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**EXPECTANCIES, PERCEPTIONS AND BELIEFS
ASSOCIATED WITH THE GENERALIZATION
OF CRITICISM SKILLS OVER A ONE
YEAR INTERVAL**

**KEN WELBURN
UNIVERSITY OF OTTAWA**



Kenneth Welburn, Ottawa, Canada, 1989



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ABSTRACT

This study was designed to assess post-program cognitions and experiences which were hypothesized to play a role in the generalization of social skills over time. In particular, self-efficacy perceptions, outcome expectancies, outcome values, and anxiety were assessed through a Biographical Inventory before participation in a social skills program. The Inventory was then used to assess the subjects experiences once a month for three months after the program, and one year following the program. Subjects who demonstrated generalization on in-vivo, role-play, or self-report measures of giving and receiving criticism over the one year were contrasted, on their responses to the Biographical Inventory, with those who showed little or no generalization. Results from the in-vivo and self-report measures indicated that the high generalization group differed from the low generalization group in their post-program experiences with giving and receiving criticism. Higher self-efficacy perceptions and the perception of positive consequences were evident for the high generalization group for experiences involving criticism. The results are discussed in relation to self-efficacy theory.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to examine extra-program factors which may play a role in the maintenance of treatment gains from social skills training. Some of the questions which this research attempts to answer are: Do individuals completing a social skills training program try out their skills outside of the program? If they do try out the skills, how do they perceive the consequences and utility of using the skills? In what way do individuals' perceptions of consequences and self-efficacy in the initial use of program skills influence their intention, willingness and use of program skills in the longer term?

The research strategy of this project was to assess some of those extra-training factors through the use of a Biographical Inventory, both prior to treatment and at several times during the post-treatment year. At the same time, actual proficiency in the skills taught in the program was assessed. The group of subjects who showed generalization of the criticism skills over time was contrasted with the group that showed little or no generalization, on their responses to the Biographical

Inventory.

In the first chapter, literature on the maintenance and generalization of treatment effects, from social skills training, is reviewed. This review deals with the two most frequently researched adult populations in social skills training; psychiatric patients and post-secondary students. The results are discussed in relation to maintenance and generalization effects, as well as assessment difficulties. The need for a multiple sampling, self monitoring study is outlined. Expectancy-value and self-efficacy theory are elaborated in relation to social skills training and the persistence of behavior over time. A statement of hypotheses, arising from the theoretical rationale and research findings, is detailed.

In the second chapter, the methodology employed in the research study is detailed.

In the third chapter, the research results are presented.

In the fourth chapter, the research results are discussed in relation to the theoretical rationale. An information processing model, relevant to the persistence and durability of behavior, is proposed.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Much of the research in social skills has focused on the elements of training programs thought to be relevant to skill acquisition (Hersen, Eisler, & Miller, 1973; McFall & Marston, 1970; McFall & Lillesand, 1971). More recently, there has been an increasing emphasis on the question of generalization of the program's skills (Bellack & Turner, 1976; Brown, 1983; Eisler & Fredrickson, 1980; Rickel, Eshelman, & Loigman, 1983; Spence & Marzillier, 1981; Turner, Bryant, & Argyle, 1978).

Generalization research can be classed into four types (Galassi, & Galassi, 1978): (1) within laboratory generalization to similar but untrained situations (i.e., situation class generalization); (2) within laboratory generalization across response or situation classes; (3) generalization of treatment effects to extra-laboratory behavior; and, (4) generalization of changes across time (i.e., maintenance and durability of treatment effects). The main focus of this review will be the latter two classes of generalization effects: generalization to real life behaviors and maintenance over time.

The majority of the research on generalization effects from social skills training with adults can be separated into studies dealing with either of two main populations: (1) institutionalized and psychiatric patients and (2) volunteer and post-secondary students. The importance of this distinction in populations is that there may be differential generalization effects due to populations differences. These differences may arise from psychopharmacological effects, environmental changes, maturation, availability of social support networks or levels of psychological distress.

(1) INSTITUTIONALIZED AND PSYCHIATRIC PATIENTS

Hersen, Eislser, and Miller (1974) compared the generalization effects of practice and of modeling on the assertive behavior of 50 unassertive psychiatric patients. Some subjects were instructed to apply what they had learned to new situations. A measure of generalization to real life situations was employed when the researchers failed to deliver a promised monetary reward for participation in the study. None of the treatment groups showed significant superiority on the in-vivo generalization measure. Significant effects were obtained for the modeling group on simulated situations which were highly similar to the

trained situations.

Longin and Rooney (1975) trained 35 chronic hospitalized female psychiatric patients to refuse unreasonable requests. One of the treatment groups showed significant improvement in behavioral role-play situations from pre to post-test. Staff ratings of patient communications and social contact showed significant improvement for the other of the two treatment groups. A two year follow-up role-play measure indicated that the treatment effects had been maintained but did not generalize to untrained role-play situations.

Brown (1980) compared coping skills training versus group counselling with 40 previously hospitalized community mental health clients. The coping skills program consisted of thirty hours of progressive relaxation, anxiety management, assertiveness and behavioral self-modification. They found that the coping skills group reported lower levels of anxiety and fear and higher levels of assertiveness both at post-test and at the three month follow-up. Significantly fewer subjects from the coping skills groups were re-hospitalized during the one year period following training. In a one-year follow-up study with the same subjects, Brown (1983) assessed the extent to which treatment effects had generalized to attitudes

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concerning etiology of mental disorders, depression and perceived quality of life. Questionnaire data revealed that the coping skills group reported less depression, more ability to manage anxiety, solve problems and control their environments than did the counselling group. The coping skills group also scored higher on a interpersonal etiology scale. There were certain methodological problems that restrict interpretation of the data. Lack of a no-treatment control group makes it difficult to attribute treatment effects to the programs. The one-year follow-up measures were not administered at pre or post-test and so there may have been pre-existing differences between the groups on those measures. Random assignment to treatment groups makes that unlikely but the possibility remains. Within those limitations, if the one-year follow-up measures are valid indicators of generalization effects, the duration and thoroughness of the coping skills program may have played a role.

Other studies (Argyle, Bryant & Trower, 1974; Dam-Baggen & Kraaimaat, 1986; Goldsmith & McFall, 1975; Gutride, Goldstien & Hunter, 1974; Marzillier, Lambert, & Kelly, 1976; Spence & Marzillier, 1981) demonstrate some maintenance of treatment effects, but limited or no generalization to real life. The nature of the target population likely requires an extensive and thorough intervention program in order to elicit

generalization effects.

(2) VOLUNTEER AND POST-SECONDARY STUDENTS:

Twentyman and McFall (1975) behaviorally trained social skills in 31 shy males. Post-test, self-report measures of heterosexual avoidance showed improvement for the experimental group. Six-month follow-up measures on the same self-report instrument showed no significant difference between the experimental and control group with both groups gaining. Role-play measures showed significant improvement from pre-test to post-test but were not employed in the six-month follow-up.

Schincke, Gilchrist, Smith and Wong (1979) assessed group interpersonal skills training of 12 social service agency staff. The experimental group showed greater improvement from pre-test to post-test on self-reported probability of engaging in selected interpersonal responses. Role-play situations showed generalization from trained to novel situations. The lack of long term follow-up or data on generalization to real life situations limits the interpretation of their results.

Lee (1983) used assertive training with 46

unassertive female students in Australia.

Generalization from trained to novel role-play situations was evident and these effects were maintained at a three month follow-up. Subjects also showed improvement and maintenance of self-reported number of assertive behaviors they would be able to perform (i.e., Efficacy Level) and self-rated confidence in their ability to perform those behaviors (i.e., Efficacy Strength).

McFall and Twentyman (1973) employed assertion therapy with non-assertive university students in a series of four experiments (N = 72, 90, 48 and 54, respectively). Results from the first experiment indicated a significant improvement in assertion, as measured by behavioral role-plays, from pre-test to post-test. Global attitudinal measures of refusal problems showed no differences in improvement between control and experimental groups. A one-month in-vivo telephone call measure also showed no significant group differences. In the second experiment generalization was shown from trained to untrained behavioral role-play situations. Two in-vivo measures provided some evidence that treatment effects were maintained, but, because no-treatment controls were not included in those measures, the results must be treated with caution in terms of generalization of treatment effects over time. Data from the third experiment demonstrated

improvement in role-play behavior for the experimental groups. In-vivo measures employed as a follow-up showed no significant group differences, and the best performance was actually obtained by the control group. In the fourth experiment, experimental subjects self-reported more positive real life effects than the control subjects. In-vivo follow-up measures showed that experimental subjects made refusals at an earlier point in the interaction than the controls but did not differ in a confederates rating of their general assertive manner. The researchers suggest that responses to the in-vivo measures were highly dependent on situational factors. They also note some difficulty in constructing in-vivo measures of refusal behavior, suggesting that some subjects may not have refused their request because they felt the requests to be reasonable. They further argue that the training program sensitized the subjects to situations where assertiveness would be appropriate. If that sensitization were the only variable operating, a decay over time would be expected. As only one month follow-ups were undertaken in these four experiments it was not possible to test that possibility.

Linehan, Goldfried and Goldfried (1979) used assertion therapy with 79 women. Significant improvement for the experimental groups in behavioral role-play was demonstrated. An in-vivo measure showed

superior assertive performance by the experimental groups. This measure was administered at post-test only and so gives little information as to any change in behavior. Eight-week follow-up, self-report measures showed maintenance of treatment effects. No control subjects were included.

Kazdin (1974) contrasted the effects of covert modeling, model reinforcement and no-treatment in assertion training for 45 non-assertive volunteer subjects. The experimental groups exhibited significant improvement in self-report (Conflict Resolution Inventory and Wolpe Lazarus Scale) and behavioral role-play measures. Generalization from trained to untrained role-play situations was evident. An in-vivo telephone call follow-up demonstrated no differences among the groups (including controls) in refusal behavior. The telephone control group was chosen randomly from the phone book. Three month follow-up self-report measures indicated that the experimental groups had maintained their treatment effects. Kazdin speculated that the phone calls may not have been an adequate measure of assertiveness, generalization to extra-laboratory situations may not have taken place, or treatment effects may have decayed over time. Kazdin (1974) argues that "development of a non-laboratory assessment procedure is essential to ensure that treatment effects transfer" (p. 251).

Schwartz and Higgins (1979) used automated assertion training on 72 low-assertive college students in assessing the impact of locus-of-control orientation on outcome gain. Treatment subjects improved significantly on self-report and role-play behavioral measures. External, but not internal, locus-of-control treatment subjects showed significant generalization from trained to untrained role-play situations. The authors note that internals reported being more uncomfortable in the automated program.

Galassi, Galassi and Litz (1974) investigated assertion therapy with 32 non-assertive college students. Experimental subjects performed significantly better than controls on self-report measures, on behavioral role-play situations, and self-reported less anxiety. Subjects had not been trained for the specific situations employed in the behavioral role-play assessments. In a one-year follow-up of those subjects (Galassi, Kostka & Galassi, 1975), the experimental subjects had maintained their treatment effects on self-report and role-play assessments and were still significantly superior to the control groups. One possible explanation for the generalization from trained to untrained situations, and its maintenance over the year, is the breadth of the training, which may have increased the possibilities for reward, and promoted better

functioning in a number of areas. Subjects were trained to make a series of assertive responses and learned several assertive behaviors; making requests, refusing unreasonable demands, and expressing affection.

Kirschner (1976) used behaviorally oriented assertive training with 30 college students to test for generalization effects. Results indicated that improved performance in trained role-play situations was maintained at three weeks. Generalization occurred only for highly similar, but untrained, behavioral role-plays and that effect was no longer present at three weeks. Self-report measures (Wolpe-Lazarus Assertive Inventory and Lawrence Assertive Inventory) revealed significant treatment effects and maintenance of those effects for three weeks. Treatment duration was very brief (40 minutes) and may account for the lack of maintenance of generalization effects.

McFall and Marston (1970) used behavioral rehearsal in assertion training of 42 non-assertive college students and in-vivo telephone calls to assess generalization of treatment effects to real life situations. There were two treatment groups: behavior rehearsal with feedback, and behavior rehearsal without feedback. Behavioral role-play measures showed

improvement from pre to post-test only when data from the two experimental groups and the two control groups were combined for greater statistical power. Improvement was assessed by the percentage of rater agreement that the post-test responses were better than the pre-test responses. This type of assessment, however, does not indicate the degree of improvement. Only one of five measures of the follow-up telephone calls achieved significance, providing questionable evidence for transfer of treatment effects to real life situations.

Derry and Stone (1979) employed behavior rehearsal assertion training with either cognitive self statement training or attribution training adjuncts with 42 non-assertive university students. The cognitive adjunct group showed the greatest improvement on trained and untrained behavioral role-play measures and this effect was maintained at six weeks. A thirteen-week follow-up in-vivo measure failed to reveal significant group differences. The absence of any control group in the study combined with the lack of pre- or post-test in-vivo measures makes interpretation of the follow-up in-vivo measure difficult.

Azrin and Hayes (1984) trained 89 male college students in the discrimination of indications of heterosocial interest in females. Role-play results

indicated that the effects had generalized to the performance of social skills, in contrast with control subjects, who failed to show that generalization.

Piccinin, McCarrey and Chislett (1985) trained 111 undergraduate students in either request or refusal behaviors. Behavioral role-play and self-report measures indicated the maintenance of treatment gains one and two years later (Piccinin, Chislett, & McCarrey (1988). Request trained subjects showed improvement in refusal situations and that improvement was maintained up to two years. Refusal trained subjects, although showing some evidence of generalization to request situations, did not maintain those effects at the one and two year follow ups. The authors suggest that the differential maintenance of generalization effects could be a result of the more complex and initiative nature of the request behaviors. Making a request requires the initiation of an interaction whereas refusing a demand only necessitates responding to an interaction.

RESUME AND DISCUSSION

The preceding review of the literature on maintenance and generalization effects in social skills

training reveals strong evidence for transfer from trained situations to untrained, but similar, situations (Bellack & Turner, 1976; Derry & Stone, 1979; Galassi, et al., 1974; Goldsmith & McFall, 1975; Hersen, Eisler, & Miller, 1974; Kazdin, 1974; Kirschner, 1976; Piccinin, Chislett, & McCarrey, 1988; Piccinin, McCarrey & Chislett, 1985; Spence & Marzillier, 1981). These findings should be viewed cautiously as they have typically been assessed through behavioral role-play and self-report measures. The external validity of role-play assessment measures in social skills training has recently been questioned (Bellack, Hersen & Lamparski, 1979; Higgins, Alonso & Pendleton, 1979). Behavioral role-play measures indicate whether individuals are able to demonstrate social skills but give less information as to whether they actually will exhibit those social skills in-vivo. In real life situations, the costs become greater and the demand characteristics much less obvious. Higgins et al. (1979) suggest that assertion is more likely to be demonstrated in role-play than in in-vivo situations. The limited generalization effects (to untrained, but highly similar situations) shown in role-play assessments may, therefore, be an over estimate of real life gains in social skills.

Self-report measures have been criticized for being global rather than being appropriately response and

situation class specific (Wine, 1982, p. 307). Given the situational and response specificity evident in the behavioral measures of studies reviewed, it is surprising to find that these global self-report measures generally support the presence of treatment effects. All studies reviewed, except one (McFall & Twentyman, 1973) which employed self-report measures, showed improvement for the treatment group. In the McFall and Twentyman study this lack of effect was restricted to the global attitudinal section of the Conflict Resolution Inventory. Self-report measures of social skills training effects should assess responses and situations which are specific to program skills.

Results of the in-vivo measures are equivocal with the majority showing no treatment effects. This may be due to an actual lack of transfer of effects to real life situations. This would, however, be inconsistent with self-report measures and with the few studies (McFall & Marston, 1970; McFall & Twentyman, 1973) that did show some in-vivo transfer effects.

One difficulty with many of the in-vivo measures in the previous studies is that they may not be valid measurements of the behavior they purport to assess. In the Kasdin (1974) study, for example, many control subjects felt that the request made was not unreasonable, thus weakening the validity of the

assessment as a measurement of refusing unreasonable requests.

A fundamental difficulty with using only one in-vivo assessment is that many situational and person factors may affect the manifestation of a social skill in a single interaction. The time of day, the individuals physical comfort, time limitations, emotional mood, whether the person is alone or in a group, and countless other factors contribute to the performance of a social skill in any single interaction. Epstein (1978) suggests that with a sufficient sampling of events the stability of behavior may be ascertained and predictive ability increased. There is need then, for a sampling of events approach in the area of social skills training.

THE NEED FOR A SELF-MONITORING STUDY
OF PERSONAL AND SITUATIONAL FACTORS
LINKED TO MAINTENANCE OF TREATMENT GAINS

Although situational and response specific treatment effects have been clearly demonstrated in behavioral assessments, data on transfer of those effects to real life situations has been sparse and conflicting. Where generalization and maintenance of treatment gains have

been evident, individual differences have also been noted. Even though the group as a whole may show significant maintenance, some individuals within that group may not maintain their post-treatment performance. There is a need for further assessment of extra-laboratory transfer of social skills training programs. Further research is also needed into the variables involved in the individual differences evident in the generalization of treatment effects over time.

THEORETICAL RATIONALE: EXPECTANCY-VALUE AND SELF-EFFICACY

Generalization of behavioral and social skills from training situations to real life situations has been assumed to happen either spontaneously, or to occur as a product of certain training techniques (Stokes & Baer, 1977). The manifestation of a social skill in a specific interaction and the durability of that skill over time will be affected by individual personal factors (e.g., cognitions, motivation, affect) as well as by situational or environmental variables. There are certain necessary conditions which are precursors to the manifestation of a skill in any single

interaction:

1) the person must have the skill in his or her repertoire

2) the situation must be judged as relevant or appropriate to the acquired skill, and

3) the individuals willingness to employ the skill in that situation must outweigh any intrapersonal or situational factors inhibiting the use of the skill.

The generalization of a social skill over time will be affected by those same factors as well as the reinforcement history of skill use. Because expectations of consequences, perceptions of instrumentality and confidence in one's abilities are formed and refined through experience, they are likely to change or consolidate over time as a result of differential experiences and reinforcement history. The reinforcement history of attempted skill performances can influence the individual's motivation and cognitive expectancies, which, in turn, mediate future behavior. From a cognitive-behavioral interactionist position, then, reinforcement will not be conceived strictly as an automatic response strengthener or inhibitor (Bandura, 1977; Bolles, 1972).

From this perspective, it is the individuals expectancies and appraisals of behavioral outcomes which are most influential in the persistence of behavior. This perspective raises many questions. Which expectancies and appraisals are the most relevant? Are there specific cognitive evaluations which are the most significant in the prediction of behavior? Are there, in fact, cognitive differences between those who tend to be assertive or socially competent and those who are less so?

Several theorists (Atkinson & Birch, 1978; Bandura, 1977; Feather, 1980; Fiedler & Beach, 1978) have delineated the cognitions and appraisals which they suggest are crucial to the durability of behavior. Expectancy-value and self-efficacy theory will be examined in relation to the specific cognitions that each theory identifies as being significant in the generalization of behavior over time. Research findings relevant to each theory will be presented. A resume and theoretical rationale will be presented and the hypotheses arising from the theories and research findings will be elaborated.

EXPECTANCY-VALUE THEORY

Expectancy-value theories propose that individuals have cognitive anticipations or expectancies, aroused by cues in social situations, that the performance of some act will be followed by some outcome of consequence. These anticipated consequences are the expectancy aspect of the theory. The value component refers to the relative attractiveness or unattractiveness of the expected consequences.

In Atkinson and Birch's (1978) Expectancy-value model, goal directed behavior is seen as being a multiplicative function of motivation to succeed, perceived probability of success and the value of the expected consequences of some act ($Ts - Ms \times Ps \times Is$). Atkinson's model of behavior suggests a rational, cognitive individual who weighs the consequence and values of expected outcomes and acts accordingly. Behavior that appears irrational can also be understood through these expectancies.

1) Motivation/Anxiety

Atkinson argues that goal directed behavior is a

product of the joint effects of the motive to succeed (Ms) and the motive to avoid failure (Mf). This is analagous to an approach-avoidance conflict. Where the Ms is greater than Mf, approach is prominent and where the Mf is greater than Ms, avoidance is prominent. Atkinson and Birch (1978) and Atkinson and Raynor (1978) found that individuals who have prominent approach (Ms>Mf) are less anxious and have realistic goals and self perception. Conversely, for (Mf>Ms) people, there is greater anxiety and more unrealistic goals and self perceptions. Piaget and Lazarus (1969) suggest that assertive behavior is more likely to generalize if the experience of anxiety in the interactions is lowered.

In Atkinson and Birchs' (1978) expanded, more general theory (in an effort to account for behavioral persistence over time) they looked at the effects of success and failure on the maintenance of behavior. For approach individuals (Ms>Mf), experiencing success decreases motivation and failure increases motivation. It may be that, for these people, who are success motivated, the success at some task will cause them to set their standards higher and pursue more challenging goals, and failure may cause them to increase effort in order to attain success.

For avoidance (Mf>Ms) the reverse is true. Failure

causes a decrease in motivation, and success an increase. Further complicating this picture is the tendency for (Mf>Ms) individuals to attempt tasks where the probability for success is very low or very high.

One explanation for this is that failure can then be attributed to task difficulties, rather than to personal inadequacies. However, in situations where the probability for success is high, they may also attribute success to task difficulties. The experience of success would not, therefore, impact on their own feelings of mastery and successful experiences would be less likely to have an effect on changes of behavior over time.

Alden (1984) found that assertive subjects tended to attribute positive feedback to personal ability and attribute negative feedback to more external factors. Nonassertive subjects tended to view external factors as determinants of both negative and positive feedback. This suggests that nonassertive individuals are less likely to self-attribute positive feedback and thereby tend to maintain their non-assertive status.

Consistent with Atkinson and Birch's findings for avoidance subjects, Alden's nonassertive sample tended to attribute both success and failure to task difficulty. In order to make behavioral changes or develop social skills over time, it is necessary to

self-attribute success feedback. Individuals who feel a greater sense of control and report less anxiety within their social interactions are more likely to maintain and develop their assertive skills.

2) Outcome Expectancies

Outcome expectancies are the expected, anticipated consequences arising from some activity. They represent the perceived probability of some consequence following from some action. Outcome expectancies are evident in answering these kinds of questions; What is the chance that some consequence will follow from my behaving in a particular fashion? What are the expected outcomes from my actions?

Feidler and Beach (1978) propose that "differences between persons who tend in general to be assertive and those who tend in general to be less so, lie in differences in their expectations about the consequences of their behaviors" (p. 537).

On a global level, outcome expectancies may reflect a more generalized attitude concerning contingencies between actions and outcomes. Seligman's (1978) theory of learned helplessness is suggestive of a generalized loss of contingency awareness, where individuals feel

that there is little connection between their behavior and any subsequent consequences in the world. Rotter's Locus-of-Control Scale assesses the degree to which a person has internal locus (strong contingency belief) or external locus (low contingency belief). Replogle, McCullough & Cashion (1980) found that self-reported assertion (Rathus Assertiveness Inventory) was significantly correlated with internal locus of control for a group of female nurses.

Tanck and Robbins (1979), however, found a non significant correlation (.20) between self-reported assertives (Adult Expression Scale) and Rotters Internal-External Locus of Control Scale, with a sample of undergraduate students. These inconsistent findings could be due to the different assertion scales employed or to the different samples (female professionals vs. undergraduate students of both genders). It may be that these female low-assertives had a more global attitude towards contingencies consistent with an external locus of control. These findings suggest that, at least for some low-assertives, there may be weak outcome expectancies. Individuals are more likely to engage in behaviors when they perceive some connection between the act and the desired outcome. By implication, then, behavior is more likely to generalize over time when the individual perceives that behavior to be instrumental in the attainment of

desired consequences (Mitchell & Biglan, 1971).

On a more situationally-specific level, individuals may hold expectancies that some particular behavior will lead to certain consequences. One might form expectancies about the consequences of asking for a date or requesting a neighbour to decrease the volume on a stereo. Laboratory research into outcome expectancies generally deals with a clearly defined and categorical type of outcome expectancy, such as success or failure. In contrast with many laboratory behavioral experiments, real life social interaction typically contains the possibility for a myriad of consequences. Individuals may expect a variety of outcomes from some act and so it becomes necessary to assess the expected probability of a number of consequences. Feidler and Beach (1978), for example, found that, in contrast with high-assertives, low-assertives felt that negative consequences were more likely to occur than positive consequences. Those who maintained their skills did so partly because they expected positive consequences to occur as a result of their actions. Recent studies (Greenberg, Pyszczynski & Stine, 1985; Leary, Kowalski, & Campbell, 1988) reported that socially anxious subjects had more negative expectations of future interactions than did those with less anxiety. Those who exhibit generalization over time of some social skill are, therefore, likely to do

so because they have more positive future expectancies concerning the use of that skill.

3) Outcome Values

Other cognitive appraisals relevant to the generalization of behavior over time are outcome-values, taken from Expectancy-Value theory (Atkinson and Birch, 1978). These are the values that people attach to the consequences they expect. Outcome expectancies answer the question: What will the consequences of my actions be? Outcome values refer to how one feels about those consequences. How desirable or undesirable are the expected consequences of ones' actions? It is not just the expected consequences themselves which influence behavior, but also the importance or value of those consequences to the person.

Maddux, Norton and Stoltenburg (1986) found that having high outcome values resulted in stronger behavioral intentions than having low outcome values. If expected consequences are highly valued, individuals will be more likely to engage in the behaviors that may elicit those consequences. However, most studies looking at outcome values assess only the degree to which expected outcomes are positively valued. It has

been largely overlooked that expected consequences can have a negative valence and yet still play an important role in the motivation and prediction of behavior. For example, an individual deciding whether to refuse an unreasonable request might weigh the possible consequences of lending needed money versus potential loss of friendship.

Numerous studies (Alden & Cappe, 1981; Adlen & Safran, 1978; Heimberg & Chiauzyi, 1983; Rohr, Nix, Dunbar, & Mosesso, 1984) have shown that low assertives make more negative self statements and endorse more of Ellis's irrational beliefs than do high assertives. Those negative self statements and irrational beliefs typically involve a concern about the evaluation of oneself by others and a need for acceptance and approval. This indicates that low assertives place a very high value on others opinions of themselves, as well as on social acceptance and approval. If the expected negative consequences such as loss of approval or negative evaluation are most potent in valence, low assertives may be highly motivated to avoid assertive responses and situations because of these expectancy values. This is in agreement with the many studies demonstrating that low-assertives are more anxious and uncomfortable in assertive situations. It is therefore important to assess the relative valence of both positive and

negative expected consequences. Those who persist in a behavior over time will do so because they see the positive consequences of doing so to be significant and outweighing any expected negative consequences.

Atkinson and Birch (1978) note that specific activities may have immediate consequences as well as more distant future consequences. Not only do individuals have expectancies about the immediate consequences of an action, but they may also view the activity as only one step in a continuous path that leads to more future goals and consequences. Those who feel that specific behaviors are instrumental in the long term accomplishment of personal goals and objectives are likely to look for and initiate more "single step" activities and are also more likely to demonstrate persistence in carrying out the behaviors over time. Those who do persist in a specific behavior over time for long term goals may also be more willing to engage in that activity in situations where the immediate consequences are unclear.

Atkinson and Birch (1978) note that the instrumentality of some specific task in light of long term goals has striking effects on the persistence of behavior over time. The tendency to succeed at some task is affected by the value of the immediate consequences as well as anticipated future

consequences.

SELF-EFFICACY THEORY

Bandura (1977) defines an efficacy expectation as the conviction that one can successfully execute certain behaviors. Self-efficacy, therefore, is the degree to which individuals perceive themselves to be self-competent and have personal mastery in the performance of specific behaviors. Bandura suggests that the most influential source of efficacy expectations is reward stemming from performance accomplishments. Bandura adds that " successes raise mastery expectations; repeated failures lower them, particularly if the mishaps occur early in the course of events" (p.195). These self-efficacy expectations, enhanced primarily through performance accomplishments, are hypothesized to play a significant role in determining the persistence and durability of behavior over time. Increased self-efficacy perceptions should also tend to decrease levels of anxiety and emotional distress by reducing the threat in those situations where the individual perceives self mastery. This is consistent with the studies that demonstrated a strong

negative correlation between level of anxiety and self-efficacy expectancies (Leary & Atherton, 1986; Moe & Ziess, 1982). As a result of a sense of mastery, those high in self-efficacy should feel a greater sense of control, and therefore, less risk, in skill-relevant situations.

Lee (1983) found that efficacy expectations were highly correlated with assertiveness and the maintenance of effects from an assertiveness training program. Maddux, Norton and Stoltenberg (1986) reported that self-efficacy expectancy was significantly correlated with behavioral intention (.40) and outcome value (.39), but was not significantly correlated with outcome expectancy (.13). Considering the amount of variance unexplained by the relationship among the variables, these findings support the validity of conceptualizing the different expectancies as separate, if not completely independent cognitive factors.

Are low-assertives different from high-assertives in self appraisals of their social skills? Alden and Safran (1978) found that endorsement of the belief "I should be competent at everything I attempt" discriminated low assertives as more self demanding than high assertives. This suggests that low assertives may have very perfectionistic standards for

their own behavior. Alden and Cappe (1981) reported that the self ratings of low assertives were less assertive than the self ratings of high assertives. The group most discrepant from independent raters, however, was the high assertive group.

Clarke and Arkowitz (1975) found that highly anxious subjects underrated their own social skills in contrast with trained raters who had also rated the social skills of the anxious subjects. When rating the skills of individuals other than themselves, the anxious subjects were more consistent with the trained raters. Low anxious subjects demonstrated an overly positive self evaluation. The inconsistent findings for the low assertives self evaluations may be due to the different populations sampled. Clarke and Arkowitz's subjects were all males whereas Alden and Safran's sample were evenly split in gender. These findings suggest that low assertives have perfectionistic self standards and that anxiety and perfectionistic standards may interact with gender as a moderating variable.

Bruch (1981) found that those higher in cognitive-complexity were also more assertive. High complexity individuals tend to depend on internal standards rather than on the opinions of others. Because self efficacy is learned mainly through performance accomplishments, the development and maintenance of social skills

requires the ability to monitor and assimilate positive aspects of one's behavior. Those who view themselves as competent in social interactions will be more likely to maintain their social skills over time. Individuals high in feelings of mastery are more likely to self initiate interactions, persist in skill-relevant interactions, be willing to try the skills out in many situations and perceive a number of those interactions as being successful.

RESUME AND THEORETICAL RATIONALE

The persistence of behavior over time can be affected by several factors; the expected consequences of using the skill and the value of those consequences to the individual (Atkinson & Birch, 1978; Feidler & Beach, 1978), anxiety or discomfort level (Piaget & Lazarus, 1969), perceiving the skill to be instrumental in the attainment of personal goals (Mitchell & Biglan, 1971), as well as the person's confidence in his or her ability to perform the skill (Bandura, 1977).

Research results indicate that low assertives may have weak outcome expectancies, attribute outcomes to external factors, are anxious in assertive situations, have low self-efficacy appraisals and tend to focus on

negative aspects and expectancies at the cost of a more rounded evaluation. These findings suggest that the information processing style of low assertives may be rather inflexible and negative. New experiences are likely to be interpreted consistently with prior, negative self evaluations, thus resulting in little change in the level of skill displayed.

A review of the literature on generalization effects of social skills training indicates that where generalization did occur, those effects were limited and specific to highly similar responses. In research studies demonstrating the maintenance of social skills from a training program, individual differences in maintenance were often noted. Some individuals maintained and developed their treatment gains and others did not. Research results also indicate many cognitive and experiential differences between assertive and non-assertive subjects. The limited generalization effects may be an indication of the degree to which social skill training programs impact on the participants' expectations and evaluations of subsequent experiences involving the use of the skill. Do the subjects who generalize their skills over time differ from the lower generalization group in cognitive appraisals and expectancies relevant to their post-program experiences?

STATEMENT OF HYPOTHESES

Specific hypotheses concerning the cognitive evaluations and expectancies which theoretically should discriminate high from low generalization groups are outlined below.

To a greater extent than the lower generalization group, the higher generalization group will;

- 1) perceive the positive consequences of skill use to be greater than the negative consequences:
- 2) expect the future consequences to be more positive:
- 3) perceive greater benefits of skill use:
- 4) perceive themselves to be more competent in using the skills:
- 5) perceive the skills to be more instrumental in attaining personal goals and objectives:
- 6) feel a greater sense of control in skill relevant interactions:
- 7) perceive the risks in using the skill to be less:
- 8) have a more favorable anticipation of new interactions where the skill can be employed:

- 9) be more willing to use the skills in situations where the immediate consequences are unclear:
- 10) perceive a greater number of skill relevant situations:
- 11) self initiate a greater proportion of skill relevant interactions.
- 12) report a lower level of anxiety and tension when using the skills:
- 13) tend to persevere more in the interactions:
- 14) experience a longer duration time of individual interactions:
- 15) perceive a greater number of interactions as successful, and:
- 16) intend to use the skills in the future to a greater extent:

In Appendix A (pp. 140), the relationship between the individual Biographical Inventory items and the 16 hypotheses is detailed.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

SUBJECTS

Approximately 2200 University of Ottawa undergraduate students enrolled in English language Introductory Psychology courses were screened for participation in the social skills program. Inclusion in the program was contingent upon self-reported difficulty in giving and receiving criticism, and a high score (at least 47) on the Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale (Watson & Friend, 1969). Subjects also had to express an interest in participating in a social skills program to improve their skills in giving and receiving criticism. Three hundred subjects were offered the criticism training program. Those subjects had a minimum fear-of-negative-evaluation (FNE) score of 47, which was the 67th percentile of the undergraduate scores. Subjects who completed all facets of the research study received a nominal payment of five dollars.

Of the subjects who volunteered for the study, 42.6% (119) were male and 57.4% (160) were female. The mean age for the males was 22.5 years and the ages ranged from 17 to 45 years. The average female age was 23.2 years and the ages also ranged from 17 to 45 years.

Of the 89 subjects who completed all four behavioral role-play measures, 40.2% (33) were male and 59.85% (49) were female.

ASSESSMENT MEASURES

1) Self-report Measures

Biographical Inventory (BI): A biographical inventory measuring attitudinal and experiential variables hypothesized in the theoretical rationale to be related to treatment maintenance was used (see Appendix B). The inventory is composed of Likert-scale and open response type items. Thirty-four items are specific to giving criticism, twenty-eight items are specific to receiving criticism, and three items relate to both giving and receiving criticism.

Fear of Negative Evaluation Evaluation Scale (FNE): The FNE Scale (Watson & Friend, 1969) contains thirty true-false type items (see Appendix C) and was administered at pre-test, post-test and one year follow up.

The thirty FNE items were designed to assess a fear of receiving negative evaluations from others. Fear of negative evaluation is defined by Watson and Friend (1969) as "apprehension about others' evaluations,

distress over their negative evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively" (p. 449). Fear of negative evaluation is not specific to a testing situation, but may manifest in any social situation in which there is potential for evaluation.

Watson and Friend (1969) report a mean biserial correlation of the FNE items of .72 (N=205), indicating a high level of scale homogeneity. The same authors reported a product-moment, test-retest correlation of .79.

Criticism Concerns Scale (CCS) The CCS (Lemelin, Piccinin, Chislett, & McCarrey, 1986). contains 15 items designed to assess irrational beliefs concerning the consequences of giving and receiving criticism (see Appendix D). A Cronbachs' alpha of .57 indicated adequate internal reliability for the 15 CCS items (N=257). The test-retest reliability of the CCS with a 4 week interval was .72 (N=24).

Criticism Self-Esteem Scales The self-esteem scale (McCarrey, Piccinin & Chislett, 1984) contains 7 items related to the subjects' self-esteem in giving criticism and 7 items related to the subjects' self-esteem in receiving criticism.

Cronbachs' alphas were .92 and .94 for the self-esteem giving, and receiving scales, respectively, indicating a high level of internal reliability. Test-retest correlations were .08 for self-esteem giving and .40 for self-esteem receiving (N=28).

2) In-Vivo Measures

In-vivo telephone calls were made to subjects before the program, six weeks after completion of the program and at a one year follow up. Subjects believed that the calls were part of a public opinion survey. Each call involved opportunities to both give and receive criticism.

The caller would articulate, at an extremely rapid rate, two complicated and conflicting opinions on some current event (see Appendix E), and then ask the subject which opinion he or she preferred. If the subject asked for greater clarity or slowness of speech, the caller would begin more slowly, but then quickly accelerate to the previous rapid level of speech. Subjects were thus in a position where the social convention of speech rate was being violated, as the text was given so rapidly that understanding was virtually impossible. Participants were, therefore, in a situation where giving criticism would be an appropriate response.

In the second part of the in-vivo phone calls, subjects were asked their opinion (in a normal rate of speed) of another current and controversial issue. The caller, reading from a standardized script, then criticized whatever side of the issue the subject took. The first three of the subjects' responses were criticized, whether he or she continuously defended one side of the issue or went back and forth on both sides of the issue. Aspects of the subjects responses were noted by the caller and later scored by another person blind to the time of measurement.

For giving criticism, subjects were scored on a scale from 1 to 5. A score of 1 was given if the individual hung up or showed excessive anger. Scores in the mid-range involved inappropriate affect such as sarcasm or excessive humour and an indirect or vague criticism. A score of 5 was given where the individual made a specific criticism and demonstrated appropriate affect. A similar process of scoring was performed for receiving criticism, utilizing a 9 point scale.

Different, but parallel, versions of the telephone in-vivo scripts were used at pre-test, post-test and one year follow-up. No subject was phoned twice by the same person and the gender of the caller was alternated from pre-test to post-test to year long follow-up. Callers were blind to the status of the subjects.

Test-retest correlations were .34 and .45 (N=45) for the in-vivo giving and in-vivo receiving phonecalls measures.

3) Behavioral Role-Play Measures

Subjects participated in behavioral role-play situations at pre-test, post-test and one year follow-up. Different, but parallel behavioral tests were employed at the different time periods.

In the role-play situations, a subject and an experimenter listened to an audio taped description of a situation. For example, the situation may have been finishing an unsatisfactory meal in a restaurant. Then, the experimenter gave a verbal prompt to the subject. In the above example, the experimenter, in the role of the maitre d', would say "How was the meal?". The subject's responses were video-taped.

At each assessment time, all subjects were given four situations for giving criticism and four situations for receiving criticism.

The subjects' video taped responses were rated by trained judges who were graduate students in clinical psychology. These judges were blind to the objectives of the study as well as to the status of the subject. Ratings (1 to 7, with lower scores indicating poorer

responses) were made of specific verbal and non-verbal components of the social skill, as well as of more global performance in giving and receiving criticism. Non-verbal components were eye contact, voice inflection, verbal hesitancy, posture, fluidity, and a global (overall effectiveness) item. For giving criticism, the verbal components were; the use of "I" statements, specificity, clarity, empathy, making a clear request for change, and a global (overall effectiveness) item. A factor analysis (Varimax rotation method) revealed one general factor in each of the following: non-verbal giving criticism, non-verbal receiving criticism, verbal giving criticism, and verbal receiving criticism (see Appendix H). As the highest loading item in each category was the global score, only the global scores were used in the analysis. Alpha coefficient estimates of interjudge reliability for the global scores ranged from .61 to .94 and the median coefficient alpha was .82, indicating an acceptable level of interjudge reliability. Test-retest correlations were; .26 (nonverbal giving), .28 (nonverbal receiving), .22 (verbal giving), .15 (verbal receiving), for 50 control subjects.

THE SOCIAL SKILLS TRAINING PROGRAMS

Subjects participated in a social skills training program on giving and receiving criticism or were on a waiting list to get into the program. These waiting list control subjects were offered the opportunity to participate in the following year.

Subjects were randomly assigned to one of three versions of the social skills program in giving and receiving criticism, or to the waiting list control group. The three versions were: (1) cognitive-behavioral, (2) cognitive-experiential, and, (3) combined cognitive-behavioral-experiential.

Those programs having a behavioral component (two of the three programs) utilized behavioral rehearsal, coaching, feedback, video-tape modeling and instructions.

Those programs having a experiential component (two of the three programs) utilized experiential practices such as giving and receiving criticism on art work produced in the program.

Program Commonalities: All three programs had the cognitive restructuring component. This involved examining and discussing irrational ideas and related consequences, as well as rational alternatives to the irrational ideas.

All programs involved a presentation of effective verbal and non-verbal components of giving and receiving criticism. Subjects in all programs were given the same handouts and bibliography in the area of giving and receiving criticism. All programs had the same cognitive content and all program participants were encouraged to try out the criticism skills outside of the training program.

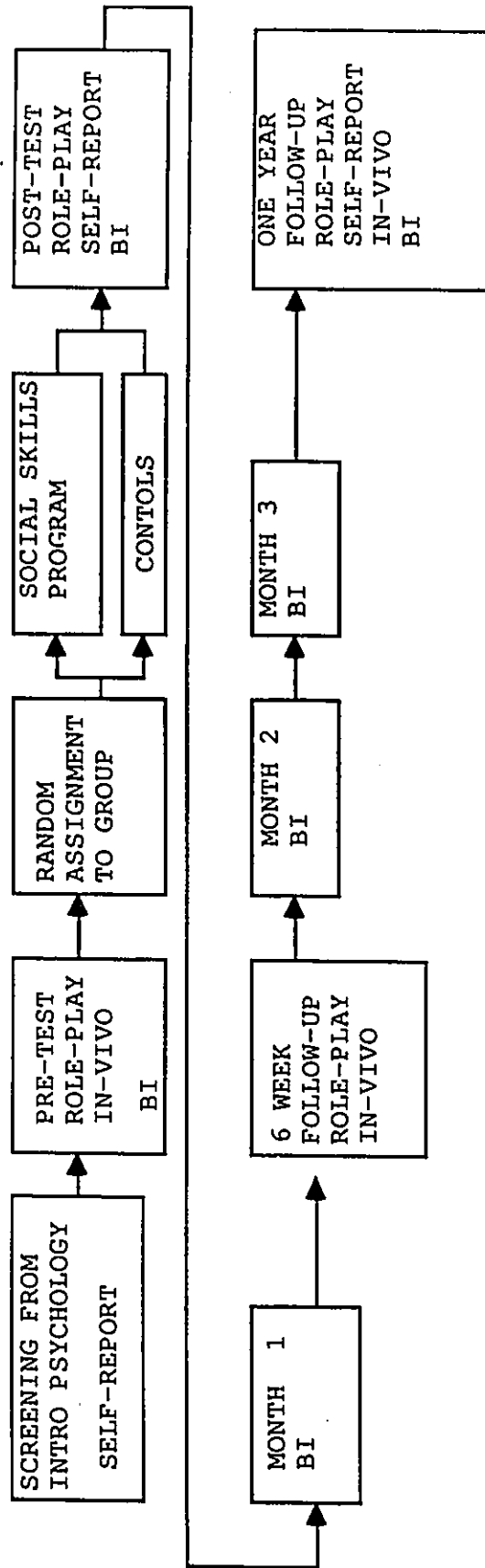
Each program had a four week duration, meeting for two and a half hours per week. Each group had two group leaders (one male and one female) present at each session. For each group, one group leader was an experienced (Mean=7 years), professional counsellor, and the other leader was a senior doctoral student in clinical psychology. Complete details of the treatment programs are available in the treatment manuals (McCarrey, Piccinin & Chislett, 1984).

EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

This study was part of a larger research project assessing the acquisition, maintenance and generalization of social skills training effects. A graphic flow chart outlining the different stages of the study and detailing where the assessment measures were employed is presented in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1

GRAPHIC FLOW CHART ILLUSTRATING COMPONENTS
OF THE RESEARCH STUDY OVER ONE YEAR



Program participants were categorized as being in either a high generalization or low generalization group, based on their one year post-program scores on 1) the in-vivo measure, 2) the self-report measure, and 3), the behavioral role-play measure. Each type of assessment was used, separately, to determine the high and low generalization groups because of the conflicting results found when using the different types of measures. Frisch and Higgins (1986) report very low correlations among role-play, in-vivo and self-report measures, indicating that the different types of assessment may be measuring different aspects of social skill. This method was preferable to using a composite score from the three different measures because the lack of correlation would likely obscure any existant differences. Also, the sample size was not large enough to use the three measures as a triple criterion screening procedure. This procedure was employed, separately, for giving criticism and for receiving criticism.

The high and low generalization groups were contrasted on their experiences involving criticism, as reported on the Biographical Inventory (BI) at pre-test, post-test, month 1, month 2, and one year after the program. (Although an effort had been made to collect BI data for each of the 12 post program months, the return of completed BI forms fell off sharply in

the post program months, even with repeated telephone calls to the participants.)

PROCEDURE

The Biographical Inventory (BI) was first administered to subjects at the behavioral role-play pre-test session. Subjects' participation in the study was sought in the last program session or at the behavioral role-play post-test. Subjects were asked to volunteer for a study into actual experiences of people using criticism skills. Subjects who agreed to participate were given these instructions: "What I am interested in is your actual experiences in giving and receiving criticism. There are no right or wrong answers. You may find that some of your experiences have gone well, while others have gone poorly. What will help me the most is if you are honest in reporting your experiences and feelings. Don't give me answers because it's what you think I want to hear. So, what I'm asking is that you answer the questionnaire according to what you really experienced and felt. Do you understand? Do you have any questions?"

Participants received multiple copies of the inventory, each copy being inside a stamped, addressed envelope. Subjects were asked to complete the inventory on the last day of that month, and,

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successively, on the last day of each of the following eleven months. Subjects were instructed to mail the inventory after completing it. Seven days after the requested day of completion, subjects whose inventories had not been received were phoned and encouraged to complete the inventory. One week after that call, a second call was made to any subject whose inventory had still not been received. Finally, an offer to help complete the inventory over the phone was made and encouragement as to the next month's inventory was given.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics of the Population Samples

Program participants were dichotomized into high and low generalization groups using the in-vivo, self-report, and behavioral role-play measures at the one year follow up. The gender, mean age and number of subjects at different time periods are presented in Table 1.

As Table 1 indicates, the number in each sample decreased with the repeated measurements over time. Many subjects (approximately 60%) have missing data for one or more time periods, as subjects who failed to complete the Biographical Inventory at some time period were still phoned and encouraged to send in the next month's data. At the one year follow-up, subjects were contacted by phone and also in person when they arrived for the behavioral role-play. This face to face contact resulted in a somewhat larger sample at the one year point.

The order of presentation of results.

The results from a Factor Analysis of the

TABLE 1

AGE, GENDER AND NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS
IN HIGH AND LOW GENERALIZATION GROUPS

PRE-TEST POST-TEST MONTH 1 MONTH 2 ONE YEAR

GROUP	AVG AGE	N	M	F	N	N	N	N
HIGH	23.2	28	13	15	17	16	17	14
LOW	24.5	24	6	18	15	7	8	13

Biographical Inventory items will be detailed.

The high and low generalization groups were determined, separately, from the in-vivo, self-report, and behavioral role-play measures. Results will be presented in that order.

The high and low generalization in-vivo groups will be contrasted on the in-vivo scores at each time period, to ascertain the extent to which generalization over time occurred, as assessed by that measure. The in-vivo generalization groups will then be contrasted on the BI factor scores at pre-test, post-test, month 1, month 2, and at the 1 year point.

Results from the self-report and the role-play generalization groups will then be presented, using the same format.

Gender differences, as evident on the Biographical Inventory at pre-test, will then be presented.

Differences between the experiences of giving versus receiving criticism, on the Biographical Inventory, will then be outlined.

Finally, the responses to the open-ended questions in the Biographical Inventory will be summarized.

A factor analysis (Varimax rotation method) was performed for the giving criticism items and for the receiving criticism items of the Biographical Inventory at pre-test.

In the giving criticism items, three factors emerged (minimum eigen value=2) accounting for 22.6, 9.2, and 7.6 percent of the inventory variance.

For the receiving criticism items, three factors were identified, accounting for 27, 10 and 8.8 percent of the inventory variance. The factors and items loading .5 and above are presented in Table 2.

An examination of the inventory items loading on the first factor revealed a clustering of items such as not feeling vulnerable, having control, not feeling anxious or tense, feeling that the risks involved in the skill are not a problem, and feeling that one was very good at using the skill. This factor was evident in both giving criticism and in receiving criticism and will be referred to as the Self-Efficacy Factor.

A second clustering of items contained responses such as feeling the skill had important uses, advantages, and benefits, feeling better about oneself and more confident in dealing with others as a result of using the skill, feeling that one had been effective, and that those effects were positive. This

TABLE 2. Factor structure and item loadings of the BI.

	BI Item	Giving	Receiving
FACTOR 1	1. When using criticism, I usually felt no tension or anxiety.	.74	.82
	2. When using criticism, I was not upset, angry or defensive.	.51	.74
	3. When using criticism, I felt not vulnerable.	.75	.70
	4. When using criticism, I had a great deal of control.	.51	.68
	5. When using criticism, I was very good at it.	.66	.68
	6. I look forward to using criticism with anticipation.	---	.64
	7. The risks of using criticism were too too high.	-.67	-.63
	8. I was very willing to use criticism.	.57	.62
	9. Using criticism has been harmful.	---	-.59
FACTOR 2	1. Using criticism has had some important advantages.	.74	.78
	2. Using criticism has made me feel alot better about myself.	.72	.60
	3. When using criticism, it was usually effective.	.70	.60
	4. Using criticism has made me feel more confident when dealing with people.	.64	.63
	5. Using criticism has been very beneficial.	.59	---
	6. I expect future consequences to be very positive.	.54	.54
	7. Criticism skills are very useful.	.54	.54
FACTOR 3	1. I took the initiative in using criticism.	.67	---
	2. The motivation to use criticism has not been a problem.	.63	---
	3. I actively looked for oppurtunities to use criticism.	.62	---
	4. The number of times I used criticism.	.51	.78

factor was also present in giving as well as receiving criticism and will be referred to as the Positive Consequences Factor.

The third clustering of items related to taking the initiative in using the skill, finding motivation to not be a problem, actively looking for opportunities to use the skill, and number of times engaging in the use of the skill. This factor was evident in giving criticism but, for receiving criticism, only the number of times of skill use loaded on the third factor. This factor will be referred to as the Skill-use Factor.

Subjects were given factor scores for each of these factors by calculating the mean of the item scores that loaded .5 or above on the relevant factor. The generalization groups will be contrasted on the resulting factor scores rather than on individual test items.

DETERMINATION OF THE HIGH AND LOW GENERALIZATION GROUPS USING THE IN-VIVO MEASURES

The in-vivo telephone call measures, at one year after the program, were used to dichotomize high generalization and low generalization groups on giving criticism as well as on receiving criticism. For

giving criticism, a score of greater than 3 indicated the respondent had used desired elements such as an explicit and specific request, explicit behavior descriptions and appropriate affect. A score of 3 or less involved responses such as hanging up the phone or excessive anger, humour or sarcasm (see Appendix G).

A score of 8 or more on the in-vivo receiving criticism measure indicated appropriate affect and that a position was taken on the controversial issue. A score of less than 8 involved responses such as a verbal attack or retreat, hanging up the phone, excessive anger, humour, or sarcasm, or making apologies.

The mean in-vivo criticism scores for the high and low generalization groups are presented in Figure 2 (giving criticism groups) and Figure 3 (receiving criticism groups).

The High-Giving (n=17) and Low-Giving (n=25) criticism groups were not different on their pre-test giving scores $t(40)=-.54$, $p=.589$. The High-Receiving (n=25) and Low-Receiving (n=17) criticism groups were not different on their pre-test receiving scores, $t(40)=-.69$, $p=.495$.

At the one year follow up, the High-Giving group

FIGURE 2
Groups Divided on 1 Year In-vivo Giving Criticism

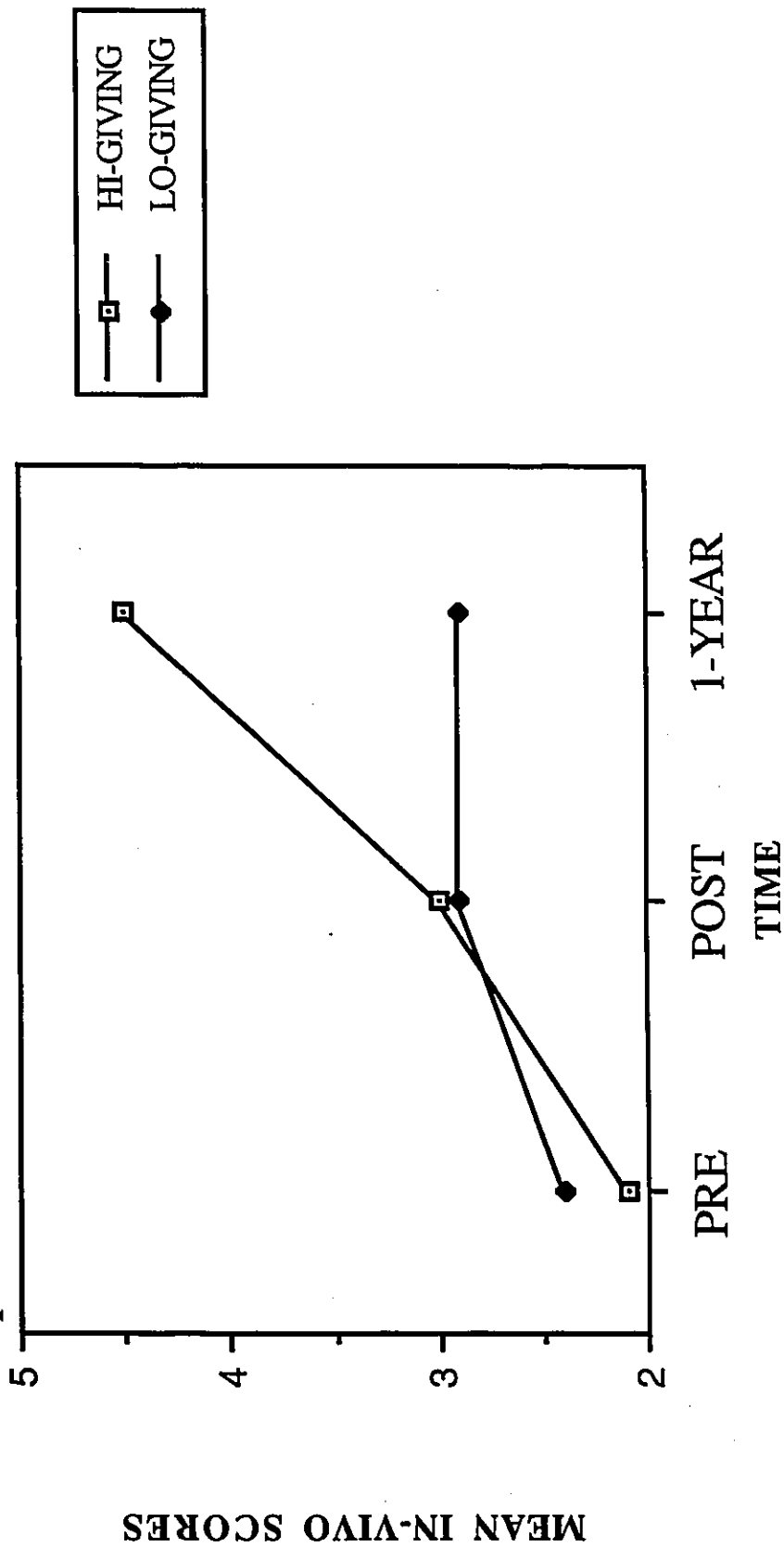
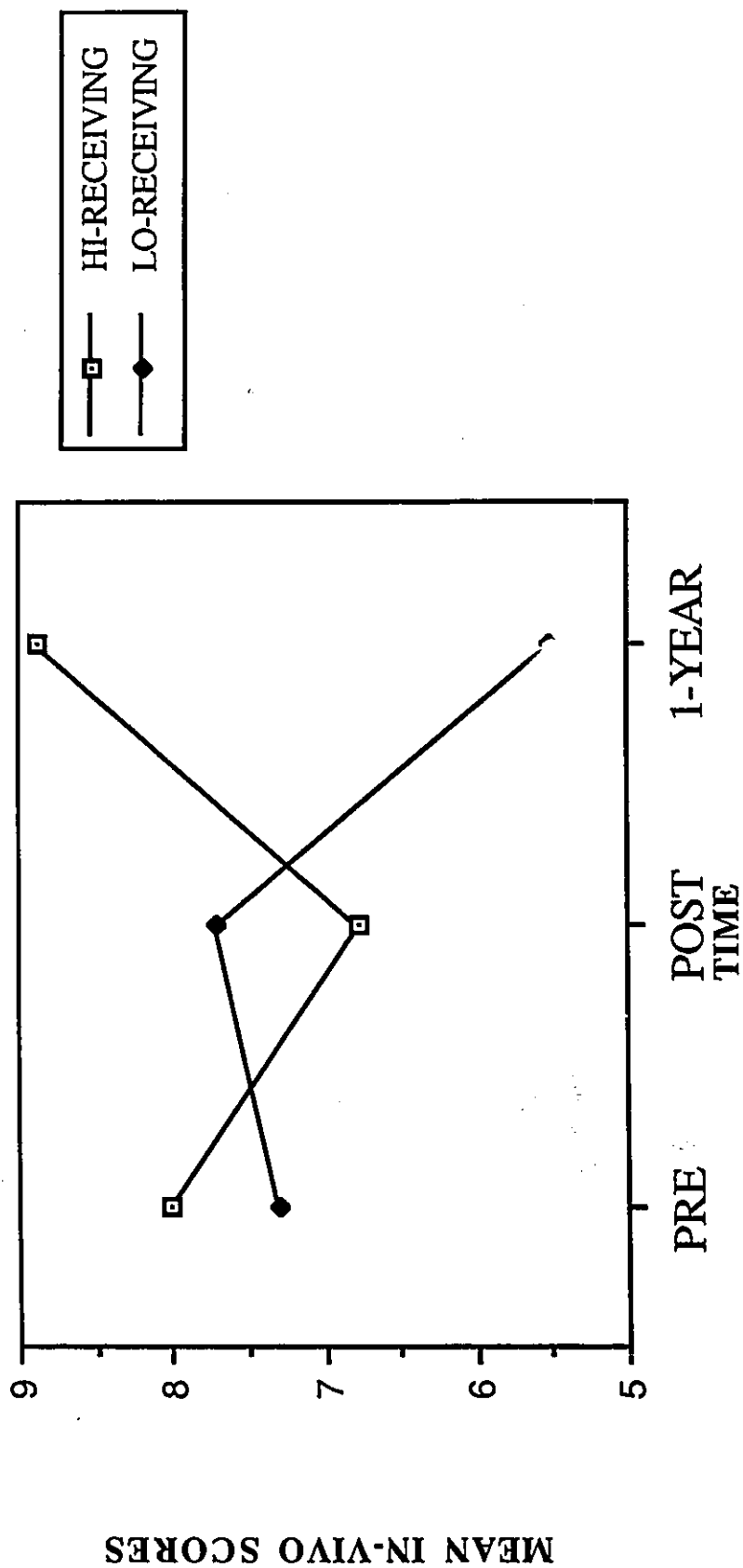


FIGURE 3
Groups Divided on 1 Year In-vivo Receiving Criticism



showed significant improvement from pretest, $t(16) = -6.63$, $p = .000$. The Low-Giving group were not significantly different from pre-test, $t(24) = 1.62$, $p = .119$. At the one year point, the HG group had an in-vivo mean score of 4.5, s.d. = .707, range = 3. The LG group had an in-vivo mean score of 2.9, s.d. = .354, range = 2. The High-Receiving group improved from pre-test, $t(24) = 3.96$, $p = .001$, and the Low-Receiving group showed a decrease in their scores, compared to pre-test, $t(16) = -3.87$, $p = .001$. At the one year point, the HG group had an in-vivo mean score of 8.9, s.d. = .354, range = 2. The LG group had an in-vivo mean score of 5.5, s.d. = 1.1, range = 5.

Comparison of the HG and LG In-Vivo Groups on the BI Factor Scores

Relative to the LG giving criticism group, the HG giving group scored higher on the positive consequences factor at month 2; $t(22) = 2.43$, $p = .01$. The in-vivo HG and LG groups were not significantly different on any other factor at any other time. Significance levels are based on one-tailed t-tests for independent groups.

DETERMINATION OF THE HIGH AND LOW GENERALIZATION GROUPS
USING THE SELF-REPORT MEASURES

The self-report measures at one year were used to divide the generalization groups for giving and receiving criticism. For giving criticism, the mean of the standardized Z-scores of the FNE, CCS and the self-esteem giving scores was calculated. This average self report score was used to dichotomize the high and low generalization groups, utilizing the median as the cut-off point discriminating the two groups.

The same procedure was employed for the receiving groups, with the substitution of the self-esteem receiving scores for the self-esteem giving scores.

The groups were then contrasted on the standardized self-report scores over three time periods.

As Figure 4 shows, the high giving group (n=23) scored significantly higher than the low giving group (n=23) at pre-test $t(44) = -2.83$, $p = .007$, at post-test $t(44) = -2.73$, $p = .009$, and at one year $t(44) = -8.69$, $p = .000$.

As shown in Figure 5, the high receiving group (n=22) scored significantly higher than the low receiving group (n=24) at pre-test $t(44) = -3.01$, $p = .004$, at post-test $t(44) = -3.83$, $p = .000$, and at one year $t(44) = -8.42$, $p = .000$.

FIGURE 4
Groups Divided on 1 Year Self-Report Giving Criticism

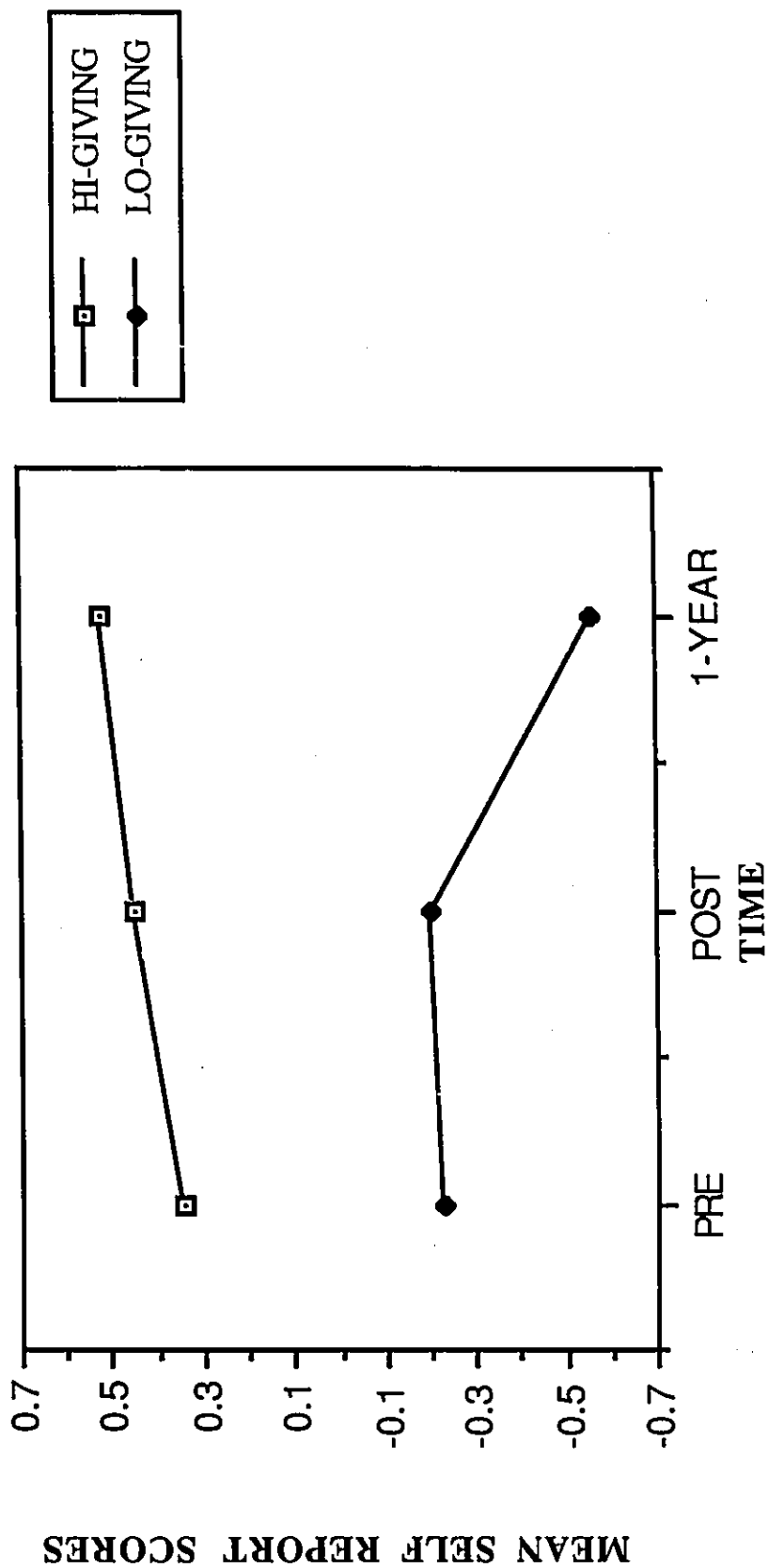
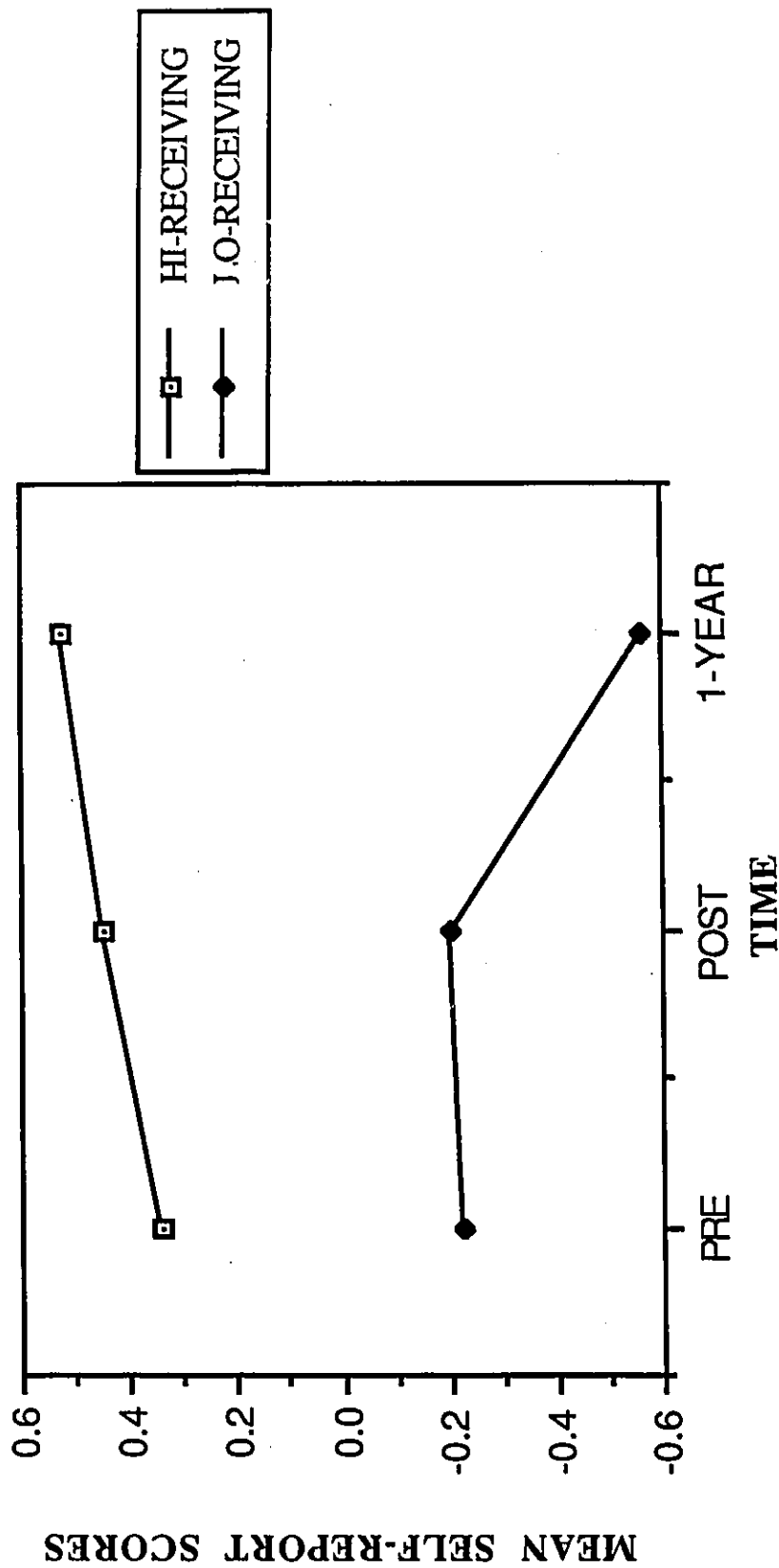


FIGURE 5
Groups Divided on 1 Year Self-Report Receiving Criticism



The high giving group improved from pre-test to one year $t(22)=-2.14$, $p=.043$, while the low giving group did not significantly change over time. At the one year point, the HG group had an mean self-report score of .562, s.d.=.261, range=1.23. The LG group had an mean self-report score of .460, s.d.=.459, range=1.53.

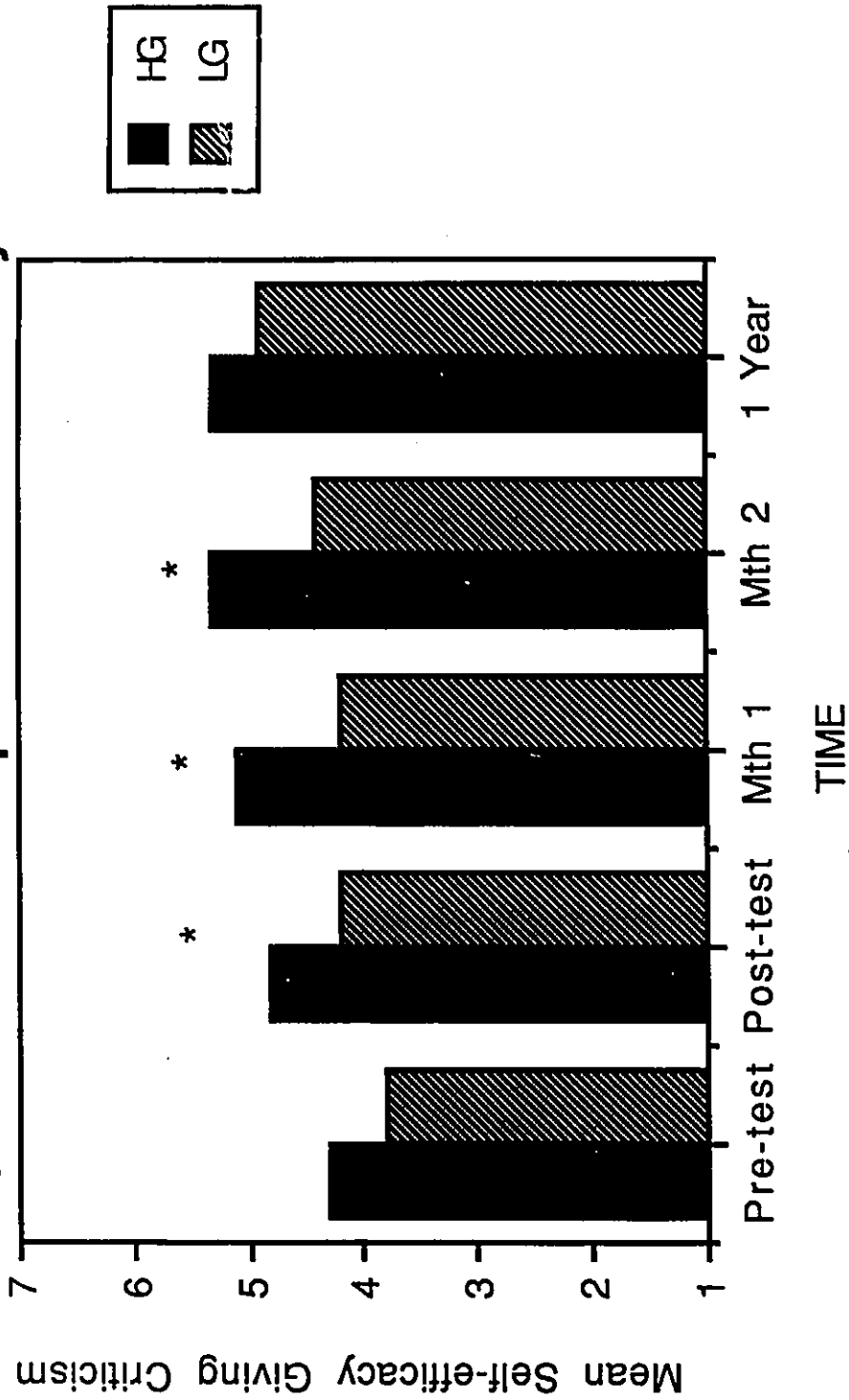
The high receiving group improved from pre-test to one year $t(23)=-2.55$, $p=.018$, while the low receiving group did not significantly change over time. At the one year point, the HG group had an mean self-report score of .514, s.d.=.315, range=1.57. The LG group had an mean self-report score of .547, s.d.=.510, range=1.74.

Comparison of the HG and LG Self-report Groups on the BI Factor Scores

As shown in Figure 6, the HG group scored significantly higher than the LG group on the self-efficacy factor, giving criticism, at post-test; $t(37)=-2.53$, $p=.008$, at month 1; $t(22)=-2.35$, $p=.014$, and at month 2; $t(22)=-2.43$, $p=.012$. The HG group also scored higher than the LG group on the positive consequences factor of giving criticism, at post-test; $t(37)=-1.69$, $p=.05$.

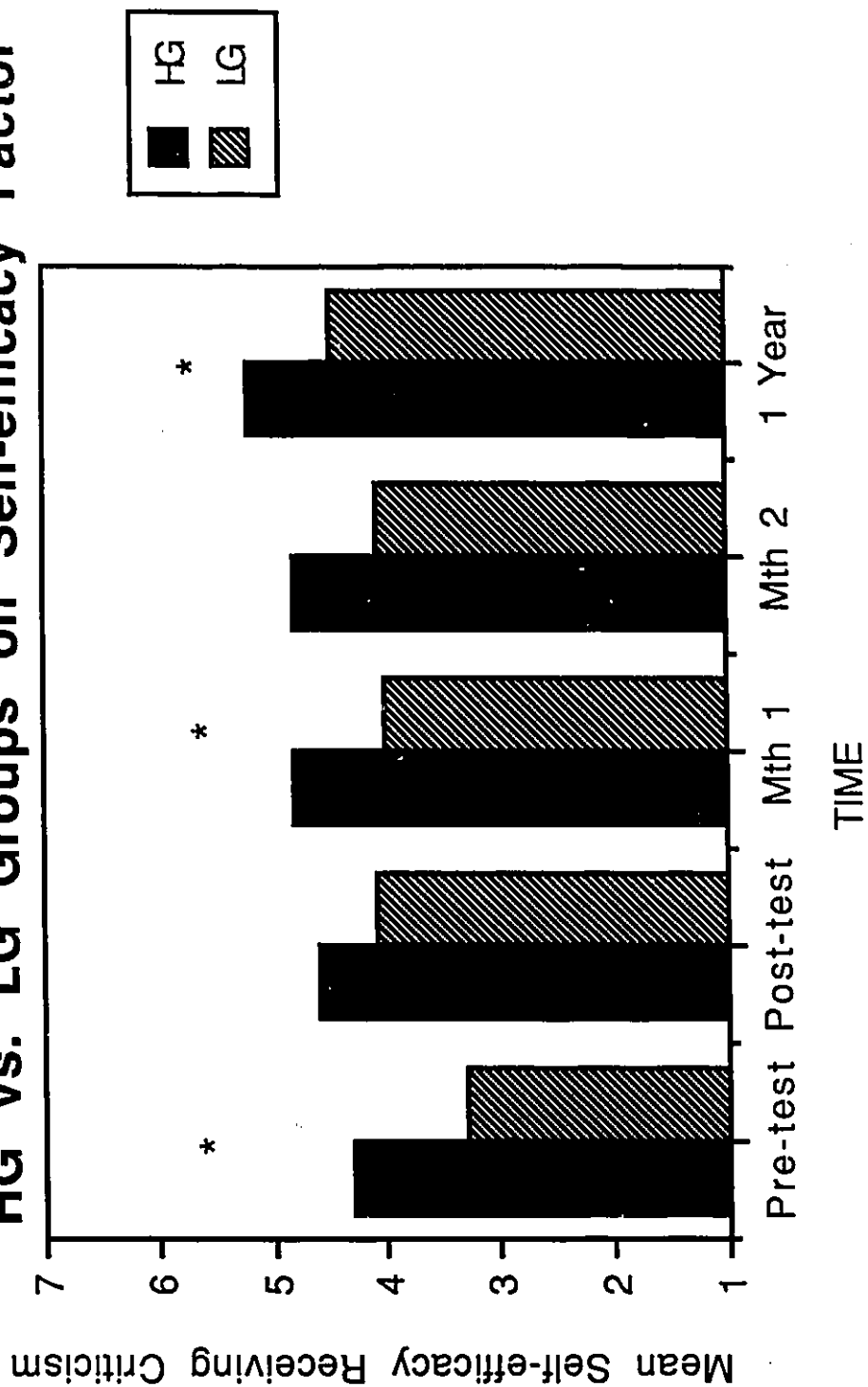
As shown in Figure 7, for receiving criticism, the

FIGURE 6
HG vs. LG Groups on Self-efficacy Factor



* Groups significantly different

FIGURE 7
HG vs. LG Groups on Self-efficacy Factor



* Groups significantly different

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HG self-report group scored higher than the LG group on the self-efficacy factor at at pre-test; $t(36)=3.00$, $p=.003$, at month 1; $t(21)=1.90$, $p=.036$, and at 1 year; $t(26)=1.98$, $p=.03$. Analysis of covariance (for pre-test differences) revealed that the HG group was not significantly different from the LG group on the self-efficacy factor at month 1; ANCOVA $(1,7)=0.6$, $p=.44$, nor at the 1 year point; ANCOVA $(1,7)=0.2$, $p=.64$.

The HG group scored higher than the LG group on the positive consequences factor of receiving criticism, at month 2; $t(24)=1.84$, $p=.04$. The self-report HG and LG groups were not significantly different on any factor at any other time. Significance levels are based on one-tailed t-tests for independent groups.

DETERMINATION OF THE HIGH AND LOW GENERALIZATION GROUPS USING THE BEHAVIORAL ROLE-PLAY MEASURES

The behavioral role-play measures at one year were used to divide the generalization groups for giving and receiving criticism. For giving criticism, the sum of the verbal and non-verbal giving scores was dichotomized at one year, using a median split. The same procedure was followed employing the receiving verbal and non-verbal scores.

The high and low receiving and giving groups were then contrasted on the role-play scores over the three time periods.

As shown in Figure 8, the high (n=19) and low (n=19) giving groups were significantly different at the one year follow-up $t(36)=7.37$, $p=.000$, but not at pre-test or post-test. The high giving group had improved from pre-test to one year $t(18)=3.35$, $p=.004$, and the low giving group scored significantly lower at one year in contrast with their pre-test scores $t(18)=4.9$, $p=.000$. At the one year point, the HG group had an mean role-play score of 9.2, s.d.=.49, range=1.8. The LG group had an mean role-play score of 7.6, s.d.=.93, range=3.7.

As shown in Figure 9, the high (n=17) and low (n=21) receiving groups were significantly different at the one year follow-up $t(36)=7.8$, $p=.000$, but not at pre-test or post-test. The low receiving group scored significantly lower than the pre-test at the one year follow-up $t(20)=12.26$, $p=.000$. The high receiving group did not significantly change from pre-test to the one year follow-up $t(16)=.07$, $p=.95$. At the one year point, the HG group had an mean role-play score of 9.2, s.d.=.50, range=1.8. The LG group had an mean role-play score of 7.5, s.d.=.83, range=3.6.

Comparison of the HG and LG Role-Play Groups on the BI

FIGURE 8
Groups Divided on 1 Year Role-Play Giving Criticism

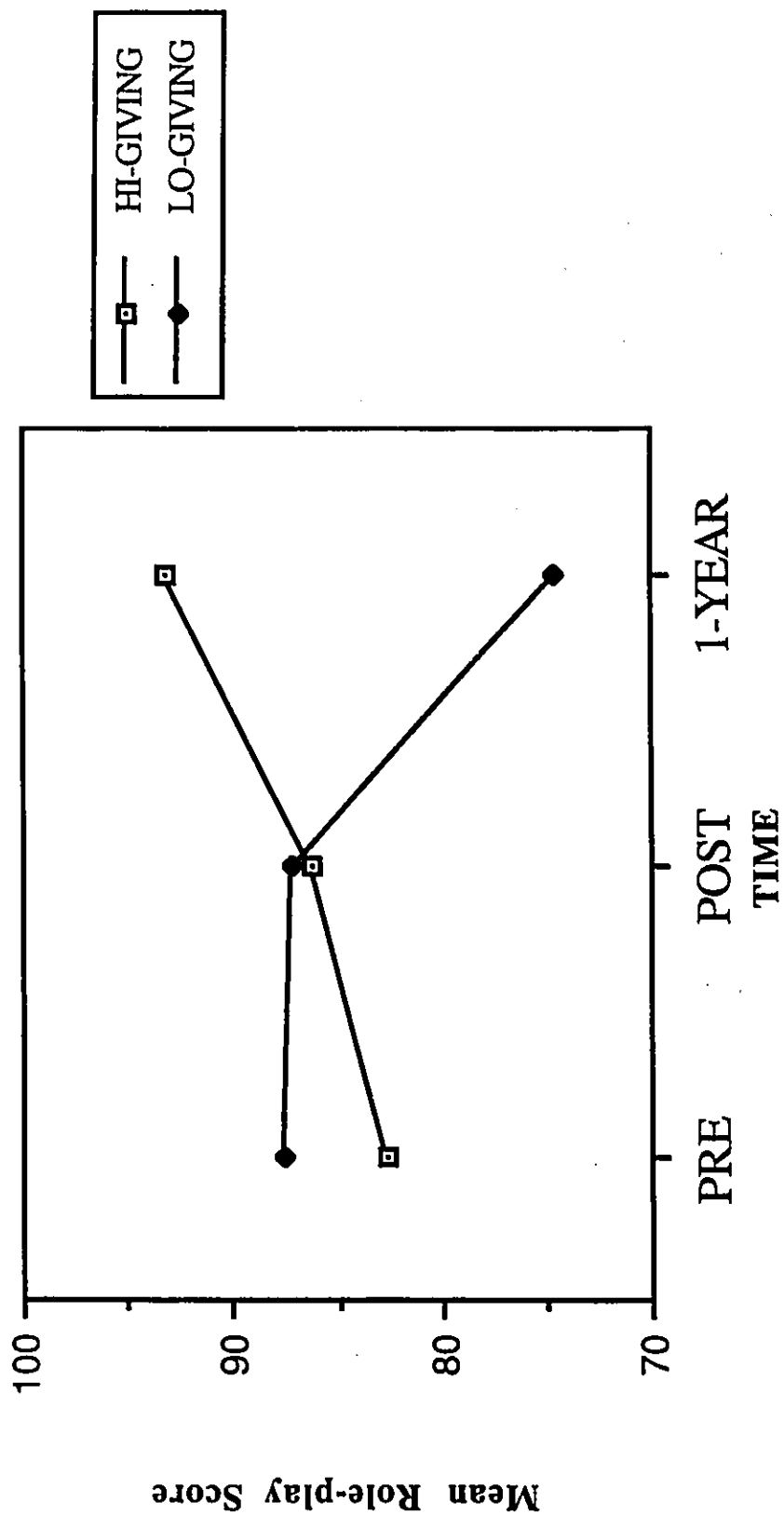
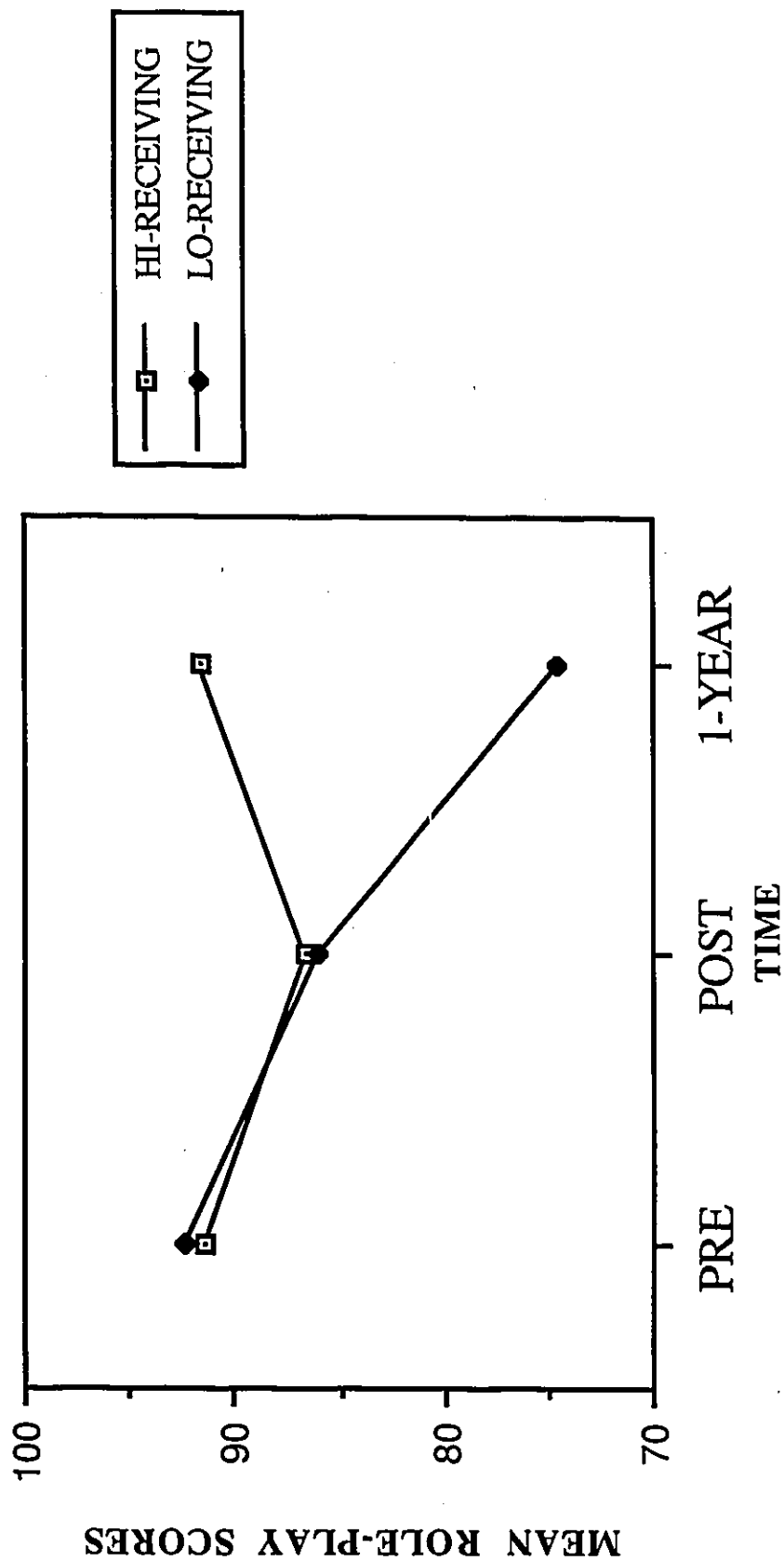


FIGURE 9
Groups Divided on 1 Year Role-Play Receiving Criticism



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Factor Scores The behavioral role-play HG and LG groups were not significantly different on any factor at any time.

Gender Differences at Pre-test on the Biographical Inventory

Males scored higher on the perceived positive effects of receiving criticism in commercial interactions $t(46) = -2.9$, $p = .006$. Females felt more vulnerable in receiving situations $t(103) = -2.05$, $p = .043$, and felt that the risks in receiving criticism were a greater problem than did males $t(102) = -2.76$, $p = .007$. Females also felt that receiving criticism from friends was useful, to a greater extent than did the males $t(73) = -2.94$, $p = .004$.

Males and females did not significantly differ on the actual number of reported criticism interactions, nor on the perceived number of successful interactions involving criticism at pre-test. Females, however, reported giving a greater percentage of their total criticism in intimate relationships ($\bar{x} = 60.5\%$, 41% , for females and males) than males $t(108) = -3.28$, $p = .001$. Males tended to receive a greater percentage of their total criticism from friends ($\bar{x} = 39.2\%$, 23.8% , for males and females, respectively) than females $t(103) = -2.43$, $p = .017$.

Differences in the Experiences of Giving vs. Receiving
Criticism Across Types of Situations

Subjects received more criticism from authority figures than they gave to authority figures $t(108) = -3.55$, $p = .001$, and they gave more criticism in commercial interactions than they received $t(108) = -2.86$, $p = .005$.

Giving criticism was avoided more so than receiving criticism $t(102) = -7.62$, $p = .000$, although subjects reported being more angry or upset in situations involving receiving criticism than in those involving giving criticism $t(104) = -1.98$, $p = .05$.

Subjects tended to value receiving criticism more so than giving criticism, as they felt that receiving criticism had more positive unexpected consequences $t(97) = -2.36$, $p = .02$, greater important advantages $t(107) = -2.69$, $p = .008$, was more beneficial $t(107) = -3.61$, $p = .000$, and expected more positive consequences $t(107) = -3.95$, $p = .000$.

Responses to Open-Ended Questions in the Biographical
Inventory

Answers to the open-ended questions were placed in categories or headings which sum up a large number of

similar or identical responses and which represent all of the subjects responses at pre-test (N=113). As much as possible, the actual words of the subjects are given as the descriptors of the categories. The questions refer to the experiences of the person in giving and receiving criticism over the week prior to filling out the questionnaire.

(1) Some things that made it hard for me to give criticism were;

(A) Concern about the reaction of the receiver.

Subjects were concerned that the receiver would feel hurt, angry, offended or upset. This led to the worry that the receiver might feel hostile and retaliate against the giver and subjects were apprehensive about the loss of friendship this might entail. Some subjects also indicated that they wanted to protect the feelings of the potential receiver, as they did not want them to feel hurt or upset.

(B) Concern about ones' ability and skill to give criticism.

Subjects reported an uncertainty as to whether they would be able to express what they felt, be diplomatic, effective and appropriate in giving criticism.

(C) Concern about the importance and validity of the criticism.

Subjects expressed an uncertainty about whether the criticism was valid, correct, necessary or important enough to give.

(D) Concern about how one would appear to the receiver.

Subjects were concerned that they would appear rude, insulting, condescending or arrogant. Subjects wondered if they had the right to give criticism or if it was any of their business.

(E) The nature of the relationship between the giver and receiver.

Subjects felt it was harder to give criticism in close relationships, with good friends, in intimate relationships, with older people and with employers.

(F) The specific topic of the criticism.

Subjects indicated that they needed to feel knowledgeable on the particular topic and also felt that personal issues, beliefs and values were more difficult to criticize.

(2) Some things that made it easy for me to give criticism were;

(A) The nature of the relationship between the giver and receiver.

Subjects felt it was easier to give criticism with younger people, with staff at work, and with family members and friends. They felt it was easier with those where the relationship had good communication and where they could relate and empathize with the other.

(B) The reaction of the receiver.

Reportants felt it was easier to give criticism when the receiver appeared open, accepting, attentive, receptive, and not upset or offended. Subjects found it easier when the receiver recognized that they were trying to be helpful and responded positively.

(C) The importance and validity of the criticism.

Subjects found it easier to give when they felt strongly that the criticism was justified, important or valuable. A confidence or belief in the validity of the criticism often led to strong emotional feelings which also made it easier to give the criticism.

(D) Situational factors.

Subjects felt it was easier to give criticism on the phone, in comfortable situations, in private and in an appropriate time and place.

(E) Skill and ability.

Subjects indicated that it was easier when they could be positive, express criticism in a non-aggressive or joking way, and had confidence in their ability and knowledge of the issues.

(3) What were the benefits of giving criticism?

(A) The reduction of tension.

Subjects felt that giving criticism resulted in clearing the air, reducing tension and stress, and feeling more relaxed.

(B) Helping the person receiving the criticism.

Subjects reported that one benefit was that the person was helped by the criticism, that the receiver appreciated and used the criticism to make some changes.

(C) A better relationship with the receiver.

Respondants indicated that giving the criticism resulted in a strengthened relationship, increased mutual understanding, broke down some walls, improved communication and trust, and that they learned more about the receiver.

(D) Increased self-esteem.

Subjects reported that they trusted their own opinions more, felt satisfaction in asserting their views, felt more self confident, and gained personal satisfaction in making efforts to solve the problem, and felt that they had more knowledge and skill in dealing with people.

(E) Bringing about positive change.

Subjects indicated that one benefit was that they had solved the difficulty, the desired act was stopped and that they had been effective.

(4) What were the harmful effects of giving criticism?

(A) The reaction of the receiver.

Subjects indicated that some people reacted in a negative way, became offended, depressed, hurt, upset, sad, angry, defensive, or resentful. This, at times, resulted in an argument, getting the cold shoulder, or putting a strain on the relationship.

(B) Negative emotional states.

Some individuals reported feeling guilty, anxious, uncomfortable, hurt, less self confident, responsible

for upsetting the other person, and some subjects felt that they had been wrong in their criticism.

(5) What were some unexpected consequences or effects of giving criticism?

(A) A strong, negative emotional reaction to receiving criticism.

Subjects reported that some individuals reacted by becoming extremely angry, upset, defensive, bitter, rude, rejecting the criticism outright or even laughing at the giver. For some, this resulted in a strain or actual ending of the previous relationship.

(B) An immediate and positive reaction.

Some subjects unexpectedly received an immediate and positive response in that the person agreed, the issue was given serious consideration, and the feedback was appreciated as valid.

(C) A closer relationship.

Subjects reported feeling closer to the receiver, and feeling that there was more understanding between them. Some subjects noted that information that they had not been aware of had come out of the interaction and this led to greater understanding and closeness.

(6) Some things that made it hard for me to receive criticism were;

(A) Perceived validity of the criticism.

Subjects found it harder to receive criticism when they felt that the criticism was valid, correct or accurate. Some subjects indicated that they didn't want to admit it. It was also more difficult to receive if they felt the criticism was not valid or unjustified.

(B) The subjects emotional reaction.

It was difficult to receive when the subjects began to feel inadequate, depressed, inferior, remorseful, insecure, small, sensitive, rejected, vulnerable, defensive or self dissatisfied. Some subjects wondered if the giver thought of them in a very negative way and if there were other things about themselves that the giver didn't approve of.

(C) The manner in which the criticism was given.

It was hard to receive when the giver used a rude or angry tone of voice, if the person was insulting, if the criticism wasn't fully explained, or if the criticism was completely negative. Subjects also felt that location was important and it was difficult to receive in a public place.

(D) The prior mood of the receiver.

Subjects felt it was difficult to receive criticism if they were already feeling down, tired, stressed, vulnerable, or uncertain about themselves.

(E) The nature of the criticism.

It was harder to receive criticism of a more personal nature or if the thing being criticized was something that couldn't be changed.

(F) The relationship with the giver.

Reportants found it harder to receive from family and friends.

(7) Some things that made it easy for me to receive criticism were;

(A) Feeling that the criticism was useful.

It was easier to receive when it was felt the criticism was useful, helpful, valid, or beneficial.

(B) The perceived intention of the giver.

Feeling that the giver was actually trying to be helpful and had their best interests at heart.

(C) The prior mood of the receiver.

It was easier to receive if the receivers were already feeling good about themselves, feeling positive, had a good day or were in a good mood.

(D) The relationship to the giver.

Subjects indicated that it was easier to receive when they felt comfortable with the person and when the giver was a friend or family member.

(E) The manner in which the criticism was given.

It was easier to receive when the criticism was given in a joking, constructive, caring or supportive manner and when positive feedback was also included.

(8) What were the benefits of receiving criticism?

(A) Self improvement and self awareness.

Subjects reported that they were able to grow, improve as a person and learn more about themselves and dealing with conflict.

(B) Clarifying expectations.

Another benefit was clarifying the expectations of employers and friends.

(C) Improved relationships.

Subjects indicated that receiving criticism had eased tensions, aided in understanding the giver and how the giver perceived them, and improved the relationship.

(9) What were the harmful effects of receiving criticism?

(A) Resulted in a negative emotional state.

Reportants indicated that the criticism resulted in feeling depressed, uneasy, self-conscious, angry at oneself or the other, upset, defensive, embarrassed, humbled, hurt, put down, anxious or resentful.

(B) A negative effect on the relationship.

Subjects felt that some harmful effects were a strain on the relationship, a loss of closeness, or losing respect for the other.

(10) What were some unexpected consequences or effects of receiving criticism?

(A) The receivers reaction to the criticism.

Subjects indicated that their own reactions were

unexpected and reported that they became hurt, angry, defensive, confused, or upset. More positive, unexpected reactions were feeling confident, standing up for oneself, appreciating the criticism or feeling better able to relate to others.

(B) Effects on the relationship.

Some unexpected effects were an increased closeness with the giver, learning more about the giver and feeling good that the giver was free to discuss the criticism.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

This study was designed to assess post-program cognitions and experiences linked to differential skill in giving and receiving criticism, over the year following participation in a social skills training program. The general hypothesis was that certain expectancies and appraisals of skill-relevant interactions would discriminate the group showing greater generalization of the criticism skills over time from the group that showed little or no generalization. Does the high generalization group have different beliefs, expectancies, attitudes, perceptions or intentions than the low generalization group? What are the most important or consistent differences between the generalization groups?

The results indicate that on in-vivo and self-report measures, differential generalization groups at one year did differ, in their beliefs and experiences associated with giving and receiving criticism. These results support the general hypothesis that cognitive expectancies and appraisals of skill-relevant interactions would discriminate the high generalization from the low generalization groups one year after participation in a social skills training program.

The results from the in-vivo generalization groups will be discussed first, followed by a discussion of the self-report, and then role-play generalization groups. This will be followed by a brief summary.

Because of the large number of statistical analyses, there was an increased possibility that some 'significant' contrasts would occur as a result of the quantity of comparisons made. The summary will focus, therefore, on those particular results which are consistent across time or generalization group (Fiske & Goodman, 1965).

DIFFERENTIAL EXPERIENCES OF HIGH VS LOW IN-VIVO GENERALIZATION GROUPS

When using the in-vivo measures to assess generalization, the HG giving criticism group scored higher than the LG group on the positive consequences factor at month 3. The groups were not different on any other factor at any other time.

Although it had been hypothesized that self-efficacy expectations (Bandura, 1977) would play a key role in the generalization of criticism this does not appear to be the case for the experiences of these subjects. As assessed by the in-vivo measure, the HG criticism groups did, in fact, perform at a superior level than

the low group. However, these subjects did not self-report themselves to have a greater mastery in giving or receiving criticism. It is possible that these subjects, although demonstrating superior in-vivo performance one year post-program, may have underated their own ability. This is consistent with the findings of Clarke & Arkowitz, (1975) that socially anxious subjects tend to underate their assertive ability compared to independent raters. The subjects in this study were in the top third of the FNE scale, indicating they were socially anxious. Socially anxious subjects who learned and developed social skills may, however, still process information in the way that they did when they were less socially skilled. It would appear that skill maintenance and unchanged perfectionistic standards of the socially anxious subjects went hand in hand in this study.

Statistical Power

An inspection of the means reveals that there was a non-significant tendency for the high receiving group to report higher self-efficacy perceptions than the low group. It may be that the relatively small sample size weakened the power of the measure to pick up differences that did occur. Because of this

possibility, the statistical power (Cohen, 1969) was calculated for the in-vivo receiving groups on the self-efficacy responses at post-test and at month two. At post-test, with an effect size of of (.54) and (n's=13,13), the power of the measure to detect a significant difference at the (.05) level was (.34), or approximately only one time in three. At month 2, with the effect size being (.21) and (n's=7,12), the power was calculated to be (.10), or only one time in ten would such an effect size be significant. This demonstrates that as the sample size decreases over time, so to does the power of the measure to detect significant differences. The significant differences that were found were due to the relatively large effect size.

The low power of the measure does not permit a conclusive answer to the question of the role of self-efficacy perceptions. Results from the power analysis indicate that non-significant comparisons must be interpreted with caution, and the possibility of such differences can not be confidently ruled out.

DIFFERENTIAL EXPERIENCES OF HIGH VS LOW SELF-REPORT GENERALIZATION GROUPS

The HG self-report giving criticism group scored consistently higher than the LG group on the self-

efficacy factor and also reported more positive consequences at post-test. Bandura specifically predicts that early successes enhance mastery expectations. Although the finding of greater positive consequences must be treated with caution as it was not consistent over time, it does support Bandura's prediction. The perception of positive consequences arising from skill related interactions immediately after the program appears to have impacted on the self-efficacy perceptions of the subjects. This is consistent with Bandura's notion that actual performance is the most central source of efficacy information. It may be that early perceptions of positive consequences are critical in the formation of efficacy perceptions and enhanced efficacy strength subsequently sustains the behavior over time.

Those subjects who perceived themselves to have greater mastery in their post-program experiences with giving criticism also demonstrated generalization over the year on the self-report measures. How is it that self-efficacy perceptions had such a lasting impact on the skill of giving criticism? Bandura reasoned that self-efficacy expectations influenced the quality of the performance by increasing the intensity and persistence of the effort. Increased efficacy perceptions allow the person to feel more comfortable and less anxious in skill related interactions.

Consistent with Banduras (1977) model; persistence, willingness to use the skill, lowered anxiety, perceptions of skill mastery, less perceived risk, and greater feelings of control all clustered in the self-efficacy factor. Theoretically, enhanced mastery perceptions would create a context of safety and comfortableness for skill use, offering an incentive for the person to persist in the behavior over time. This finding is consistent with the many studies showing a strong, negative correlation between self-efficacy expectancies and anxiety (Leary & Atherton, 1986; Moe & Ziess, 1982). Maddux, Norton and Stoltenberg (1986) also reported that self-efficacy expectations were correlated with behavioral intention. Thus, enhanced self-efficacy perceptions would cognitively accompany reduced anxiety, favorably impact on motivation, and serve as an enhanced positive incentive along with a diminished negative one. The results from this research underline the importance of self-efficacy perceptions, not only in the short term prediction of behavior, but also in the development and generalization of social behavior over a relatively long interval of time. In summary, the generalization of giving criticism across time appears beneficially affected by strength of self-efficacy.

For experiences involving the receiving of criticism, the HG group had higher self-efficacy

perceptions than the LG group at pre-test, at month 1 and at one year. Post-program differences in efficacy strength, however, dissappeared when pretest efficacy differences were covaried out. Generalization of receiving criticism skill accompanied subjects initial (pre-program) level of mastery perception. As all subjects were selected on the basis of having a high fear of negative evaluation, it can be expected that the initial attitude towards receiving criticism was quite negative or fearful. Recall that at pretest subjects reported being more upset in situations involving receiving criticism, than in giving criticism situations. Even within the restricted range of this sample (socially anxious subjects), there were some important pretest subject differences in the more affect laden experiences of receiving criticism. Although all subjects were high on social anxiety, it appears that some individuals had a moderate degree of efficacy strength, while others indicated an extremely low level of self-efficacy. The latter group may have been socially anxious to the extent that the skills training program had little impact on their experiences with the anxiety illiciting situations of receiving criticism.

In the responses to the open ended questions, subjects indicated that the effects of giving and receiving criticism ranged from an increased sense of

closeness and intimacy, to a bitter and angry ending of a previous relationship. These extreme potential outcomes to criticism interactions not only highlight the value and importance of being skillful in giving and receiving criticism, but also indicate why anxiety would be associated with the use of the skills.

DIFFERENTIAL EXPERIENCES OF HIGH VS LOW BEHAVIORAL
ROLE-PLAY GENERALIZATION GROUPS

Why were there no apparent experiential/cognitive differences between the high and low role-play criticism groups? It may be that there were no differences because factors other than those assessed by the Biographical Inventory covaried with generalization. In other words, the high and low generalization groups were really not different in their experiences, expectancies and self-efficacy perceptions. This, of course is the null hypothesis, and suggests expectancies and efficacy perceptions were not related to the generalization of criticism skills. This is, however, in contrast with the findings using in-vivo and self-report criticism measures. Further, the high receiving role-play group was not significantly different from pre-test to the one year follow-up on the role-play measure, bringing in to question the appropriateness of the role-play scores as a measure of criticism generalization across time.

These undergraduate university students may have known what they should do, even at pre-test, and this knowledge of appropriate behavior obviously did not change over time.

Were the role-play measures valid measures of generalization to the subjects life experiences? If the role-play measures did not reflect the actual experiences and perceptions of the subjects, the external validity of these measures was limited. That they did not was attested to by the sharply reduced costs and diminished accountability borne by subjects who could role play appropriate behavior in a supportive environment but never actually perform such responses in the rough and tumble real life in the context of long term roles as spouses, parents, peers, supervisors or subordinates. Frisch and Higgins (1986) demonstrated that responses to role-play measures did differ from in-vivo responses and were not correlated even to self-report measures of similar content. In this study, the strongest role-play correlation was that of the role-play and in-vivo receiving criticism measures (.23). Although this is a statistically significant correlation, the amount of variance that is explained by the relationship (5%) is minimal at best, indicating that other factors were responsible for variation in the role-play performance (Lemelin, Piccinin, Chislett & McCarrey, 1986). Frisch and

Higgins (1986) argue that reduced concern over negative consequences in the role-play situations differentiates role-play from in-vivo experience. From that point of view, expected consequences and self-efficacy perceptions would more likely be influential in in-vivo or self-report responses than in role-play situations. Another recent study (Monti, Zwick & Warzak, 1986) found a very weak relationship between role-played social skills and irrational beliefs, indicating that role-play measures may not be useful in the assessment of dysfunctional cognitions. In this study, it appeared that expectancies and evaluations of ones' criticism experiences had little impact on the quality of the role-play performance for those skills.

Summary and Conclusions

For giving criticism, it appeared that increased self-efficacy perceptions enabled individuals to engage in skill relevant interactions with some confidence. Enhanced efficacy strength may act as a cognitive source of motivation, facilitating the development and generalization of the skill over time. The perception of greater skill mastery is cognitively reinforcing, resulting in further skill use as instrumental in attaining those positive feelings again in the future.

For receiving criticism, subjects pretest efficacy strength was related to self-reported performance one

year later.

The ex post facto nature of this research study necessitates some caution in interpreting the relationship between expectancies and generalization. There may be some other factor which is responsible for both the expectancies and the generalization. A promising direction for future research may be in examining the long term effects of interventions aimed specifically at influencing self-efficacy, outcome expectancies and behavioral intentions.

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Appendix A

The relationship between the hypotheses (page 33) and the Biographical Inventory items, for giving and receiving criticism.

- 1) perceive the positive consequences of skill use to be greater than the negative consequences:

Giving criticism; BI Question # 10, 12, 18, 23

Receiving criticism; BI Question # 9, 11, 17, 22

- 2) expect the future consequences to be more positive:

Giving criticism; BI Question # 34

Receiving criticism; BI Question # 28

- 3) perceive greater benefits of skill use:

Giving criticism; BI Question # 10, 14, 17, 19, 20

Receiving criticism; BI Question # 9, 17, 16, 18

- 4) perceive themselves to be more competent in using the skills:

Giving criticism; BI Question # 29

Receiving criticism; BI Question # 23

- 5) perceive the skills to be more instrumental in attaining personal goals and objectives:

Giving and receiving criticism; BI Question # 1

Receiving criticism; BI Question # 19

6) feel a greater sense of control in skill relevant interactions:

Giving criticism; BI Question # 37

Receiving criticism; BI Question # 24

7) perceive the risks in using the skill to be less:

Giving criticism; BI Question # 12, 22

Receiving criticism; BI Question # 11, 21

8) have a more favorable anticipation of new interactions where the skill can be employed:

Giving criticism; BI Question # 32

Receiving criticism; BI Question # 26

9) be more willing to use the skills in situations where the immediate consequences are unclear:

Giving criticism; BI Question # 31

Receiving criticism; BI Question # 25

10) perceive a greater number of skill relevant situations:

Giving criticism; BI Question # 1

Receiving criticism; BI Question # 1

11) self initiate a greater proportion of skill relevant interactions.

Giving criticism; BI Question # 27

Receiving criticism; BI Question # 3

12) report a lower level of anxiety and tension when using the skills:

Giving criticism; BI Question # 9, 26

Receiving criticism; BI Question # 8, 20

13) tend to persevere more in the interactions:

Giving criticism; BI Question # 30

14) experience a longer duration time of individual interactions:

Giving criticism; BI Question # 4

Receiving criticism; BI Question # 4

15) perceive a greater number of interactions as successful, and:

Giving criticism; BI Question # 3

16) intend to use the skills in the future to a greater extent:

Giving criticism; BI Question # 33

Receiving criticism; BI Question # 27

GIVING CRITICISM

Appendix B

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IN THE LAST WEEK

1. How many times in the last week did you give criticism? ()

2. How many of those times involved giving criticism to:
 - a) authority figures (employers, professors, etc.) ()
 - b) intimate relationships (family, spouse, girl or boy friend) ()
 - c) commercial or business interactions (sales clerks, waiters, etc.)()
 - d) friends or peers (other students, fellow workers, etc.) ()

3. How many of those times do you feel were successful with?
 - a) authority figures (employers, professors, etc.) ()
 - b) intimate relationships (family, spouse, girl or boy friend) ()
 - c) commercial or business interactions (sales clerks, waiters, etc.)()
 - d) friends or peers (other students, fellow workers, etc.) ()

4. On the average, how much time did you spend with the person when giving criticism?()

5. Some things that made it hard for me to give criticism were:

6. Some things that made it easy for me to give criticism were:

7. In the last week, my circle of friends and acquaintances has:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
decreased			same			increased

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8. How many times did you avoid giving criticism in the last week
(at the time you were aware that you could give criticism but
didn't)? ()

9. When giving criticism I usually felt:

a) 1	2	3	4	5	6	7
a lot of tension or anxiety			some tension or anxiety			no tension or anxiety

b) 1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very angry and upset			a little angry or upset			not angry or upset at all

10. I found that giving criticism in the last week has been:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not beneficial or useful at all			somewhat beneficial or useful			very beneficial or useful

11. What were the benefits? _____

12. I found that giving criticism in the last week has been:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not at all harmful			somewhat harmful			very harmful

13. What were the harmful effects? _____

14. What effect did your giving criticism in the last week have on your relationship with:

a) authority figures (employers, professors, etc.)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
relationship ended or very strained			no noticeable change			enjoy even better relationship

b) with intimate relationships (spouse, family, etc)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
relationship ended or very strained			no noticeable change			enjoy even better relationship

c) commercial or business interactions (sales clerks, waiters, etc.)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
relationship ended or very strained			no noticeable change			enjoy even better relationship

d) friends or peers (other students, fellow workers, etc.)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
relationship ended or very strained			no noticeable change			enjoy even better relationship

15. Were the effects of giving criticism in the last week what you expected?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not at all what I expected			somewhat like I expected			almost exactly what I expected

16. Some of the unexpected consequences or effects of giving criticism were _____

17. Overall, I felt that those consequences or effects were:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very negative			neutral			very positive

18. Overall, I feel that giving criticism in the last week has had:

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a) 1	2	3	4	5	6	7
no advantages			some advantages			some important advantages
b) 1	2	3	4	5	6	7
no disadvantages			some disadvantages			some important disadvantages

19. In the last week, giving criticism has made me feel:

a) 1	2	3	4	5	6	7
worse about myself			no change			a lot better about myself
b) 1	2	3	4	5	6	7
less confident in dealing with people			no change			more confident in dealing/ with people

20. Overall, in the last week I found that the reaction I received from those I gave criticism to was:

a) with authority figures (employers, professors, etc.)						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very negative -person angry/ upset			neutral			very positive person appreciated criticism
b) intimate relationships (spouse, family, girl or boy friend etc.)						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very negative -person angry/ upset			neutral			very positive person appreciated criticism
c) commercial or business interactions (sales clerks, waiters, etc.)						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very negative -person angry/ upset			neutral			very positive person appreciated criticism

d) friends or peers (other students, fellow workers, etc.)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very negative -person angry/ upset			neutral			very positive person appreciated criticism

21. This last week when I gave criticism, I found that it was usually effective/ineffective:

a) with authority figures (employers, professors, etc.) because:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
thing that was criticized now worse than before			no change			thing that was criticized was improved

b) with intimate relationship (spouse, girl/boy friend, family) because:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
thing that was criticized now worse than before			no change			thing that was criticized was improved

c) with commercial or business interactions (sales clerks, waiters, etc.) because:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
thing that was criticized now worse than before			no change			thing that was criticized was improved

d) friends or peers (other students, fellow workers, etc.) because:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
thing that was criticized now worse than before			no change			thing that was criticized was improved

22. In the last week I have found the risks of giving criticism to be:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
no problem			moderate			too high

23. In the last week I have found that the benefits of giving criticism are:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
less than the costs			about the same as the costs			greater than the costs

24. With respect to the control I feel I had over the situation last week, I have found that giving criticism:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
left me with too little control			some control			I have a great deal of control

25. In the last week, I have found the motivation necessary to give criticism:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
totally lacking			somewhat of a problem			absolutely no problem

26. In the last week when I gave criticism I felt:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very vulnerable			somewhat vulnerable			not vulnerable at all

27. In the last week, to what extent have you been the one to take the initiative in giving criticism:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
none of the time			half of the time			all of the time

28. In the last week, to what extent have you actively looked for opportunities to give criticism?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not at all			somewhat			most of the time

29. In the last week, when I gave criticism, I felt I was:

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1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not very good at it			average			very good at it

30. In the last week, when giving criticism, I:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
didn't push the issue			tried for awhile			was very persistent

31. In general how willing were you to give criticism when you were
unsure of how the person would react?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not willing at all			somewhat willing			very willing

32. In the coming week, I look forward to giving criticism again:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
with a great deal of apprehension			no feeling one way or another			with anticipation

33. I intend to give criticism again:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I don't intend to			maybe			for sure

34. Overall, in the next week or so, I expect that the consequences of
giving criticism will be:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very negative			neutral			very positive

RECEIVING CRITICISM

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IN THE LAST WEEK

1. How many times in the last week did you receive criticism? ()
2. How many of those times involved receiving criticism from:
 - a) authority figures (employers, professors, etc.)
 - b) intimate relationships (spouse, girl or boy friend, family)
 - c) commercial or business interactions (sales clerks, waiters, etc.)
 - d) friends or peers (other students, fellow workers, etc.)
3. How many times did you receive criticism because you asked someone to give you criticism ()
4. On the average, in the last week, how much time did you spend with the person while receiving criticism? ()
5. Last week, some things that made it hard for me to receive criticism were:

6. Last week, some things that made it easy for me to receive criticism were:

7. How many times did you avoid receiving criticism (you /were aware at the time that you would likely receive criticism and made an effort to avoid it)? ()

8. Last week, when receiving criticism I usually felt:

a) 1	2	3	4	5	6	7
a lot of tension or anxiety			some tension or anxiety			no tension or anxiety
b) 1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very upset, angry or defensive			a little upset, angry or defensive			not at all upset, angry or defensive

9. I feel that receiving criticism in the last week has been:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not beneficial or useful			somewhat beneficial or useful			very beneficial or useful

10. What were the benefits?

11. I found that receiving criticism in the last week has been:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not at all harmful			somewhat harmful			very harmful

12. What were the harmful effects?

13. What effects did your receiving criticism in the last week have on your relationship with:

a) authority figures (employers, professors, etc.)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
relationship ended or very strained			no noticeable change			enjoy an even better relationship

b) intimate relationships (family, spouse, girl or boy friend)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
relationship ended or very strained			no noticeable change			enjoy an an even better relationship

c) commercial or business interactions (sales clerks, waiters, etc.)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
relationship ended or very strained			no noticeable change			enjoy an an even better relationship

d) friends or peers (other students, fellow workers, etc.)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
relationship ended or very strained			no noticeable change			enjoy an an even better relationship

14. Were the effects of receiving criticism in the last week what you expected?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not at all what I expected			somewhat like I expected			almost exactly what I expected

15. Last week, some of the unexpected effects or consequences of receiving criticism were: _____

16. Overall, I felt that those effects were:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very negative			neutral			very positive

17. Overall, in the last week I felt that receiving criticism has had

a) 1	2	3	4	5	6	7
no advantages			few advantages			very important advantages

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b) 1	2	3	4	5	6	7
no disadvantages			few disadvantages			very important disadvantages

18. In the past week, I find that receiving criticism has made me feel:

a) 1	2	3	4	5	6	7
worse about myself			no change			a lot better about myself

b) 1	2	3	4	5	6	7
less confident in dealing with people			no change			more confident in dealing with people

19. When I received criticism, in the last week, I have found it to be generally useful/not useful:

a) from authority figures (employers, professors, etc):

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not at all useful			somewhat useful			very useful

b) from intimate relationships:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not at all useful			somewhat useful			very useful

c) from commercial or business interaction:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not at all useful			somewhat useful			very useful

d) from friends or peers (other students, fellow workers, etc.):

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not at all useful			somewhat useful			very useful

20. In the last week when I received criticism I felt:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very vulnerable			somewhat vulnerable			not vulnerable at all

21. In the last week I have found the risks of receiving criticism were:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
no problem			moderate			too high

22. In the last week I have found that the benefits of receiving criticism were:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
less than the costs			about the same as the costs			greater than the costs

23. In the last week, when I received criticism, I felt I was:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not very good at it			average			very good at it

24. With respect to the control I have over the situation, I found that receiving criticism in the last week:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
left me with too little control			some control			I had a great deal of control

25. In the last week, how willing have you been to receive criticism when you have been unsure of what that criticism will be:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not willing at all			somewhat willing			very willing

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26. I look forward in the next week to receiving criticism:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
with a great deal of apprehension			no feeling one way or the other			with anticipation

27. I intend to receive criticism again:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not if I can avoid it			maybe			for sure, good way to improve

28. In the next week or so, I expect that the consequences of receiving criticism will be:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very negative			neutral			very positive

continued next page>>>>

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GIVING AND RECEIVING CRITICISM

1. In the last week I found my skills in giving and receiving criticism to be

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not useful at all			somewhat useful			extremely useful

in helping me attain personal goals and objectives.

2. In the last week when giving and receiving criticism, I feel that I have been:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
not effective			moderately effective			very effective

3. In the last month, the experience involving giving or receiving • criticism that stands out the most in my mind was:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
a terrible experience			neutral			a really great experience

*Please indicate a G on the answer sheet if that experience was mostly giving criticism or an R if it was mostly receiving criticism.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR
CONTINUED PARTICIPATION!!!

THE G.R.C. SELF RATING FORM

Please indicate your response to each of the following by filling in the appropriate space on the accompanying answer sheet. Use lead pencil only.

1. Do you feel that the ability to GIVE criticism to others is an important interpersonal skill?

(a) Yes (b) No (c) Maybe

2. If yes or maybe, how important is it for you?

1	2	3	4	5
(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
slightly		moderately		very
important		important		important

3. Compared to other people your age in this culture, how effective do you think you usually are in giving criticism to other people? Indicate how you would honestly rate yourself in terms of the following scale

1%					99%
	more effective	more effective	more effective		
	than 25%	than 50%	than 75%		
	(a)	(b)	(c)		

4. Compared to other people your age in this culture, how effective would you LIKE to be in giving criticism to others.

1%					99%
	give criticism	give criticism	give criticism		
	more effecti-	more effecti-	more effecti-		
	vely than 25%	vely than 50%	vely than 75%		
	(a)	(b)	(c)		

5. How much of a problem do you feel you have when it comes to giving criticism to others regarding things you don't like?

Not much of	a mild	a moderate	a significant	a very signi-
a problem	problem	problem	problem	ficant pro-
				blem
(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)

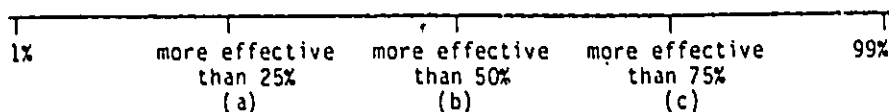
6. Do you feel that the ability to TAKE criticism from others is an important interpersonal skill?

(a) Yes (b) No (c) Maybe

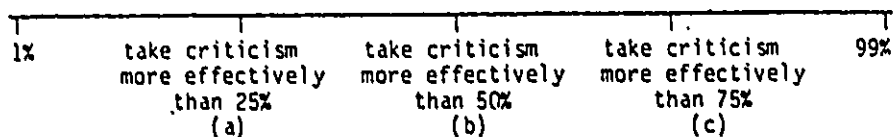
7. If yes or maybe, how important is it for you?

1	2	3	4	5
(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
slightly		moderately		very
important		important		important

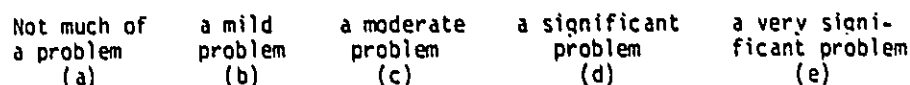
8. Compared to other people your age in this culture, how effective do you think you usually are in taking criticism from other people? Indicate how you would honestly rate yourself in terms of the following scale



9. Compared to other people your age in this culture, how effective would you LIKE to be in taking criticism from others.



10. How much of a problem do you feel you have when it comes to taking criticism from others regarding things you don't like?



11. Would you volunteer to participate in a clinic in which people learn to give and take criticism more effectively

(a) Yes (b) No (c) Maybe

IF YES OR MAYBE PLEASE PLACE YOUR TELEPHONE NUMBER ON THE UPPER RIGHT HAND CORNER OF YOUR ANSWER SHEET.

Answer the following questions True (a) or False (b) by blackening the appropriate spaces on your answer sheet. If the statement is True or mostly True for you blacken the space under (a). If the statement is False or mostly False in your case, blacken the space under (b) on the answer sheet.

12. I rarely worry about seeming foolish to others.
13. I worry about what people will think of me even when I know it doesn't make any difference.
14. I become tense and jittery if I know someone is sizing me up.
15. I am unconcerned even if I know people are forming an unfavorable impression of me.
16. I feel very upset when I commit some social error.
17. The opinions that important people have of me cause me little concern.

18. I'm often afraid that I may look ridiculous or make a fool of myself
19. I react very little when other people disapprove of me
20. I am frequently afraid of other people noticing my shortcomings
21. The disapproval of others would have little effect on me
22. If someone is evaluating me, I tend to expect the worst
23. I rarely worry about what kind of impression I am making of someone
24. I am afraid that others will not approve of me
25. I am afraid that people will find fault with me
26. Other people's opinions of me do not bother me
27. I am not necessarily upset if I do not please someone
28. When I am talking to someone, I worry about what they may be thinking about me
29. I feel that you can't help making social errors sometimes, so why worry about it?
30. I am usually worried about what kind of impression I make
31. I worry a lot about what my superiors think of me
32. If I know someone is judging me, it has little effect on me
33. I worry that others will think I am not worthwhile
34. I worry very little about what others may think of me
35. Sometimes I think I am too concerned with what other people think of me
36. I often worry that I will say or do the wrong thing
37. I am often indifferent to the opinions others have of me
38. I am usually confident that others will have a favourable impression of me
39. I often worry that people who are important to me don't think very much of me
40. I brood about the opinions my friends have about me
41. I become tense and jittery if I know I am being judged by my superiors
42. I rarely give criticism to people I don't know because I would not want to get it from them.
43. If someone criticizes me I don't show anything but I "burn" inside.
44. Criticism can never be helpful.
45. I get so uptight when it's time to criticize someone that I just keep my mouth shut.
46. I feel very confident when it comes to criticizing what someone else has just done.
47. I'd love to be able to offer criticism but I don't really know how to do it.
48. I get much too anxious when I'm about to offer criticism.

The purpose of this questionnaire is to measure a couple of concepts by having you rate them on a series of scales. In completing this questionnaire, please make your judgments on the basis of what these questions mean to you. When you turn the page you will find the different questions to be rated and beneath each, a set of scales. You are to rate the questions on each of these scales in order.

Here is how you are to rate these scales : Say you were rating the present VOTING AGE.

If you feel that the question, that is in this case the present VOTING AGE, is very closely related to one end of the scale, you should place a 7 or opposite item 1 on the answer sheet as follows:

fair 7 : ____ : ____ : ____ : ____ : ____ : ____ unfair

OR

fair ____ : ____ : ____ : ____ : ____ : ____ : 1 unfair

If you feel that the question, that is the present VOTING AGE, is quite closely related to one or the other end (but not extremely), you should indicate a 6 or a 2 on the answer sheet opposite item number 1:

fair ____ : 6 : ____ : ____ : ____ : ____ : ____ unfair

OR

fair ____ : ____ : ____ : ____ : ____ : 2 : ____ unfair

If the question seems only slightly related to one side as opposed to the other side (but is not really neutral), you should indicate a 5 or a 3 as follows:

fair ____ : ____ : 5 : ____ : ____ : ____ : ____ unfair

OR

fair ____ : ____ : ____ : ____ : 3 : ____ : ____ unfair

The direction toward which you check, of course, depends upon which of the two ends of the scale seem most characteristic of the thing you're judging.

If you consider the question to be neutral on the scale, both sides of the scale equally associated with the question or if the scale is completely irrelevant, unrelated to the question, then you should indicate number 4 on the answer sheet for item number 1.

fair ____ : ____ : ____ : 4 : ____ : ____ : ____ unfair

Make each item a separate and independent judgment, work at a fairly high speed through this test. Don't worry or puzzle over individual items; it is your first impressions, the immediate "feelings" about the items, that you want, because we want your true impressions.

With respect to GIVING criticism, my SELF-ESTEEM IS:

- | | | | |
|----|------------|--|-----------------------|
| 57 | Relaxed | <u>7</u> <u>6</u> <u>5</u> <u>4</u> <u>3</u> <u>2</u> <u>1</u> | Tense |
| 58 | Favorable | <u>7</u> <u>6</u> <u>5</u> <u>4</u> <u>3</u> <u>2</u> <u>1</u> | Unfavorable |
| 59 | Confident | <u>7</u> <u>6</u> <u>5</u> <u>4</u> <u>3</u> <u>2</u> <u>1</u> | Lacking
Confidence |
| 60 | High | <u>7</u> <u>6</u> <u>5</u> <u>4</u> <u>3</u> <u>2</u> <u>1</u> | Low |
| 61 | Good | <u>7</u> <u>6</u> <u>5</u> <u>4</u> <u>3</u> <u>2</u> <u>1</u> | Bad |
| 62 | Strong | <u>7</u> <u>6</u> <u>5</u> <u>4</u> <u>3</u> <u>2</u> <u>1</u> | Weak |
| 63 | Valuable | <u>7</u> <u>6</u> <u>5</u> <u>4</u> <u>3</u> <u>2</u> <u>1</u> | Worthless |
| 64 | Optimistic | <u>7</u> <u>6</u> <u>5</u> <u>4</u> <u>3</u> <u>2</u> <u>1</u> | Pessimistic |

With respect to TAKING Criticism, my SELF-ESTEEM is:

- | | | | |
|----|------------|--|-------------|
| 65 | Relaxed | <u>7</u> <u>6</u> <u>5</u> <u>4</u> <u>3</u> <u>2</u> <u>1</u> | Tense |
| 66 | Favorable | <u>7</u> <u>6</u> <u>5</u> <u>4</u> <u>3</u> <u>2</u> <u>1</u> | Unfavorable |
| 67 | Confident | <u>7</u> <u>6</u> <u>5</u> <u>4</u> <u>3</u> <u>2</u> <u>1</u> | Lacking |
| 68 | High | <u>7</u> <u>6</u> <u>5</u> <u>4</u> <u>3</u> <u>2</u> <u>1</u> | Low |
| 69 | Good | <u>7</u> <u>6</u> <u>5</u> <u>4</u> <u>3</u> <u>2</u> <u>1</u> | Bad |
| 70 | Strong | <u>7</u> <u>6</u> <u>5</u> <u>4</u> <u>3</u> <u>2</u> <u>1</u> | Weak |
| 71 | Valuable | <u>7</u> <u>6</u> <u>5</u> <u>4</u> <u>3</u> <u>2</u> <u>1</u> | Worthless |
| 72 | Optimistic | <u>7</u> <u>6</u> <u>5</u> <u>4</u> <u>3</u> <u>2</u> <u>1</u> | Pessimistic |

73 Sex: Male = (a) Female = (b)

74 Age: 16 - 19 = (a)
 20 - 23 = (b)
 24 - 27 = (c)
 30 - 31 = (d)
 32 + = (e)

SCRIPT FOR IN VIVO MEASURE OF GIVING CRITICISM - POST-TEST

HELLO THIS IS PAUL ROBERTS FROM OPINION RESEARCH LTD. WE ARE UNDER CONTRACT TO SAMPLE PEOPLE'S OPINION WITH RESPECT TO THE PRICING OF DOMESTIC AIR TRAVEL.

AS YOU MAY KNOW, THE MAJOR AIRLINES (AIR CANADA ETC.) ARE SUBSIDISED BY THE CANADIAN GOVERNMENT WHICH MEANS THAT IF THEY DO NOT FUNCTION COMPETITIVELY AND MARKET THEIR SERVICES EFFECTIVELY THE GENERAL TAX REVENUE IS USED TO DEFRAY THEIR SUBSEQUENT DEFICIT. ON THE OTHER HAND, IN PEAK AIR TRAVEL PERIODS THE RESULTING PROFITS ARE DISBURSED BACK TO THE RECEIVER GENERAL TO REPAY EARLIER GOVERNMENT ASSISTANCE.

NOW A CONSIDERABLE NUMBER OF PEOPLE, IN FACT A POSSIBLE MAJORITY, HAVE FELT THAT AS THE ECONOMY HAS BEEN REVIVING AND AS FUEL COSTS HAVE STABILIZED OR DECREASED SOMEWHAT, (DESPITE SOME CONTRARY PRICING MOVES) IT WOULD BE AN APPROPRIATE TIME TO DEREGULATE CANADIAN AIR TRAVEL SO THAT CARRIERS COULD COMPETE MORE AGGRESSIVELY WITHOUT HAVING TO OPERATE WITHIN THE CANADIAN TRANSPORT COMMISSION REGULATORY GUIDELINES CONCERNING DOMESTIC AIR TARIFFS.

ON THE OTHER HAND, OTHERS, WHO MAY ACTUALLY BE IN A MAJORITY, HAVE MADE IT KNOWN THAT IN THEIR OPINION, TO DEREGULATE CANADIAN CARRIERS FROM THE CANADIAN TRANSPORT COMMISSION'S REGULATORY GUIDELINES WOULD AT THIS TIME PROMPT A SIGNIFICANT DETERIORATION OF MAJOR AIR CARRIER SERVICE AS DECREASED REVENUES WOULD PROMPT CUTBACKS IN CHECK-IN, IN-FLIGHT, AND ARRIVAL SERVICES. IT MUST BE POINTED OUT THAT MANY MAJOR CARRIERS ARE HEAVILY IN DEBT PROMPTED BY THE ENORMOUS CARRYING COSTS ASSOCIATED WITH AIR CRAFT PURCHASE WHEN INTEREST RATES WERE AT THEIR PEAK.

WITH THIS THE CASE IT IS FELT THAT DEREGULATION OF MAJOR CANADIAN AIR CARRIERS FROM THE CANADIAN TRANSPORT COMMISSION REGULATORY GUIDELINES SHOULD NOT BE CONSIDERED WHETHER IN THE SHORT TERM NOR FOR A LONG TIME FORWARD IN THE FORSEABLE LONG TERM.

NOW IN VIEW OF THE PROCEEDING FACTS AND POSITIONS AND THE CURRENT ECONOMIC CLIMATE WHICH IS CHARACTERIZED BY A RATHER DELICATE RECOVERY THAT SOME INDICATORS SUGGEST MAY BE IN DANGER OF FALTERING, WHAT WOULD YOUR PREFERENCE BE?

2. OTHER PERSON REQUESTS CLARIFICATION/SLOW DOWN
3. REPEAT SLOWLY THEN FAST AGAIN
4. OTHER PERSON REQUESTS CLARITY/SLOW DOWN A SECOND TIME
5. YOU REPEAT SLOWLY THEN FAST AGAIN
6. YOU SCORE FOR THE GIVING OF CRITICISM TO YOUR FAST PACE AND YOUR OBVIOUS DISREGARD OF HIS/HER REQUESTS FOR CLARITY AND A SLOWER PACE USING THE ENCLOSED RATING SCALE

TAKING CRITICISM TELEPHONE SCRIPT (IN VIVO) POST-TEST

"GEE I HAVE SO MANY OF THESE CALLS TO MAKE" YOU NOW REPEAT THE TWO ALTERNATIVES CONCERNING DEREGULATING THE AIR LINES IN VERY SIMPLE TERMS VERY SLOWLY AND ACCEPT WITH GRATITUDE WARMLY WHATEVER OPINION THE RESPONDENT OFFERS. YOU THEN DEVOTE A FEW MOMENTS TO BUILDING RAPPORT TALKING ABOUT THE DIFFICULTY OF CONDUCTING SUCH A TELEPHONE SURVEY AND HOW DIFFICULT IT IS TO GET SUFFICIENT TELEPHONE CALLS MADE WITHIN THE TIME THAT YOU HAVE AVAILABLE, THEN:

"NOW WE ARE ALSO SAMPLING OPINION CONCERNING THE CURRENT AMENDMENTS TO THE CANADIAN DIVORCE ACT TO THE EFFECT THAT IT COULD BECOME POSSIBLE TO HAVE NO-FAULT DIVORCES AFTER ONLY ONE YEAR OF SEPARATION. WHAT IS YOUR REACTION TO THIS POSSIBILITY?"

(A) PERSON ANSWERS THEY ARE AGAINST THIS POSSIBILITY.

- 1- "BUT DON'T FORGET THE PRESENT MANDATORY 3 YEAR SEPARATION PERIOD CAUSES UNDUE HARDSHIP TO ALL PARTIES IN THE VIEW OF LOTS OF PEOPLE. IN VIEW OF THIS CONCERN WHAT IS YOUR POSITION?"
- 2- PERSON GIVES THEIR POSITION A SECOND TIME.
- 3- "YES BUT THREE YEARS IS 36 MONTHS-IT IS 3 SUMMERS AND 3 WINTERS, AND FOR ALL THAT TIME PEOPLE CANNOT FORMALIZE THEIR POSSIBLE NEW RELATIONSHIPS. THEY ARE FORCED TO ENDURE A SORT OF LIMBO STRAIGHT-JACKET BEFORE THEY CAN GET ON WITH THEIR LIVES. DO YOU KNOW WHAT I MEAN? HOW CAN YOU PUT THIS CONCERN TO ONE SIDE?"
- 4- PERSON REITERATES POSITION 3RD TIME.
- 5- "BUT YOU SEE MANY PEOPLE AS REPORTED IN THE PRESS SEEM TO FEEL THAT THE VIEW YOU ARE TAKING IS RATHER FORMAL, PUNITIVE AND INHUMANED. HOW CAN YOU IGNORE THESE IMPORTANT CONCERNS?"
- 6- "OK I THINK I UNDERSTAND YOUR POSITION. THANK YOU FOR ASSISTING US WITH THIS SURVEY."

ⓑ RE PERSON REPLYING THAT THEY ARE IN FAVOR OF 1 YEAR SEPARATION PERIOD.

1- "BUT DON'T FORGET SOME PEOPLE FEEL THAT ONE YEAR IS A RATHER SHORT TIME AND THAT WHEN PEOPLE KNOW THAT IS THE CASE THEY WILL REGARD THE INSTITUTION OF MARRIAGE RATHER LIGHTLY."

2- SS REITERATES POSITION A 2ND TIME.

3- "BUT A LOT OF PEOPLE FEEL THAT ONE YEAR IS RATHER SHORT AND IT WILL PROMPT A LOT OF 'QUICKIE' MARRIAGES WITH INSINCERE COMMITMENTS. DO YOU KNOW WHAT I MEAN?"

4- SS REITERATES POSITION A 3RD TIME.

5- "BUT YOU SEE MANY PEOPLE AS REPORTED IN THE PRESS SEEM TO FEEL THE VIEW YOU ARE TAKING ~~DEMEANS~~/BELITTLES THE IMPORTANCE OF THE FAMILY. HOW CAN YOU IGNORE THESE IMPORTANT CONCERNS?"

6- "OK I THINK I UNDERSTAND YOUR POSITION. THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR ASSISTING US WITH THIS SURVEY."

NOTE: IF SS CHANGES POSITION, SWITCH FROM ⓐ SCRIPT TO ⓑ SCRIPT OR VICE VERSA.

GIVING CRITICISM TELEPHONE RESPONSE CHECKLIST

SUBJECT CODE: _____

DATE: _____

TELEPHONE CALLER CODE: _____

SEX OF CALLER: F = 1, _____ M = 2

(CIRCLE)

WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING DID THIS SUBJECT DEMONSTRATE? CIRCLE APPROPRIATE LETTER(S).

A) HING-UP

B) EXCESSIVE ANGER/EXCESSIVE HUMOUR/EXCESSIVE SARCASM

C) EXPLICIT SPECIFIC REQUEST (SLOW DOWN, EXPLAIN)

D) EXPLICIT BEHAVIOUR DESCRIPTION (TOO FAST, TOO
COMPLICATED)

E) APPROPRIATE AFFECT/RELAXED, CALM

F) IMPLICIT REQUEST (I'M SO CONFUSED, DON'T UNDERSTAND,
CAN'T HELP YOU)

G) APOLOGY

GIVING CRITICISM - SCORING KEY TELEPHONE CALL

IF THE FOLLOWING LETTER(S) HAVE BEEN CIRCLED THE TAKING CRITICISM TELEPHONE RATING SCALE SCORE IS INDICATED IN THE RIGHT HAND SIDE OF THE FOLLOWING LIST

LETTER(S) CIRCLED	RATING SCALE SCORE
A AND/OR B	1
B + C	2
B + D	2
B + C + D	3
E + C	4
F + D	4
F + C + D	5
G	SUBTRACT 1 POINT (5-1 = 4, 4-1 = 3)
F	SUBTRACT 1 POINT
E	3

TAKING CRITICISM TELEPHONE RESPONSE CHECKLIST

SUBJECT CODE: _____

DATE: _____

TELEPHONE CALLER CODE: _____

SEX OF CALLER: F = 1, _____ M = 2

(CIRCLE)

WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING DID THIS SUBJECT DEMONSTRATE? CIRCLE APPROPRIATE LETTER(S).

A) VERBAL ATTACK/RETREAT

B) HUNG-UP

C) EXCESSIVE ANGER/EXCESSIVE SARCASM/EXCESSIVE HUMOUR

D) CLEAR POSITION TAKEN/AGREE - DISAGREE

E) APOLOGY

F) AFFECT APPROPRIATE/RELAXED

G) NO EXPLICIT POSITION/NO AGREE - NO DISAGREE

H) VAGUE POSITION/INCONSISTENT POSITION

TAKING CRITICISM - SCORING KEY TELEPHONE CALL

IF THE FOLLOWING LETTER(S) HAVE BEEN CIRCLED THE TAKING CRITICISM TELEPHONE RATING SCALE SCORE IS INDICATED ON THE RIGHT HAND SIDE OF THE FOLLOWING LIST

LETTER(S) CIRCLED	RATING SCALE SCORE
B AND/OR C AND/OR A	1
C + H + E	2
C + D + E	3
C + D	4
F + G + E	5
F + G	6
F + H + E	7
F + H	8
F + D (WITH OR WITHOUT E)	9

In the first situations to be described you wish to give criticism. Let's listen to the first situation.

1. As you leave the restaurant after an expensive evening meal, you are asked by the manager if you enjoyed the evening. You were pleased with the service and the ambiance, but you feel the main course left something to be desired. The soup was tepid and the beef did not have the anticipated tenderness. However, the vegetables were very well done and the desert was exquisite. As you leave, the manager says: "Good evening, how did you enjoy the meal this evening?"
2. You have just learned that your friend has been talking negatively about you to others. You are unhappy since he/she always complains to others about you but does not speak to you directly. You are annoyed and want to let him/her know how you feel about his/her behaviour. As your friend approaches you, he/she says: "Hi! How are things going?"
3. You are a swimming instructor. One of the students in your class doesn't seem to be cooperative or to take the lessons seriously. He/she is often late, inattentive, distracted, questions most of what you say, and generally displays a negative attitude. This behaviour is interfering significantly with the course. At an appropriate moment after class, you approach the student and say: "
4. Your fiancé is a very busy person. He/she is a full-time student, is involved in many sports activities, is class representative in the Faculty Student Association. You see each other only Friday and Saturday nights and some weekends he/she even cancels one of the evenings together. You are upset, and would like more time with him/her. You feel neglected and unimportant and wish to let him/her know what you think and feel about his/her behaviour. The two of you are now alone. He/she has just told you that he/she will have to break a pre-arranged date. You say: "

Now, the next series of situations are those in which you will be required to receive criticism. Remember to listen carefully to each situation. Then when I begin the interaction with you, or when you are asked to do so, I want you to respond by saying or doing what you think you would do in this kind of situation. Questions?

1. You get your new can opener home and you are eager to try it out. You repeatedly put the can under it but it doesn't seem to work. You're disappointed and upset and return to the nearby store and to the same salesperson. You present the problem and he/she says: "You weren't listening to me when I sold it to you. You didn't push the safety control button before operating. Go and do it and I am sure it will work."
2. After class in Introductory Psychology, you ask a friend, your classmate for his/her notes from the previous class which you missed because of a doctor's appointment. Your friend says: "You're such a sponger. You are always borrowing things from me."
3. You are taking driver training. You have wanted to learn on a standard transmission but you are having some trouble. It is your next to last lesson. In spite of your best efforts, your driving instructor seems rather critical. You think that you are doing not too badly, but he/she suddenly bursts out with: "Must you drive like that?"
4. Your spouse/fiancé has just finished telling you about the various activities of his/her day. You are preoccupied by a poor mark you received in your Introductory Psychology course. You are therefore not listening to what he/she says. Realizing that you are not listening, he/she says: "You never pay attention when I talk to you."

The next series of situations do not necessarily involve giving and receiving and receiving criticism. When I initiate the interaction or when you are asked to do so, respond in a way that you think you would in such a situation. Let's listen to the next situations.

1. You have just received a note from your parents indicating that they are coming to visit you this weekend. You already have planned this weekend and do not want company, and certainly not a visit from your parents. You call your parents to tell them they will have to come another time. Once your parents realise it's you at the other end of the line, your parent says: "Oh, hi! We just can't wait to visit you this weekend."
2. Your fiancé presents you with a shirt that he /she has bought for your birthday. You don't like the color and would like your fiancé to exchange it for another but you don't want to hurt his/her feelings. Your fiancé says: "Hope you like that shirt"

Subject number: _____ Tape code: _____
 Rater #: _____

Giving Cr.

Situation

Instructions: Slash the vertical scale at
 the point that corresponds to
 your judgement

1 2 3 4

1. "I" STATEMENTS:

1. poor, no "I" statements, no owning
 of criticism, ex. "You did..."

-1	-1	-1	-1
-2	-2	-2	-2
-3	-3	-3	-3

4. fair, impersonal general statement
 "People often do..."

-4	-4	-4	-4
-5	-5	-5	-5
-6	-6	-6	-6

7. good - "I" statement and owning of criticism
 ex.: "I'm angry because..."

-7	-7	-7	-7
----	----	----	----

2. Specificity

1. poor, global, general, vague, criticism
 ex.: "You are dishonest".

-1	-1	-1	-1
-2	-2	-2	-2
-3	-3	-3	-3

4. fair, behavior outlined with generalities
 "You never clean the house"
 "You always repeat yourself"

-4	-4	-4	-4
-5	-5	-5	-5
-6	-6	-6	-6

7. good, precise, clear description
 Mention a specific incident
 "You have kept my book for 3 weeks" -----

-7	-7	-7	-7
----	----	----	----

VERBAL BEHAVIOUR

Giving Cr. Situation

Instructions: Slash the vertical scale at the point that corresponds to your judgement.

1 2 3 4

3. EMPATHY

1. poor - no mention of concern for other

-1 -1 -1 -1

-2 -2 -2 -2

-3 -3 -3 -3

4. fair - concern expressed but overridden
"I see your problem but that's no excuse"

-4 -4 -4 -4

-5 -5 -5 -5

-6 -6 -6 -6

7. good - concern for other's emotion
"I know that you are very busy"

-7 -7 -7 -7

4. CHANGES SUGGESTED:

1. no changes suggested
Person does not suggest/request change
in behavior

-1 -1 -1 -1

-2 -2 -2 -2

-3 -3 -3 -3

4. fair, change mentioned - no specific
instances "I want you to change -
This has to change".

-4 -4 -4 -4

-5 -5 -5 -5

-6 -6 -6 -6

7. good, specific changes suggested
"I think you should bring the
material and be here on time"

-7 -7 -7 -7

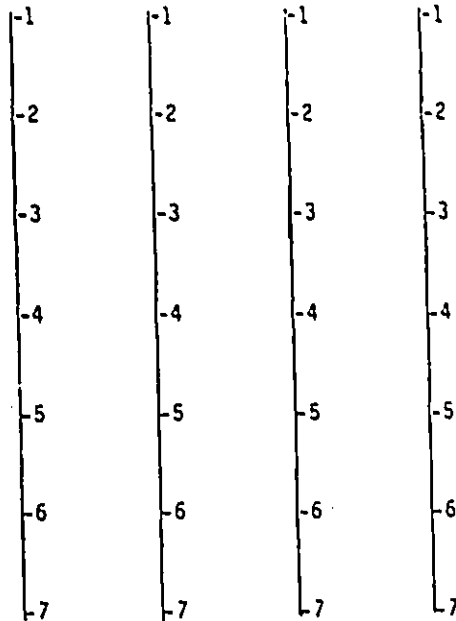
Giving Cr. Situation

Instructions: Slash the vertical scale at the point that corresponds to your judgement.

1 2 3 4

5. DIRECTIONAL/BIDIRECTIONAL

1. no criticism given

4. largely unidirectional:

a 'set-up': few positive remarks then virtually all negative or vice-versa

"I like your tie but everything else about you is just terrible!"

7. Rounded:

appropriate balance of positive, negative remarks

"I like the way you've done this essay however the spelling errors will have to be corrected".

6. OVERALL EFFECTIVENESS OF GIVING CRITICISM:

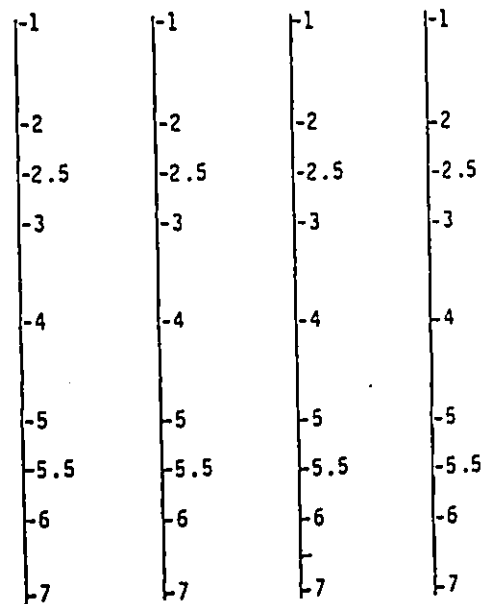
1. totally ineffective

2.5 poor

4. fair

5.5 good

7. excellent



Instructions: Slash the vertical scale at the point that corresponds to your judgement.

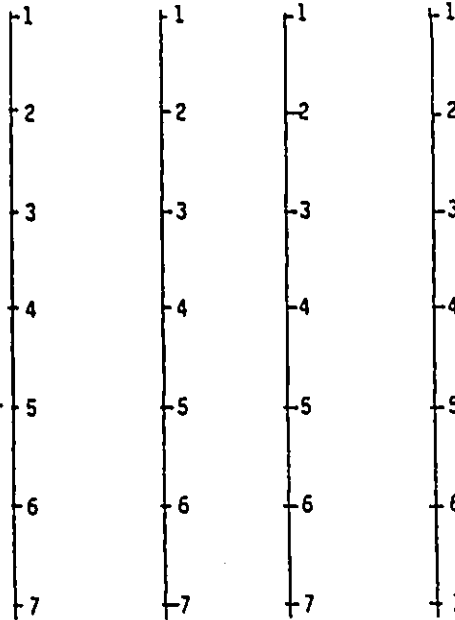
Taking criticism

Situation

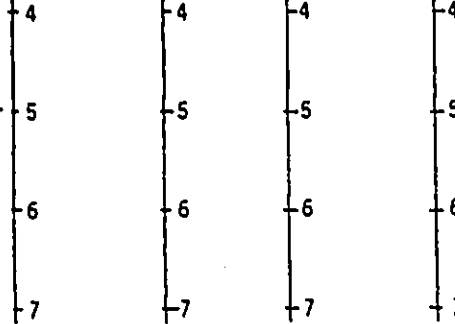
5 6 7 8

1. REPETITION:

1. poor - no repetition/paraphrase



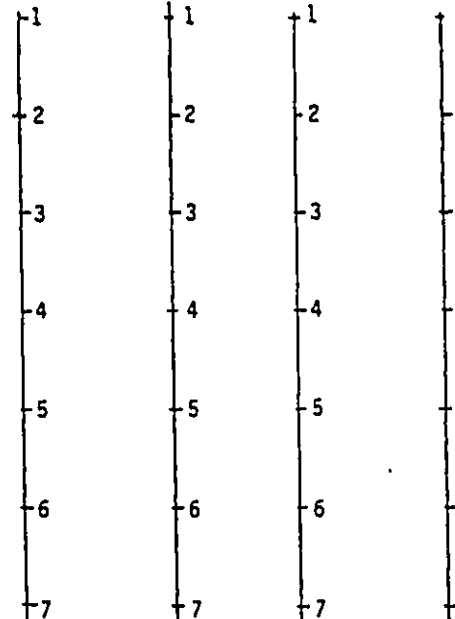
4. fair - defensive, inaccurate, misperception
"So you feel there's something wrong with my work?"



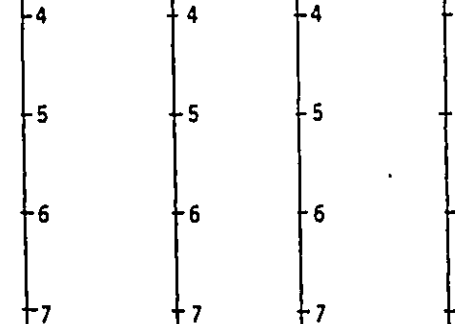
7. good - Clear paraphrase
"What I'm hearing is..."
(Person accurately repeats criticism)

2. PRECISION

1. poor - no request for precision



4. fair - global diffuse
"So there's something wrong?"



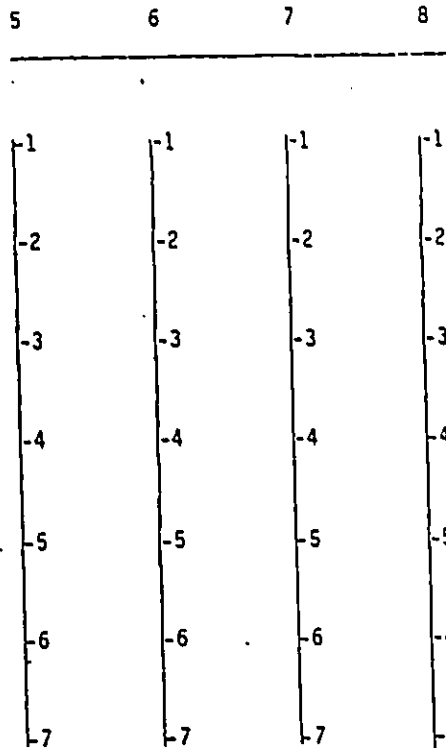
7. good - specific request for precision
"You tell me where I can improve"



VERBAL BEHAVIOUR

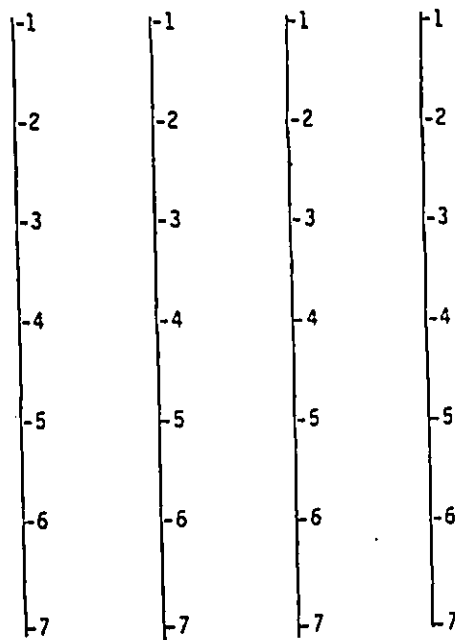
Receiving Cr.

Instructions: Slash the vertical scale at the point that corresponds to your judgement.

3. TAKING A POSITION:1. poor - no indication of position

4. fair - ambiguous/unclear situation
 "There's something in that"
 "Yeah, you have a point"

7. good - clear position indicated
 "Yes, I agree/disagree"

4. EXPRESSED WILLINGNESS TO CHANGE1. poor - none

4. fair - expression of vague intention/
 exaggerated intention
 "I'll never ever do that again"
 "I'll work on it"

7. good - specific change indicated
 "Ok I'll be here at 8:00 o'clock"

VERBAL BEHAVIOUR

Receiving Cr.

Instructions: Slash the vertical scale at the point that corresponds to your judgement.

5 6 7 8

5. OVERALL EFFECTIVENESS OF RECEIVING CRITICISM

1. totally ineffective

-1

-1

-1

-1

-2

-2

-2

-2

2.5 poor

-2.5

-2.5

-2.5

-2.5

-3

-3

-3

-3

4. fair

-4

-4

-4

-4

-5

-5

-5

-5

5.5 good

-5.5

-5.5

-5.5

-5.5

-6

-6

-6

-6

7. excellent

-7

-7

-7

-7

Date: _____

Tape #: _____

Subject #: _____

Rater #: _____

INSTRUCTIONS: SLASH SCALE AT POINT WHICH CORRESPONDS TO YOUR JUDGEMENT

1. POSITION TAKEN

- 1. None taken
- 4. Qualified, unclear, vague, inconsistent
"I may be in a meeting..."
- 7. Definite, clear, confident
"No you can't borrow my car tomorrow".

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. REASON GIVEN

- 1. None given
- 4. Qualified, vague, inconsistent, under pressure
"I am not sure...I just don't feel like it".
- 7. Definite, clear reason
"I prefer not to lend my car".

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. UNDERSTANDING SHOWN

- 1. None shown
"I can't see any problem here at all".
- 4. Qualified, vague, unclear
"So there's some difficulty here?"
- 7. Understanding clearly shown
"I understand your concern but I'm not available".

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. PERSONAL EXPRESSION

- 1. Inappropriate expression
"What a stupid request!"
- 4. No expression shown
- 7. Clear appropriate expression
"I appreciate your saying that".

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. OVERALL QUALITY OF VERBAL REFUSAL BEHAVIOUR

- 1. Totally unassertive
- 2.5 Poor
- 4 fair
- 5.5 good

1 2 2.5 3 4 5 5.5 6 7

Date: _____

Tape #: _____

Subject #: _____

INSTRUCTIONS: SLASH SCALE AT POINT WHICH CORRESPONDS TO YOUR JUDGEMENT

Rater #: _____

1. STATEMENT OF PROBLEM - Indication of changes wanted

1. Not at all
 4. Qualified/Unclear "Well...it's concerning your dog".
 7. Definite, clear "Your dog is keeping us awake".

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. REQUEST MADE

1. Not made
 4. Qualified/Implicit request "Your radio is quite loud".
 7. Specific, clear, definite "Would you please keep your dog off my lawn?"

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. CLARIFICATION

1. None provided
 4. Vague, unclear, minimal information "Oh...it's always in the way".
 7. Clear additional specific information "I find your car in the way especially on Thursdays in the evening around 7:00 PM".

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. PERSONAL EXPRESSION

1. Inappropriate - anger, down, sarcastic
 "You never listen to anything I say!!!"
 "Aren't you thoughtful today? (sarcastic)"
 4. No personal expression
 7. Appropriate expression - feelings clearly expressed
 "I appreciate you're saying that".

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. OVERALL GLOBAL VERBAL REQUEST BEHAVIOUR

1. Totally unassertive
 2.5 Poor
 4 Fair
 5.5 Good
 7 Excellent

1 2 2.5 3 4 5 5.5 6 7

NON VERBAL BEHAVIOUR

Subject number: _____ Tape code: _____ Date: _____
 Observer #: _____

Instructions: Slash the vertical scale at the point that corresponds to your judgement.

Giving Cr. Situation			Receiving Cr.	
1	2	3	4	5

1. EYE CONTACT:

1. poor, no eye contact at all or very minimal, or excessive staring

1	1	1	1	1
-2	-2	-2	-2	-2
-3	-3	-3	-3	-3
-4	-4	-4	-4	-4
-5	-5	-5	-5	-5
-6	-6	-6	-6	-6
-7	-7	-7	-7	-7

2. fair, eye contact present part (20%) of the time

3. good, direct and present most (60-80%) of the time

2. LOUDNESS, TONE & VOICE INFLECTION

1. poor, very little intonation, flat, unemotional, too soft/too loud

1	1	1	1	1
-2	-2	-2	-2	-2
-3	-3	-3	-3	-3
-4	-4	-4	-4	-4
-5	-5	-5	-5	-5
-6	-6	-6	-6	-6
-7	-7	-7	-7	-7

4. fair, some emotion but not forceful somewhat too soft or too loud

7. good, good emotional quality, appropriate forcefulness and adequate volume

NON VERBAL BEHAVIOUR

Instructions: Slash the vertical scale at the point that corresponds to your judgement.

Giving Cr.
Situation

Receiving Cr.

1 2 3 4 5

3. VERBAL HESITANCY/PACING

1. a lot, (hesitation on 25% or more of the statements)/or speaks too fast

-1	-1	-1	-1	-1
-2	-2	-2	-2	-2
-3	-3	-3	-3	-3
-4	-4	-4	-4	-4
-5	-5	-5	-5	-5
-6	-6	-6	-6	-6
-7	-7	-7	-7	-7

4. some hesitancy/fair pacing

7. no or minimal hesitancy, good pacing

4. GESTURES AND POSTURE

1. poor, none or too much (distracting) movement of arm, hand, head and body

-1	-1	-1	-1	-1
-2	-2	-2	-2	-2
-3	-3	-3	-3	-3
-4	-4	-4	-4	-4
-5	-5	-5	-5	-5
-6	-6	-6	-6	-6
-7	-7	-7	-7	-7

4. fair, some use of gestures plus orientation of body toward prompter

7. good: facial expression, gestures & posture appropriate to message

NON VERBAL BEHAVIOUR

Instructions: Slash the vertical scale at the point that corresponds to your judgement.

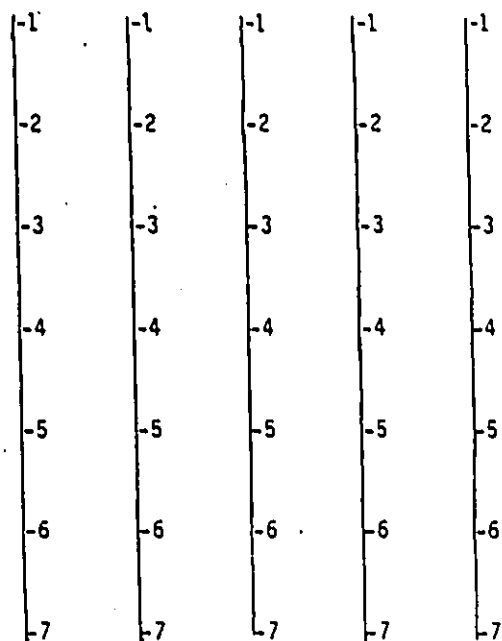
Giving Cr.
Situation

Receiving Cr.

1 2 3 4 5

5. FLUID VS MECHANICAL

1. mechanical, awkward



4. a bit of both

7. fluid, integrated

6. OVERALL EFFECTIVENESS OF THE (NON-VERBAL)
(BEHAVIOR)

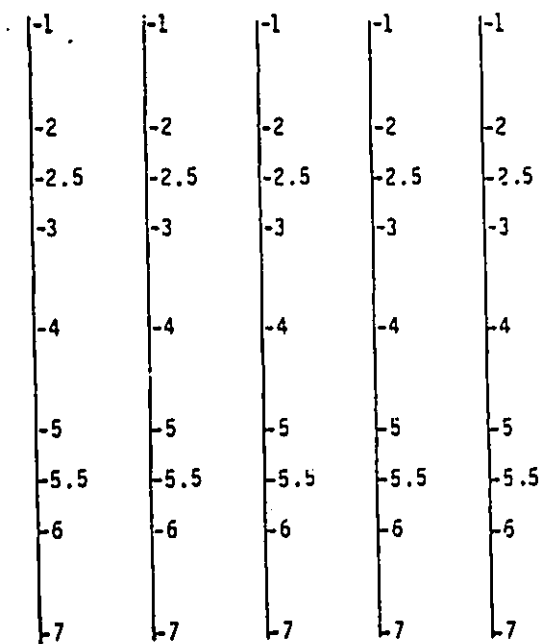
1. totally ineffective

2.5. poor

4. fair

5.5 good

7. excellent



NON-VERBAL BEHAVIOUR

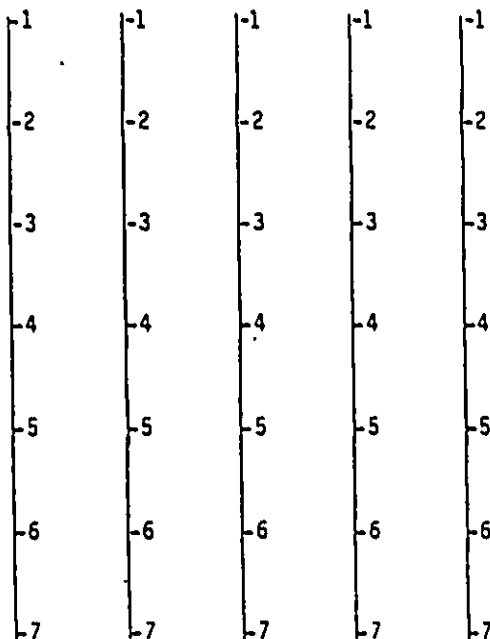
Subject number: _____ Tape code: _____ Date: _____
 Rater #: _____

Instructions: Slash the vertical scale at the point that corresponds to your judgement

Receiving Criticism	Situation			Refusal Request
6	7	8	9	10

1. EYE CONTACT:

1. poor, no eye contact at all or very minimal, or excessive staring

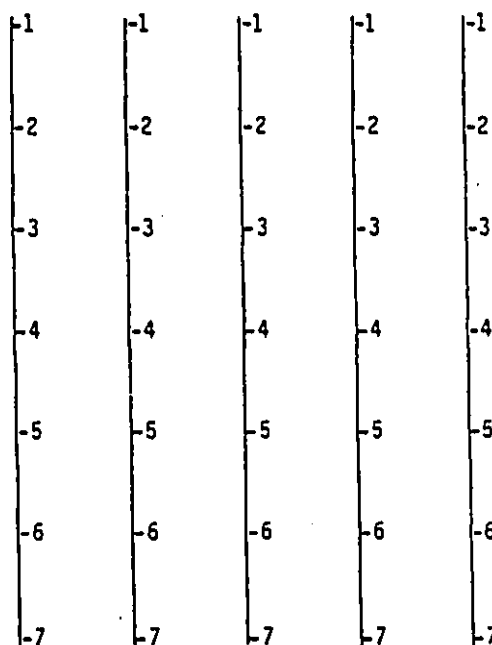


4. fair, eye contact present part (20%) of the time

7. good, direct and present most (60-80%) of the time

2. LOUDNESS, TONE & VOICE INFLECTION

1. poor, very little intonation, flat, unemotional, too soft/too loud



4. fair, some emotion but not forceful somewhat too soft or too loud

7. good, good emotional quality, appropriate forcefulness and adequate volume

NON-VERBAL BEHAVIOUR

	Situation				
	Receiving Cr.	Refusal	Request		
	6	7	8	9	10
3. <u>VERBAL HESITANCY/PACING</u>					
1. a lot, (hesitation on 25% or more of the statements)/or speaks too fast	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1
	-2	-2	-2	-2	-2
	-3	-3	-3	-3	-3
4. some hesitancy/fair pacing	-4	-4	-4	-4	-4
	-5	-5	-5	-5	-5
	-6	-6	-6	-6	-6
7. no or minimal hesitancy, good pacing	-7	-7	-7	-7	-7

4. GESTURES AND POSTURE

1. <u>poor</u> , none or too much (distracting) movement of arm, hand, head and body	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1
	-2	-2	-2	-2	-2
	-3	-3	-3	-3	-3
4. <u>fair</u> , some use of gestures plus orientation of body toward prompter	-4	-4	-4	-4	-4
	-5	-5	-5	-5	-5
	-6	-6	-6	-6	-6
7. <u>good</u> : facial expression, gestures & posture appropriate to message	-7	-7	-7	-7	-7

NON-VERBAL BEHAVIOUR

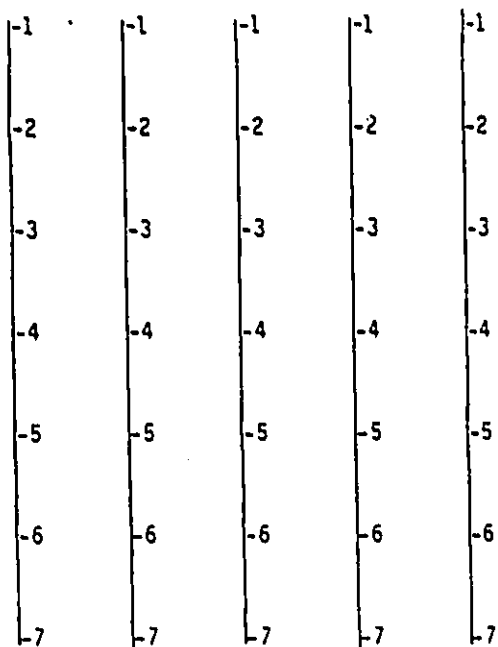
Receiving Cr. Refusal Request

Instructions: Slash the vertical scale at the point that corresponds to your judgement

6 7 8 9 10

5. FLUID VS MECHANICAL

1. mechanical, awkward

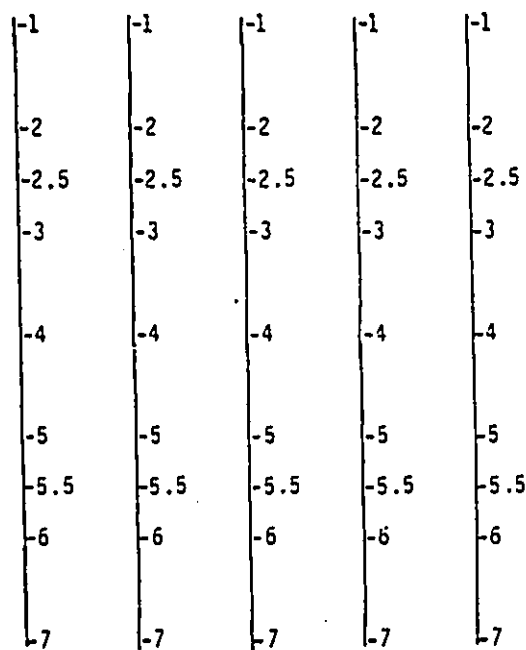


4. a bit of both

7. fluid, integrated

6. OVERALL EFFECTIVENESS OF THE (NON-VERBAL) BEHAVIOR

1. totally ineffective



2.5 poor

4. fair

5.5 good

7. excellent