is useful because it helps people to recognize and become aware of their social encounters. By social contacts we mean those contacts with people where there is clear potential for getting to know the other person better on a more personal level. This does not mean business or professional contacts or those centered around the exchange of goods and services. An everyday transaction with a sales clerk in a store or a nurse in a doctors office, or a bank teller or a receptionist in an office would not be included. Some transactions which would be included are: meeting an acquaintance, meeting a new person; speaking with a friend or a new acquaintance; having lunch with a friend, and going on a date.

Possible Problems in Recording

1. Ambiguous Situations: Ambiguous situations may arise where you have to make the decision whether a situation is to be considered primarily business or primarily social. Some situations may begin as business or professional, and develop into more of a social situation. For example, say that you go for a doctor's appointment, and check in with the nurse or receptionist and ask how long the wait might be. This in itself would not be counted as social. However, if you and the receptionist begin talking about other things (the weather, the kind of work she does, etc.) then it would be counted as social.

2. Group Situations: Include social contacts you have in a group situation by entering each contact you have with a particular person in the group separately. For example, you may meet a friend (Jim) who is with two other friends (Bob & Joan). You speak and interact with Jim and Bob, but not Joan, so you would enter two

contacts separately-- one for Jim and one for Bob.

3. Interrupted Contacts: If you were speaking to someone and the situation is interrupted (e.g., you or they are called away briefly) and continued again shortly thereafter, it counts as only one contact.

4. Repeated Contacts: If you have contact with the same person several times a day, enter each time separately, unless it were a continuation of an interrupted contact.

5. Telephone Calls: Treat these exactly the same as face-to-face encounters and record them in the same way. That is, the interaction by phone must qualify as a social contact, not a business one.

6. Roommate - Family: Do not enter contacts with people who share your immediate living situation. If you live in residence, an apartment, or home do not enter contacts with "roommates", immediate family members (parents, siblings) or people sharing the same facilities. Do enter contacts with people living in other rooms or apartments in your building.

SPECIFIC INSTRUCTIONS FOR RECORDING

We would like you to record each social contact you have throughout the day. Do not include just an exchange of salutations (e.g., "Hi...Hi"). The interaction must include at least the following exchanges: (1) a mutual greeting; both you and the other person say hello; (2) you or the other person offers some comment or question. The interaction can go further, but must be more than "Hi...Hi".

We have provided a total of 7 sheets for you to record on, one sheet for each day of the week. You are to begin recording TOMORROW. Each sheet is labeled -- Day 1 to Day 7. Circle the

appropriate letter for the name of the day. Fill in the date in the space provided. Each day's record should be on the page marked for that day. Carry this booklet with you throughout the day. It is very important that you record each contact in the appropriate space as soon as possible after it occurs. At the end of the day review and record any encounters that you might have forgotten to enter. Also, check in the bottom right hand corner whether the day was typical or unusual. Circumstances which might make it an unusual day for you could be e.g., illness, being away on a trip, etc.

Please be sure your name is on each sheet. You can use the back of the sheet for comments which might include why the day was unusual (if you so indicated); or for a more detailed description of any social situations that you had difficulties in handling or were uncertain about in terms of how to record. The first sheet of the self-monitoring booklet is an example of how one day might be filled out.

Bring all 7 completed sheets with you when you return in one week at the appointment time you have been given. At that time the second phase of the program will begin.

YOUR NEXT APPOINTMENT IS: _____

AT: _____

DAY I : S M **T** W Th F Sat

EXAMPLE

Name: JOHN SMITH

Beside each "C" category briefly & in point form describe what the interaction was.

Male(M) Female(F)	Stranger(S) Acquaintance(A)	Approx. Age	Did you initiate the transaction? Yes(Y) No(N)	How long did the transaction last?(Minutes)	How enjoyable was the transaction? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	How anxious did you feel during the interaction? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	How usual is this interaction for you? A B C	Beside each "C" category briefly & in point form describe what the interaction was.
M	A	20	Y	5 min.	4	1	A	
M	S	20-25	N	2 min	4	2	A	
F	A	20-25	Y	2 min.	3	3	B	
M	A	22	N	30 seconds	1	2	A	
F	S	20-25	Y	4-5 min.	4	5	C	saw attractive girl in line at cafeteria - asked her to join me for lunch.
M	S	20-25	N	1 min.	3	2	B	
F	A	18	N	1-2 min.	5	5	A	

APPENDIX 6

INTRODUCTION TO HOMEWORK ASSIGNMENTS
AND TASK MOTIVATIONAL INSTRUCTIONS

APPENDIX 6

INTRODUCTION TO HOMEWORK ASSIGNMENTS
AND TASK MOTIVATIONAL INSTRUCTIONS

Hi! This is the second phase of the Social Relations Program. During this phase we will be asking you to undertake some "homework assignments." These are very straightforward tasks and require relatively little extra time on your behalf. Although you may not see the value in doing some of the homework assignments, we ask for your cooperation in completing them. We have found that people who do complete all the homework assignments, end up by feeling very glad they did so, and also recognize why we made "homework assignments" another important phase in the Program. A few people, however, thought that the homework was an awkward or silly thing to do. Unfortunately, these few people lost out on the many gains made by the people who undertook all the assignments. In addition, they wasted our time as well as their own.

You are also asked to continue the daily self-monitoring as you did during the first phase, and to return your completed records as we will specify. It is very important that during this second phase you do both the homework and the self-monitoring assignments.

The gains you will make by participating in this program depend entirely on your cooperation and willingness

to do the tasks we ask you to do. All we ask is your co-operation and full participation in helping to make this program to your best advantage. We know that you are able to do what we ask because we have selected you to participate, and because others have done these same tasks.

By cooperating and participating in the entire program, not only you will be benefiting; you will also be helping us to make this a more well rounded program for other people who want to improve their social relationships. The results of your participation will give us information concerning what phases of the Program were the most profitable for you and what phases might be re-organized. We can only determine this if you complete all phases and attend all sessions.

APPENDIX 7

INSTRUCTIONS AND BOOKLET FOR
HOMEWORK ASSIGNMENTS

HOMEWORK INSTRUCTIONS

This booklet contains specific tasks which you are to undertake over the next 3 week period. These can be called "homework assignments" and are separate and distinct from any other social activity you may be engaging in and recording on the daily self-monitoring sheets. It is very important that you complete these tasks.

There are 5 different tasks for each week. Each weeks assignments are on a separate sheet for that week labeled Week I, Week II, & Week III. You can do the tasks for each week in any order you choose, as long as you complete all five within the week. Carry the Homework booklet with you and fill in the homework sheets as you complete each task. DO NOT RECORD ANY OF THESE TASKS ON THE DAILY SELF-MONITORING SHEETS.

At the end of the first week, put the completed page of homework for that week and the 7 completed sheets of daily self monitoring in one of the brown self-addressed envelopes marked Week I, and return it to 554 King Edward. This can be done by simply dropping the envelope into any INTRA mail slot at any secretarial office throughout this University. Please be sure your name is on each sheet inside the envelope. It is very important that you return these sheets promptly so we can see how you are doing and to clarify any questions or difficulties you may run into.

Continue with the tasks for Week II and continue the daily self-monitoring for the next 7 days. At the end of Week II mail

that weeks completed homework sheet and the 7 daily sheets to 554 King Edward in the self-addressed envelope for Week II. Again, it is important that you do this at exactly the end of the second week.

Do the same for Week III and continue the daily self-monitoring. When these sheets are completed, put them in the 3rd envelope and bring them with you to the appointment on the day and time you have been given.

You will notice that there are scales numbered 1 to 7 that you are to record on the homework sheets. Below is an explanation for what the numbers represent. You have encountered similar scales on the daily self-monitoring sheets.

<u>Anxiousness</u>		<u>Enjoyableness</u>		<u>How happy you were with how you handled yourself</u>	
1	Not at all anxious	1	Not at all enjoyable	1	Not very happy
2		2		2	
3		3		3	
4		4		4	
5		5		5	
6		6		6	
7	Very anxious	7	Very enjoyable	7	Very happy

If you have any questions or problems please call Sue Dotzenroth at 231-2370. If she is not there, leave your name and number and your call will be returned as soon as possible.

YOUR NEXT APPOINTMENT IS: _____

AT: _____

WEEK 1

Date: _____
Name: _____

HOMEWORK ASSIGNMENTS	How anxious did you feel? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	How enjoyable was it for you? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	How long did the interaction last? (Minutes)	How happy were you with how you handled yourself? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
On 5 separate occasions, carry on a 3-5 minute conversation with 5 females you have said hello to in the past and are acquainted with. That is, females you know slightly, not good friends.	In planning and anticipation... Occasion: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 4. _____ 5. _____ During... Occasion: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 4. _____ 5. _____	Occasion: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 4. _____ 5. _____	Occasion: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 4. _____ 5. _____	Occasion: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 4. _____ 5. _____
On 3 separate occasions, greet 3 females whom you recognize & who recognize you, but have never spoken to. Say hello to these females & exchange brief remarks with them.	In planning and anticipation... Occasion: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ During... Occasion: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____	Occasion: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____	Occasion: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____	Occasion: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____
Go to a coffee shop or restaurant where you are familiar with the waitress. That is, a waitress who has waited on you in the past. Start a brief casual conversation with her, in addition to just giving her your order.	In planning and anticipation _____ During: _____	_____	_____	_____
Start up a conversation with a female you do not know (stranger), who you see standing reading a bulletin board in the Unicenter. Comment about something you are both reading on the board.	In planning and anticipation _____ During: _____	_____	_____	_____
Stop a female (stranger) on the street and ask her for directions to a specific street. Find 3 occasions during the week to do this.	In planning and anticipation... Occasion: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ During... Occasion: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____	Occasion: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____	Occasion: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____	Occasion: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____

WEEK II

Date: _____
Name: _____

HOMEWORK ASSIGNMENTS	How anxious did you feel? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 In planning and anticipation _____ During: _____	How enjoyable was it for you? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 _____	How long did the interaction last? (Minutes) _____	How happy were you with how you handled yourself? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 _____
1. Ask a girl you are acquainted with and have seen recently to join you for coffee at a designated time this week.				
2. Call up a female acquaintance whom you haven't seen for a while and make arrangements to have lunch with her this week.	In planning and anticipation _____ During: _____			
3. On 5 separate occasions, go out of your way to greet 5 females whom you have not seen or spoken to in the past. Start a casual & brief conversation with each of these females.	In planning and anticipation... Occasion: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 4. _____ 5. _____ During... Occasion: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 4. _____ 5. _____	Occasion: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 4. _____ 5. _____	Occasion: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 4. _____ 5. _____	Occasion: 1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 4. _____ 5. _____
4. Go to the cafeteria at a designated eating time (breakfast, lunch, dinner). Look for a female at a table where there is some extra room. Join her for lunch and start a conversation with her.	In planning and anticipation _____ During: _____			
5. While walking outside, look for a female (stranger) walking in the same direction as you and start a conversation with her, as both of you continue walking.	In planning and anticipation _____ During: _____			

WEEK III

Date: _____
Name: _____

HOMEWORK ASSIGNMENTS	How anxious did you feel? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 In planning and anticipation _____ During: _____	How enjoyable was it for you? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	How long did the interaction last? (Minutes) _____	How happy were you with how you handled yourself? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 _____
1. Make arrangements to have lunch with a new female acquaintance this week. That is, someone you have met recently and may have had coffee with or spoken to briefly. Do not pick someone you have had lunch with in the past.	_____	_____	_____	_____
2. Pick one of the females you had a 3-5 minute conversation with in Week I (#1) and make arrangements to go to some social function this week.	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. Ask a female you know to go to some organized social activity with you (movie, dance, concert, etc.) some evening this week.	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. Go to the University Pub and/or disco. Move around the room and greet and start up a casual conversation with several females. Remember to record the number of females you greeted and spoke with.	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. Go out of your way to find out about and attend a party or some other social function with a female.	_____	_____	_____	_____

APPENDIX 8

INSTRUCTIONS AND RATIONALE FOR
CONTINUED SELF-MONITORING

APPENDIX 8

INSTRUCTIONS AND RATIONALE FOR
CONTINUED SELF-MONITORING

Hi! This is the second phase of the Social Relations Program. During this phase we will be talking more about the importance of self-monitoring.

It has been found in the past that just by monitoring your social contacts, several things happen. First, people become aware of the kinds of social interactions they are having. Often, when people don't mark down what they are actually doing, they think that their social relationships are either better, or not as good as they believed them to be. So, monitoring helps a person get an accurate picture of his social relationships.

The second thing that happens as a result of self-monitoring is that somehow people find that they are feeling generally happier, and their social relationships are improving. This is important because, just by behaving normally, but recording your social contacts, something happens.

During this second phase we ask that you continue to self-monitor for the next three weeks; as you have done in the first phase of the Program. We ask for your cooperation in completing the self-monitoring sheets carefully and returning your records at the times we have designated.

The gains you will make by participating depend entirely on your cooperation and willingness to do the tasks we ask you to do. All we ask is your cooperation and full participation in helping to make this Program work to your best advantage. We know that you are able to do what we ask because we have selected you to participate, and because others have done these same tasks.

By cooperating and participating in the entire program, not only you will be benefiting; you will also be helping us to make this a more well rounded program for other people who want to improve their social relationships. Remember, this Program will only be profitable for you if you cooperate fully in these respects.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR CONTINUED SELF-MONITORING

We would like you to continue to record your social contacts for the next 3 weeks, just as you have done in the past. You are to begin recording TOMORROW. There are 3 separate packets of self-monitoring sheets, one for each week.

At the end of the first week, put the 7 completed sheets in one of the brown self-addressed envelopes marked Week I, and return it to 554 King Edward. This can be done by simply dropping the envelope into any INTRA mail slot at any secretarial office throughout this University. Please be sure your name is on each sheet inside the envelope. It is very important that you return these sheets promptly so we can see how you are doing and to clarify any questions or difficulties you may run into.

Continue with the self-monitoring for the next week, and at the end of Week II, mail the 7 completed sheets to 554 King Edward in the self-addressed envelope for Week II.

Do the same for Week III and put the 7 completed sheets in the 3rd envelope and bring them with you to the appointment on the day and time you have been given below.

If you have any questions or problems please call Sue Dotzenroth at 231-2370. If she is not there, leave your name and number and your call will be returned as soon as possible.

YOUR NEXT APPOINTMENT IS: _____

AT: _____

APPENDIX 9

BEHAVIORAL SKILLS MANUAL

APPENDIX 9

MANUAL
OF
SOCIAL INTERACTION
TECHNIQUES

MANUAL OF SOCIAL INTERACTION TECHNIQUES

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INTRODUCTION

Before you entered into this program you most likely felt that your social life was on a never ending portage down the river and that there was nothing you could do about it. Many people believe that they cannot structure their own social environment because of frequent lost opportunities to make social contacts.

This manual will present you with all the necessary information designed to help you increase your social interactions and contacts with females, as well as other social contacts. It will indicate appropriate ways of interacting so that you can maximize your social functioning and so that you can relate comfortably, as often as you'd like, with whomever you'd like.

This manual consists of four major components all of which are equal in importance and all of which you should learn about to the same degree. These cover: (1) Where to go to meet people; (2) Techniques of communication; (3) Verbal and nonverbal components of skilled behavior; and (4) Additional strategies of interpersonal interaction.

Read this manual carefully and take full advantage of the information it offers you. As you attempt to use the information and apply the strategies presented here, remember to proceed in small steps and not to do all the things on your first try. The most lasting changes will take place by proceeding in a step-by-step fashion. Make sure that you continually rehearse the techniques presented to you in this manual. Rehearsal is a known significant factor in every

permanent behavior change. By continually rehearsing and making use of these available opportunities and techniques you will begin to change. This means active participation on your part.

You will probably need to read the manual more than once before you will digest all that it offers. You will also have to rehearse the various techniques in your mind several times prior to going out and doing it on your own. You will find that by using the opportunity to rehearse these skills mentally, you will begin to feel more comfortable with them and they will become a "natural" part of your routine behavior.

I. WHERE TO MEET PEOPLE

The first consideration you must make is: (1) what kinds of people do you want to meet? Often this question is coupled with a second important consideration: (2) what kinds of things do you like to do? Once you have determined these two things for yourself, you can then proceed to find those places where you are most likely to meet those people and do those things you like to do.

There are numerous categories of places to meet people depending on what you are looking for. The important thing is to place yourself in appropriate situations so that you maximize your opportunities for meeting the kinds of people you want to interact with. For example, if you like music and dancing, an appropriate place for you to go might be a nightclub or disco-bar. If your music and dancing tastes are along a different line, you might prefer to join a square dancing club, or a modern dancing class. If your interests are more along the athletic line you might decide to join a tennis club or a ski club. By examining where your interests are and by approaching your potential meeting places in this way, you know that others who are there also have a similar interest; that is, you already have something in common before you begin. A built in secondary gain is that you have a ready made topic of conversation--your mutual interest.

At the same time, however, you must also consider what kinds of people you want to meet and interact with. You do not want

to join a club only to find that all the other members are either male, or over 60 years old, or couples. Determining the kinds of people you want to meet plays as vital a role in where you choose to go as does your interest areas.

Use your resources to investigate all possibilities before you embark upon a meeting place. There are all kinds of potential opportunities available in your community. Look at newspapers for listings of interest course offerings, or entertainment facilities. Don't hesitate to use the telephone and telephone book to do some research for yourself. Find out what sports clubs are available. Check out membership fees, age and sex of members, times when it is open, etc. See if you can be put on a mailing list of places that have ongoing and varying activity schedules so you can keep up with what is going on. All of this information is exceedingly important for your decision. You not only need to be sure you have set up an appropriate situation for yourself, you also want to be sure that whatever activities you choose to engage in fit into your schedule.

The place where you work or where you attend classes also has several opportunities open for you to make social contacts. Usually there is someone or some office responsible for social clubs, activities, organizations, leisure and sports groups. Ask someone where you might obtain all the necessary information concerning these social club and activity groups. Get this information and start making enquiries.

Most places of employment and most certainly at school, there are a number of allotted periods of time between classes,

or for coffee breaks and for lunch. It is during these periods that you also have a good opportunity to make social contacts. Usually, the coffee shop, cafeteria, or local eating spot may provide this. These definitely are times and places that ought to be taken advantage of. Crowded areas where the allocation of space is at a premium provide you with excellent opportunities to approach someone without having it appear as if you are intentionally trying to "hustle". In such situations you can go up to someone and ask: "Hi, do you mind if I sit here?", or "Excuse me, is this seat taken. Do you mind if I sit with you?" During the summer time, many people take their lunch outside and eat at picnic tables or on the grass. Often, people do not want to eat in the cafeteria, but prefer to go to good but inexpensive restaurants not far from where they work. Again you have a good opportunity to ask if you can join them.

To help you out with some of this information we have provided a list of some of the discotheques, pubs, and recreation facilities in the city and surrounding areas. This list is by no means exhaustive of the possibilities open to you, but merely provides some information which, hopefully, will serve as a useful guide of the kinds of information you may wish to continue to obtain for yourself.

Some Potential Places to meet PeopleDiscotheques:

Name: L'Auberge du Château
Le Chateau Discobar
Location: 61 Principale, Aylmer, P.Q.
Phone: 684-3222
Hours: 8:30 p.m. - 3:00 a.m. every day
Cover Charge: None
Dress: Casual - no jeans
Age Group: Approximately 18 - 25 years

Name: Le Zodiac
Location: 77 Wellington, Hull
Phone: 771-9813
Hours: 8:00 p.m. - 3:00 a.m. every day
Cover Charge: Friday and Saturday only \$1.00
Dress: Casual, No Jeans
Age Group: Approximately 20 - 40 years
-usually a line up on Thursday, Friday, Saturday and Sunday,
especially after 10 p.m.
-must KNOCK for door man to let you in

Name: Le Soleil
Location: 37 Montcalm, Hull
Phone: 771-0396
Hours: 8:30 p.m. - 3:00 a.m. every day
Cover Charge: Friday and Saturday \$1.00
Sunday - sometimes 50¢ or \$1.00
Dress: Casual - jeans allowed
Age Group: Approximately 20 - 30 years

Name: The Diplomat
Location: 1 Montcalm, Hull
Phone: 771-6677
Hours: 8:00 p.m. - 3:00 a.m. every day
Cover Charge: Saturday and Sunday only \$1.00
Dress: Casual - no jeans
Age Group: Approximately 18 - 30 years

Name: Sly Fox Tavern - Restaurant and Disco
Location: 1820 Carling Avenue, Ottawa
Phone: 722-7658
Hours: Monday - Saturday 7:00 p.m. - 1:00 a.m.
Cover Charge: Monday - Wednesday: no charge
Thursday: \$1.00
Friday - Saturday: \$2.00
Dress: Casual - no jeans on weekends
Age Group: 18 - 25 years

Name: Talk of the Town - Sweetheart Disco
Location: Place Bell Canada
Gloucester at Metcalfe, Ottawa
Phone: 238-6353
Hours: Friday and Saturday 12:00 p.m. - 1:00 a.m.
Monday - Thursday 12:00 p.m. - 12:00 a.m.
(Music starts 8:30 p.m.)
Cover Charge: none
Dress: Casual, no jeans
Age Group: 30 years and up

Name: Sacs Disco Bar
Location: 117 Principale, Hull
Phone: 771-0881
Hours: Monday - Thursday: 9:00 p.m. - 3:00 a.m.
Friday, Saturday and Sunday: 8:00 p.m. - 3:00 a.m.
Cover Charge: Friday and Saturday only \$1.00
Dress: Casual - no jeans
Age Group: Approximately 20 - 40 years

Name: Holiday Inn - The Room Upstairs
(Live Entertainment, Bar, Dancing, More quiet)
Location: 100 Kent Street, Ottawa
Phone: 238-1122
Hours: Monday - Saturday: 6:00 p.m. - 1:00 a.m.
Cover Charge: none
Dress: Casual - no jeans - semi formal
Age Group: Mixed and varies 20 - 50 years

Name: Holiday Inn - The Blind Pig
Location: 100 Kent Street, Ottawa
Phone: 238-1122
Hours: Monday - Friday: 12:00 p.m. - 1:00 a.m.
Saturday: 6:00 p.m. - 1:00 a.m.
Cover Charge: none
Dress: all types allowed but must be neat
Age Group: varies and mixed 20 - 50 years
by night

Name: Cock & Lion Chateau Laurier
(Dancing & Bar begins 8:30 p.m.) (Live Ent.)
Location: Chateau Laurier Hotel
Phone: 232-6411
Hours: Monday - Saturday 12:00 noon - 1:00 a.m.
(Lunch from 11:30 - 2:30 only)
Cover Charge: Thursday, Friday Saturday \$1.00
Dress: no jeans, semi formal
Age Group: mixed 20 - 50

Name: Skyline Hotel: Stop 26
Dancing and Live Entertainment 9:00 p.m.
Location: 101 Lyon Street
Phone: 237-3600
Hours: Monday - Friday 12:00 noon - 1:00 a.m.
Saturday 7:00 p.m. - 1:00 a.m.
Cover Charge: none
Dress: after 6 no jeans
semi formal
Age Group: 30 average
range 18 - 60

Name: Inn of the Provinces--Le Quadrille
Location: 360 Sparks Street
Phone: 238-6000
Hours: Monday - Saturday 8:30 p.m. - 1:00 a.m.
Cover Charge: none
Dress: no jeans
Age: 18 - 25

Name: Talisman Motor Inn- Beach Comber
Location: 1376 Carling
Phone: 722-7601
Hours: Monday - Friday 7:00 p.m. - 1:00 a.m.
Saturday 7:00 p.m. - 12:00 a.m.
Cover charge: none
Dress: no jeans
-live Entertainment and dancing

Ottawa University Pubs & Discos

Name: Charriot Disco
Location: Cafeteria Unicenter
Phone: 231-7000 Information
Hours: Thursday, Friday, Saturday 8:30 p.m. - 1:00 a.m.
Cover Charge: Students with I.D. 50¢
Others \$1.25
Dress: casual - jeans allowed
Age Group: 18 - 30 years

Name: The Blue Room - Pub
Location: Marchand Residence
Phone: 231-5400
Hours: Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday 8:30 a.m. - 1:00 a.m.
Cover Charge: Students with I.D. 50¢
Others \$1.25
Dress: Casual - jeans allowed
Age Group: 18 - 30 years

Name: Carleton University Pub
Location: University Center, Ground Floor
Phone: 231-4380
Hours: Monday - Friday 12:00 noon - 1:00 a.m.
Saturday 8:00 p.m. - 1:00 a.m.
Cover Charge: Thursday, Friday & Saturday:
Carleton Univ. Students with I.D. card 75¢
Guest of Carleton Univ. Student \$2.00
-**must be sponsored/accompanied by Carleton Student
-not open to general public
-usually can meet up with student if you go and
stand in corridor outside pub
Dress: casual - jeans allowed
Age Group: 18 - 30 years
Live Entertainment Thursday, Friday & Saturday

Name: The Hayloft - Pub Tavern
Location: 200 Rideau Street, Ottawa
Phone: 232-0823
Hours: Monday - Saturday 12:00 noon - 1:00 a.m.
Sunday 12:00 noon - 10:00 p.m. must eat - terrace
Cover Charge: none
Dress: casual - jeans allowed
Age Group: 18 - 40 years

Clubs and Recreation Facilities

Name: Pinecrest Indoor Tennis Club
Location: 1080 Morrison Drive
Phone: 828-9771
Fees: Membership--Single, male--\$135.00
female--\$105.00
under 21 --\$ 70.00

Public Tennis Courts:

Ottawa--563-3222

Nepean--825-5151

Mooney's Bay Sports Complex
Riverside Drive
Phone: 731-4684

Nepean Sportsplex
1701 Woodroffe Avenue
Ottawa
Phone: 825-5151

City of Ottawa Recreation & Parks
Phone: 563-3222

YMCA -- 180 Argyle Street
YWCA Ottawa

Phone: 237-1320

Information: 237-7652

Camp Y Ski & Conference center: 832-1234 or 237-1320

II. TECHNIQUES OF COMMUNICATION

Once you have arrived at your chosen spot, what you want to do is to meet people, and particularly to meet females with whom you may have friendly and rewarding social interactions.

Although there are certain basic steps a person needs to go through in any social interaction, these required techniques differ depending upon the circumstance and the context. Basically, these techniques are:

- (1) When and how to approach someone.
- (2) Initiating a conversation.
- (3) Maintaining a conversation.
- (4) Terminating a conversation.
- (5) Making arrangements for future meetings. (Optional)

It is important to remember that appropriate execution of each of these five skills is governed by the context. What might be very appropriate in one situation may not be so in another. It is also important that you remember to proceed in small steps. Although all the techniques are provided for you here, don't try to engage them all on the first occasion. Think about these five steps separately and practice them individually until you feel comfortable with them collectively and they become a natural part of your behavioral repertoire.

It is also a good idea to separate for yourself times and places where you will practice these techniques from times and places where you actually put them to use.

A safe place to practice some of these communication skills might be with good friends or family. Then, when you feel comfortable with them you can try them out in a situation with new acquaintances. Remember, proceed in a step-by-step fashion and practice and rehearse the skills you want to acquire.

(1) When and how to approach someone

In the past you most likely attained the majority of your social contacts by being introduced to someone by a mutual friend. This is one mode of meeting people. However, to rely on this alone seriously limits the people you will meet because you have to wait to be introduced to someone. The focus of your behavior change in this regard is on you taking action and making initial contacts.

You want to maximize the number of opportunities you will have to approach someone. This can be done by setting up or structuring the circumstance in such a way that you will, in the majority of instances, get the other person to respond to you. Again, when to approach someone is also context dependent. While it might be very appropriate to ask your classmate to join you for a cup of coffee during coffee break on the first or second class meeting, it would be quite inappropriate to approach her with the idea of asking her to go to a movie with you that night. The point here is, on initiating an approach to someone, it is better to do so under a pretext surrounding a more impersonal issue with regard to the context in which you already find yourself (i.e., school--homework, office--coffee break), even though at some future time your motive is to relate on a more

social-personal level. Be careful not to come on too strong on the first occasion. Lunch breaks, coffee breaks, and the like usually reflect interruptions in normal work and school patterns. Unlike the discotheque scene where individuals go specifically to make potential social contacts, many people may be unprepared to deal with the idea of "making arrangements for a date" during a coffee break, at least as far as behaving in a manner similar to the way in which you might behave in a discotheque or single's bar. Consequently, your approach to making an acquaintance during lunch or coffee break must be more gradual and appear innocuous.

(2) How to initiate a conversation with a stranger

There are various and unique ways of initiating conversations in order for you to get to know someone. There are some standard and straightforward initiating "rituals" which can be used reliably in most situations. There are other initiating remarks which are less universal and reliable and which you may wish to employ as you become more practiced in these skills. Again, a particular opening remark must be given in the right place and the right time for it to be appropriate. Ultimately you want to be able to initiate conversations with a variety of people in a variety of situations. This skill will become more natural for you as you practice and rehearse these techniques. Remember to take one

step at a time. There are however, some basic guidelines for initiating conversations which tend to be universally applicable and appropriate.

There are various ways in which to begin a conversation. However, the first thing you should do is to get the other person's attention. You can do this by first of all establishing eye contact, if the person is facing you, and then wait for some acknowledgement in terms of a return in eye contact. These may be extremely brief glances and the only requirement is that you communicate to the other person that you are there, not that you start to stare at one another. The return in eye contact is designed to provide you with acknowledgement of the fact that both of you have recognized each others presence. It means no more than that. You may even find that a person glances at you for one second only, and then averts her gaze or looks away. However, that brief glance is still acknowledgement of your presence.

Usually, the first thing that you would say to someone is "Hi". This can usually stand by itself, in which case you have to wait for the person to reply with a similar "Hello". Alternatively, you may begin a conversation and expect an interchange which might go like this:

You: "Hi, how are you?"

She: "Hi, oh, fine thanks".

You: "My name is John, what's yours?"

She: "Mary". (Very simple and straightforward).

You: "Hi Mary, nice to meet you! Do you come here very often?"

She: "Oh, about every second weekend or so".

You: "Really! Gee, this is the first time I've been to this place. I think it's pretty good. How do you like it?"

She: "I like it a lot too. The music is great!...Where are you from John?"

You: "I'm from Ottawa. How about you, are you from Ottawa too?"

She: "Yes, I've lived here most of my life."

This conversation represents a typical method of initiating a conversation comprising the following elements:

- (1) getting the other person's attention
- (2) saying hello
- (3) introducing yourself
- (4) asking innocuous questions regarding the context in which you both find yourselves,

After initial opening remarks are made, the conversation will proceed as each of you "hook into" the cues given by the other. This will be discussed further in the section on maintaining a conversation. Keep in mind that the above example is a typical method of initiating a conversation. It is also a reliable way to begin to get to know someone before you try out other ways of initiating conversations which are more context dependent.

Some examples of other ways to initiate conversations have been offered by Eileen Gambril, a researcher in the area of social skills. These include:

- (1) Comment upon or ask a question about the situation or mutual activity that you are both involved in.

- (2) Make an observation about, or ask a question regarding what the other person is doing.
- (3) Ask another person for information, help, advice, an opinion, etc.
- (4) Offer a compliment to the other person regarding some aspect of their appearance, etc.
- (5) Offer something to another.

It must be remembered that there are both appropriate and inappropriate ways of "carrying-off" all of the above suggestions and that each is appropriate depending upon the people involved and the particular situation. It would be better to practice these other techniques after you feel comfortable with the standard approach.

It is also important to remember that learning any new behavior, such as initiating conversations with others, whether they be strangers or acquaintances, requires planning and rehearsal of the techniques, before you actually put them to use.

(3) Maintaining a conversation

In order to keep a conversation going, there must be a mutual exchange of information. The best way to attain this exchange is by asking questions and providing answers. Your cue for what to say next is provided either by the response you receive from the other person, or by your original statement or question. In other words, the person who hears your question must answer. This answer might provide you with some information that you can "hook into" and pursue via further comments and

questions. If the answer you receive does not present you with this opportunity, you can rely on standard "free information" which can serve as questions to continue the conversation. When a person replies to questions, they often volunteer and give away a lot of "free information" about themselves. That is, information concerning where they live, grew up, went to school, worked, etc. By listening carefully, you can pursue the conversation along lines of the free information that the person has revealed. It is also important that you reveal something about yourself which the other person can hook into and serve as a basis for their continuing their conversation with you. To keep a conversation going is a two way street. You too have to carry your share of the responsibility for maintaining a conversation. This is usually best accomplished by first of all listening closely to what the other person says, and then making your replies and questions an extension of their comments or questions.

These basic procedures follow for any level of conversation, whether it be light and impersonal or highly intimate.

There are several other important aspects of conversational techniques. Some of these will be discussed in more detail in a later section. They will be mentioned briefly here, since they are relevant aspects of maintaining any conversation.

First, it is important that you orient your body toward, and look at the person with whom you are conversing. These characteristics convey that you are interested in what the other person has to say. Secondly, be sure you are able to hear one another as you speak. A third consideration is that you relax and wait for the other person to finish what they have to say.

Initially you may feel somewhat anxious and thus have a tendency to "rush" the conversation. It is important that you do not make numerous interruptions or cut off what the other person is saying. Remember to relax and wait until the other person has completed their comments or questions. Finally, do not monopolize the conversation by going into great detail in response to a question. Your contribution to the conversation should contain adequate information to maintain the theme or topic in terms of self disclosure. It must also be balanced in regard to what the other person has offered.

Another tactic which will be to your benefit is to have readily available to yourself a number of topics of conversation. This requires some planning on your part as well as some rehearsal as to what kinds of things you can bring to these potential conversations. For example, one possible topic might be your recent vacation out West. You could then prepare and rehearse what parts of your vacation you could discuss, i.e., places you went, what you saw, how you enjoyed the trip, etc.

During the initial stages of a conversation no one is interested in getting into any "heavy topics". The topics of conversation should be casual and light. Possible areas to focus on include: (1) where the person works; (2) where they live; (3) how long they have lived there and how long they have worked there; (4) any hobbies, interests or athletic activities they participate in.

A general guideline to remember in maintaining a conversation is that you can usually pursue a topic along lines of conversation generated from the answers given to questions. You may however, want to change a particular topic. This too must be done at an appropriate break in the ongoing conversation. Wait for a pause which indicates a natural break in the conversation. You can introduce a new topic in a variety of ways. Something in the original conversation may spark an idea or connection for you and you could say so as you bring in the new topic. You could say something like, "Gee, speaking of skiing, what are the conditions like this season? I haven't been out on the hills yet." At other times you may simply want to terminate a topic, either because you have no interest in it, or because it is becoming too "heavy". In this case you can simply say something like, "This sounds like it's getting pretty deep, let's talk about something lighter. What do you think about...?" Having a number of ready topics which you have thought about ahead of time, will be helpful in case you get trapped into one topic or run out of things to say.

Remember to practice these techniques gradually and take one step at a time. The basic steps involved in maintaining a conversation are:

- (1) listen carefully and "hook into" the basic theme of the conversation.
- (2) ask questions and provide answers relevant to the conversation.
- (3) pay attention to your body orientation and voice loudness as you speak; make eye contact with the other person.
- (4) do not interrupt.
- (5) have several available topics of conversation ready.

(4) How to terminate a conversation

There are certain strategies that you can use that are a social and courteous part of terminating any conversation. Your goal is to close the conversation; to stop talking with that particular person to whom you are speaking, and to take your leave. Remember, you not only will find yourself in situations where you will want to terminate a conversation you do not find enjoyable, you also want to be able to close conversations which you find pleasant but must terminate because of time commitments elsewhere, or because the conversation has exhausted itself. You want to accomplish such terminations smoothly. You do not want to do this abruptly or in a rude manner. There are various techniques you can practice to do so.

You are not ever under any obligation to provide a reason for your leave taking. Your goal is simply to say "goodbye" at that particular time and you can accomplish this simply by saying, during an appropriate break, "Excuse me, but I have to go now", and then be on your way. Don't linger around or hesitate, since you only give mixed messages about your leaving, and thus leave open the opportunity for others to convince you to stay. In some situations this simple statement may serve as adequate. However, in other situations it may appear too abrupt. Thus, to make the transition somewhat smoother, and in situations where you have enjoyed the conversation, you could add a compliment and say something like:

"Excuse me, I'd really like to continue this conversation, but I have a meeting to attend, (or a bus to catch, or a doctor's appointment), in five minutes and I must be going".

or

"Gee, I've really enjoyed talking with you, but I really must be on my way now".

If you are in such a situation that you are likely to run into the person again, perhaps at work or in class, you could add to the above a comment such as:

"...perhaps we can continue this at coffee break (or tomorrow, or when I see you next time)".

There will be occasions when those you may be speaking with attempt to convince you to stay or pursue the conversation. Remember that your goal is to terminate the conversation and this sometimes requires a clear "no" in response to others' attempts to prevent you from leaving. This too can be done in such a way that you come across as firm but not harsh. By repeating that you clearly are leaving and using "no" in your statement, you can ease yourself out of a difficult situation. For example:

You: "Excuse me, but I must be on my way now".

Other: "Oh, just stay for another cup of coffee".

You: "No thank you, I really have to be going now".

Make sure you also give the message that you are leaving by physically making moves to go, including moving your body away from the other person, standing up, or getting your coat, --- whatever the case may be.

Be sure to practice these different techniques, perhaps with friends, before you attempt to use them with new acquaintances

or in new situations. Remember, practice and rehearsal are extremely important factors in acquiring these skills and in making them a natural part of your behavior.

(5) How to make arrangements for future meetings

We usually understand by a "date" that it is a definite time allocation with the other person, somewhere in the future, where both of you will meet and interact together. Making arrangements for future meetings, however, does not necessarily have to fall exclusively in the typical domain of a "date". You may, for example, be engaged in a very interesting and pleasant conversation with someone, but the situation is either too noisy, or either you or the other person must leave because of other commitments. In this case, you may simply want to express that you would like to get together with the person to continue this conversation.

Making an arrangement for a future meeting or "date" of any kind involves making very definite plans and obtaining some basic information. This is important for you to find out so that you can contact the person again. Once it is established that the two of you agree to meet again sometime in the future, it is a good idea to make plans for when you will get together, as well as to offer a suggestion as to what you might do, if you have not already done so. It is also important that you get some basic information such as the persons last name and phone number. This too must be done in such a way that you do not appear as if you are coming on too strong.

For example you could say:

You: "Gee, I'd really like to continue this conversation with you. Would you like to get together later this afternoon and we can finish our discussion over coffee?"

She: "Yes, that would be fun. I'd like that".

You: "Let's meet at 3:00 in the school lounge".

She: "OK, great! See you at 3:00".

If you are making a somewhat different kind of arrangement, depending upon the situation, you would proceed a bit differently. For example, if you are at a bar or a discotheque, you might want to invite a girl you have met there to join you after it closes for a pizza or a bite to eat somewhere. There are a number of ways in which you might want to make the suggestion. For example, you could select any one of the following alternatives depending upon the circumstance:

- (1) "Say, you know, I'm getting a little hungry. How about going out for a pizza or a bite to eat somewhere?"
- (2) "Say, are you hungry? (or if the girl replies that she isn't, then...) All this beer drinking is making me hungry. I feel like getting a bite to eat, maybe a pizza or something. Would you like to come along and have a cup of coffee with me?"
- (3) "Listen, I've got a great idea! Why don't we continue our conversation elsewhere. Let's go and get a bite to eat somewhere".

Under circumstances where you have had an opportunity to interact with the person for a period of time and on several other

occasions, it may be more appropriate for you to make a direct request for a date and to arrange for future meetings of some kind. Thus, you might say:

You: "Mary, since we both enjoy tennis, would you like to get together and play tennis sometime?"

She: "Sure John, that sounds great. When?"

You: "OK, how about Tuesday evening around 7:30. Are you free then?"

She: "Yes, I'm free Tuesday evening. That sounds real good".

You: "OK, listen, let me have your phone number and I'll call you Monday to arrange to pick you up".

Now, the idea of calling her on Monday is good planning. Not only does it allow you to make arrangements at that time for how you are going to get together, it also opens the door to the possibility of what you might do if it looks like it might rain on Tuesday. Furthermore, it gives you enough time to think about what you might do after tennis. Another alternative is as follows:

You: "Mary, I'd like to see you again sometime. There is a movie playing at the Capital Theatre that I've been wanting to see. Would you like to go with me next Friday evening to see it?"

She: "Oh, what 's playing?"

You: "It's XYZ with so and so in it".

She: "OK, that sounds good, I'd like to see that".

You: "Great, why don't you give me your phone number and I'll call you during the week and arrange to pick you up?"

She: "OK, that sounds like fun".

Be sure you get her phone number, and make sure you know her last name. Write it down. Without it you won't be able to contact her. If you want to you can also get her address, however, that can be done when you call her and make arrangements to pick her up.

When telephoning a new acquaintance for the first time after the initial meeting, it is important that you clearly state your name, last name included, and perhaps add the reminder as to where you met. For example, you could say:

"Hi, this is John, we met at the Zodiac on Friday night".

It is important that you plan and rehearse what you are going to say when requesting a "date" or future meeting, whether it be in person, or over the telephone. Remember to make definite plans, at definite times, and have a number of alternatives available.

There is also the possibility that the time you suggest for a future meeting will not be convenient for the other person, because of other commitments or plans she has already made. In this case, offer an alternative time and place. If, however, you are turned down, without a reason, on three or more occasions, you should stop persisting and seek out contacts elsewhere.

Remember to practice and rehearse these steps before using them for the first time. Get all the basic information you need

to contact the other person. Make definite plans as to what, where and when. Be sure to have a number of ready alternatives to offer in case one does not work out. If you don't get what you want on a particular occasion, look elsewhere next time.

III. VERBAL AND NONVERBAL COMPONENTS OF SKILLED BEHAVIOR

The way one sounds is as important as the way one looks and what one says. In this section we are going to discuss those aspects of your behavior, both verbal and nonverbal, of which you are probably not even aware when interacting with other people, but which play a vital role concerning how you come across and how you are perceived by others when engaged in any social exchange. These skills can be divided into two basic categories:

(1) Verbalization and speech characteristics.

(2) Body language and nonverbal characteristics.

You have already had an opportunity to see these skills portrayed on videotape by trained actors. Remember that you witnessed both appropriate and inappropriate approaches to each of the behaviors. The following discussion represents an overview of those behaviors so that they will remain fresh in your memory and are here for you to refer to.

(1) Verbalization and speech characteristics

The voice is one very crucial factor in eliciting either good responses from other people or in making them turn away, partly because the voice reflects an emotional state as well as being a barometer of one's self-confidence. Very competitive and angry people sound harsh and too loud. Shy, insecure people speak in very low tones and with low intensity. The voice is important for getting people to respond to us.

There are three important qualities of one's voice which are all part of adequate communications. These are:

- (1) voice loudness
- (2) voice tone
- (3) voice modulation

You will recall, from the videotapes, that you must speak loudly enough for the other person to hear you, but not so loudly that you are yelling. It is important that you speak with a loudness of voice appropriate to the situation so that either the person to whom you are directing your communication will hear you, or so that you do not "scare" her away.

The tone of your voice also reflects your emotional state as well as indicates your interest in, and enthusiasm for, the person with whom you are interacting. A very high pitched tone can reflect nervousness or fright. A very low and flat monotone can indicate disinterest and often itself becomes boring to listen to. Some tones are nasal or whiny and also become aversive to listen to.

We also discussed speaking in a modulated voice. That is a tone of voice which is neither flat and dull, nor a tone that is high pitched and squeaky. A modulated tone is one which moves evenly up and down, not too high, not too low. Speaking with a modulated voice also shows enthusiasm. Your voice and tone is modulated when it goes up and down, emphasizing some words more than others; some words being louder, some words softer.

There are certain other characteristics of verbal behavior, other than loudness and tone of voice, which are important qualities of communication and which give the impression of self-confidence.

The first of these is fluency of speech. That is, does the person show anxiety when he is speaking by being repetitious or stuttering, using "ahs" or "ums" that convey uncertainty or interfere with communication? People who appear confident, self-assured, and relaxed speak clearly and rhythmically without the characteristics mentioned above.

There are two other characteristics of a persons speech which are important considerations when communicating. One of these is response duration, or how much you say in your responses to the other person. The other characteristic is response latency, or how long it takes you to respond to the other persons question or comment. Recall from the videotapes that you saw, that response duration had a lot to do with showing the other person that you are interested in him as well as in the topic of conversation. It also conveyed that the two people were not afraid to "talk" to one another, and were not anxious for the first opportunity to escape from the interaction.

When a person takes a long time to respond to another it may convey a number of things about the person. Firstly, long response latency can give the impression either that you are not interested, and are off daydreaming somewhere, that you don't know what to say next, or that you are nervous, shy, and not very confident in yourself.

These three characteristics: (1) fluency of speech; (2) how much you say (response duration); (3) how long you take to respond (response latency), have been shown to be very important in conveying skill, assertiveness, and self-confidence.

Remember, you convey more than just words when you speak. You also convey how you feel, and give clues as to the kind of person you are by the way in which you speak. Loudness of voice, tone, modulation, speech fluency, latency and duration, all give some expression of mood, emotion, and self-confidence.

(2) Body language and nonverbal skills

Another factor which is a vital part of effective communication is body orientation when interacting with another person. Do you face the person you are speaking to, or do you stand off in such a way that she may get the impression that you are either aloof and disinterested or snotty, or that you are shy and insecure? How one stands or sits when interacting with another is important for: (1) eliciting a response from the other; and (2) how you are perceived, either as open, friendly, and interested, or shy, aloof, insecure or disinterested.

It is important that you face the person to whom you are speaking. In some instances this requires that you orient your entire body toward the other person. This is usually appropriate in very personal contacts, but is also appropriate in less intimate interactions, where your body may be oriented toward the other person, but the distance that you are apart may be greater. Sometimes merely looking at the person, or turning your face toward the person, is all that is required, even though your entire body may be slightly to the side.

Posture is another very revealing aspect of your behavior. One's posture conveys a lot about one's mood. A slouched stance gives a depressive impression. Someone who stands or sits up straight appears alive, alert, and happy, and at the same time can feel relaxed.

A third important aspect of your nonverbal behavior is eye contact. Maintaining eye contact with the other person as you speak shows that you are confident as well as interested. Be careful, however, that you do not stare at the other person. It is appropriate to avert your gaze now and then, as long as your main orientation is toward the person to whom you are speaking or listening. Too much eye contact may make others feel uncomfortable. On the other hand, if you constantly look down, or off to one side or the other, not only does it make it awkward for the other person to hear you (because if you are looking down you also tend to be talking down to the floor), it also gives a very strong impression that you are either uninterested in pursuing the conversation, or that you are shy and insecure.

Facial expression conveys a lot about one's mood. Depending upon the circumstances and the context, facial expression will change. It is important that you convey an appropriate facial expression to the context. For example, if you are being interviewed for a potential job, you will want to appear pleased about the possibility of getting the job, as well as pleased with yourself and your own qualifications. So, smiling would be appropriate. In a different set of circumstances you might have a different expression on your face. Smiling would not

be the appropriate expression to have on your face if you were, for example, discussing your best friend's funeral arrangements.

Gesturing, usually done with your hands, also conveys a lot about how relaxed you are, how confident you are, and makes you a more interesting person to converse with.

These behavioral skills are all nonverbal. Two conversations can be exactly alike in terms of verbal content, or words, but can come across entirely differently because of the nonverbal components of the communication.

Remember these nonverbal behaviors:

- (1) body orientation
- (2) posture
- (3) eye contact
- (4) facial expression
- (5) gestures

Eye contact expresses interest as well as self-confidence. Similarly, posture, body orientation, facial expression, and gestures, convey what kind of mood you are in, as well as how you feel about your own confidence.

IV. ADDITIONAL STRATEGIES OF INTERACTION

In this section you will be presented with some strategies which may make your social interactions a bit more interesting. These may be seen as "helpful hints" which you can add to the basic skills already presented to you.

Strategies for night club and pub behavior

There are a number of common features about night clubs or discotheques which you may already be familiar with, however, they can stand repetition here. First of all, there is always a bar with a bar tender working it. Most discotheques provide tables for seating in various spots throughout, and sometimes you may find a "stand up bar" around which people just stand and talk and have somewhere to put their drink. Drinks can be purchased from the bar tender who is behind the bar, or from various waiters or waitresses who move around the different tables. To obtain a drink from the bar tender, simply stand at the bar and wait until you catch his eye, or wave at him quietly and wait for him to approach you. If you order a drink from one of the waitresses who move around the discotheque, make sure that you wait for her to return with your drink and not move around from one location to the next or else she will never find you. It is appropriate to tip the bar tender or waitress about 25¢ when you buy a drink from either of them. All discotheques, of course, have a dance floor, and you should have little problem finding out where that is.

If you have to wait outside before entering the discotheque, you generally have to wait no longer than five minutes. If you approach the place, knock on the door, or turn the door handle, someone will come out and let you in. If the place is too full, the door man will ask you to wait for a few minutes.

Before you approach someone you will have to know, and become aware of the various possibilities open to you. First of all, you will want to know whether the person you are approaching is indeed single, and not out on a date with someone else. You can usually determine this pretty quickly by waiting for a couple of minutes to see whether or not a date she may be with has simply gone out to the washroom.

You also want to open yourself to all possibilities for meeting people. There are a number of strategies you can use to find someone who may be eligible for a meeting of this kind. First of all, it is important that you move around the room. If you remain stationary and still in one spot, you will only come into contact with those people who happen to be near you or to those who happen to move around. Standing still in one location is a very passive attitude and significantly reduces your opportunities for meeting people. Furthermore, it is important that you take action and that you initiate contact on your own behalf. Similarly, if you sit at a table, instead of stand at the bar, you limit your opportunities for becoming aware of the various people who are there. Generally, sitting at a table reduces the number of occasions upon which people will come up

to you simply in passing. People who sit at tables are often people who are accompanied by dates. Persons who stand or sit around the bar usually are there to meet people. You may find two or three females who prefer to sit at a table, and these may be eligible as well. However, if you sit at a table, you are forced to interact with only those people who may be sitting around you. If you do not happen to like the people who are sitting around you, you may have to leave your table and this can be cumbersome. The importance of standing up is also seen when you understand that you want to "case the place" and find out about how many and what kind of females may be available for you to meet.

There is nothing whatsoever preventing you from starting a conversation with someone. When you are thinking of potential dates in the future, arising from people you meet there, you should make certain that these people are indeed available dating partners. One way to check out if the person is married, for example, is to look for a wedding ring. However, this is not always reliable since many people who are married do not wear rings, and some single women wear a lot of jewelry, including rings, which may look like wedding rings. Nevertheless, prior to asking out the person on a date or making arrangements for some future meeting, the person will generally volunteer the information concerning whether or not they are attached. If not and you are unsure, simply ask the girl if she is attached.

Upon arriving at the place, it is usually a good idea to spend 4 or 5 minutes observing and assessing the situation. If you spend any longer than 5 minutes observing the situation, you may become trapped in looking, and may end up by talking yourself out of approaching someone for a conversation. While it is a good idea not to be too hasty, and to properly assess the situation and available persons, generally, it is also important to remember not to wait too long.

When you are in a pub, although there may be music, or even live entertainment, there typically is not dancing, and so you have one less avenue for entering into an interaction with a female -- asking her to dance and dancing with her. In pubs you spend most of your energy engaging your conversational resources. Most often people sit down in pubs, and usually at tables, so you will want to choose where you wish to sit very carefully. When you walk in, stop and take a look around at the seating arrangement. Check out if there are some people obviously sitting in couples, and others who seem to be just a group of people. See if you spot some females sitting together. Probably they are friends and came as a group, without dates, so are potential contacts for you. Rarely will you see a female sitting alone in a pub, just like in a discotheque. If you do, take some time and check out if indeed she is really alone. Try to find a seat near the females whom you have spotted as potential available contacts. A table next to them perhaps, or maybe there are some obvious empty seats at their table. Check this out carefully and then go over and sit down.

The use of humor

When approaching someone for the first time, and even within the course of conversation, the use of humor not only helps to ease some of the initial tension, and enhance the conversation, it also makes the transition in and out of conversations a bit more smooth.

Remember to be "light" and positive in your topics of conversation, particularly on initial encounters. Most people seek out social contacts in order to have "company" during leisure hours. They want their leisure time to be pleasant, fun, amusing and light. "Heavy-trippers", those seeking relationships which are so blatantly directed at fulfilling self-revealed and acknowledged needs for social contact, quickly become uninteresting and self-preoccupied bores.

Thus, in initial encounters, approach the other person with some reserve and casualness. You can still be frank without appearing too bold. Be kind, unassuming and gentle, and remember that humor adds so much to making the whole experience pleasant and free of obvious anxiety and expectation.

This Manual has a lot to offer you. Thus, it is important that you digest all that it presents. Read the Manual again and continue to refer to it. You may find that you notice many important points on a second or third reading that you missed the first time around.

NOW, READ THE MANUAL AGAIN!

APPENDIX 10

COGNITIVE RE-ATTRIBUTION MANUAL

APPENDIX 10

MANUAL
OF
SOCIAL INTERACTION
TECHNIQUES

MANUAL OF SOCIAL INTERACTION TECHNIQUES

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INTRODUCTION

Before you entered into this program you most likely felt that your social life was on a never ending portage down the river and that there was nothing you could do about it. Many people believe that they cannot structure their own social environment because of frequent lost opportunities to make social contacts. These lost opportunities, however, are largely due to two major factors: (1) an absence of social skills or unused social skills for meeting others and maintaining contacts with them; and (2) a mental set in which people blame themselves for their failures rather than something outside the person or something that can be changed.

This manual will present you with all the necessary information designed to help you increase your social interactions and contacts with females, as well as other social contacts. It will indicate appropriate ways of interacting so that you can maximize your social functioning and so that you can relate comfortably, as often as you'd like, with whomever you'd like.

This manual consists of two major components both of which are equal in importance and both of which you should learn about to the same degree. These components are: (1) The mental set which you can change; and (2) Unproductive and productive goals and expectations.

Read this manual carefully and take full advantage of the information it offers you. As you attempt to use the information and apply the strategies presented here, remember to proceed in small steps and not to do all the things on your first try. The

most lasting changes will take place by proceeding in a step-by-step fashion. Make sure that you continue to think about the ideas presented to you in this manual. Thinking about -- mental rehearsal-- is a known significant factor in every permanent behavior change. By continually rehearsing and trying out these new ideas and ways of looking at social relationships, you will begin to change. This means active participation on your part.

You will probably need to read the manual more than once before you will digest all that it offers. You will also have to rehearse the various ideas in your mind several times before you notice that they will become a "natural" part of your thinking as you engage in various social encounters.

I. THE MENTAL SET WHICH YOU CAN CHANGE

When a person engages in any task, he asks himself two basic questions: (1) "Have I succeeded or have I failed at this task?"; and (2) "What caused my success or failure?"

The way you think about the causes of your successes and failures has a lot to do with how you feel about yourself, and how you will behave. We can refer to this process as the "mental set" which influences your level of self-esteem, self-confidence, happiness, and motivation. The particular mental set which determines your feeling either good or bad about yourself, or your being depressed, self-conscious or afraid to participate, has to do with how and to what you attribute the causes of your successes and failures.

Basically, people attribute the causes of their successes or failures to four major kinds of factors. Two of these are called "locus of control" factors; one being an internal factor and the other an external factor. An internal factor is one which is a part of the person. A person's level of ability is an internal factor. An external factor is one which is not part of the person, but rather one which is a property of anything objective or due to chance. Luck, either good or bad, is an external factor. A person's luck is outside of his own control. The other two factors are: (1) stable (unchangeable) factors; and (2) variable (changeable) factors. An example of a stable factor is the difficulty of a task -- it cannot be changed. A variable factor could be such a thing as a person's effort in particular situations. On some occasions a person may exert a lot of effort and on other occasions very little, so, effort is a changeable

factor.

People who are insecure and self-conscious tend to evaluate themselves negatively in many situations, even when they may be handling situations well. They tend to blame themselves for their failures. When they do have successful experiences, they attribute the causes of their successes to something outside of their own efforts or abilities. They don't give themselves credit when they do succeed. These people often forget that they have ever been successful. They remember their failures very clearly though, and see themselves as totally at fault. With this kind of negative mental set these people end up by feeling pretty bad about themselves.

There is another style of thinking which very confident, secure and relatively happy people use which is directly opposite to the style of insecure and self-conscious people mentioned above. A positive mental set is one which allows the person to feel good about himself. What happens differently is, a person with a positive mental set gives himself credit for his successes by attributing the causes of his successful experiences to his own abilities and efforts -- factors which are "internal" to the person. People with this positive mental set also do not blame themselves for their failures. When they have experiences of failure they attribute the cause to some "external factor". If they cannot find an external factor to explain realistically their failure, people with a positive mental set say "well, I guess I didn't try hard enough, next time I'll try harder", thus they give themselves another chance, instead of blaming themselves as if things could not ever change.

Having a positive mental set is very important for helping you to feel good about yourself when you are interacting socially. Take some time and think about how you attribute the causes of your successful experiences and your failure experiences. Stop after some of your experiences and examine what you are saying to yourself. Are you blaming yourself for your failures? Are you saying to yourself that things will never be any different? STOP this kind of thinking! There may be many many other reasons why a particular social experience may not turn out the way you would like it to. Many of these reasons have nothing to do with you; many of them are external circumstances over which you have no control. The other fact is, some experiences may not work out simply because you did not try hard enough to use the skills and abilities you have.

Some new ways of looking at social relationships

There are always occasions upon which a person has unpleasant experiences or has not been successful in the goal he has set up for himself. This will happen to you too! What is important is that you find some reasonable and realistic way of attributing these "failure" experiences so that you do not become discouraged and feel upset about yourself.

The kinds of situations you might run into cannot all be foreseen and forewarned about here. There are certain general categories, however, which may account for many experiences you will encounter in terms of how you might attribute the causes of your successes and failures in social relationships.

(1) Social Skill: A person's level of social skill in asking someone out, or in communicating interest and liking has a lot to do with how he comes across to another person. Some people give the impression that they aren't very interested in speaking to or getting together with the other by being too casual in how they come across. Other people tend to be brash and arrogant in social encounters, and usually scare or turn the other person off. The appropriate social skills for being perceived and received in a positive way are skills that need to be practiced and tried out in various situations. If a particular approach does not go over very well with a particular person, or in a particular situation, then perhaps the approach needs to be changed, and a new skill practiced and used. Before automatically thinking that it is you that the other person doesn't like, you should consider first, "What was it about the way in which I came across that communicated something unfavourable, unpleasant, or questionable?" It is important to remember that often, when unsuccessful results are obtained in social interactions, had the request been phrased differently, or had the style of communication, or the nonverbal cues, been altered, the interaction would have been looked upon differently and the result would have been more favourable.

(2) Social History: As a general rule, the more people know each other, the greater the chances are that social interactions will turn out favourably. Usually people are reluctant to get involved in relationships with strangers or people with whom they have had few or minimal social interactions. This is true

in almost all social contexts. In situations where the initial interaction is not very positive, when the two people have had an opportunity to become better acquainted, the interaction turns out to be very different. The absence of social history between two people, and not any absolute degree of liking of one for the other may be what causes an unfavourable interaction.

(3) Availability: The extent to which a person is available for a social interaction, a future meeting, a date, or a relationship, has a lot to do with whether your interaction with that person turns out the way you would like it to.

Imagine the following situation: At a party, you begin talking with someone with whom you have had brief but friendly verbal interchanges in the past. You both seem to be hitting it off well and you ask her if she would like to accompany you to a social event next week. She replies that she is busy that day and thanks you for the invitation. She does not specify what she is doing that day, but simply says that she won't be able to make it. What should you infer from that? Does it mean that she's not interested in you and simply is offering convenient excuses? This is only one possibility. There are many other reasons why she has refused your request which have nothing to do with you as a person. For example, maybe she is going steady, or attached in some other way which you simply do not know about, either because you have not asked, or she has not offered such information about herself. Perhaps she has already made plans for that night which she cannot change. Next time you could have some alternatives in terms of time and what you might do, if you really wanted to arrange a date with her. Maybe she has seen, or does not go for

the movie you have suggested, or the plans you have offered. Next time, have alternative suggestions. In a large majority of circumstances, the availability of the other person to respond to your social contact, request, and plan plays a role in determining whether or not such social transactions turn out favourably.

(4) Personal Need Orientation: The personal need orientation of the other also has to be considered. People differ widely. They differ in terms of just what it is "they're into", not only at any particular moment from day to day, but with respect to their own personal, social and emotional development. While you may indeed have valued personal resources to offer, it is very often the case that the other person's need orientation at that time does not coincide with yours and what you have to offer.

It is important to remember that sometimes when social interactions do not turn out the way you would like them to it may simply be because the other person is into something else, at that particular time. This does not mean that you should give up however.

Try again with someone else, and perhaps even at a later time with a particular person who was in a different space once, but may be where you are at now.

Trying Harder

While the above four categories provide explanation for why social encounters do not always turn out the way a person would like, there is another very important fact which accounts for failures in social interactions. Many people simply give

up quickly and easily after only one unfortunate, unfavourable experience. Because they give up so easily these people never give themselves the opportunity to find out that social encounters and interpersonal transactions can indeed be very rewarding. If people would not give up, but instead try again, and try harder on future occasions, they would open up for themselves a whole new world.

By working on your social skills, by trying out different approaches in various situations, by meeting and interacting with a lot of new and interesting social contacts, you can gain self-confidence and feel good about yourself. However, this means trying hard. If you find that you are unsatisfied with your social relationships, and the external circumstances do not account for your dissatisfaction, then you have to try harder to make your social life what you would like it to be.

II. UNPRODUCTIVE AND PRODUCTIVE GOALS AND EXPECTATIONS

People everywhere are filled with irrational beliefs and these irrational beliefs are the root cause of a great deal of the emotional upset in people today. As Albert Ellis maintains in his RET, it is not other people or other things that are the cause of emotional upset and disturbance, it is the view that people take of these things. Therefore, people can significantly reduce the amount of emotional upset that accompanies unfortunate experiences by learning how to perceive them correctly and by learning how to adopt a more healthy view of them.

Shy people hold a number of irrational and unproductive beliefs which not only perpetuates their anxiety and self-consciousness, but which also serve as the severest road blocks against changing and trying new more adaptive modes of behavior.

Unproductive Beliefs

1. WHEN I AM AT A SOCIAL GATHERING, PARTY OR DANCE, IF I HANG AROUND LONG ENOUGH SOMETHING WILL HAPPEN.

2. MOST PEOPLE ARE LUCKY... THEY GET ALL THE BREAKS, THEY ARE POPULAR AND GET INVITED OUT.

3. THE ODDS OF FINDING SOMEONE WHO WILL BE INTERESTED AND ATTRACTED TO ME ARE ALWAYS THE SAME, NO MATTER WHERE I AM.

Productive Beliefs

1. I'VE GOT TO BE ACTIVE IN GETTING WHAT I WANT FROM SOCIAL SITUATIONS.

2. I HAVE TO CREATE MY OWN OPPORTUNITIES AND ARRANGE MY OWN SOCIAL ENVIRONMENTS. I MUST TAKE THE STEPS TO CONTACT PEOPLE, TO GO OUT AND INITIATE.

3. MY "CHANCES" OF MAKING A FAVOURABLE IMPRESSION WITH A PERSON ARE NOT FIXED AND STABLE. IF I DON'T GET WHAT I WANT ON THE FIRST OCCASION I MUST GO OUT AND TRY AGAIN.

Unproductive Beliefs

4. IF SOMEONE DOESN'T SHOW THEY LIKE ME RIGHT AWAY THEY REALLY DON'T LIKE ME AND WILL NEVER LIKE ME.

5. IF I AM REALLY GOING TO MAKE IT WITH SOMEONE, THEN WE'LL MEET AND BOTH KNOW IT AND IT WON'T BE ANY PROBLEM.

6. IF I ASK A GIRL OUT AND SHE TURNS ME DOWN, IT IS BECAUSE I AM NOT WORTHWHILE OR GOOD ENOUGH FOR HER.

Productive Beliefs

4. LIKING FOR ANOTHER OFTEN TAKES PLACE ON THE BASIS OF SOCIAL HISTORY. IT IS RARE FOR A PERSON TO DISCLOSE LIKING AND INTEREST IN THE OTHER FOLLOWING THE FIRST BRIEF INTERCHANGE.

5. WAITING FOR "LOVE AT FIRST SIGHT" WILL PREVENT ME FROM MAKING AN EFFORT TO INITIATE CONTACTS, ESTABLISH FRIENDSHIPS, AND MAINTAIN SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS.

6. MOST REASONS WHY DATES ARE TURNED DOWN HAVE NOTHING TO DO WITH ME AS A PERSON. USUALLY IT IS BECAUSE OF SOME EXTERNAL CIRCUMSTANCE THAT I DO NOT KNOW ABOUT, OR PERHAPS I JUST DID NOT TRY HARD ENOUGH AT BEING SOCIALLY SKILLED.

It is important to remember that simply having discovered an avenue for meeting people is no guarantee that you will automatically meet new people and make new acquaintances, or that by simply presenting yourself in a social situation everything will fall into place. First of all you must hold expectations that are realistic, and set goals that correspond with the skills you have for the social contexts available. Then, you must invest in a variety of social avenues and possibilities for interpersonal contact. Do not place all your eggs in one basket. This means that you will have to put a real effort into making your own social environment and social life satisfying for you.

This Manual has a lot to offer you. Thus, it is important that you digest all that it presents. Read the Manual again and continue to refer to it. You may find that you notice many important points on a second or third reading that you missed the first time around.

NOW, READ THE MANUAL AGAIN!

APPENDIX 11

COMBINED SKILLS AND RE-ATTRIBUTION
MANUAL

APPENDIX 11

MANUAL
OF
SOCIAL INTERACTION
TECHNIQUES

MANUAL OF SOCIAL INTERACTION TECHNIQUES

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INTRODUCTION

Before you entered into this program you most likely felt that your social life was on a never ending portage down the river and that there was nothing you could do about it. Many people believe that they cannot structure their own social environment because of frequent lost opportunities to make social contacts. These lost opportunities, however, are largely due to two major factors: (1) an absence of social skills or unused social skills for meeting others and maintaining contacts with them; and (2) a mental set in which people blame themselves for their failures rather than something outside the person or something that can be changed.

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This manual consists of six major components all of which are equal in importance and all of which you should learn about to the same degree. These cover: (1) The mental set which you can change; (2) Where to go to meet people; (3) Techniques of communication; (4) Verbal and nonverbal components of skilled behavior; (5) Additional strategies of interpersonal interaction; and (6) Unproductive and productive goals and expectations.

Read this manual carefully and take full advantage of the information it offers you. As you attempt to use the information and apply the strategies presented here, remember to proceed in small steps and not to do all the things on your first try. The most lasting changes will take place by proceeding in a step-by-step fashion. Make sure that you continually rehearse the techniques presented to you in this manual. Rehearsal is a known significant factor in every permanent behavior change. By continually rehearsing and making use of these available opportunities and techniques you will begin to change. This means active participation on your part.

You will probably need to read the manual more than once before you will digest all that it offers. You will also have to rehearse the various techniques in your mind several times prior to going out and doing it on your own. You will find that by using the opportunity to rehearse these skills mentally, you will begin to feel more comfortable with them and they will become a "natural" part of your routine behavior.

I. THE MENTAL SET WHICH YOU CAN CHANGE

When a person engages in any task, he asks himself two basic questions: (1) "Have I succeeded or have I failed at this task?"; and (2) "What caused my success or failure?"

The way you think about the causes of your successes and failures has a lot to do with how you feel about yourself, and how you will behave. We can refer to this process as the "mental set" which influences your level of self-esteem, self-confidence, happiness, and motivation. The particular mental set which determines your feeling either good or bad about yourself, or your being depressed, self-conscious or afraid to participate, has to do with how and to what you attribute the causes of your successes and failures.

Basically, people attribute the causes of their successes or failures to four major kinds of factors. Two of these are called "locus of control" factors; one being an internal factor and the other an external factor. An internal factor is one which is a part of the person. A person's level of ability is an internal factor. An external factor is one which is not part of the person, but rather one which is a property of anything objective or due to chance. Luck, either good or bad, is an external factor. A person's luck is outside of his own control. The other two factors are: (1) stable (unchangeable) factors; and (2) variable (changeable) factors. An example of a stable factor is the difficulty of a task -- it cannot be changed. A variable factor could be such a thing as a person's effort in particular situations. On some occasions a person may exert a lot of effort and on other occasions very little, so, effort is a changeable

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Some new ways of looking at social relationships

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By working on your social skills, by trying out different approaches in various situations, by meeting and interacting with a lot of new and interesting social contacts, you can gain self-confidence and feel good about yourself. However, this means trying hard. If you find that you are unsatisfied with your social relationships, and the external circumstances do not account for your dissatisfaction, then you have to try harder to make your social life what you would like it to be.

II. WHERE TO MEET PEOPLE

The first consideration you must make is: (1) what kinds of people do you want to meet? Often this question is coupled with a second important consideration: (2) what kinds of things do you like to do? Once you have determined these two things for yourself, you can then proceed to find those places where you are most likely to meet those people and do those things you like to do.

There are numerous categories of places to meet people depending on what you are looking for. The important thing is to place yourself in appropriate situations so that you maximize your opportunities for meeting the kinds of people you want to interact with. For example, if you like music and dancing, an appropriate place for you to go might be a nightclub or disco-bar. If your music and dancing tastes are along a different line, you might prefer to join a square dancing club, or a modern dancing class. If your interests are more along the athletic line you might decide to join a tennis club or a ski club. By examining where your interests are, and by approaching your potential meeting places in this way, you know that others who are there also have a similar interest; that is, you already have something in common before you begin. A built in secondary gain is that you have a ready made topic of conversation -- your mutual interest.

At the same time, however, you must also consider what kinds of people you want to meet and interact with. You do not want to join a club only to find that all the other members are either male, or over 60 years old, or couples. Determining the

kinds of people you want to meet plays as vital a role in where you choose to go as does your interest areas.

You must put a real effort into investigating all the possible opportunities for meeting people and arranging satisfying situations for yourself. At first the task may seem difficult, but if you try hard enough you can easily set up many social contacts.

Use your resources to investigate all possibilities before you embark upon a meeting place. There are all kinds of potential opportunities available in your community. Look at newspapers for listings of interest course offerings, or entertainment facilities. Don't hesitate to use the telephone and telephone book to do some research for yourself. Find out what sports clubs are available. Check out membership fees, age and sex of members, times when it is open, etc. See if you can be put on a mailing list of places that have ongoing and varying activity schedules so you can keep up with what is going on. All of this information is exceedingly important for your decision. You not only need to be sure you have set up an appropriate situation for yourself, you also want to be sure that whatever activities you choose to engage in fit into your schedule.

The place where you work or where you attend classes also has several opportunities open for you to make social contacts. Usually there is someone or some office responsible for social clubs, activities, organizations, leisure and sports groups. Ask someone where you might obtain all the necessary information concerning these social club and activity groups. Get this information and start making enquiries.

Most places of employment and most certainly at school, there are a number of allotted periods of time between classes, or for coffee breaks and for lunch. It is during these periods that you also have a good opportunity to make social contacts. Usually, the coffee shop, cafeteria, or local eating spot may provide this. These definitely are times and places that ought to be taken advantage of. Crowded areas where the allocation of space is at a premium provide you with excellent opportunities to approach someone without having it appear as if you are intentionally trying to "hustle". In such situations you can go up to someone and ask: "Hi, do you mind if I sit here?", or "Excuse me, is this seat taken? Do you mind if I sit with you?" During the summer time, many people take their lunch outside and eat at picnic tables or on the grass. Often, people do not want to eat in the cafeteria, but prefer to go to good but inexpensive restaurants not far from where they work. By looking hard enough you will be able to find opportunities for making social contacts that will be satisfying for you.

To help you out with some of this information we have provided a list of some of the discotheques, pubs and recreation facilities in the city and surrounding areas. This list is by no means exhaustive of the possibilities open to you, but merely provides some information which, hopefully, will serve as a useful guide of the kinds of information you may wish to continue to obtain for yourself.

Remember, you must put a real effort into setting up potentially satisfying social encounters for yourself. If you find that your social contacts are not to your liking, it may be that the kinds of situations you arrange for yourself are not what you want or need. Take some time and put some work into investigating what you want and where you can get it.

Some Potential Places to meet PeopleDiscotheques:

Name: L'Auberge du Château
Le Chateau Discobar
Location: 61 Principale, Aylmer, P.Q.
Phone: 684-3222
Hours: 8:30 p.m. - 3:00 a.m. every day
Cover Charge: None
Dress: Casual - no jeans
Age Group: Approximately 18 - 25 years

Name: Le Zodiac
Location: 77 Wellington, Hull
Phone: 771-9813
Hours: 8:00 p.m. - 3:00 a.m. every day
Cover Charge: Friday and Saturday only \$1.00
Dress: Casual, No Jeans
Age Group: Approximately 20 - 40 years
-usually a line up on Thursday, Friday, Saturday and Sunday,
especially after 10 p.m.
-must KNOCK for door man to let you in

Name: Le Soleil
Location: 37 Montcalm, Hull
Phone: 771-0396
Hours: 8:30 p.m. - 3:00 a.m. every day
Cover Charge: Friday and Saturday \$1.00
Sunday - sometimes 50¢ or \$1.00
Dress: Casual - jeans allowed
Age Group: Approximately 20 - 30 years

Name: The Diplomat
Location: 1 Montcalm, Hull
Phone: 771-6677
Hours: 8:00 p.m. - 3:00 a.m. every day
Cover Charge: Saturday and Sunday only \$1.00
Dress: Casual - no jeans
Age Group: Approximately 18 - 30 years

Name: Sly Fox Tavern - Restaurant and Disco
Location: 1820 Carling Avenue, Ottawa
Phone: 722-7658
Hours: Monday - Saturday 7:00 p.m. - 1:00 a.m.
Cover Charge: Monday - Wednesday: no charge
Thursday: \$1.00
Friday - Saturday: \$2.00
Dress: Casual - no jeans on weekends
Age Group: 18 - 25 years

Name: Talk of the Town - Sweetheart Disco
Location: Place Bell Canada
Gloucester at Metcalfe, Ottawa
Phone: 238-6353
Hours: Friday and Saturday 12:00 p.m. - 1:00 a.m.
Monday - Thursday 12:00 p.m. - 12:00 a.m.
(Music starts 8:30 p.m.)
Cover Charge: none
Dress: Casual, no jeans
Age Group: 30 years and up

Name: Sacs Disco Bar
Location: 117 Principale, Hull
Phone: 771-0881
Hours: Monday - Thursday: 9:00 p.m. - 3:00 a.m.
Friday, Saturday and Sunday: 8:00 p.m. - 3:00 a.m.
Cover Charge: Friday and Saturday only \$1.00
Dress: Casual - no jeans
Age Group: Approximately 20 - 40 years

Name: Holiday Inn - The Room Upstairs
(Live Entertainment, Bar, Dancing, More quiet)
Location: 100 Kent Street, Ottawa
Phone: 238-1122
Hours: Monday - Saturday: 6:00 p.m. - 1:00 a.m.
Cover Charge: none
Dress: Casual - no jeans - semi formal
Age Group: Mixed and varies 20 - 50 years

Name: Holiday Inn - The Blind Pig
Location: 100 Kent Street, Ottawa
Phone: 238-1122
Hours: Monday - Friday: 12:00 p.m. - 1:00 a.m.
Saturday: 6:00 p.m. - 1:00 a.m.
Cover Charge: none
Dress: all types allowed but must be neat
Age Group: varies and mixed 20 - 50 years
by night

Name: Cock & Lion Chateau Laurier
(Dancing & Bar begins 8:30 p.m.) (Live Ent.)
Location: Chateau Laurier Hotel
Phone: 232-6411
Hours: Monday - Saturday 12:00 noon - 1:00 a.m.
(Lunch from 11:30 - 2:30 only)
Cover Charge: Thursday, Friday Saturday \$1.00
Dress: no jeans, semi formal
Age Group: mixed 20 - 50

Name: Skyline Hotel: Stop 26
Dancing and Live Entertainment 9:00 p.m.
Location: 101 Lyon Street
Phone: 237-3600
Hours: Monday - Friday 12:00 noon - 1:00 a.m.
Saturday 7:00 p.m. - 1:00 a.m.
Cover Charge: none
Dress: after 6 no jeans
semi formal
Age Group: 30 average
range 18 - 60

Name: Inn of the Provinces--Le Quadrille
Location: 360 Sparks Street
Phone: 238-6000
Hours: Monday - Saturday 8:30 p.m. - 1:00 a.m.
Cover Charge: none
Dress: no jeans
Age: 18 - 25

Name: Talisman Motor Inn- Beach Comber
Location: 1376 Carling
Phone: 722-7601
Hours: Monday - Friday 7:00 p.m. - 1:00 a.m.
Saturday 7:00 p.m. - 12:00 a.m.
Cover charge: none
Dress: no jeans
-live Entertainment and dancing

Ottawa University Pubs & Discos

Name: Charriot Disco
Location: Cafeteria Unicenter
Phone: 231-7000 Information
Hours: Thursday, Friday, Saturday 8:30 p.m. - 1:00 a.m.
Cover Charge: Students with I.D. 50¢
Others \$1.25
Dress: casual - jeans allowed
Age Group: 18 - 30 years

Name: The Blue Room - Pub
Location: Marchand Residence
Phone: 231-5400
Hours: Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday 8:30 a.m. - 1:00 a.m.
Cover Charge: Students with I.D. 50¢
Others \$1.25
Dress: Casual - jeans allowed
Age Group: 18 - 30 years

Name: Carleton University Pub
Location: University Center, Ground Floor
Phone: 231-4380
Hours: Monday - Friday 12:00 noon - 1:00 a.m.
Saturday 8:00 p.m. - 1:00 a.m.
Cover Charge: Thursday, Friday & Saturday:
Carleton Univ. Students with I.D. card 75¢
Guest of Carleton Univ. Student \$2.00
-**must be sponsored/accompanied by Carleton Student
-not open to general public
-usually can meet up with student if you go and
stand in corridor outside pub
Dress: casual - jeans allowed
Age Group: 18 - 30 years
Live Entertainment Thursday, Friday & Saturday

Name: The Hayloft - Pub Tavern
Location: 200 Rideau Street, Ottawa
Phone: 232-0823
Hours: Monday - Saturday 12:00 noon - 1:00 a.m.
Sunday 12:00 noon - 10:00 p.m. must eat - terrace
Cover Charge: none
Dress: casual - jeans allowed
Age Group: 18 - 40 years

Clubs and Recreation Facilities

Name: Pinecrest Indoor Tennis Club

Location: 1080 Morrison Drive

Phone: 828-9771

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Fees:      Membership--Single, male--$135.00
              female--$105.00
              under 21 --$ 70.00
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Public Tennis Courts:

Ottawa--563-3222

Nepean--825-5151.

Mooney's Bay Sports Complex

Riverside Drive

Phone: 731-4684

Nepean Sportsplex

1701 Woodroffe Avenue

Ottawa

Phone: 825-5151

City of Ottawa Recreation & Parks

Phone: 563-3222

YMCA -- 180 Argyle Street
YWCA

YWCA -- 180 Arl
Ottawa

Phone: 237-1320

Information: 237-7652

Camp Y Ski & Conference center: 832-1234 or 237-1320

III. TECHNIQUES OF COMMUNICATION

Once you have arrived at your chosen spot, what you want to do is to meet people, and particularly to meet females with whom you may have friendly and rewarding social interactions.

Although there are certain basic steps one needs to go through in any social interaction, these required techniques differ depending upon the circumstance and the context. Basically, these techniques are:

- (1) When and how to approach someone.
- (2) Initiating a conversation.
- (3) Maintaining a conversation.
- (4) Terminating a conversation.
- (5) Making arrangements for future meetings. (Optional)

It is important to remember that appropriate execution of each of these five skills is governed by the context. What might be very appropriate in one situation may not be so in another. It is also important that you remember to proceed in small steps. Although all the techniques are provided for you here, don't try to engage them all on the first occasion. Think about these five steps separately and practice them individually until you feel comfortable with them collectively and they become a natural part of your behavioral repertoire.

It is also a good idea to separate for yourself times and places where you will practice these techniques from times and places where you actually put them to use. You want to practice in a "safe" situation because, as with every new skill that you must learn, you will have to go through more than simply one

"trial" before it becomes a natural part of your behavior. You don't learn to ride a bicycle on your first attempt. It takes several trials before the skills involved become an unconscious habit. A safe place to practice some of these communication skills might be with good friends or family. Then, when you feel comfortable with them you can try them out in a situation with new acquaintances. These situations too can be viewed as trials, because with every new acquaintance you will become more proficient and at ease with regard to initiating and engaging in social contacts. Remember, proceed in a step-by-step fashion and practice and rehearse the skills you want to acquire.

(1) When and how to approach someone

In the past you most likely attained the majority of your social contacts by being introduced to someone by a mutual friend. This is one mode of meeting people. However, to rely on this alone seriously limits the people you will meet because you have to wait to be introduced to someone. The focus of your behavior change in this regard is on you taking action and making initial contacts.

You want to maximize the number of opportunities you will have to approach someone. This can be done by setting up or structuring the circumstance in such a way that you will, in the majority of instances, get the other person to respond to you. Again, when to approach someone is also context dependent. While it might be very appropriate to ask your classmate to join you for a cup of coffee during coffee break on the first or second

class meeting, it would be quite inappropriate to approach her with the idea of asking her to go to a movie with you that night. The point here is, on initiating an approach to someone, it is better to do so under a pretext surrounding a more impersonal issue with regard to the context in which you already find yourself (i.e., school--homework, office--coffee break), even though at some future time your motive is to relate on a more social-personal level. Be careful not to come on too strong on the first occasion. Lunch breaks, coffee breaks, and the like usually reflect interruptions in normal work and school patterns. Unlike the discotheque scene where individuals go to specifically meet potential dating partners, many people may be unprepared to deal with the idea of "making arrangements for a date" during a coffee break, at least as far as behaving in a manner similar to the way in which you might behave in a discotheque or single's bar. Consequently, your approach to making an acquaintance during lunch or coffee break must be more gradual and appear innocuous. In any situation a strong come-on is more likely to result in negative returns for you, because, in our society, others find it difficult and threatening to respond to a strong and direct initial approach.

Do not expect that every approach you make to someone will turn out favourably for you, because you are bound to run into people who are simply not very friendly or responsive. Perhaps they have had an off day or are preoccupied with something they are thinking about. The important thing to remember is, if you

do not receive a favorable response on approaching someone, try again with someone else. It is only by trying again that you will meet someone who will respond to your approach.

(2) How to initiate a conversation with a stranger

There are various and unique ways of initiating conversations in order for you to get to know someone. There are some standard and straightforward initiating "rituals" which can be used reliably in most situations. There are other initiating remarks which are less universal and reliable and which you may wish to employ as you become more practiced in these skills. Again, a particular opening remark must be given in the right place and the right time for it to be appropriate. Ultimately you want to be able to initiate conversations with a variety of people in a variety of situations. This skill will become more natural for you as you practice and rehearse these techniques. Remember to take one step at a time. There are however, some basic guidelines for initiating conversations which tend to be universally applicable and appropriate, and also most likely to result in a rewarding exchange.

There are various ways in which to begin a conversation. However, the first thing you should do is to get the other person's attention. You can do this by first of all establishing eye contact, if the person is facing you, and then wait for some acknowledgement in terms of a return in eye contact. Be prepared for the fact that these may be extremely brief glances and that the only requirement is that you communicate to the other person that you are there, not that you start to stare at one another.

The return in eye contact is designed to provide you with acknowledgement of the fact that both of you have recognized each other's presence. It means no more than that. You may even find that a person glances at you for one second only, and then averts her gaze or looks away. However, that brief glance is still acknowledgement of your presence. The fact that the glance is brief does not mean that she is not interested in pursuing a conversation with you.

Usually, the first thing that you would say to someone is "Hi". This can usually stand by itself, in which case you have to wait for the person to reply with a similar "Hello". Alternatively, you may begin a conversation and expect an interchange which might go like this:

You: "Hi, how are you?"

She: "Hi, oh, fine thanks." (Do not necessarily expect a "... and how are you?").

You: "My name is John, what's yours?"

She: "Mary". (Very simple and straightforward, you have no reason to expect anything greater than this as a reply).

You: "Hi Mary, nice to meet you! Do you come here very often?"

She: "Oh, about every second weekend or so".

You: "Really! Gee, this is the first time I've been to this place. I think it's pretty good. How do you like it?"

She: "I like it a lot too. The music is great!...Where are you from John?"

You: "I'm from Ottawa. How about you, are you from Ottawa too?"

She: "Yes, I've lived here most of my life."

This conversation represents a typical method of initiating a conversation comprising the following elements:

- (1) getting the other person's attention
- (2) saying hello
- (3) introducing yourself
- (4) asking innocuous questions regarding the context in which you both find yourselves.

After initial opening remarks are made, the conversation will proceed as each of you "hook into" the cues given by the other. This will be discussed further in the section on maintaining a conversation. Keep in mind that the above example is a typical method of initiating a conversation. It is also a reliable way to begin to get to know someone because it is designed to result in maximum returns for you. As you become practiced in this method and more socially skilled, you may want to try other ways of initiating conversations which involve more risk because you are less sure of how the other person will respond to you.

Some examples of other ways to initiate conversations have been offered by Eileen Gambril, a researcher in the area of social skills. These include:

- (1) Comment upon or ask a question about the situation or mutual activity that you are both involved in.
- (2) Make an observation about, or ask a question regarding what the other person is doing.
- (3) Ask another person for information, help, advice, an opinion, etc.

- (4) Offer a compliment to the other person regarding some aspect of their appearance, etc.
- (5) Offer something to another.

It must be remembered that there are both appropriate and inappropriate ways of "carrying-off" all of the above suggestions and that each is appropriate depending upon the people involved and the particular situation. You are best advised to practice these other techniques after you feel comfortable with the standard approach.

It is also important to remember that learning any new behavior, such as initiating conversations with others, whether they be strangers or acquaintances, requires planning and rehearsal of the techniques, before you actually put them to use.

You will find that many of these skills may at first seem foreign to you and will require a lot of effort to put into use. However, the more you actually practice and use these different skills, the more they will come naturally. If you are not pleased with your first attempts at engaging these skills, do not become discouraged. Keep trying and practicing until they become an unconscious habit.

(3) Maintaining a conversation

In order to keep a conversation going, there must be a mutual exchange of information. The best way to attain this exchange is by asking questions and providing answers. Your cue for what to say next is provided either by the response you receive from the other person, or by your original statement or question.

In other words, the person who hears your question must answer. This answer might provide you with some information that you can "hook into" and pursue via further comments and questions. If the answer you receive does not present you with this opportunity, you can rely on standard "free information" which can serve as questions to continue the conversation. When a person replies to questions, they often volunteer and give away a lot of "free information" about themselves. That is, information concerning where they live, grew up, went to school, worked, etc. By listening carefully, you can pursue the conversation along lines of the free information that the person has revealed. It is also important that you reveal something about yourself which the other person can hook into and serve as a basis for their continuing their conversation with you. To keep a conversation going is a two way street. If you are the only one asking all the questions and receiving short and lean replies, you would soon become bored and disinterested. It would be very difficult to continue a conversation in this way. You too have to carry your share of the responsibility for maintaining a conversation. This is usually best accomplished by first of all listening closely to what the other person says, and then making your replies and questions an extension of their comments or questions.

These basic procedures follow for any level of conversation, whether it be light and impersonal or highly intimate.

There are several other important aspects of conversational techniques. Some of these will be discussed in more detail in a later section. However, they will be mentioned briefly here,

since they are relevant aspects of maintaining any conversation.

Firstly, it is important that you orient your body toward, and look at the person with whom you are conversing. These characteristics convey that you are interested in what the other person has to say. Secondly, be sure you are able to hear one another as you speak. Sometimes this depends upon your own loudness or softness of voice. On the other hand, it may also depend, at times, upon external circumstances such as the blarring music in a night club which may make conversing without yelling extremely difficult, if not impossible. A third consideration is that you relax and wait for the other person to finish what they have to say. Until you become more and more practiced at engaging in these techniques you will initially be somewhat anxious and thus have a tendency to "rush" the conversation. It is important that you do not make numerous interruptions or cut off what the other person is saying, because you will only eventually extinguish the other person's talking. Remember to relax and wait until the other serson has completed their comments or questions. Finally, do not monopolize the conversation by going into great detail in response to a question. Your contribution to the conversation should contain adequate information to maintain the theme or topic in terms of self disclosure. It must also be balanced in regard to what the other person has offered.

Another tactic which will be to your benefit is to have readily available to yourself a number of topics of conversation.

This requires some planning on your part as well as some rehearsal as to what kinds of things you can bring to these potential conversations. For example, one possible topic might be your recent vacation out West. You could then prepare and rehearse what parts of your vacation you could discuss, i.e., places you went, what you saw, how you enjoyed the trip, etc. This will take some work on your part, to get various topics together and rehearse them so that you can use them readily.

During the initial stages of a conversation no one is interested in getting into any "heavy topics". The topics of conversation should be casual and light. Possible areas to focus on include: (1) where the person works; (2) where they live; (3) how long they have lived there and how long they have worked there; (4) any hobbies, interests or athletic activities they participate in.

A general guideline to remember in maintaining a conversation is that you can usually pursue a topic along lines of conversation generated from the answers given to questions. You may however, want to change a particular topic. This too must be done at an appropriate break in the ongoing conversation. Wait for a pause which indicates a natural break in the conversation. You can introduce a new topic in a variety of ways. Something in the original conversation may spark an idea or connection for you and you could say so as you bring in the new topic. You could say something like, "Gee, speaking of skiing, what are the conditions like this season? I haven't been out on the hills yet." At other times you may simply want to terminate a topic, either

because you have no interest in it, or because it is becoming too "heavy". In this case you can simply say something like, "This sounds like it's getting pretty deep, let's talk about something lighter. What do you think about..."? Having a number of ready topics which you have thought about ahead of time, will be helpful in case you get trapped into one topic or run out of things to say.

Remember to practice these techniques gradually and take one step at a time. After you feel comfortable with one step, you can proceed to the other techniques. The basic steps involved in maintaining a conversation are:

- (1) listen carefully and "hook into" the basic theme of the conversation.
- (2) ask questions and provide answers relevant to the conversation.
- (3) pay attention to your body orientation and voice loudness as you speak; make eye contact with the other person.
- (4) do not interrupt.
- (5) have several available topics of conversation ready.

Do not expect that all of your conversations will run smoothly at first. It will take a lot of effort and many trials of practice before you will feel entirely comfortable engaging in conversations that last for more than a few brief comments. Be assured, however, that if you do continue to practice the skills presented to you here, that you will eventually feel completely at ease with maintaining a conversation with another person.

(4) How to terminate a conversation

There are certain strategies that you can use that are a social and courteous part of terminating any conversation. Your goal is to close the conversation; to stop talking with that particular person to whom you are speaking, and to take your leave without the person thinking that you have lost interest in them, that you are discouraged by the feedback they have failed to give, or that you find someone else more interesting. Remember, you not only will find yourself in situations where you will want to terminate a conversation you do not find enjoyable, you also want to be able to close conversations which you find pleasant but must terminate because of time commitments elsewhere, or because the conversation has exhausted itself. You want to accomplish such terminations smoothly. You do not want to do this abruptly or in a rude manner. There are various techniques you can practice to do so.

You are not ever under any obligation to provide a reason for your leave taking. Your goal is simply to say "goodbye" at that particular time and you can accomplish this simply by saying, during an appropriate break, "Excuse me, but I have to go now", and then be on your way. Don't linger around or hesitate, since you only give mixed messages about your leaving, and thus leave open the opportunity for others to convince you to stay. In some situations this simple statement may serve as adequate. However, in other situations it may appear too abrupt. Thus, to make the transition somewhat smoother, and in situations where you have enjoyed the conversation, you could add a compliment and

say something like:

"Excuse me, I'd really like to continue this conversation, but I have a meeting to attend, (or a bus to catch, or a doctor's appointment), in five minutes and I must get going".

or

"Gee, I've really enjoyed talking with you, but I really must be on my way now".

If you are in such a situation that you are likely to run into the person again, perhaps at work or in class, you could add to the above a comment such as:

"...perhaps we can continue this at coffee break (or tomorrow, or when I see you next time)".

There will be occasions when those you may be speaking with attempt to convince you to stay or pursue the conversation. Remember that your goal is to terminate the conversation and this sometimes requires a clear "no" in response to others attempts to prevent you from leaving. This too can be done in such a way that you come across as firm but not harsh. By repeating that you clearly are leaving and using "no" in your statement, you can ease yourself out of a difficult situation. For example:

You: "Excuse me, but I must be on my way now".

Other: "Oh, just stay for another cup of coffee".

You: "No, thank you, I really have to go now".

Make sure you also give the message that you are leaving by physically making moves to go, including moving your body away from the other person, standing up, or getting your coat, ---whatever the case may be.

Be sure to practice these different techniques, perhaps with friends, before you attempt to use them with new acquaintances or in new situations. You are bound to experience a variety of situations which range from very easily terminated, to very difficult to terminate. This is why practice and rehearsal are extremely important factors in acquiring these skills as a natural part of your behavior. If you practice these techniques and work hard at trying to use them, they will eventually become very natural to you. If you find that you are not comfortable terminating conversations, it is because you have not tried hard enough to practice these skills.

(5) How to make arrangements for future meetings

We usually understand by a "date" that it is a definite time allocation with the other person, somewhere in the future, where both of you will meet and interact together. Making arrangements for future meetings, however, does not necessarily have to fall exclusively in the typical domain of a "date". You may, for example, be engaged in a very interesting and pleasant conversation with someone, but the situation is either too noisy, or either you or the other person must leave because of other commitments. In this case, you may simply want to express that you would like to get together with the person to continue this conversation.

Making an arrangement for a future meeting or "date" of any kind involves making very definite plans and obtaining some basic information. Many potential pleasurable interactions are lost because people simply fail to find out how to contact the person again. Once it is established that the two of you agree

to meet again sometime in the future, it is a good idea to make plans for when you will get together, as well as to offer a suggestion as to what you might do, if you have not already done so. It is also important that you get some basic information such as the persons last name and phone number. This too must be done in such a way that you do not appear as if you are coming on too strong. For example you could say:

You: "Gee, I'd really like to continue this conversation with you. Would you like to get together later this afternoon and we can finish our discussion over coffee?"

She: "Yes, that would be fun. I'd like that".

You: "Let's meet at 3:00 in the school lounge".

She: "OK, great! See you at 3:00".

If you are making a somewhat different kind of arrangement, depending upon the situation, you would proceed a bit differently. For example, if you are at a bar or a discotheque, you might want to invite a girl you have met there to join you after it closes for a pizza or a bite to eat somewhere. There are a number of ways in which you might want to make the suggestion. For example, you could select any one of the following alternatives depending upon the circumstance:

(1) "Say, you know, I'm getting a little hungry. How about going out for a pizza or a bite to eat somewhere?"

(2) "Say, are you hungry? (or, if the girl replies that she isn't, then...) All this beer drinking is making me hungry. I feel like getting a bite to eat, maybe a pizza or something. Would you like to come along and have a cup of coffee with me?"

(3) "Listen, I've got a great idea! Why don't we continue our conversation elsewhere. Let's go and get a bite to eat somewhere".

Under circumstances where you have had an opportunity to interact with the person for a period of time and on several other occasions, it may be more appropriate for you to make a direct request for a date and to arrange for future meetings of some kind. Thus, you might say:

You: "Mary, since we both enjoy tennis, would you like to get together and play tennis sometime?"

She: "Sure John, that sounds great. When?"

You: "OK, how about Tuesday evening around 7:30. Are you free then?"

She: "Yes, I'm free Tuesday evening. That sounds real good".

You: "OK, listen, let me have your phone number and I'll call you Monday to arrange to pick you up".

Now, the idea of calling her on Monday is good planning. Not only does it allow you to make arrangements at that time for how you are going to get together, it also opens the door to the possibility of what you might do if it looks like it might rain on Tuesday. Furthermore, it gives you enough time to think about what you might do after tennis. Another alternative is as follows:

You: "Mary, I'd like to see you again sometime. There is a movie playing at the Capital Theatre that I've been wanting to see. Would you like to go with me next Friday evening to see it?"

She: "Oh, what's playing?"

You: "It's XYZ with so and so in it".

She: "OK, that sounds good, I'd like to see that".

You: "Great, why don't you give me your phone number and
I'll call you during the week and arrange to pick you up?"

She: "OK, that sounds like fun.

Be sure you get her phone number, and make sure you know her last name. Write it down. Without it you won't be able to contact her. If you want to you can also get her address, however, that can be done when you call her and make arrangements to pick her up.

It is a good idea to have a number of concrete suggestions available in terms of what you might do when you meet again. This increases the chances that your invitation or request to get together will be accepted. This is also a good idea because the other person might have seen the movie you are inviting her to, or may not be interested in the concert you want to go to.

When telephoning a new acquaintance for the first time after the initial meeting, it is important that you clearly state your name, last name included, and perhaps add the reminder as to where you met. For example, you could say:

"Hi, this is John, we met at the Zodiac on Friday night".

It is important that you plan and rehearse what you are going to say when requesting a "date" or future meeting, whether it be in person, or over the telephone. Remember to make definite

plans, at definite times, and have a number of alternatives available.

There is also the possibility that the time you suggest for a future meeting will not be convenient for the other person, because of other commitments or plans she has already made. Thus, be prepared that your every request will not be accepted initially, but do not interpret this as rejection, or that she is not interested in any future contact at all. Consider that the other person may have other plans and offer an alternative time and place. If, however, you are turned down, without a reason, on three or more occasions, you should stop persisting and seek out contacts elsewhere.

You are also advised not to come on too strong, especially on initial encounters. Many people are unwilling to agree to a date or to arrange for a future meeting on the basis of a half hour conversation with a new acquaintance. So, approach and get to know a new friend casually.

It is important to remember that everybody experiences being "turned down" at various times and that this is bound to happen to you too. What is crucial, however, is that you do not let occasions of being turned down interfere with, or extinguish, any further attempts on your part to make social contacts. It is appropriate for you to feel "disappointed" when you are turned down, however, it is not appropriate for you to feel "defeated". Look upon those occasions as just "one more trial" in a series of the never ending trials of life. You learn from every trial, whether at the time you believe the outcome to be pleasant or unpleasant. Experiences of being turned down will help you to

re-examine with whom and where more successful interactions are likely to occur on your next attempt.

Remember to practice and rehearse these steps before using them for the first time. Get all the basic information you need to contact the other person. Make definite plans as to what, where and when. Be sure to have a number of ready alternatives to offer in case one does not work out. If you don't get what you want on a particular occasion, try again, and look elsewhere.

IV. VERBAL AND NONVERBAL COMPONENTS OF SKILLED BEHAVIOR

The way one sounds is as important as the way one looks, and what one says. In this section we are going to discuss those aspects of your behavior, both verbal and nonverbal, of which you are probably not even aware when interacting with other people, but which play a vital role concerning how you come across, and how you are perceived by others when engaged in any social exchange. These skills can be divided into two basic categories:

- (1) Verbalization and speech characteristics.
- (2) Body language and nonverbal characteristics.

You have already had an opportunity to see these skills portrayed on videotape by trained actors. Remember that you witnessed both appropriate and inappropriate approaches to each of the behaviors. The following discussion represents an overview of those behaviors so that they will remain fresh in your memory and are here for you to refer to.

(1) Verbalization and speech characteristics

The voice is one very crucial factor in eliciting either good responses from other people or in making them turn away, partly because the voice reflects an emotional state as well as being a barometer of one's self-confidence. Very competitive and angry people sound harsh and too loud. Shy, insecure people speak in very low tones and with low intensity. The voice also has consequences for getting people to respond to us. For example, if you speak too softly, you will not be heard, and thus no one is able to respond to you.

There are three important qualities of one's voice which account for the success or failure of communications. These are:

- (1) voice loudness
- (2) voice tone
- (3) voice modulation

You will recall, from the videotapes, that you must speak loudly enough for the other person to hear you, but not so loudly that you are yelling. The consequences for either extreme will turn out negatively for you. Either the person to whom you are directing your communication will not hear you, and thus cannot respond to you, or you will "scare" her away.

The tone of your voice also reflects your emotional state as well as indicates your interest in, and enthusiasm for, the person with whom you are interacting. A very high pitched tone can reflect nervousness or fright. A very low and flat monotone can indicate disinterest and often itself becomes boring to listen to. Some tones are nasal or whiny and also become aversive to listen to.

We also discussed speaking in a modulated voice. That is a tone of voice which is neither flat and dull, nor a tone that is high pitched and squeaky. A modulated tone is one which moves evenly up and down, not too high, not too low. Speaking with a modulated voice also shows enthusiasm. Your voice and tone is modulated when it goes up and down, emphasizing some words more than others; some words being louder, some words softer.

There are certain other characteristics of verbal behavior, other than loudness and tone of voice, which are important qualities

of communication, and which give the impression of self-confidence.

The first of these is fluency of speech. That is, does the person show anxiety when he is speaking by being repetitious or stuttering, using "ahs" or "ums" that convey uncertainty or interfere with communication? People who appear confident, self-assured, relaxed, and are perceived as not shy, speak clearly and rhythmically without the characteristics mentioned above.

There are two other characteristics of a persons speech which are important considerations when communicating. One of these is response duration, or how much you say in your responses to the other person. The other important characteristic is response latency, or how long it takes you to respond to the other persons question or comment. Recall from the videotapes that you saw, that response duration had a lot to do with showing the other person that you are interested in them, as well as in the topic of conversation. It also conveyed that the two people were not afraid to "talk" to one another, and were not anxious for the first opportunity to escape from the interaction.

When a person takes a long time to respond to another it may convey a number of things about the person. Firstly, long response latency can give the impression either that you are not interested, and are off daydreaming somewhere, that you don't know what to say next, or that you are nervous, shy, and not very confident in yourself.

These three characteristics: (1) fluency of speech; (2) how much you say (response duration); (3) how long you take to respond (response latency), have been shown to be very important

in conveying skill, assertiveness, and self-confidence.

Remember, you convey more than just words when you speak. You also convey how you feel, and give clues as to the kind of person you are by the way in which you speak. Loudness of voice, tone, modulation, speech fluency, latency and duration, all give some expression of mood, emotion, and self-confidence.

(2) Body language and nonverbal skills

Another factor which is a vital part of effective communication is body orientation when interacting with another person. Do you face the person you are speaking to, or do you stand off in such a way that she may get the impression that you are either aloof and disinterested or snotty, or that you are shy and insecure? How one stands or sits when interacting with another is important for: (1) eliciting a response from the other; and (2) how you are perceived, either as open, friendly, and interested, or shy, aloof, insecure or disinterested.

It is important that you face the person to whom you are speaking. In some instances this requires that you orient your entire body toward the other person. This is usually appropriate in very personal contacts, but is also appropriate in less intimate interactions, where your body may be oriented toward the other person, but the distance that you are apart may be greater. Sometimes, merely looking at the person, or turning your face toward the person, is all that is required, even though your entire body may be slightly to the side.

Posture is another very revealing aspect of your behavior. One's posture conveys a lot about one's mood. A slouched stance gives a depressive impression. Someone who stands or sits up

straight appears alive, alert, and happy, and at the same time can feel relaxed.

A third important aspect of your nonverbal behavior is eye contact. Maintaining eye contact with the other person as you speak shows that you are confident as well as interested. Be careful, however, that you do not stare at the other person. It is appropriate to avert your gaze now and then, as long as your main orientation is toward the person to whom you are speaking or listening. Too much eye contact may make others feel uncomfortable. On the other hand, if you constantly look down, or off to one side or the other, not only does it make it awkward for the other person to hear you (because if you are looking down you also tend to be talking down to the floor), it also gives a very strong impression that you are either uninterested in pursuing the conversation, or that you are shy and insecure.

Facial expression conveys a lot about one's mood. Depending upon the circumstances and the context, facial expression will change. It is important that you convey an appropriate facial expression to the context. For example, if you are being interviewed for a potential job, you will want to appear pleased about the possibility of getting the job, as well as pleased with yourself and your own qualifications. So, smiling would be appropriate. In a different set of circumstances you might have a different expression on your face. Smiling would not be the appropriate expression to have on your face if you were, for example, discussing your best friend's funeral arrangements.

Gesturing, usually done with your hands, also conveys a lot about how relaxed you are, how confident you are, and makes you a more interesting person to converse with.

These behavioral skills are all nonverbal. Two conversations can be exactly alike in terms of verbal content, or words, but can come across entirely differently because of the nonverbal components of the communication. Each has different consequences. On the one hand, these nonverbal skills, if not executed appropriately, can result in your being perceived as shy or insecure, or aloof, and thus interfere with potential successful social interactions. On the other hand, if done appropriately, these nonverbal skills can help you to come across as a non-shy, self-assured individual, and thus, you are likely to have more rewarding social interactions. Remember these nonverbal behaviors:

- (1) body orientation
- (2) posture
- (3) eye contact
- (4) facial expression
- (5) gestures

Eye contact expresses interest as well as self-confidence. Similarly, posture, body orientation, facial expression, and gestures, convey what kind of mood you are in, as well as how you feel about your own confidence.

It seems as if these are many components to remember and rehearse, however, if you try hard enough they will soon become a natural part of your behavior and can be carried out almost unconsciously. Practice and rehearsal will be very necessary for these nonverbal skills to become a habit.

V. ADDITIONAL STRATEGIES OF INTERACTION

In this section you will be presented with some strategies which may make your social interactions a bit more interesting, and perhaps a bit more satisfying. These may be seen as "helpful hints" which you can add to the basic skills already presented to you.

Strategies for night club and pub behavior

There are a number of common features about night clubs or discotheques which you may already be familiar with, however, they can stand repetition here. First of all, there is always a bar with a bar tender working it. Most discotheques provide tables for seating in various spots throughout, and sometimes you may find a "stand up bar" around which people just stand and talk and have somewhere to put their drink. Drinks can be purchased from the bar tender who is behind the bar, or from various waiters or waitresses who move around the different tables. To obtain a drink from the bar tender, simply stand at the bar and wait until you catch his eye, or wave at him quietly and wait for him to approach you. If you order a drink from one of the waitresses who move around the discotheque, make sure that you wait for her to return with your drink and not move from one location to the next or else she will never find you. It is appropriate to tip the bar tender or waitress about 25¢ when you buy a drink from either of them. All discotheques, of course, have a dance floor, and you should have little problem finding out where that is.

If you have to wait outside before entering the discotheque, you generally have to wait no longer than five minutes. If you approach the place, knock on the door, or turn the door handle,

someone will come out and let you in. If the place is too full, the door man will ask you to wait for a few minutes. Some shy people find it uncomfortable or embarrassing to wait outside, however, nonshy people are not distressed by this since for them it is often customary and routine.

Before you approach someone you will have to know, and become aware of the various possibilities open to you. First of all, you will want to know whether the person you are approaching is indeed single, and not out on a date with someone else. You can usually determine this pretty quickly by waiting for a couple of minutes to see whether or not a date she may be with has simply gone out to the washroom.

You also want to open yourself to all possibilities for meeting people. There are a number of strategies you can use to find someone who may be eligible for a meeting of this kind. First of all, it is important that you move around the room. If you remain stationary and still in one spot, you will only come into contact with those people who happen to be near you or to those who happen to move around. Standing still in one location is a very passive attitude and significantly reduces your opportunities for meeting people. Furthermore, it is important that you take action and that you initiate contact on your own behalf. Similarly, if you sit at a table, instead of stand at the bar, you limit your opportunities for becoming aware of the various people who are there. Generally, sitting at a table reduces the number of occasions upon which people will come up to you simply in passing.

People who sit at tables are often people who are accompanied by dates. Persons who stand or sit around the bar usually are there to try to meet people. You may find two or three females who prefer to sit at a table, and these may be eligible as well. However, if you sit at a table, you are forced to interact with only those people who may be sitting around you. If you do not happen to like the people who are sitting around you, you may have to leave your table and this can be cumbersome. The importance of standing up is also seen when you understand that you want to "case the place" and find out about how many and what kind of females may be available for you to meet.

There is nothing whatsoever preventing you from starting a conversation with someone. However, if you are thinking of potential dates in the future arising from people you meet there, you should make certain that these people are indeed available dating partners. If the person is married, for example, the odds are slim that they will be agreeable to a future meeting. One way to check this out is to look for a wedding ring. However, this is not always reliable since many people who are married do not wear rings, and some single women wear a lot of jewelry, including rings, which may look like wedding rings. Nevertheless, prior to asking out the person on a date or making arrangements for some future meeting, the person will generally volunteer the information concerning whether or not they are attached. If not, and you are unsure, simply ask the girl if she is attached.

Upon arriving at the place, it is usually a good idea to spend 4 or 5 minutes observing and assessing the situation. If you spend any longer than 5 minutes observing the situation, you may become trapped in looking, and may end up by talking yourself

out of approaching someone for a conversation. While it is a good idea not to be too hasty, and to properly assess the situation and available persons, generally, it is also important to remember that if you wait too long a person who you have been thinking of approaching may end up by interacting with someone else or, you may end up by becoming too self-conscious, and this will prevent you from initiating any contact whatsoever.

Most girls do not go to night clubs or discotheques alone, unless they have frequented the place previously and feel comfortable to go there alone. Remember that most people feel a certain amount of nervousness and discomfort at discotheques, since their primary purpose for existence is to meet people and people generally go there to meet others. Consequently, do not think that you are alone and that your intentions or motives are peculiar. All people go there with the same goals and purposes in mind. Most people are willing to strike up and respond to a conversation once it has been initiated.

You should understand that sometimes it isn't very easy to make arrangements for future meetings with people you meet for the first time at a discotheque. People generally go to discotheques to dance, meet other people, and have fun. Because there are so many different kinds of people who go to discotheques, often people are reluctant to accept an invitation for a date when they only have had a chance to know the person for 20 or 30 minutes. If, on the other hand, you happen to hit it off really well with someone and you find yourself interacting with this person for a good portion of the evening, you have probably established the

preliminary basis for a friendship-relationship that would make a request for a future meeting with that person appropriate.

If you go to a discotheque, you should set as your primary goal simply meeting and interacting with people. You will usually find that the furthest you can go, on a first meeting of this kind, is to obtain someone's telephone number with the statement "Maybe I can give you a call sometime and we can maybe come here together." Do not set up as your only goal, and do not go there with the only expectation that you will immediately find someone with whom you will be able to go out on a date on a future occasion. These expectations and goals are rarely fulfilled with anyone, regardless of how skilled they are or how attractive they may be to another person. If you do set such unrealistic goals, you have set yourself up to be disappointed. The important thing is that you meet and interact with people and put to use the social relationship skills you have learned. You will meet with all kinds of interactions -- some may be positive, some may be less so. Although some social encounters are unpleasant, because of either the nature of the topic or external circumstances, if you practice and use your skills for whatever the level of the interaction, such unpleasantness will not be because you did not try hard enough.

When you are in a pub, although there may be music, or even live entertainment, there typically is not dancing, and so you have one less avenue for entering into an interaction with a female -- asking her to dance and dancing with her. In pubs you spend most of your energy engaging your conversational resources. Most often people sit down in pubs, and usually at tables, so you will want

to choose where you wish to sit very carefully. When you walk in, stop and take a look around at the seating arrangement. Check out if there are some people obviously sitting in couples, and others who seem to be just a group of people. See if you spot some females sitting together. Probably they are friends and came as a group, without dates, so are potential contacts for you. Rarely will you see a female sitting alone in a pub, just like in a discotheque. If you do, take some time and check out if indeed she is really alone. Try to find a seat near the females whom you have spotted as potential available contacts. A table next to them perhaps, or maybe there are some obvious empty seats at their table. Check this out carefully and then go over and sit down. Remember, if you do not choose where you sit carefully, and end up in the midst of all males or couples, then you have eliminated your own chances of meeting a females.

The use of humor

When approaching someone for the first time, and even within the course of conversation, the use of humor not only helps to ease some of the initial tension, and enhance the conversation, it also makes the transition in and out of conversations a bit more smooth.

Remember to be "light" and positive in your topics of conversation, particularly on initial encounters. Most people seek out social contacts in order to have "company" during leisure hours. They want their leisure time to be pleasant, fun, amusing and light. "Heavy-trippers", those seeking relationships which

are so blatantly directed at fulfilling self-revealed and acknowledged needs for social contact, quickly become uninteresting and self-preoccupied bores.

Thus, in initial encounters, approach the other person with some reserve and casualness. You can still be frank without appearing too bold. Be kind, unassuming and gentle, and remember that humor adds so much to making the whole experience pleasant and free of obvious anxiety and expectation.

VI. UNPRODUCTIVE AND PRODUCTIVE GOALS AND EXPECTATIONS

People everywhere are filled with irrational beliefs and these irrational beliefs are the root cause of a great deal of the emotional upset in people today. As Albert Ellis maintains in his RET, it is not other people or other things that are the cause of emotional upset and disturbance, it is the view that people take of these things. Therefore, people can significantly reduce the amount of emotional upset that accompanies unfortunate experiences by learning how to perceive them correctly and by learning how to adopt a more healthy view of them.

Shy people hold a number of irrational and unproductive beliefs which not only perpetuates their anxiety and self-consciousness, but which also serve as the severest road blocks against changing and trying new more adaptive modes of behavior.

Unproductive Beliefs

1. WHEN I AM AT A SOCIAL GATHERING, PARTY OR DANCE, IF I HANG AROUND LONG ENOUGH SOMETHING WILL HAPPEN.
2. MOST PEOPLE ARE LUCKY... THEY GET ALL THE BREAKS, THEY ARE POPULAR AND GET INVITED OUT.
3. THE ODDS OF FINDING SOMEONE WHO WILL BE INTERESTED AND ATTRACTED TO ME ARE ALWAYS THE SAME, NO MATTER WHERE I AM.

Productive Beliefs

1. I'VE GOT TO BE ACTIVE IN GETTING WHAT I WANT FROM SOCIAL SITUATIONS.
2. I HAVE TO CREATE MY OWN OPPORTUNITIES AND ARRANGE MY OWN SOCIAL ENVIRONMENTS. I MUST TAKE THE STEPS TO CONTACT PEOPLE, TO GO OUT AND INITIATE.
3. MY "CHANCES" OF MAKING A FAVOURABLE IMPRESSION WITH A PERSON ARE NOT FIXED AND STABLE. IF I DON'T GET WHAT I WANT ON THE FIRST OCCASION I MUST GO OUT AND TRY AGAIN.

Unproductive Beliefs

4. IF SOMEONE DOESN'T SHOW THEY LIKE ME RIGHT AWAY THEY REALLY DON'T LIKE ME AND WILL NEVER LIKE ME.

5. IF I AM REALLY GOING TO MAKE IT WITH SOMEONE, THEN WE'LL MEET AND BOTH KNOW IT AND IT WON'T BE ANY PROBLEM.

6. IF I ASK A GIRL OUT AND SHE TURNS ME DOWN, IT IS BECAUSE I AM NOT WORTHWHILE OR GOOD ENOUGH FOR HER.

Productive Beliefs

4. LIKING FOR ANOTHER OFTEN TAKES PLACE ON THE BASIS OF SOCIAL HISTORY. IT IS RARE FOR A PERSON TO DISCLOSE LIKING AND INTEREST IN THE OTHER FOLLOWING THE FIRST BRIEF INTERCHANGE.

5. WAITING FOR "LOVE AT FIRST SIGHT" WILL PREVENT ME FROM MAKING AN EFFORT TO INITIATE CONTACTS, ESTABLISH FRIENDSHIPS, AND MAINTAIN SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS.

6. MOST REASONS WHY DATES ARE TURNED DOWN HAVE NOTHING TO DO WITH ME AS A PERSON. USUALLY IT IS BECAUSE OF SOME EXTERNAL CIRCUMSTANCE THAT I DO NOT KNOW ABOUT, OR PERHAPS I JUST DID NOT TRY HARD ENOUGH AT BEING SOCIALLY SKILLED.

It is important to remember that simply having discovered an avenue for meeting people is no guarantee that you will automatically meet new people and make new acquaintances, or that by simply presenting yourself in a social situation everything will fall into place. First of all you must hold expectations that are realistic, and set goals that correspond with the skills you have for the social contexts available. Then, you must invest in a variety of social avenues and possibilities for interpersonal contact. Do not place all your eggs in one basket. This means that you will have to put a real effort into making your own social environment and social life satisfying for you.

This Manual has a lot to offer you. Thus, it is important that you digest all that it presents. Read the Manual again and continue to refer to it. You may find that you notice many important points on a second or third reading that you missed the first time around.

NOW, READ THE MANUAL AGAIN!

APPENDIX 12
PROGRAM EVALUATION
QUESTIONNAIRE

PROGRAM EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

We sincerely wish to develop Programs which will benefit students, (and all people) in their social relationships. We would appreciate if you would provide us with your ideas about what aspects of the Program you found most helpful, what aspects you think we should keep, what aspects we should drop, and what aspects we should change. Your comments may be directed to any of the following areas or to any other areas you feel are important.

Circle the appropriate number to indicate how you personally feel.

- 1). Did you enjoy your participation in the Social Relations Program?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all						Very much

- 2). Did you benefit from the Program (learn more about yourself, improve your social skill & comfort)?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all						Very much

- 3). To what extent were the following aspects of the Program helpful to you?

	Not at all						Very much
(a) The self-monitoring:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(b) The Manual:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(c) The Videotapes:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(d) The Homework:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(e) The live discussion with Dr. Girodo:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- 4). The length of the program should be:

_____increased
 _____decreased
 _____stay the same

5). What changes would you recommend?:

6). Any additional comments:

Please be sure your name is on each sheet. All responses will be confidential.

NAME: _____

LEADER EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

We would like you to evaluate the group leader (Sue) of the Social Relations Program on a number of different categories. For each of the items below, please place one check mark anywhere along the dimensions defined by each scale, to describe your leader's behavior. Please do not evaluate the videotape presentations on this sheet. This Leader Evaluation is for evaluation of the group leader in person.

- | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Lacked enthusiasm | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Very enthusiastic |
| 2. Expressed ideas
clearly | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Unclearly |
| 3. Interested in
students | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Disinterested |
| 4. Warm & supportive | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Cold & distant |
| 5. Authoritarian | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Democratic |
| 6. Approachable | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Unapproachable |
| 7. Spoke too little | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Spoke too much |
| 8. Made me feel
at ease | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Made me feel
ill at ease |

Please add any additional comments about the leader below:

NAME: _____

LEADER EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

We would like you to evaluate the group discussant (Dr. Girodo) of the Social Relations Program on a number of different categories. For each of the items below, please place one check mark anywhere along the dimensions defined by each scale, to describe your leader's behavior. Please do not evaluate the videotape presentations on this sheet. This is for evaluation of the group leader in person.

- | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Lacked enthusiasm | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Very enthusiastic |
| 2. Expressed ideas
clearly | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Unclearly |
| 3. Interested in
students | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Disinterested |
| 4. Warm & supportive | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Cold & distant |
| 5. Authoritarian | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Democratic |
| 6. Approachable | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Unapproachable |
| 7. Spoke too little | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Spoke too much |
| 8. Made me feel
at ease | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | Made me feel
ill at ease |

Please add any additional comments about the leader below:

NAME: _____

APPENDIX 13

POWER OF THE $\underline{F}$ TEST

APPENDIX 13

Power of the F Test for the Analysis of Covariance of SSEI,
SAD and FNE at $p < .05^a$

	$\frac{n}{(N/K)}$	Degrees of Freedom (u)	Effect Size (f)	Power
SSEI	6	4	.21	.10
SAD	6	4	.14	.08
FNE	6	4	.31	.19

^aNote: Computed from Table 8.3.15, p. 310, "Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences" by J. Cohen, New York, Academic Press, 1969.

APPENDIX 14

POWER OF THE TWO-TAILED
t TEST

APPENDIX 14

Power of the Two-tailed t Test for the Treatment Groups
at $p < .05a$

	SSEI			SAD			FNE		
	n	Effect Size	Power	n	Effect Size	Power	n	Effect Size	Power
Skill	8	.74	.25	7	.59	<.25	8	1.21	.60
Attribution	7	.63	<.25	6	1.15	<.50	7	1.06	<.50
Combined	6	.60	<.25	6	2.09	.60-.99	4	4.97	.50-.99
Homework	4	1.38	<.25	4	2.45	.50-.99	4	.09	<.25
Self-monitoring	5	.99	.25	4	.77	<.25	5	1.21	<.50
Test-retest control	9	.27	<.25	8	0	<.25	9	.41	<.25

^aNote: Computed from Table 2.4.1, p. 53, "Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences" by J. Cohen, New York, Academic Press, 1969.