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WHEN ASSERTION IS NOT ENOUGH: DEVELOPING THE AGGRESSIVE OPTION

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A DISSERTATION

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degree of

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By

AMY LEE FLOWERS

Norman, Oklahoma

1983

WHEN ASSERTION IS NOT ENOUGH:

DEVELOPING THE AGGRESSIVE OPTION

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my family--Louise Wright, Philip Flowers, Ruth Lippard, and Leona Windes, whose emotional and financial support for me have always been a constant in my life. Part of my academic achievement through the years has been for me, but part of it has also been for them and for the pride I have wanted them to feel. Although it is sometimes difficult for family members to understand exactly how scholars grow into professionals, my family has always encouraged me to pursue the dream. This dissertation is a culmination of the wisdom and experiences of ten years in college. As such, I dedicate it to them, with love.

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CHAPTER I

WHEN ASSERTION IS NOT ENOUGH: DEVELOPING THE AGGRESSIVE OPTION

Assertion training is a skills-building model for facilitating communication in which participants learn how to stand up for their rights without violating the rights of others, to reduce interpersonal anxiety, and to express thoughts, feelings, and beliefs in direct, honest, appropriate ways (Alberti & Emmons, 1978; Lange & Jakubowski, 1976). The training is usually conducted within a group format in which modeling of assertive behavior by the trainers, behavioral rehearsal by the participants, and feedback about the participants' performance are standard components.

Assertion trainers delineate three communication styles individuals use in interpersonal situations: passivity (also called nonassertiveness), aggression, and assertion. These styles are defined not only by the content of the verbal message but also by the nonverbal aspects of the message delivery (Alberti & Emmons, 1978; Flowers & Booraem, 1975). Passivity is defined as "violating one's own rights by failing to express honest feelings, thoughts, and beliefs and consequently permitting others to violate oneself, or expressing one's thoughts and feelings in such an apologetic, diffident, self-effacing manner that others can easily disregard them" (Lange & Jakubowski, 1976, p. 9). The passive person tries to avoid interpersonal conflict at all costs, but intrapersonally often feels hurt, anxious, and angry as his or her wants and needs remain ungratified. Although passive

behavior is usually reinforced in our culture where "niceness" is highly valued (Twentymen, Zimering, & Kovaleski, 1981), passivity may also be seen as manipulative, and consequently punished by others (Bach & Goldberg, 1974; Richardson, 1977).

Aggressiveness is defined in the assertion literature as standing up for one's own rights at the expense of others' rights. Techniques used by the aggressive individual include blaming, inducing guilt, self-righteousness, giving mixed messages, commands, or orders, sarcasm, and defensiveness (Lange & Jakubowski, 1976; Richardson, 1977). Aggressiveness often enables the user to accomplish his or her goals but this is at the expense of close interpersonal relationships. However, in some situations, maintaining relationships is not the foremost priority, and an aggressive response may be the most appropriate one. In the case of "instrumental aggression," there may be inadvertent injury to the recipient of the aggression, but this is not the primary goal of the aggressor (Berkowitz, 1981; Feshbach, 1964; Kahn & Kirk, 1968; Spielberger, Jacobs, Russell, & Crane, 1982). Also, aggressiveness may be defined in a more positive, constructive context than that offered by assertion trainers. Other theorists see aggressiveness as personal power (Bardwick, 1976; Greenberg, 1976), an energetic drive (Duncan & Hobson, 1977; Edmunds & Kendrick, 1980; Ellis, 1976; Kermani, 1977), and a positive force in maintaining relationships (Bach & Goldberg, 1974; Ellis, 1976).

Assertiveness is defined as respecting one's own rights and the rights of others by expressing both positive and negative thoughts, feelings, and beliefs directly and honestly (Alberti & Emmons, 1978; Lange & Jakubowski, 1976; Rich & Schroeder, 1976). Assertion is usually the most

appropriate response across situations because it avoids the frustration felt by the passive person and the rejection experienced by the aggressive one (Hollandsworth & Cooley, 1978). Yet, women often find it difficult to behave assertively in our society. Sex-role socialization that teaches females to be passive, nurturant, dependent, and non-demanding is a huge inhibiting factor of assertiveness in women (Alberti & Emmons, 1978; Butler, 1976; DeRosis & Pellegrino, 1977; Hollandsworth & Wall, 1977; Hull & Schroeder, 1979; Richardson, 1977; Wolfe & Fodor, 1975). Indeed, the same behavior that is labeled "assertive" for a male is often labeled "aggressive" when exhibited by a female, with the concomitant negative connotations (Butler, 1976; Miller, 1976; Rich & Schroeder, 1976; Wolfe & Fodor, 1975). Other barriers to assertion are the "irrational beliefs" people tell themselves that prevent them from engaging in behaviors that might lead to "catastrophic" consequences (Ellis & Grieger, 1977; Wolfe & Fodor, 1975). Lohr and Bonge (1982) compared responses on the Irrational Beliefs Test (IBT) and the College Self-Expression Scale (measure of assertiveness) and found that demand for approval, high self-expectations, and problem avoidance were negatively correlated with assertive behavior. Another barrier to assertion may be guilt (Klass, 1981), where high-guilt women view their assertiveness as causing harm to another for whom they feel responsible. Gilligan (1982) postulates that passivity in females is tied to the importance they place on relationships and "connectedness" with others. This often causes them to respect others' rights at the expense of their own rights because they fear that to assert themselves will be seen as "selfish," and consequently lead to loss of relationships and isolation. Males do not have this problem with assertion since separation and

individuation are necessary for the development of masculine gender identity. Standing up for their own rights therefore becomes an important part of the autonomy and independence males need for growth.

Assertion training was developed to counter these barriers to assertiveness, and research has shown it to be an effective treatment modality (Alberti & Emmons, 1978; Galassi & Galassi, 1978; Kaplan, 1982; Twentymen & Zimering & Kavaleski, 1981). A combination of cognitive and skills training strategies seems to maximize adoption of an assertive communication style (Flowers, Cooper, & Whiteley, 1975), yet there is still much work to be done to systematize the training, and to discover which factors are most efficacious.

An underlying assumption of this paper is that in order to cope successfully with the vicissitudes of daily life, the individual needs a behavioral repertoire with many options. Although assertiveness is almost always a correct response, there are situations in which passivity may be the most appropriate response, as well as ones where aggression may be the best choice. The individual must always consider the consequences of his or her behavior before selecting a response mode. Women, however, have often been culturally limited in their options to passivity, and, more recently, assertiveness. Traditional assertion training seldom condones aggression as a viable option. This partly results from the narrow and negative definition provided in the assertion literature. Also, research shows assertiveness to be a superior response to aggressiveness in terms of provoking less anger and greater compliance (Hollandsworth & Cooley, 1978; Woolfolk & Dever, 1979), in being viewed as a more pro-social and appropriate response (Connor, Serbin, & Ender, 1978; Hall & Black, 1979;

Hull & Schroeder, 1979), in providing more flexible responses (Deluty, 1981), and in using a more socially acceptable power base (Hollandsworth, 1977). Pendleton (1982) compared female models in passive, assertive, and aggressive roles for attractiveness to males in a social interaction and found that attraction responses to female assertiveness in heterosexual social interactions were significantly higher than attraction responses to passivity or aggressiveness. The author concludes that "the negative response to the aggressive stimulus person suggests that the women must maintain respect for the opinions and preferences of others while expressing their own in order to generate optimal attraction in social interactions with men" (p. 63). In summary, research indicates that assertiveness is generally a more efficacious response style than is aggressiveness, especially in terms of the feelings generated in the recipients of the assertive or aggressive response. However, it is this author's opinion that aggression has been defined too narrowly in the assertion literature so that only its negative aspects are addressed. Indeed, aggression is defined as "a response that delivers noxious stimuli to another organism" (Buss, 1961), but the goal of the aggression may be the acquisition of some reward, the cessation of aversive stimuli, gaining a position of dominance in a group, self-approval, or gaining access to scarce resources (Berkowitz, 1981; Buss, 1961) rather than injury to another person per se. Therefore, aggressive behavior can be defined by its consequences (i.e., injury to the victim), but mediating factors (intent) must also be considered before labeling it as a negative and inappropriate act.

Aggression may function in positive ways to stimulate and motivate the individual (Miller, 1979), to drive the child to master and control the

environment and to develop autonomy and independence (Blanck & Blanck, 1979; Larsen, 1976), to enhance one's self-esteem via the use of power (Berkowitz, 1981). Indeed, anger (the affective component of aggression) is now seen in a positive light as energizing the individual, promoting interpersonal trust and intimacy if expressed constructively, and potentiating a sense of personal control (Biaggio, 1980; DeRosis & Pellegrino, 1977; Miller, 1976).

The issue of sex differences in aggression has been widely researched, and although males express aggression behaviorally more often than do females, females are as cognitively and emotionally aware of aggression as are males (Bardwick, 1971; Hartup, 1974; Maccoby, 1966; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Poorman, Donnerstein, & Donnerstein, 1976). Anxiety and guilt about expressing aggression seem to be the inhibiting factors for females (Butler, 1976; Frodi, Macaulay, & Thome, 1977; Knott & Drost, 1970; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Minturn, 1967), although the aggression may be expressed indirectly through passive-aggressive techniques (Bach & Goldberg, 1974; Bardwick, 1971; Gilligan, 1982; Hymer & Atkins, 1973; Symonds, 1976). Frodi, Macaulay, & Thome (1977) examined the experimental literature to see whether women are always less aggressive than men. They found that out of 72 studies that involved a measure of some form of aggressive behavior, only 39% showed males to be more aggressive than females across all conditions, and although males display more overt aggression than do females in response to hypothetical questions or self-reports, there are not consistent sex differences in approval of violence, appreciation of hostile humor, or willingness to admit hostile feelings. Nevertheless, even if there are no innate sex differences in aggression, there are still sex differences in the behavioral expression of aggression

and the triggers for that aggression. One major influence that inhibits the expression of aggression by females is their sex-role socialization which teaches them to be dependent, submissive, supportive, masochistic, and afraid of confrontation (Bach & Goldberg, 1974; Bardwick, 1971; Butler, 1976; DeRosis & Pellegrino, 1977; Miller, 1976; Richardson, Bernstein & Taylor, 1979). Another inhibitor of female aggression may be the presence of males in the situation (Baefsky & Berger, 1974; Larwood, O'Neal, & Brennan, 1977). The fear here is that by exhibiting a "masculine" characteristic (aggressiveness), a female would be perceived as unattractive and inappropriate, and hence be rejected by males. Another inhibitor may be the cognitive messages women give themselves when angered (Frodi, 1976). When women become angry and start to feel aggressive, the concomitant anxiety that is aroused may help them to change their thinking to reduce the anger as a means of coping. They may perceive a provocation as less provoking after taking some time to reflect upon the situation. A final inhibitor of female aggression may be the presence of another person who either overtly objects or is perceived to object to an aggressive response by the female (Richardson et al., 1979; White & Gruber, 1982). On the other hand, overt encouragement (permission) for aggression by another will often facilitate an aggressive response in female subjects.

In summary, within a communications paradigm, there are three broad response styles: passivity, assertiveness, and aggressiveness. Assertiveness training was developed to teach individuals (primarily women) how to express their needs and wants in such a way that negotiation and mutual respect with others were real components.

Research has shown assertiveness to be a generally appropriate and effective response; however, it is only one behavioral option. The present study examined some situations in which aggressiveness rather than assertiveness was the more efficacious response. The issue of giving training and permission for aggressiveness and their concomitant effects on the behavioral manifestation of an aggressive verbal response was examined. It was also hypothesized that training in aggression would facilitate adoption of assertiveness, a less extreme communication style (Sherif & Sherif, 1969).

CHAPTER II

Method

Subjects

Participants in the study were 32 female students enrolled in the Introduction to Psychology course at the University of Oklahoma. Of the participants in the study, 29 were White, 1 was Black, 1 was Hispanic, and 1 was self-identified mixed race. Subjects ranged in age from 18 to 48, and 6 were freshmen, 17 were sophomores, 3 were juniors, 4 were seniors, and 1 was a graduate student in special status. Participation in the study was voluntary; in return for attending the groups, subjects received 12 hours of experimental credit, which was required for their class. If subjects missed more than one session, their posttest data were not used in the analyses. The data from 13 subjects of an original group of 45 were not used. One participant missed only the last session in which posttest scores were obtained. Her scores were not analyzed. Within subjects' time limitations, people were randomly assigned to one of four training groups (two traditional assertion groups and two assertion with aggression groups). A consent form to participate was obtained from all of the subjects.

Procedure

This project involved two stages. Stage One included reviewing available assertiveness inventories to choose an appropriate paper and pencil measure of assertiveness. The Adult Self-Expression Scale (ASES) (Gay, Hollandsworth, & Galassi, 1975) was selected because it was normed

on adults as opposed to undergraduate college students, and it presents a variety of situations in which an assertive response may be used. The ASES is a 48-item questionnaire which uses a 5-point Likert scale by which subjects rate their own assertiveness. The mean for females is 115 with a standard deviation of 21. Stage One also involved the development of videotaped vignettes that would be used as a more behavioral measure of assertiveness in the subjects.

Videotaped Vignettes

To obtain a measure of assertiveness that would reflect the subjects' actual behavior in a situation, short scenarios were developed that required a response. These scenarios were put on videotape instead of being performed in vivo to insure a standardized delivery of the stimulus cue to all subjects, and to enable the participants to be tested in a group situation rather than individually.

To develop the vignettes, the Director of the Drama Department at the University of Oklahoma was contacted for the names of acting students who would be willing to play short scenarios on film. The author developed 25 scenarios in which the author's voice would set up a scene, and then an actor would look directly at the camera (and ostensibly the subjects) and give a 1- or 2-sentence cue line to which the subjects would respond on paper. Potential actors were contacted and taping was conducted at the Instructional Services Center (ISC) at the university. A first editing of the vignettes was done to eliminate bad takes, and a second editing was done with two members of the author's dissertation committee to reduce the number of vignettes to 20. A third editing was done with a staff member of ISC to arrange the scenarios in the desired order and to insert a 40

second pause after each actor's cue line to give subjects time to record their responses. The final vignettes were piloted on five secretaries from the College of Education to ascertain whether they were clear and self-explanatory or unnecessarily ambiguous. Inter-rater reliability was then obtained between the author and another member of her committee on the correct answers to the vignettes. After brief discussion on two scenarios, 100% agreement was obtained. It was decided that for two of the vignettes, a passive response was the most appropriate one, for twelve vignettes, assertiveness was the most appropriate response, and for six vignettes, an aggressive response would be labelled correct. See Appendix B for the transcript of the videotaped vignettes.

Training the Trainers

Stage Two included training the trainers who would be leading the groups, and implementing the study. Eight female trainers were selected to train the participants in assertiveness; each group had two trainers. The trainers included one doctoral student in Counseling Psychology, five masters-level students in Counseling, the coordinator of the crisis hot-line at the university, and a student who was about to enter the Masters program in Counseling. In return for their participation, each trainer was given a copy of Responsible Assertive Behavior (Lange & Jakubowski, 1976), Your Perfect Right (Alberti & Emmons, 1978), and Creative Aggression (Bach & Goldberg, 1974), in addition to all training materials. Those trainers who were enrolled in a Masters level practicum received 36 clock-hours of credit toward the course requirements, and the doctoral student was given credit for a one-hour course after the study was completed. All trainers received a letter from the author describing the program and their participation in it (see Appendix C).

Training of the trainers consisted of ongoing meetings with the experimenter throughout the study. A general meeting with all of the trainers was held prior to formation of the groups. In this session, an overview of assertiveness training was presented, pretest materials were explained, and the logistics of conducting the groups was discussed. Thereafter, prior to each session, the two trainers of each group met separately with the experimenter to give and receive feedback on the prior session. Each session was audiotaped and the tapes were given to the experimenter as a consistency check on the trainers' presentation of the materials. At the completion of the study, the trainers met individually with the experimenter to give feedback and suggestions on how the material might be improved.

Training Models

In this study, two models of assertiveness training were compared. One model was a traditional assertiveness training paradigm in which aggressiveness as a viable behavioral response is eschewed. The other model was similar in content; however, aggressiveness was presented as a viable option for those situations in which 1) assertiveness is ineffective or 2) one has a superordinate goal which necessitates the use of verbal aggression. There were eight sessions for each group in which various topics related to assertion were addressed. Briefly, Session 1 involved pretesting of the participants and a synopsis of assertiveness training. In addition to attending the eight sessions, each participant was expected to turn in weekly logs and contracts to her trainers as behavioral measures of the effectiveness of the training. In Session 2, the verbal and nonverbal behaviors associated with passivity, assertiveness, and aggressiveness were

discussed. Only trainers of the Assertion with Aggression groups (the pro-aggression groups) were given research findings and persuasive literature on the value of "appropriate" aggression to facilitate a positive mind-set in the participants. Traditional Assertion Training trainers were not given this material. In Session 3, group members discussed and practiced listening skills as well as giving and receiving compliments. In Session 4, interpersonal human rights, and "stoppers" to assertion were discussed. Session 5 taught participants how to attack their "stoppers" to assertion and an overview of Rational-Emotive Therapy was presented to demonstrate the cognitive aspects of assertiveness training. Session 6 focused on taking responsibility for the consequences of one's behavior, and also taught participants how to make and refuse requests. This session provided differential training for the Traditional Assertiveness groups and the Assertion with Aggression groups, as the latter emphasized positive consequences of aggressiveness while the former did not. Session 7 presented material on making statements without an explanation/justification, giving criticism, and how to appropriately express anger and fight fairly when conflict is inevitable. Finally, in Session 8, participants gave each other positive feedback, and posttesting was conducted. (For a more thorough description of each session, see Appendix D.)

Administration of Measures

The study took place during June of 1983 at the University of Oklahoma. Each subject was assigned to one of two groups--a Traditional Assertiveness training group (AT) which served as a control group, and an Assertion with Aggression group (AWA) which was the experimental group. To maximize training effectiveness, each group was subdivided into two

smaller groups so that no more than 11 subjects would train together. This gave participants ample opportunity to contribute to discussions and to practice the behavioral exercises. Groups 1 and 4 were randomly selected to be the AT groups (N=15) and Groups 2 and 3 were selected to be the AWA groups (N=17).

During Session 1, all participants were pretested on the Adult Self Expression Scale (ASES) and the videotaped vignettes. The ASES is scored by totalling the ratings marked by the examinee concerning her assertiveness in various situations. The highest possible score on the ASES is 192; the mean for females is 115 with a standard deviation of 21.

The 20 videotaped vignettes were then viewed by all subjects and several aspects of assertiveness were assessed. After watching a short scenario, subjects were told to respond in writing to the cue given by the actor as they would in reality. This yielded a Verbatim Response. They were also told to label each of their responses as Passive, Assertive, or Aggressive according to the definitions provided on the response sheet. This yielded a Label. An independent rater, without access to the labels then rated the verbatim responses as Passive, Assertive, or Aggressive, and as Correct or Incorrect (i.e., appropriate in the situation, as determined previously by the author). The Labels were then also rated as Congruent or Incongruent with the Verbatim Response, and as Correct or Incorrect for the situation. In other words, subjects were assessed as to whether they could appropriately respond in a dyadic situation (Verbatim Response) and whether 1) they were aware of which response style (passivity, assertiveness, or aggressiveness) was the appropriate one to use

in that situation, and 2) they could correctly identify which style they did, in fact, use. Binary ratings were used on the Videotaped Vignettes where Correct or Congruent answers were rated 1, and Incorrect or Incongruent answers were rated 0.

Five measures were generated from the vignettes. Their characteristics follow: Label congruence (LCON) has a potential range from zero to 20. LCON indicates that a subject can correctly identify the style of response she is providing, regardless of externally rated appropriateness of response. Label correctness (LCOR) has a potential range from zero to 20. LCOR gives a measure of the degree to which the label a subject provides concurs with expert opinion on the type of response a situation merits. Label aggressiveness (LAGG) has a potential range from zero to six. LAGG is scored by giving a value of one to each aggressive-appropriate situation which a subject labels as aggressive. Correct verbatim response (VCOR) ranges from zero to 20, potentially. This measure indicates the degree to which a subject's actual response concurs in style with expert opinion. Aggressive verbatim response (VAGG) has the same range as LAGG, and is scored in a similar manner. A high VAGG score represents a subject whose actual response in an aggressive-appropriate situation has a strong likelihood of being aggressive.

All subjects were posttested on the ASES and the videotaped vignettes during the final training session. It was hypothesized that as a result of the training:

1. Female subjects who learned an Assertion with Aggression model (AWA) of assertion training would demonstrate more assertion as measured by their scores on the Adult Self Expression Scale than

would female subjects who learned a traditional Assertion Training model (AT).

2. Female subjects who learned an Assertion with Aggression model (AWA) of assertion training would show more congruency between their Verbatim Responses and Labels on the videotaped vignettes than would female subjects who learned a traditional Assertion Training model (AT).
3. Female subjects who learned an Assertion with Aggression model (AWA) of assertion training would more often choose the aggressive option when appropriate both in their Verbatim Responses and Labels on the videotaped vignettes than would female subjects who learned a traditional Assertion Training model (AT).

Participants were then debriefed as to the nature of the study and offered counseling if they felt that interpersonal problems had arisen as a result of the training.

Results

Before the results of the posttest data were analyzed, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted between the experimental (AWA) and control (AT) groups to check whether they showed statistically significant pretest differences on any of the variables under investigation. Table 1 shows that the two groups did not differ significantly prior to training on variables related to assertiveness (see Table 1). One of the main prerequisites for participation in the study was that subjects had never attended an assertiveness training group or workshop prior to the experiment.

Upon completion of training, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to compare AWA to AT on several variables (see Table 2). The research questions posed were analyzed as follows:

Hypothesis I: Female subjects who learn an assertion with aggression model of assertion training will demonstrate more assertion as measured by their scores on the Adult Self Expression Scale (ASES) than will female subjects who learn a traditional Assertion Training model.

As the results in Table 2 show, this hypothesis was not supported in the sense that total posttest scores on the ASES did not differ significantly between the two groups. However, it should be noted when the ASES change scores were compared (pre-post, Table 3), this difference was significant at the .07 level of significance, indicating that while both

Table 1

ANOVA--Pretest Differences and Means between Experimental and Control Groups

Dependent Variables: Adult Self-Expression Scale (ASES)
Label Congruence (LCON)
Correctness of Label (LCOR)
Aggressive Label (LAGG)
Correct Verbatim Response (VCOR)
Aggressive Verbatim Response (VAGG)
(N=32)

Source	MS	df	F(1,30)	p
ASES	22.554	1	.04	.834
LCON	.000	1	.00	.997
LCOR	4.056	1	.78	.385
LAGG	7.170	1	2.53	.123
VCOR	10.306	1	2.39	.133
VAGG	2.721	1	1.72	.200

MEANS

GROUP	ASES	LCON	LCOR	LAGG	VCOR	VAGG
AT	107.8	13.64	11.21	1.86	13.67	4.47
AWA	106.1	13.65	11.94	2.82	12.53	3.88

Table 2

ANOVA--Posttest Differences and Means between Experimental and Control Groups

Dependent Variables: Adult Self-Expression Scale (ASES)
Label Congruence (LCON)
Correctness of Label (LCOR)
Aggressive Label (LAGG)
Correct Verbatim Response (VCOR)
Aggressive Verbatim Response (VAGG)
(N=32)

Source	MS	df	F (1,30)	p
ASES	714.142	1	2.22	.147
LCON	.282	1	.07	.789
LCOR	2.794	1	1.34	.257
LAGG	10.810	1	3.29	.080
VCOR	1.884	1	.56	.462
VAGG	.971	1	.59	.449

MEANS

GROUP	ASES	LCON	LCOR	LAGG	VCOR	VAGG
AT	118.53	15.60	13.47	1.60	14.87	4.53
AWA	128.00	15.41	14.06	2.76	15.35	4.88

groups changed in the direction of greater assertiveness (see Table 3), the AWA group resultes suggested a larger gain. Results significant at the .07 level did not meet the criterion level of significance (.05), but warrants further research in the area.

Hypothesis II: Female subjects who learn an Assertion with Aggression model (AWA) of assertion training will show more congruency between their Verbatim Responses and Labels on the videotaped vignettes than will female subjects who learn a traditional Assertion Training model (AT).

The results in Table 2 show this hypothesis was not supported. Hypothesis III: Female subjects who learn an Assertion with Aggression model (AWA) of assertion training will more often choose the aggressive option when appropriate both in their Verbatim Responses and Labels on the videotaped vignettes than will female subjects who learn a traditional Assertion Training model (AT).

Table 2 shows that the groups did not differ in their use of an Aggressive Verbatim Response; however, the AWA group did tend to use Aggressive Labels more often. Although this result is not statistically significant (p=.08), it may warrant further research. In this case, acquisition of knowledge about which situations call for an aggressive response may be the precursor to behaviorally performing that response. As Table 3 shows, when the Aggressive Verbatim Response change scores were compared (pre-post), the difference was significant at about the .07 level, indicating a change in the direction of more aggressive responses. More detailed analysis demonstrates that the AWA group showed significant gains over pretest levels, but the AT group did not.

Table 3

ANOVA--Pre-Posttest Change Scores and Means Between Experimental and Control Groups

Dependent Variables: Adult Self-Expression Scale (ASES)
Label Congruence (LCON)
Correctness of Label (LCOR)
Aggressive Label (LAGG)
Correct Verbatim Response (VCOR)
Aggressive Verbatim Response (VAGG)
(N=32)

Source	MS	df	F (1,30)	p
ASES	990.521	1	3.55	.070
LCON	.206	1	.02	.877
LCOR	.217	1	.03	.870
LAGG	.395	1	.12	.735
VCOR	21.004	1	3.78	.061
VAGG	6.942	1	3.42	.074

MEANS

GROUP	ASES	LCON	LCOR	LAGG	VCOR	VAGG
AT	10.73*	1.93*	2.29*	-.29	1.20	.06
AWA	21.88*	1/86*	2/12*	-.06	2.82*	1.00*

*indicates a pretest to posttest gain significant at .05 level.

One additional result is worth mentioning, although it does not pertain to any specific hypothesis. In Table 3 when the change scores were compared (pre-post) for VCOR the difference was significant at the .06 level indicating improvement in giving correct responses. The AWA group exhibited a significant gain in that direction, the AT subjects did not.

In order to acquire some additional information about how the variables under consideration relate to each other, a correlation matrix was generated (see Table 4). The 18 variables correlated were the pretest, posttest and change scores for each of: 1) Adult Self Expression Scale, 2) Label Congruent with Verbatim Response on the vignettes, 3) Label Correct for the vignettes, 5) Correct Verbatim Response to the vignettes, and 6) Aggressive Verbatim Response to the Vignettes.

Table 4

Correlations Between the Dependent Variables: PRETEST, POSTTEST, AND CHANGE SCORES

	PREASES	POSASES	ASESCHG	LCONPRE	LCONPOS	LCONCHG	LCORPRE	LCORPOS	LCORCHG	LAGGPRE	LAGGPOS	LAGGCHG	VCORPRE	VCORPOS	VCORCHG	VAGGPRE	VAGGPOS	VAGGCHG
PREASES	1.00																	
POSASES	.65***	1.00																
ASESCHG	-.59***	.23	1.00															
LCONPRE	-.17	-.03	.18	1.00														
LCONPOS	-.26	.08	.41*	.34	1.00													
LCONCHG	-.02	.09	.12	-.76***	.35	1.00												
LCORPRE	.08	.04	-.06	.33	-.18	-.45**	1.00											
LCORPOS	-.22	.05	.33	.01	.14	.10	-.01	1.00										
LCORCHG	-.18	-.01	.22	-.27	.23	.43*	-.64***	.55***	1.00									
LAGGPRE	.12	.29	.16	-.11	-.12	.03	.24	.29	-.04	1.00								
LAGGPOS	.13	.35*	.20	-.07	.03	.09	-.17	.43**	.38*	.51**	1.00							
LAGGCHG	.03	.09	.06	.03	.14	.07	-.41*	.18	.44**	-.42*	.57***	1.00						
VCORPRE	.16	.06	-.14	.28	.01	-.26	.34	.09	-.25	.15	.02	-.12	1.00					
VCORPOS	-.10	.14	.28	.28	.47**	.05	-.06	.29	.20	.05	.06	.01	.23	1.00				
VCORCHG	-.21	.05	.32	-.03	.34	.26	-.33	.14	.35*	-.09	.02	.11	-.69***	.54***	1.00			
VAGGPRE	.15	.14	-.04	.31	.01	-.31	-.01	.05	.04	.32	.42*	.14	.43*	.16	-.25	1.00		
VAGGPOS	-.13	.17	.35*	.05	.20	.10	-.04	.37*	.22	.48**	.40*	-.03	-.08	.53***	.46**	.33	1.00	
VAGGCHG	-.25	.02	.34	-.23	.17	.36*	-.03	.27	.16	.14	-.01	-.15	-.43**	.32	.61***	-.58***	.58***	1.00

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

Discussion

This study did not provide support for the hypothesis that participation in an assertion training program with an aggression component would lead to higher scores on the Adult Self Expression Scale, a widely-used paper and pencil measure of assertiveness, than would participation in a traditional assertion training program. Nor did it provide support for the hypothesis that participation in the Assertion with Aggression group would more effectively teach subjects to correctly identify and label the kinds of responses they make than would a traditional program. Compared to the control group, the experimental group did, however, label more of their Verbatim Responses as aggressive, which indicates some sensitization to the concept of aggressiveness as well as self-permission to use it. One wonders whether those subjects who increased their use of the Aggressive Label and Aggressive Verbatim Responses began the study as assertive individuals and simply escalated, or if they went from a passive extreme to an aggressive extreme. Both are common phenomena in this kind of training. Unfortunately, data to investigate this possibility would be difficult to obtain for such heterogeneous subjects. Further research might be conducted with volunteers for assertion training who all begin as passive to ascertain movement along the passive to aggressive continuum.

There are trends in the data that are worth considering from a clinical/training perspective. Although the groups in the beginning did not differ significantly on the Adult Self Expression Scale (ASES), after

training both groups changed in the direction of increased assertiveness after exposure to training. And although there was not a significant difference between groups, the experimental group changed more in the expected direction. The experimental group also labelled their responses as aggressive more often than did the control group although they did not gave more appropriate aggressive Verbatim Responses or more correct Labels. This may reflect a sensitization to their training, which condoned instrumental verbal aggression in certain situations.

The analysis of posttest results on Correct Verbatim Response indicated both groups ended up with approximately the same scores. Since the AWA group overtook the AT group on this research from pretest to posttest, the AWA recorded a significant gain on VCOR. As this could not be accounted for by increase in aggressive responses, it must be concluded that subjects displayed more versatility in their answers (used all three response styles), thereby expanding their behavioral options. This was one of the primary goals of the training. The main objective of any skills-building program is to have participants demonstrate the target skill behaviorally. Correct Verbatim Responses to the stimulus cues allowed the subjects to demonstrate both acquisition and performance of effective communication skills.

Both training models were effective in increasing assertiveness, the AWA model was effective at increasing correct Verbatim Responses, and increasing aggressive Verbatim Responses. As the experimental group exhibited more change in the expected direction than did the control group, the Assertion with Aggression model would seem to be somewhat more effective in a cost-benefit analysis (same cost, more benefit). Indeed, the

theoretical framework for this study suggested that training that included an aggression component would actually facilitate adoption of assertiveness as a response style. Based on adaptation-level theory (Helson, 1964) and the concept of latitudes of acceptance and rejection (Sherif & Sherif, 1969), it was postulated that women who usually volunteer for assertion training favor a passive response style and consider assertiveness to be an end anchor at the opposite end of their response continuum. By expanding the continuum to include aggression as a new end anchor, assertiveness is now seen as less extreme and therefore, a more acceptable behavior. In addition, in extreme situations, aggression has also become a viable option where before it was viewed as taboo. Whether or not this theory correctly accounts for the experimental subjects becoming more assertive than the control subjects, they nevertheless did tend to move further in that direction.

A fundamental question that must be addressed in future research is whether assertion and aggression really do lie on a continuum or whether they are separate entitites, quantitatively and qualitatively different. Indeed, the literature often uses the two terms synonymously, adding tremendous confusion to the field. Part of the difficulty stems from disagreement about what aggression is, and the lack of comprehensive instruments to measure it. Without a clear definition of aggression, it is difficult to formulate a precise definition of assertion and to delineate the limits within which it falls. This study correlated several measures of assertiveness and aggressiveness (as defined by the author) and several significant ones are worth mentioning. After training, there was a significant correlation between scores on the Adult Self Expression Scale

and use of an Aggressive Label on the videotaped vignettes, although these variables were not correlated before the training. Perhaps as a result of the training, congruence between responses on the ASES and consistent use of labels increased. Or, the change from responding passively to assertively may have felt so extreme that subjects saw themselves behaving "inappropriately" (aggressively). In fact, the responses they labelled as aggressive were often perfectly assertive, with a clear respect for the other person's rights present.

After training, the amount of change on the ASES (increased assertiveness) was positively related to both congruence between Verbatim Responses and the Labels subjects gave them, and use of Aggressive Verbatim Responses. This fits the idea that part of learning to be assertive involves being able to recognize and discriminate between the three response styles (Label Congruence). The relationship between amount of change on the ASES and use of aggressive responses may indicate that subjects who were highly affected by the training may have been more open to new ideas, which included the idea that aggressiveness is a viable option.

There was a strong positive correlation between correctly labelling a Verbatim Response and giving Correct Verbatim Responses after the training, which indicates that both training models were highly effective in teaching subjects different aspects of assertiveness skills. Subjects learned not only how to respond appropriately to a variety of situations using all three response styles, but also to recognize which style they were using at any given time. These are the necessary and sufficient components (the core) of any assertion training program. Likewise, there was a positive

correlation between improvement in knowing the kind of response a situation calls for (Label Correct Change) and improvement in giving that response (Verbatim Correct Change).

After training, there was a positive relationship between use of an Aggressive Verbatim Response and use of the Aggressive Label. This correlation shows that women who responded aggressively were able to recognize and label it. It also indicates that women can learn to give themselves permission to be aggressive, even though this violates a strong sex-role stereotype. One of the goals of this study was to develop a framework/justification for teaching verbal aggressiveness that would be both believable and acceptable to the subjects. The concept of "instrumental aggression" seemed to defuse some of the negative quality usually attributed to aggression for these subjects.

An unexpected but interesting piece of data was discovered after pre- and posttest examination of the subjects' Verbatim Responses to the videotaped vignettes. It seems that there may really be four response styles--passive, assertive, aggressive, and passive-aggressive. "Passive-aggressive" is defined here as 1) giving a two-part answer which included both passive and aggressive parts or 2) giving an answer which was designed to induce guilt in another person. Some examples from the responses were:

1. (in response to a drunk friend who insists on driving himself home) "You're not driving. I love to drive. Please let me drive."
   or
2. "You have to find the keys first and I have them (If I can get them, or pull the distributor cap from the car)."

3. (in response to a child playing with matches) "I told you to stop. How would you feel if you burned down the house and it was all your fault?"
4. (in response to a friend who is pushing you into a blind date) "O.K., I'll go. but if this guy is bad news, you won't hear the end of it."
5. (in response to a married man who keeps asking you out to lunch, although you refuse) "I'd like that. May David, my boyfriend come too? Also, bring your wife--I'd love to meet her!"
6. (in response to your boss who has asked you to stay late and work) "I really hate for you to ask me! But I'll stay and help."

These responses were difficult to score because of the mixed messages they conveyed. Fortunately, the number of passive-aggressive responses decreased from pretest to posttest, although they by no means disappeared. This form of indirect aggression used by females is well documented in the literature (Bach & Goldberg, 1974; Bardwick, 1971; Hymer & Atkins, 1973; Symonds, 1976).

In order to obtain a behavioral measure of subjects' assertiveness within the group sessions, trainers were asked to keep a Record of Verbalizations for each subject for each session (See Appendix E). One aspect of assertiveness is the ability to initiate conversations and to contribute to discussions by expressing one's thoughts, feelings, and beliefs actively rather than waiting for them to be solicited. Five categories of verbalizations were proposed: No Verbalization; Solicited, Brief Verbalization; Solicited, Extended Verbalization; Unsolicited Brief Verbalization; and Unsolicited, Extended Verbalization, with assertiveness increasing with

each category. As Table 5 shows, from the beginning the experimental group (AWA) spanned a wider range of verbalizations, and the missing data makes this data difficult to interpret. It would seem that familiarity and comfortableness in one's group and content of the session contribute as much to type of verbalization as the training per se (e.g., Session 8 was primarily posttesting and did not allow for much discussion). In sum, type of verbalization did not seem to be a viable behavioral measure of assertiveness in this study.

As this study was primarily exploratory in nature, much further research is needed before the boundaries between assertiveness and aggressiveness can be delineated. Concerning the assertiveness training models used in this study, several valuable suggestions were made by the trainers during the post-experimental feedback sessions. All trainers agreed that the material on cognitive aspects of assertiveness and Rational-Emotive Therapy was too abstract and difficult for the subjects to understand fully. They also suggested that a general overview of the training and its various components prior to the first session would have been helpful for them in conceptualizing the goals of the training and seeing it as a gestalt. Several trainers suggested that rather than each group's leaders meeting alone with the experimenter prior to each session, it would have been beneficial for all of the trainers to meet and discuss each upcoming session to make sure that the material was understood. On the other hand, there was universal agreement that the time commitment required of the trainers was much more than originally estimated and any additional meetings would have been difficult to schedule. Several trainers suggested that in the future, more time should be devoted to the issues of giving criticism, anger, and

Table 5

Subject Count for Record of Verbalization Categories by Session

Control Group

Verbalization Category	Session Number 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
No Verbalization							1	4
Solicited, Brief Verbalization		2		3	8	1	1	3
Solicited, Extended Verbalization	NO DATA	4					4	1
Unsolicited, Brief Verbalization		6	13	5	7	6	1	5
Unsolicited, Extended Verbalization		3	3	9	3	7	9	4

Experimental Group

Verbalization Category	Session Number 1	2	3	4	5*	6	7	8*
No Verbalization		6		2			1	5
Solicited, Brief Verbalization		4	8	6	3	5	4	
Solicited, Extended Verbalization	NO DATA	1	6	5	3	3	5	1
Unsolicited, Brief Verbalization		3	2	1	2	7	2	4
Unsolicited, Extended Verbalization		7	7	5	2	4	7	

*Data was not collected in all groups for these sessions.

fair fighting, as these topics were particularly relevant for the participants. The largest modification that needs to be made is in the differentiation between the Assertion with Aggression model and the traditional Assertion Training model. For Assertion with Aggression training, more emphasis must be placed on the positive aspects of aggressiveness, the types of situations that call for it (e.g., situations in which assertiveness has been unsuccessful), and behavioral rehearsal of verbal aggression, with discussion following to process the concomitant feelings and cognitions participants have about behaving aggressively. There should also be more discussion about accepting responsibility for the consequences of one's behavior throughout the training.

The whole concept of females behaving aggressively might be more palatable to women who have previously been exposed to assertion training and who use assertiveness as their primary response style. In this light, it might be more beneficial to teach Assertion with Aggression in two steps: 1) a basic course of traditional assertion training, and 2) an advanced course of aggression training. This would allow participants to assimilate and practice the basic concepts before exposing them to ideas that may be perceived as radical.

Much more research needs to be conducted to ascertain whether assertion and aggression lie on a single continuum or whether they are two distinct constructs. A first step might be to assess the intercorrelations between existing assertion and aggression instruments (assuming the aggression instruments have convergent validity). Then a validity study could be conducted in the form of a multi-trait/multi-method analysis comparing measures of assertiveness and aggressiveness by methods of

training. This would allow the researchers to determine 1) what exactly is being taught in the training, and 2) how effective the training is in reaching its goals. More research also needs to be conducted on the videotaped vignettes as a valid behavioral measure of assertiveness.

In summary, the results of this study demonstrate the need for further research on the effects of an Assertion with Aggression model of assertiveness training. It is the author's belief that participants can learn to use an aggressive response style, and that such a response style not only increases the individual's behavioral repertoire, making him or her more flexible, but also can be instrumental in achieving one's goals. Another belief is that assertion training with an aggression component can facilitate adoption of an assertive response style. The results of this study do not demonstrate the clear cut superiority of Assertion with Aggression assertiveness training over more traditional Assertiveness Training in achieving these goals. The Assertion with Aggression model needs further development and refinement to make it more powerful and distinctive. Also, the development of an instrument that appropriately measures aggressiveness as defined in this study would be helpful. Finally, some consensus in the aggression literature on the construct of aggression and how it is to be defined would provide a most useful foundation for further work in the field.

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APPENDIX A
PROSPECTUS

WHEN ASSERTION IS NOT ENOUGH:

DEVELOPING THE AGGRESSIVE OPTION

> To explain to any man what it is like to be a woman in this society is to ask him to remember himself at 16 or 17, when he was fighting the old man and having to manipulate him and having to ask him for everything. Remember the hostility engendered when you were so dependent on a much stronger person?....You had to placate and wheedle, in order to survive, and you had to rebel. But your rebellion was hedged in, because you were so powerless. That is what it is like to be a woman. In order to get what she wants, a woman learns to wheedle, to pout, to manipulate, to be essentially an outsized child. And it works very well, unless what she wants is to grow up.
>
> Estelle Ramey, M.D., Scientist
> (Klagsbrun, 1975)

One response to the modern woman's dilemma of satisfying her wants and needs in a more honest, less manipulative manner than that of an "outsized child" is a program of skills development called assertion training. Assertion training models have proliferated since the early 1970's with the publication of such popular books as Your Perfect Right by Alberti and Emmons (1970) and Responsible Assertive Behavior by Lange and Jakubowski (1976). These training models use a variety of techniques to teach assertion (e.g., behavioral rehearsal, audio/video feedback, cognitive restructuring, therapist exhortations, bibliotherapy), and have proven successful in facilitating more assertive responses in the participants (Galassi & Galassi, 1978).

The philosophy underlying assertion training is congruent with one of the basic tenets of the counseling psychologist: the individual who successfully copes with life is the one who has many options in his or her behavioral repertoire. This provides the flexibility that is necessary to handle even difficult situations effectively. Assertion training offers women one viable behavioral option (assertiveness) not previously reinforced in this culture. However, the range of options could be expanded further, thereby preparing women to successfully handle certain interpersonal situations in which assertiveness is not an efficacious response. This study will explore those situations in which passivity, assertiveness, or aggressiveness might be an appropriate response for meeting one's needs, depending upon the specific context. A model for teaching the appropriate use of aggression as well as passivity and assertion will be presented. A comparison between a traditional assertion training model vs. an assertion with aggression model will be made. Finally, the ethical considerations of teaching women a behavior that is not widely condoned for them in this society will be addressed.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Assertion Training

> No matter how much women prefer to lean, to be protected and supported, nor how much men desire to have them do so, they must make the voyage of life alone, and for safety in an emergency they must know something of the laws of navigation.
>
> Elizabeth Cady Stanton,
> Women's Rights Leader, 1892
> (Klagsbrun, 1975)

Definitions and Descriptions

Assertion training has been defined as a semi-structured training approach which emphasizes the acquisition of assertion skills through practice (Lange & Jakubowski, 1976), a psychological intervention that treats intrapsychic or covert variables as well as specific, overt behaviors (Flowers, Cooper, & Whiteley, 1975), and a philosophy of life that encourages self-respect and dignity for the individual (Cotler, 1975). The procedure was systematized and popularized by Wolpe (1958) as a way to teach individuals to express themselves in interpersonal situations without the anxiety that often inhibits such expression. Assertion training teaches individuals how to stand up for their rights without violating the rights of others, to reduce interpersonal anxiety, and to express thoughts, feelings, and beliefs in direct, honest, appropriate ways (Alberti & Emmons, 1978; Lange & Jakubowski, 1976). The major goal is to increase one's sense of control over his or her own life by getting personal needs met in interpersonal situations.

Assertion training is usually conducted in a group format. Lange and Jakubowski (1976) describe four types of groups used for teaching skills in assertion:

1. Exercise-oriented groups--members participate in a pre-set series of role play exercises followed by situations that they generate
2. Theme-oriented groups--each session revolves around a particular theme, and behavioral rehearsal via role plays reflect the theme
3. Semi-structured groups--role plays are used in conjunction with other therapeutic procedures
4. Unstructured groups--role plays are based entirely on members' concerns each session

Within assertion training models, various components have been deemed necessary for inclusion. Flowers and Booraem (1975) suggest that all effective change techniques use systematic small, graded steps, active client participation, accurate feedback to participants, and reinforcement for change and success. For a minimal and standard treatment package of assertion training, Rich and Schroeder (1976) propose including response acquisition operations (e.g., modeling and instructions), response-reproduction operations (e.g., response practice), response-shaping and strengthening operations (e.g., feedback), cognitive restructuring operations, and response transfer operations (e.g., homework assignments). Galassi and Galassi (1978) offer three components to consider in interpersonal situations: a behavioral dimension, a personal dimension and a situational dimension. The behavioral dimension of assertion training includes such

behaviors as standing up for rights, initiating and refusing requests, giving and receiving compliments, initiating, maintaining, and terminating conversations, expressing love and affection, expressing personal opinions, expressing justified anger, asking why, talking about oneself, setting limits, and initiating activities for oneself (Butler, 1976; Galassi & Galassi, 1978; Rathus, 1975). The personal dimension considers the relationship between the asserter and the recipient of an assertive message. The situational dimension takes socio-cultural and situational factors into account in deciding whether a response should be classified as passive, assertive, or aggressive, and whether an assertive response is, indeed, appropriate (Cheek, 1976; Galassi & Galassi, 1978). Finally, Butler (1976) focuses on the following four components of assertion training:

1. Verbal behavior (what the person says)
2. Nonverbal behavior (how the person says it)
3. Autonomic responses (the feeling state which accompanies self-assertion)
4. Cognitive variables (what the person tells himself or herself about being assertive)

In summary, assertion training is a systematic package of skills training techniques and exercises that includes both cognitive and behavioral components. The goal is to teach an individual how to express thoughts, feelings, and opinions honestly and without undue anxiety in interpersonal situations. Modeling, behavioral rehearsal, and feedback are standard components of almost all assertion training models. Finally, the context within which an assertive response will be made must be considered in deciding whether it is, indeed, an appropriate response.

Lange and Jakubowski (1976) developed a broad-based model for teaching assertiveness that incorporates cognitive variables as well as principles from learning theory, rational-emotive therapy, and social learning theory. They propose twelve critical process goals for the assertion trainer:

1. identify specific situations and behaviors which will be the focus of training
2. teach participants how to ascertain if they have acted assertively rather than aggressively or nonassertively
3. help individuals to accept their personal rights and the rights of others
4. identify and modify participants' irrational assumptions which produce excessive anxiety and anger and result in nonassertion and aggression
5. provide opportunities for the participants to practice alternative assertive responses
6. give specific feedback on how the members could improve their assertive behavior
7. encourage the members to evaluate their own behavior
8. positively reinforce successive improvements in assertive behavior
9. model alternative responses as needed
10. structure the group procedures so that the members' involvement is widespread and supportive
11. give considerable permission and encouragement for the participants to behave assertively within and outside of the group.

12. display leadership behavior which is characterized by assertion rather than aggression or nonassertion (pp. 4-5)

This model was presented here as it will be the basis for the proposed study.

Several theoretical formulations have been proposed to explain why an individual might not possess skills in assertion. Wolpe's theory of reciprocal inhibition of anxiety states that nonassertive behavior results from the punishment of assertive behavior and the concomitant conditioning of an anxiety response to assertive cues (Galassi & Galassi, 1978; Wolpe, 1958). This anxiety prevents the nonassertive individual from being assertive, even if he or she knows the appropriate assertive response. According to this theory, if a response can be evoked that inhibits anxiety (e.g., assertiveness), and if that inhibitory response can be made to occur in the presence of anxiety-evoking stimuli (e.g., interpersonal situations), then it will weaken the connection between these stimuli and the anxiety response.

Another theory proposes that assertiveness deficits may be due to social learning factors (Galassi & Galassi, 1978; Hersen, Eisler, & Miller, 1973; Kelly, Kern, Kirkley, Patterson, & Keane, 1980). Perhaps the appropriate verbal and nonverbal assertive responses have never been learned, or they may have been learned, but the individual negates them by cognitive rehearsal of anticipated but unrealistic consequences for engaging in assertive behavior. To combat this, much emphasis is usually placed on modeling, feedback, and cognitive restructuring in assertion training groups. Gender is also an important variable in social learning factors. This issue shall be addressed later in a section on sex-role socialization.

Three Communication Styles: Passivity, Aggression and Assertion

Assertion trainers delineate three communication styles individuals use in interpersonal situations: passivity (also called nonassertiveness), aggression, and assertion. Not only must the content of the verbal message, but also the nonverbal aspects of the message delivery be considered in assessing which communication style is being used. Examples of nonverbal components include eye contact, body posture, distance, gestures, voice tone, inflection, volume, timing, and affect (Alberti & Emmons, 1978; Flowers & Booraem, 1975).

Passivity is defined by Lange and Jakubowski (1976) as:

> violating one's own rights by failing to express honest feelings, thoughts, and beliefs and consequently permitting others to violate oneself, or expressing one's thoughts and feelings in such an apologetic, diffident, self-effacing manner that others can easily disregard them. (p. 9)

The goal of passivity is to avoid interpersonal conflict at all costs; this interpersonal anxiety may develop from several sources:

1. the psychoanalyst blames repressed early learning experiences which produce feelings of guilt
2. the Rogerian blames the lack of unconditional positive regard from one's parents
3. the behavior therapist blames a history of maladaptive habit formation
4. the social learner blames lack of adequate models who were reinforced for acting assertively (Rathus, 1973)

For whatever reason the anxiety forms, it is clear that during development, the passive individual was not rewarded by significant others for behaving assertively. Consequently, many of his or her wants and needs go unmet. The passive person often feels hurt, anxious, and angry, but "gunnysacks" these feelings rather than expressing them openly. There are, however, some advantages to being passive. Hull and Schroeder (1979) conducted a study in which subjects rated confederates on likeability after engaging in a role-play situation with them in which the confederate responded passively. They found that although nonassertion does not result in the accomplishment of immediate goals, it is still evaluated and responded to positively. Therefore, they suggest that passive people who want to learn to behave assertively are probably self-motivated to change rather than encouraged by others. Kelly et al. (1980) showed subjects videotapes in which a model responded either passively or assertively to an unreasonable request. Subjects filled out the Interpersonal Attraction Inventory on the model and results showed that the assertive models were evaluated significantly higher than passive models on an ability/achievement factor but significantly lower on a likeability factor. There is a cultural press in this society to be "nice" and not to hurt others' feelings. Although the passive individual takes this mandate to an extreme, he or she is nevertheless heavily reinforced for maintaining this communication style.

Aggressiveness is defined in the assertion literature as standing up for one's own rights at the expense of others' rights. The goal of aggression is domination and winning, forcing the other person to lose; this is accomplished by such techniques as blaming, inducing guilt, behaving self-righteously, giving double messages, giving commands and orders, being

sarcastic and being defensive (Lange & Jakubowski, 1976). Individuals may develop an aggressive communication style because they feel vulnerable to an antici-pated or actual attack; or they are reacting to a previously-held passive style in which the "gunnysack" of hurts and unexpressed feelings has broken; or they have been reinforced for acting aggressively; or they have a skills deficit in more appropriate modes of response (Alberti & Emmons, 1978; Lange & Jakubowski, 1976). The aggressive individual often achieves his or her goals, but may simultaneously generate feelings of anger, hurt, frustration, hatred, and possible counter-attack in the recipients of the aggression. It is emphasized that this description of aggressiveness is the one espoused in the literature on assertiveness training; aggression is almost never condoned there as an appropriate response in a conflict situation. Alberti and Emmons (1978) begrudgingly concede that aggression may have to be used defensively as a last resort, but only "if the issue is a morally important one (not just "ego" important), we consider it acceptable to be mentally aggressive at times" (p. 90). One hypothesis of this study is that there are positive as well as negative aspects of aggression, and to forbid its expression eliminates one viable behavioral option from one's repertoire. This issue shall be addressed at length later in this paper.

Assertiveness has been defined as:

> ....the skill to seek, maintain, or enhance reinforcement in an interpersonal situation through an expression of feelings or wants when such expression risks loss of reinforcement or even punishment (Rich & Schroeder, 1976, p. 1082).
>
> ....standing up for personal rights and expressing thoughts, feelings, and beliefs in direct, honest, and appropriate ways

> which do not violate another persons rights....it involves respect, not deference (Lange & Jakubowski, 1976, p. 7).
>
> ....behavior which enables a person to act in his or her own best interests, to stand up for herself or himself without undue anxiety, to express honest feelings comfortably, or to exercise personal rights without denying the rights of others (Alberti & Emmons, 1978, p. 2).
>
> ....as the antithesis of inhibited behavior. If the assertive individual is in a situation in which redress is not possible because of potentially severe social, financial, or physical sanctions, he is able to delay or forego redress without intropunitive ruminations (Rathus, 1975, p. 9).

Assertiveness includes not only the ability to stand up for oneself and to express anger and resentment, but also the ability to express warmth and affection. The goals of assertiveness are "fair play" when the needs and rights of two people conflict, direct and honest communication, and mutual respect with others. It is important to note that assertive behavior does not guarantee that another person's behavior will change or that the assertive individual will always get his or her needs and wants met. However, assertion as a response style is appropriate across most situations.

Lange and Jakubowski (1976) delineate four types of assertion:

1. Basic Assertion--standing up for one's rights, beliefs, feelings or opinions
2. Empathic Assertion--adds a component of empathy/sensitivity for the recipient of the assertive response

3. Escalating Assertion--begins with a basic assertive response; if the recipient fails to respond and continues to violate one's rights, the assertive message is escalated in firmness
4. Confrontive Assertion--used to point out contradictions between the words and deeds of the recipient; this is done objectively and unemotionally

Rathus (1975) provides an excellent portrait of the assertive individual:

> The assertive individual thus judges social encounters and determines appropriate responses. He asserts himself when appropriate. When he must, he declines. In behaving assertively he remains issue-oriented; he does not gratuitously injure others. The truly assertive individual is not a bully. He has little need to be--he does not accumulate injuries. The assertive individual is neither acquiescent nor belligerent. He does not allow others to take advantage; he does not retire from social interactions. On the other hand, he has "nothing to prove." He need not be loud, overbearing, boorish, or negativistic (p. 10).

This passage attempts to differentiate assertion from the negative connotations with which it is sometimes associated. Indeed, a later discussion shall present evidence that the terms "assertion" and "aggression" are often used interchangeably in the literature, thereby adding more confusion and ambiguity to a loosely-defined area.

Alberti and Emmons (1978) reiterate several key points about assertive behavior: it is self-expressive, honest, direct, not hurtful to others, self-enhancing, composed of both verbal and nonverbal aspects of the

message, socially responsible, person- and situation-specific, and learned rather than innate.

In summary, as stated by Flowers and Booraem (1975), the decision to act passively, aggressively, or assertively in any given situation is an individual's choice, and he or she must accept responsibility for the consequences of that choice. Possible negative consequences of passivity include frustration, anger, and hurt, as one's needs and wants go unmet. A possible negative consequence of aggression includes the loss of close interpersonal relationships. Possible negative consequences of assertion include frustration (one may not get one's needs and wants met) tempered by a feeling of pride and self-respect for at least having tried.

Barriers to Assertion

Women sometimes find it difficult to express themselves assertively even after participating in an assertion training workshop where permission and encouragement are given for such behavior. Alberti and Emmons (1978) suggests that three significant barriers to self-assertiveness are fear and anxiety, the belief that one does not have the right to be assertive, and a lack of social skills.

Sex-role socialization is a huge inhibiting factor of assertiveness in females, since there is a strong cultural press for females in this society to be passive, nurturant, and dependent (Alberti & Emmons, 1978; Butler, 1976; Hollandsworth & Wall, 1977; Hull & Schroeder, 1979; Rich & Schroeder, 1976; Wolfe & Fodor, 1975). Indeed, the same behavior that is labeled "assertive" for a male is often labeled "aggressive" when exhibited by a female, with the concomitant negative connotations (Butler, 1976, Rich & Schroeder, 1976; Wolfe & Fodor, 1975). Sex-role socialization and

the reinforcing of traditional sex-role stereotypes begins quite early. In two studies in which elementary school children evaluated male and female characters in books who acted either passively, assertively, or aggressively, the children clearly identified aggressiveness as a male characteristic and passive behavior as more desirable for females (Barta, 1979; Connor, Serbin, & Ender, 1978). Hollandsworth and Wall (1977) compared males and females on the Adult Self Expression Scale and found that males did report themselves to be more assertive than females on several items; however, the sexes differed in those situations in which they were likely to assert themselves. Whereas males reported themselves as being more assertive than females when dealing with bosses and supervisors, when stating opinions, and when initiating social contacts with members of the opposite sex, females reported themselves as being more assertive than males in expressing love, affection and compliments and in expressing anger to their parents. However, this aspect of assertion is consistent with the traditional feminine sex-role, which encourages females to be nurturant, supportive, caring, and to develop and maintain close interpersonal relationships.

Other barriers to assertion are the "irrational beliefs" people tell themselves that prevent them from engaging in behaviors that might lead to "catastrophic" consequences (Ellis & Grieger, 1977; Wolfe & Fodor, 1975). Examples of such beliefs are "I must be loved and approved of by every significant person in my life, and if I'm not, it will be awful;" "It would be awful if I hurt another person;" and "It is easier to avoid than to face life's difficulties." These powerful, covert messages (often parental injunctions) impede assertion by making the unassertive individual fear the

risk inherent in self-assertion. For one whose primary interpersonal goal is to avoid conflict at all costs, the real possibility of rejection, hurt, or punishment by another evokes a tremendous amount of anxiety. Consequently, he or she takes the passive option which is seldom satisfying but also seldom threatening.

A final barrier to assertion may be guilt. Klass (1981) compared the assertive and cognitive responses of women who expressed high, moderate, and low levels of guilt over assertion. Cognitive responses consisted of self-statements/thoughts the subjects had about an assertive refusal situation. Results showed a significant negative correlation between guilt and assertion. High-guilt subjects viewed assertive refusal as causing much harm to the other person, and they assumed more individual responsibility for causing the harm than did their moderate- or low-guilt counterparts. The self-statements of the high-guilt group emphasized the moral features of harm and responsibility to a much greater extent than did the self-statements of the other two groups. If the choice then becomes one of asserting oneself (seen as selfish, hurtful, immoral) vs. remaining passive (seen as helpful, empathic, caring, and moral), it is not surprising that women possessing strong consciences and concomitant guilt would choose the passive option.

Research on Assertion Training

Assertion training has been an effective treatment approach for a variety of intrapersonal and interpersonal problems (Alberti & Emmons, 1978; Galassi & Galassi, 1978; Hersen, et al., 1973). In particular, assertion training has proven to be more effective than other treatment modalities in modifying non-assertive behavior (Galassi & Galassi, 1978; Wolfe &

Fodor, 1977). Alden, Safran, and Weideman (1978) compared cognitive and skills training strategies in the treatment of unassertive clients. The cognitive change strategies focused on modifying maladaptive cognitions that may prevent assertive responses (e.g., catastrophic expectations about the consequences of assertiveness), whereas the skills training utilized behavioral techniques such as modeling, behavioral rehearsal, and feedback). Results showed the two treatments to be equally effective in increasing assertion, but perhaps for different reasons. Skills training teaches one the appropriate style and verbal content of assertive behavior; cognitive change strategies decrease one's anxiety and self-punishment for being assertive. Therefore, most models of assertion training use a combination of the two strategies to maximize behavioral change. Flowers, Cooper, and Whiteley (1975) and Alden, et al., (1978) attribute the strength of the program to the combination of behavior therapy principles (systematic specifiable processes and outcomes), and the recognition of the importance of cognitive variables (allows for more complex human behavior).

There is, however, still much work to be done to systematize the training, and to discover which factors are most efficacious. Flowers et al. (1975) and Galassi and Galassi (1978) suggest that more research is needed in outcome/effectiveness, sources of unassertiveness, and developing better assessment tools and procedures. There is still debate on whether groups should be composed of males and females or females only (Butler, 1976; Cotler, 1975). Finally, more research is needed on generalization of treatment effects from workshop/lab to real-life situations (Galassi & Galassi, 1978; Talbert, Lawrence, & Nelson, 1980).

A more basic philosophical question is whether it is ethical to teach women skills that are still not widely condoned in this society. Some studies have found negative correlations between assertiveness and ratings of "niceness," "likeability," intelligence, and attractiveness for women (Deluty, 1981; Gaebelein, 1977; Kelly et al., 1980). Assertive behavior contradicts many of the behaviors taught to females during sex-role socialization; consequently, exhibiting these "non-traditional" behaviors may be seen by others as inappropriate and threatening. It is, however, a value of this author that "tradition" does not justify maintaining the status quo when it inhibits the growth and development of a particular group. Therefore, if the participants of an assertion training group are made cognizant of the possible consequences of exhibiting assertive behavior, and they assume responsibility for those consequences, then the ethical dilemma is resolved. Cotler (1975) cogently addresses this issue:

> For the individual who teaches assertive skills to others, it should be recognized that he/she assumes a great deal of responsibility for the welfare of his clients as well as those with whom the client interacts. For it is the therapist who models, coaches, supports, and often directs the assertive efforts of the individual....As such, it is extremely important that the therapist make every effort to insure that these assertive procedures are used in a manner that would not violate the self-dignity and rights of the client as well as the rights of others. (p. 28)

Assertion vs. Aggression

An underlying assumption of this paper is that in order to cope successfully with the vicissitudes of daily life, the individual needs a

behavioral repertoire with many options. The case will be presented for including aggression as a viable option, to be used (as must any response style) appropriately. However, in an effort to be fair to those assertion trainers who eschew the use of aggression at all times, there is some data that shows that assertion is almost always a superior response to aggression. One argument states that assertion provokes less anger and greater compliance from recipients than does aggression (Hollandsworth & Cooley, 1978; Woolfolk & Dever, 1979). Woolfolk and Dever (1979) had subjects watch three vignettes in which an offended actor responded either passively, assertively, or aggressively. Subjects rated the behavior and personality of the actor and the feelings of the recipient of the passive, assertive, or aggressive message. In comparing assertiveness with aggressiveness, assertive behavior was viewed as significantly kinder, more appropriate and efficacious, more polite, less neurotic, less hostile, and more satisfying for the recipient than was aggressive behavior. Hollandsworth and Cooley (1978) found that subjects who were recipients of aggression via a threat or put-down reacted with excuses, retorts, or verbal attacks, whereas recipients of assertion did not manifest these signs of anger, belligerence, and non-compliance.

A second argument for the superiority of assertion over aggression is that assertion is viewed as a more pro-social and appropriate response (Connor et al., 1978; Hall & Black, 1979; Hull & Schroeder, 1979). Unfortunately, passivity is sometimes evaluated as the most appropriate of the three responses because assertion and aggression are seen as synonymous. Hull and Schroeder (1979) exposed subjects to role-play situations in which a confederate acted non-assertively, assertively, or aggressively.

Results indicated that non-assertion was evaluated and responded to positively at all times, but evaluations of assertion were mixed. Not only was assertive behavior rated as fair, non-revengeful, and friendly, but also as dominant, unsympathetic, and aggressive. However, assertion was always rated as more appropriate than aggression.

A third argument for the use of assertion rather than aggression is that assertiveness provides for more flexible responses than does aggressiveness. Deluty (1981) tested elementary school children on their ability to generate alternative solutions to interpersonal conflict situations. The children were first classified as passive, assertive, or aggressive based on their scores on the Children's Action Tendency Scale (an assertion scale for children); their responses to conflict situations were then judged as passive, assertive, or aggressive. Results showed that there was no difference in the numbers of alternative solutions offered by the three groups, yet the types of solutions differed, with assertive children offering the widest variety of responses. Indeed, one characteristic of the assertive individual is the ability to also be passive or aggressive, depending upon the situation (e.g., it is often advantageous to acquiesce to an employer if one wants to retain his or her job).

A final argument for the superiority of assertiveness over aggressiveness involves the power bases used in the two response styles (Hollandsworth, 1977). Aggression uses coercive power (threats and punishment) to gain compliance. Fear of negative consequences may encourage the recipient to comply, but feelings of anger, resentment, frustration, and hostility are also generated in the recipient, and counter-attack is always a possibility. Assertion, on the other hand, uses legitimate power to gain

compliance (power derived from the position, experience, or real authority of the asserter, as perceived by others). As such, the recipients of assertion desire to comply out of respect (not fear) for the asserter. This is the "honey or vinegar" argument: since assertion involves respect and empathy for others, the recipients of assertiveness develop admiration and respect for the assertive individual, and therefore want to comply, if possible. Since aggression involves a lack of respect and consideration for others (manifested by abuse), the recipients feel no need to reinforce aggressive behavior by compliance.

In summary, research indicates that assertiveness is generally a more efficacious response style than is aggressiveness, especially in terms of the feelings generated in the recipients of the assertive or aggressive response. However, it is this author's opinion that aggression has been defined too narrowly in the assertion training literature so that only its negative aspects are addressed. There is another body of literature which offers a more balanced picture of this complex behavior. Aggression is conceptualized here as an energy, a life force, a drive which motivates individuals to grow, become autonomous, assume power and control over their lives. The following section shall examine these issues in some depth.

Aggression

> I've been described as a tough and noisy woman, a prize fighter, a man hater, you name it. They call me Battling Bella, Mother Courage and a Jewish mother with more complaints than Portnoy. There are those who say I'm impatient, impetuous, uppity, rude, profane, harsh and overbearing. Whether I'm any of these things, or all of them....I am a very serious woman.
>
> Bella Abzug
> (Klagsbrun, 1975)

Definitions of Aggression

In the preceding sections of this paper, aggression was described as an anti-social, disrespectful, harmful, and inefficient response mode. Although the aggressive individual did often accomplish his or her goals, it was at the expense of close, trusting, interpersonal relationships. There are, however, two sides to every coin. Consider the following definitions:

> ....healthy aggression is that form of energetic pursuit of one's needs that is more helpful than harmful to humans and that abets the basic values, goals, or purposes that they choose to make control their existence....it is that form of aggressiveness that tends to abet the human goals of remaining alive, being relatively happy, living successfully in a social group, and relating intimately to some selected members of the group (Ellis, 1976, p. 240).
>
> Aggression is identified as a set of behaviors having positive and negative characteristics, including the constructs of ambition, assertion, belligerence, self-centeredness, concern for appearance, being opinionated, capable, confident, energetic, and competitive (Duncan & Hobson, 1977).
>
> Aggression is a response to either frustration or attack, and may be instrumental to the acquisition of an extrinsic reward (Edmunds & Kendrick, 1980, p. 25).
>
> ....aggression sometimes means self-assertion, mastery, and creative activity (Kermani, 1977, p. 201).
>
> In the area of aggression--that is, making another individual do what we want by the threat of force, producing fear, or the instillation of guilt--we are employing power (Greenberg, 1976, p. 205).

> The directly aggressive person may be initially less comfortable to be with, but he recharges relationships and social situations with an activating energy that is indispensable to staying involved and emotionally healthy (Bach & Goldberg, 1974, p. 23).

The body of literature on aggression presents it as a much more complex phenomenon than simply one of three possible response styles in dyadic communication. Indeed, there is considerable debate over how to define the concept and exactly what it entails. Bardwick (1976) offers a definition of aggression as found in cross-cultural studies:

> ....an egocentric, competitive, dominating style that includes a tendency to compete if the situation lends itself to competition; a single-minded purpose and endurance; a willingness to sacrifice pleasure and affection for the possibility of control and suprafamilial power; a need to assert one's ego; a tendency to impose one's will on the environment; a rather great resistance to do what one has been told to do; and a tendency to dominate in relationships with the other sex (p. 164).

Kahn and Kirk (1968) conceptualize aggression as a motivational state rather than a response class and define it as "an inborn biologically rooted, directionally oriented energizer of behavior that is elicited by frustration of other drives and needs necessary to the survival of the species and the individual organism" (p. 569). Buss' (1961) definition of aggression is the one most commonly cited in the literature: "aggression is a response that delivers noxious stimuli to another organism" (p. 1). It is clear from these definitions that researchers disagree about whether aggression is a drive or

a response and whether intent to harm should be one of the criteria. Kahn and Kirk (1968) discuss the problems inherent in popular definitions:

1. with Buss' overt response definition, the same stimuli may be judged as noxious at one time but not at another
2. with aggression defined as an injurious end result, injury may occur by accident or by natural catastrophe
3. with aggression defined as the victim's perception of injury, perception may or may not be reality-based
4. with motivational definitions that consider the intent or goal of the aggressor, motivational states are difficult to identify and measure

One popular theory divides aggression into two categories based upon intent/goal of the aggressor. The distinction is made here between hostile aggression and instrumental aggression. The goal of hostile aggression is injury of the recipient, and it is usually motivated by anger in the aggressor. Instrumental aggression causes inadvertent injury to the recipient, but this is not the primary goal of the aggressor (Berkowitz, 1981; Feshbach, 1964; Kahn & Kirk, 1968; Spielberger, Jacobs, Russell, & Crane, 1982). The goal of instrumental aggression may be the acquisition of some reward, the cessation of aversive stimuli, gaining a position of dominance in a group, self-approval, or gaining access to scarce resources (Berkowitz, 1981; Buss, 1961). Therefore, aggressive behavior can be defined by its consequences (i.e., injury to the victim), but mediating factors (intent) must also be considered before labelling it as a negative and inappropriate act. Indeed, the probability of going through life without ever hurting another person (even inadvertently) is low. The probability of going

through life not only without hurting others, but also satisfying one's needs and wants is almost nil. For those individuals suffering cognitive dissonance because 1) they perceive themselves to be nice people, and 2) nice people do not hurt others, but 3) they have just hurt someone inadvertently, the concept of instrumental aggression is a good way to resolve the dissonance.

Ellis (1976) makes the distinction between healthy aggression and unhealthy aggression. Healthy aggression is that form of energy that allows humans to achieve the four basic goals of survival, happiness, social acceptance, and intimate relations. Unhealthy aggression tends to undermine these basic human goals. Aspects of aggressiveness that Ellis categorizes as healthy include assertiveness, annoyance, and sometimes oppositionalism; unhealthy aspects include argumentativeness, arrogance, domineeringness, fury, hostility, insultingness, and violence. According to Ellis, the healthy forms of aggression are based upon rational and empirically-based cognitions, whereas the unhealthy forms are based upon irrational and magical cognitions.

Tedeschi, Smith, and Brown (1974) suggest that the value system of an individual must be considered before identifying an act as aggressive for him or her. If the victim believes that an actor uses coercive power (threats and punishments) offensively, intentionally, and anti-normatively, then the action will be labeled as aggressive, and retribution will be sought. Therefore, Tedeschi et al., suggest that actors seek to rationalize their coercive actions as defensive, legitimate, or necessary.

Duncan and Hobson (1977), recognizing that the term "aggressive" has a surplus of meanings, asked 933 male and female adults to define it.

Although males and females differed in some of the constructs they included, the constructs of ambition, assertion, belligerence, loud-mouthedness, and self-centeredness were viewed as common characteristics of aggressive behavior by both sexes. Males considered concern for appearance to be a relevant characteristic of aggressiveness and females claimed that being opinionated is a defining characteristic. Males stated that the types of situations in which they feel aggressive are primarily interpersonal situations, whereas females felt aggressive in intrapsychic types of situations (e.g., conflicts involving principles). Both sexes viewed passivity as being predominantly negative. The researchers conclude that aggression is a behavior having positive characteristics (e.g., confident, energetic, capable) as well as negative ones. This lack of specificity characterizes the area of aggression research.

Theories of Aggression

The frustration-aggression hypothesis states that aggressiveness is always the direct result of frustration, and the force of the aggression is linked to the frequency and intensity of frustrating experiences (Feshbach, 1964; Kahn & Kirk, 1968). The arbitrariness of the frustration and the opportunity to retaliate may influence how frustrated an individual will become. The ethological approach to aggression a la Lorenz states that modern human aggression consists of an interaction between rapid technological development and the slower development of innate inhibitions against the expression of aggression. Until human evolution progresses further, this theory advocates sublimation of the aggressive drive through harmless competitive activities (Megargee & Hokanson, 1970). The psychoanalytical approach to aggression states that humans are motivated by two

instincts--libido and thanatos, and overt aggression is their outward manifestation. Although the aggressive drives are innate and biologically determined, inhibitions develop as a result of successful resolution of the Oedipus Complex and the consequent formation of the superego (Megargee & Hokanson, 1970). The ego psychology approach adds that aggression propels growth and development by enabling a person to break libidinal ties which tend to retard individuation (Blanck & Blanck, 1979). Social learning theory postulates that aggression is a learned response to frustration that is acquired via modeling. The more one engages in aggressive behavior (especially if the behavior is reinforced by significant others), the stronger the aggressive habit becomes (Deluty, 1980; Kahn & Kirk, 1968; Megargee & Hokanson, 1970). Larsen (1976) expands the social learning idea in his theory of social cost. Basically, this theory suggests that aggression can be facilitated or inhibited by approval or disapproval from significant others. Social cost (the need for social approval) can inhibit aggression by determining the impact of frustration upon an individual: "Individuals high in approval-seeking are more willing to tolerate frustration and tend to inhibit direct aggressive responses" (Larsen, 1976, p. 44). Social cost explains why females are less aggressive than males in this society: socialization and reinforcement for nurturance, empathy, dependence on others, and gaining "fulfillment" through relationships makes females very vulnerable to rejection. The cost of behaving aggressively then becomes too high, and instead of opting for a compromise (assertiveness), the female guarantees that she will not be rejected by assuming the passive stance. However, it is not healthy to use only external sources for validation of self-worth; one then lives with such anxiety and fear of

rejection that one's own wants and needs become stifled. And one also becomes easily manipulated by more powerful others-those with a lower need for social approval who are willing to take interpersonal risks.

Functions of Aggression

If researchers are making such an earnest effort to understand the etiology and manifestations of aggression, it must serve some important functions for human beings. Miller (1979) conceptualizes aggressiveness as psychobiologic energy that drives the individual, as well as stimulates him or her. The more aggression one has, the better he or she will be able to cope with novel situations; conversely, lack of aggression "constitutes a handicap involving inadequate responses to stimuli and eventuating in diminished self-esteem (which derives from....taking credit for our efforts)" (Miller, 1979, p. 109). Therefore, aggression can be a motivator that expands one's range of experience.

Larsen (1976) suggests that aggression leads to power and dominance, which is necessary in preventing constant intraspecies conflict. This same drive for mastery and control enables the child to become an autonomous and independent entity, and to grow and mature as an individual in a competitive culture. As Bach and Goldberg (1974) suggest, "particularly in today's world, where achievement and success are prized and usually result from assertive individual enterprise, the capacity to be constructively aggressive is an integral part of a fulfilling life." (p. 25)

Biaggio (1980) discusses the positive aspects of anger (the affective component of aggression) as energizing the individual, promoting interpersonal trust and intimacy if expressed constructively, and potentiating a sense of personal control. If this force is repressed or suppressed, it may

facilitate the development of psychosomatic symptoms and destructive communication patterns, interfere with cognitive efficiency and interpersonal intimacy, and lead to poor task performance.

Berkowitz (1981) sees the goals of aggression as influencing another's behavior, enhancing one's own self-esteem via the use of power, and retaliation for a real or anticipated injury. These goals imply the larger goal of self-preservation and survival for the aggressive individual.

Bach and Goldberg (1974) focus on the ability of aggression, when expressed constructively, to intensify the depth and authenticity of interpersonal relationships. They teach skills in verbal expression of anger and rage, open confrontation, manifesting one's personal power strivings, and identity protection through a variety of exercises and rituals to teach the appropriate expression of aggression.

Selected Research on Aggression

Before reviewing relevant findings from the aggression literature, it would be wise to consider Cochrane's (1975) critique. According to Cochrane, there is still no universal conceptualization of aggression, and as such, no direct assessment of it has been possible (only the derivatives of aggression can be assessed). Research on the manifestations of aggression can be grouped into three categories: physiological, experiential, and behavioral manifestations. Problems with the physiological studies are that no physiological change exclusive to aggression has been identified, and most studies measure transient states evoked by direct external stimulation, not a more permanent trait. Problems with the experiential and behavioral studies are that measurements are usually obtained for transient states induced by contrived experimental procedures, or else

measurements are obtained for short-term fluctuations in level of affect due to experimental manipulation. In short, these studies reveal little about aggressiveness as a personality trait, nor do they possess much external validity. Also, since "aggression" is induced in the subject via instructions by the experimenter, there is some question as to whether the subject is really behaving aggressively, or just being obedient. Cochrane suggests that rather than assessing quantity of aggression induced (as most existing instruments do), a more clinically relevant task would be to assess the quality and handling of aggression.

To exemplify the type of aggression study commonly found in the literature, an experiment by Geen and Pigg (1970) shall be presented. The researchers investigated whether acquisition of a physically aggressive response would generalize to verbal behavior. Subjects (as teachers) engaged in a "learning task" with confederates, (as learners) and were told to punish the learners for an incorrect response by shocking them with the Buss aggression machine (this instrument is similar to the one used in Milgram's obedience study except that subjects are free to choose the level of shock administered as punishment). Half of the subjects were reinforced by the experimenter for giving more intense shocks and half of the subjects received no such reinforcement. This phase of the experiment provided acquisition of the physically aggressive response. Subjects were then given a word association test with six strongly aggressive and five neutral words; the dependent variable was the number of aggressive associations made to the aggressive words. Results showed that reinforcement for physical aggression was quite successful in facilitating the expression of aggressive behavior, both physically, in the shock situation, and verbally, on the word

association test. In summary, aggression often begets more aggression, rather than dispelling the energy via catharsis.

The issue of sex differences in aggression has been widely researched, with some surprising results. By presenting some of the relevant findings, the case shall be made here that females are quite capable of exhibiting aggressive behavior but are prevented from doing so directly by sex-role socialization that claims aggressiveness to be a masculine trait. Maccoby (1966) and Maccoby & Jacklin (1974) reviewed the aggression literature from the 1930's to the 1970's to determine whether sex differences in aggression are a myth or reality. From approximately 60 studies (observational studies, experimental studies, projective test results, self-reports, and fantasy aggression in doll play), 44 studies found males to be more aggressive than females, only four studies found females to be more aggressive than males, and nine found no sex differences. However, in the four studies that examined subjects' anxiety and guilt about expressing aggression, all four found females to be more anxious and guilty than males. Maccoby & Jacklin (1974) conclude that:

> Males do appear to be the more aggressive sex, not just under a restricted set of conditions but in a wide variety of settings and using a wide variety of behavioral indexes....it is clear that girls do have a great deal of information about aggression that they never put into practice. The question is whether their failure to perform aggressive actions is to be attributed to anxiety-based inhibition that has been developed as a result of negative socialization pressure in the past. (p. 236)

Gaebelein (1977) studied sex differences in instigative aggression (defined as a subject, in the role of an advisor, instructing a responder which shock intensity to set for an opponent in a competetive reaction time task). The responders (female confederates) either cooperated or resisted compliance with the instructions passively, or assertively. Results showed that male subjects were significantly more instigative than females, and cooperation by the responder led to more instigative aggression than did either passive or assertive noncooperation. An interesting finding was that when subjects rated responders on likeability items after the task, the female passive noncooperator was least liked by male subjects. The author hypothesizes that the female passive noncooperator may be confusing to others for she violates both appropriate task role demands and sex-role expectations by not complying, yet she also seems to adhere to her appropriate sex role by being passive and hesitant. This pattern of indirect expression of aggression is common among females, who often use passive-aggressive techniques (e.g., guilt induction) to express aggression rather than open and honest confrontation.

Golin and Romanowski (1977) examined sex differences in verbal aggression using a modified Buss method. Subjects were teachers in a "learning task," but instead of administering shocks to the learner for an incorrect response, they gave one of five messages varying in hostile intensity from "Wrong" to "What the hell's the matter with you, you ass? Can't you get anything right?" The learner (a confederate) spoke in a hostile manner following certain trials to create Provocation vs. No Provocation conditions. Results showed that provocation by the learner resulted in greater verbal aggression by all subjects, and there were no

significant sex differences in level of verbal aggression administered. Buss (1961) speculates that since physical aggression is taboo for females, they must develop verbal forms of aggression (e.g., tattling, spiteful rejection) to express their anger and hostility.

In summary, males do appear to be more physically aggressive than females (Hartup, 1974; Poorman, Donnerstein, & Donnerstein, 1976). Perhaps, due to socialization of males, the frustration caused by their limited options for expressing feelings results in the physical demonstration of aggression (females are not so restricted in their display of emotionality). Maccoby & Jacklin (1974) believe that sex differences in aggression have a biological foundation because:

1. males are more aggressive than females cross-culturally
2. males are more aggressive than females in humans and other primates
3. sex differences are found early in life
4. aggression is related to levels of sex hormones, which can be experimentally manipulated

Even when females are allowed to express aggression in nonphysical ways, they still experience anxiety about it (Butler, 1976; Frodi & Macaulay, 1977; Knott & Drost, 1970; Landau, Packer, & Levy, 1973; Minturn, 1967).

Aggression and Females

Although there is wide agreement that females in this society are less aggressive than males, researchers in the field do not agree about what inhibits their aggressive tendencies. The literature on sex-role socialization shows that young boys tend to display more physical aggression than girls because they receive more reinforcement for it and fewer sanctions

against it (Eron, 1980; Ferguson & Rule, 1980; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974). Also, females are less frequently the victims of aggression (Frodi & Macaulay, 1977; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Sandidge & Friedland, 1974); consequently, society does not given them permission and skills to retaliate.

Frodi, Macaulay, and Thome (1977) examined the experimental literature to see whether women are always less aggressive than men. Contrary to the findings of Maccoby (1966), Frodi et al. found that out of 72 studies that involved a measure of some form of aggressive behavior, only 39% showed males to be more aggressive than females across all conditions. They found that men display more overt aggression than do women in response to hypothetical questions or in self-reports, but there are not consistent sex differences in approval of violence, appreciation of hostile humor, or willingness to admit hostile feelings. Males and females may react differently to aggressive cues in the environment (e.g., guns), which leads to differential responses (cues that are anger-provoking for males may be anxiety-provoking for females). Richardson, Bernstein, and Taylor (1979) suggest that sex differences in aggression may be artifacts of elements in the experimental situation that evoke conformity to sex-role stereotypes. Bardwick (1971) states that, "the assumption that the male model of aggression is the only form leads to the perception of low levels of aggression in girls. Differences in form need not mask similarities of motive" (p. 126). Nevertheless, even if there are no innate sex differences in aggression, there are still sex differences in the behavioral expression of aggression, and the triggers for that aggression.

One major influence upon the expression of aggression by females is their sex-role socialization which teaches them to be dependent, submissive, supportive, masochistic, narcissistic, and afraid of confrontation (Bach & Goldberg, 1974; Bardwick, 1971; Butler, 1976). Richardson et al. (1979) blame the female "norm of passivity" for the anxieties about aggression that women have. In a study designed to test the effect of situational contingencies on female retaliative behavior, female subjects competed against "hidden" males in a reaction time task with shock as punishment for the losing opponent. One group of subjects sat alone in the experimental room; one group sat in the presence of a silent female "observer;" and one group sat in the presence of a female "observer" who offered social support for retaliating against the opponent. Results showed that women administered the highest shocks when they were encouraged by the female observer, lower shocks when they were alone, and the lowest shocks when in the presence of the silent observer. The authors speculate that this last group may have been inhibited from retaliating by their assumed expectations about the observer (that she expected them to be nonrevengeful, non-competitive, nonaggressive, and passive). Therefore, women may be reinforcing traditional sex-role stereotypes for each other, even if they are stifling. A similar phenomenon to the "norm of passivity" is "fear of success" in women (Berger, 1977) in that it reinforces traditional sex-role stereotypes. Hymer and Atkins (1973) found that women who favor the views espoused by the Women's Liberation Movement (nontraditional) were able to express aggression in more direct ways than were women who subscribe to more traditional views. For traditionalists, even assertion in women is equated with aggression (with all of its negative

connotations) (Bardwick, 1976; Frodi et al., 1977; Hess, Bridgwater, Bornstein, & Sweeney, 1980); it is not surprising then, that the traditional female would have difficulty exhibiting the more extreme behavior of aggressiveness.

Another inhibitor of female aggression may be the presence of males in the situation (Baefsky & Berger, 1974; Larwood, O'Neal, & Brennan, 1977). The fear here would be that by exhibiting a "masculine" characteristic (aggressiveness), the females would be perceived as unattractive and inappropriate, and hence, be rejected by the males. Baefsky and Berger (1974) divided female subjects into career-value, traditional-value, or dual-value groups, then paired them with "hidden" male or female opponents in a Prisoner's Dilemma Game. Subjects could self-sacrifice points to the opponent, aggress by having the opponent sacrifice points to them, or do neither. They found that all subjects aggressed less against males than against females, and interestingly, traditional females were the most aggressive group against other females (a relatively safe situation).

Leventhal, Shemberg, & van Schoelandt (1968) view traditional sex roles a little differently than previously described, in that they equate strong identification with one's sex role (i.e., a masculine male and a feminine female) with the ability to respond appropriately in situations. If aggression is the response called for, the traditionalist of either sex should be able to respond aggressively. In a series of studies examining this hypothesis, they found that masculine males and feminine females (determined by their scores on the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey) who were told that strong shocks after an error produce faster learning, shocked their "learners" with equal intensity (i.e., they used aggression

when it was the appropriate response). Their scores were higher than the feminine male and masculine female groups, who were considered to have inadequate sex-role identification. When subjects were given differential information that either strong shocks produce faster learning, or weak shocks produce faster learning, both male groups produced stronger shocks than the female groups, and the feminine females produced the lowest shocks (Knott & Drost, 1970). Leventhal and Shemberg (1969) propose this theory:

> When aggression is clearly sanctioned....subjects who are well-adjusted to their sex role are able to respond to the situational demands and to be aggressive. These subjects are not required by internal conflicts regarding aggression to inhibit their aggressive behavior. Conversely, subjects who are poorly adjusted to their sex role respond to the situational demand to be aggressive by mobilizing anxiety, which in turn causes them to inhibit the aggressive response. When aggressive responding is not clearly sanctioned....female subjects who are well adjusted to their sex role respond to the absence of such a demand by the more reality-oriented containing of aggressive responding....(p. 283).

A different explanation could be that when aggression was sanctioned, the traditional males and females were simply conforming to the suggestions of the experimenter (conformity correlates highly with adherence to traditional values), rather than independently deciding that aggression was the most appropriate response. Also, a single Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey Scale may not be adequate to characterize a person's sex-role identification.

A third but related inhibitor of female aggression may be the cognitive messages women give themselves when angered (Frodi, 1976). When women become angry and start to feel aggressive, the concomitant anxiety that is aroused may help them to change their thinking to reduce the anger as a means of coping. They may perceive a provocation as less provoking after taking some time to reflect upon the situation.

Females may be less directly aggressive than males, but they do aggress in more subtle ways. Interpersonal manipulation, verbal hostility, soliciting a powerful other to intervene for them, interpersonal rejection, stubbornness, withdrawal, depression, and physical disorders such as migraine headaches are all manifestations of aggression (Bach & Goldberg, 1974; Bardwick, 1971; Hymer & Atkins, 1973). Symonds (1976) states that women tend to use "horizontal aggression" (guilt-induction) to gain compliance from others. Though it is sometimes a successful technique, the horizontal aggressor still feels helpless and powerless. Men, on the other hand, use "vertical aggression" (threats and punishments) to gain compliance from others; this is a much more powerful stance (Yachnes, 1976).

In summarizing the research on females and aggression, Frodi (1977) states:

> ....in the literature, women do not show consistently lower tendencies than men to be physically aggressive or verbally aggressive, whether in a face-to-face situation or not. Women do not tend to be more aggressive than men in indirect, prosocial, or displaced ways. The kinds of differences that sex role stereotypes would seem to predict are found only in self-report studies designed to measure general hostility or aggressiveness. Here, men have displayed or admitted

> more overt or explicit aggressiveness than have women....Women apparently consider aggression to be inappropriate behavior in many situations. Thus, through avoidance or anticipatory arousal of aggression anxiety, or guilt, women avoid acting aggressively. (p. 652)

Frodi suggests that more research needs to be conducted to discover if there are sex differences in the dynamics of the elicitation of aggression, to study less dramatic kinds of aggression such as insults and snubs, to discover what individuals do when they choose not to retaliate, to do research on indirect aggression, and to develop a taxonomy of provocations and cues for aggression for both males and females.

In conclusion, this section on aggression has exemplified the problems and contradictions inherent in the field at the present time. Researchers cannot agree on a definition of the term, much less its etiology or manifestations. Sex differences that were once taken for granted are less clearly delineated now. This may be an artifact of experimental design or it may reflect changing sex roles in our society. It does seem clear, however, that women are quite capable of aggression; whether or not they choose to express it is an individual decision influenced by their values, personalities, and situational variables. Aggression has both positive and negative aspects, as does any characteristic when taken to an extreme. Bach and Goldberg (1974) help to keep it in perspective:

> Aggression and its various expressions are a source of great fear. To most people aggressiveness is synonymous with unprovoked, senseless, and hurtful hostility. This horrific definition of the term, which we believe is a distortion of a potentially constructive process, has

> embedded itself rather firmly in the consciousness of most people....Aggressive energy, when expressed constructively, can intensify the depth and authenticity of interpersonal relationships and experiences. (p. 83)

In summary, aggressiveness can be defined as an anti-social, harmful response mode in which the aggressor satisfies personal wants and needs at the expense of others. It can also be seen as a response mode involving energy, power, and motivation which facilitates autonomy and growth in the aggressor, and can actually enhance relationships. For this particular study, aggressiveness shall be defined as violating another person's rights and perhaps causing injury to the recipient for a critical superordinate goal. As injury to the recipient is not the primary goal of the aggressor, this would be considered instrumental aggression. Examples of critical superordinate goals are personal safety and self-esteem.

Proposed Study

> I think if women would indulge more freely in vituperation, they would enjoy ten times the health they do. It seems to me they are suffering from repression.
>
> Elizabeth Cady Stanton,
> Women's Rights Leader, 1859
> (Klagsbrun, 1975)

Participants who have taken part in an assertion training program can be expected to manifest assertive behavior more often than individuals who have not undergone such training (Galassi & Galassi, 1978; Wolfe & Fodor, 1977). It is unlikely, however, that they will also manifest more aggressive behavior as a result of assertion training since traditional assertion training programs emphasize the negative aspects of aggression. If the participants were to be exposed to a program that gave them permission to be aggressive when it is situationally appropriate, would this reduce their reluctance to use aggression? It is expected that such permission plus behavioral rehearsal in aggressiveness would increase their use of the aggressive option in certain situations. It is also expected that when the range of options is widened to include more extreme behavior (aggressiveness), that more moderate behavior (assertiveness) will seem more acceptable than when the range is narrower.

Theoretical Framework

The idea that expanding a person's range of attitudes or behaviors will make a formerly extreme position now seem moderate is based upon adaptation-level theory (Helson, 1964) and the concept of latitudes of

acceptance and rejection (Sherif & Sherif, 1969). Helson (1964) proposed that in making judgments of sensory stimuli, a person creates a frame of reference around a neutral point or adaptation level. The physical value of the stimulus at adaptation level is a function of such factors as the absolute values of the other stimuli being judged, of anchoring stimuli (e.g., the frame around a picture), and of past experience of the judger (Fehrer, 1952). Sherif & Sherif (1969) took this concept from physiological psychology and applied it to phenomena of social psychology, such as persuasion and attitude formation. Attitudes are composed of two "latitudes" or regions: the latitude of acceptance consists of the range of positions that an individual accepts, and the latitude of rejection is the range of positions an individual rejects (Eagly & Telaak, 1972; Sherif & Sherif, 1969). If a persuasive message falls within the latitude of acceptance, attitude change toward the message will occur; if the message falls within the latitude of rejection, attitude change will not occur. Concurrently, individuals who already hold strong opinions about an issue have a smaller latitude of acceptance and a greater latitude of rejection than individuals holding more moderate positions, and hence, they are less persuadable (Aronson, 1972; McCroskey, 1968).

An individual establishes a reference scale (frame of reference) based upon the range of stimuli presented for judgment and his or her past experience/practice with that particular range of stimuli. Extreme values in the range are the end anchors and any new stimulus is first compared to them. Anchors can be changed and expanded to accommodate a new stimulus and to make it seem less extreme (Sherif & Sherif, 1969).

This theory can be used to explain how exposure to and permission for aggression can facilitate acquisition and performance of assertive behavior. The type of woman who is likely to volunteer for assertion training is typically passive (narrow range of acceptable behavior), but attitudinally, she is susceptible to persuasion (she wants to change her behavior). Therefore, she is willing to expand her latitude of acceptance to include behaviors that will help her satisfy her wants and needs in new ways. Previously, assertiveness was probably an end anchor of her reference scale, and people seldom perform behaviors they view as extreme. By expanding her latitude of acceptance to include aggression (a new end anchor), assertiveness is now a relatively moderate (and therefore acceptable) response. In addition, with aggression as an end anchor (but still anchoring her latitude of acceptance), she may decide to use it in the kinds of extreme situations presented in this assertion training model. It will always be an option in her behavioral repertoire if she needs it.

Research Problems

Are there situations in which aggression is the most appropriate response? 1) If females are given permission and behavioral rehearsal in aggression, will they feel more comfortable in behaving aggressively? 2) If they are given permission and behavioral rehearsal in aggression, will they feel more comfortable in behaving assertively (a more moderate response)?

Research Hypotheses

The purpose of this study is to develop and evaluate a model of assertion training that teaches the situationally-appropriate use of passive, assertive, and aggressive verbal responses. It is hypothesized that:

1. Female subjects who learn an Assertion with Aggression model (AWA) of assertion training will demonstrate more assertion as measured by their scores on the Adult Self Expression Scale than will female subjects who learn a traditional Assertion Training model (AT).
2. Female subjects who learn an Assertion with Aggression model (AWA) of assertion training will rate congruently with the designated response on videotaped vignettes more often than will female subjects who learn a traditional Assertion Training model (AT).
3. Female subjects who learn an Assertion with Aggression model (AWA) of Assertion Training will choose the aggressive option when appropriate significantly more often for videotaped vignettes than will female subjects who learn a traditional Assertion Training model (AT).

Assumptions:

1. It is assumed that an assertive style of communication can be learned via didactic teaching strategies, modeling, and feedback.
2. It is assumed that traditional Assertion Training (AT) is an effective model for teaching skills in assertive communication, although this does not adequately meet the needs of women.
3. It is assumed that expanding the viable options in one's behavioral repertoire leads to increased flexibility and better coping skills.

Method

Subjects to be used in the study will come from the introductory psychology classes of a large southwestern university. To maximize

homogeneity, given the nature of the population at the university, the participants will be female students, predominantly middle class, with an age range of 18-50 years.

Subjects are to be recruited via solicitation in university psychology classes; in turn, they will earn experimental credit which is a requirement for their class. Thirty-two subjects will be used. The criterion for inclusion in the study is that the subject has not participated in an assertion training program prior to this time. All subjects will sign a consent form explaining their rights as experimental subjects, and ensuring them of the confidentiality of their responses.

Procedure

As pre-test measures, subjects will be given the Adult Self Expression Scale (Gay, Hollandsworth, & Galassi, 1975), and will also rate videotaped vignettes of interpersonal situations in which passivity, assertiveness, or aggressiveness is the most appropriate response. Subjects will be randomly assigned to one of two groups: 1) Traditional Assertion Training (AT), or 2) Assertion with Aggression (AWA). The AT group will participate in 4 weeks (8 sessions) of assertion training in which basic concepts are learned, such as the differentiation between passivity, assertiveness, and aggressiveness, recognition of interpersonal rights and stoppers, and development of skills in making and refusing requests, effective listening, and giving and receiving compliments. These concepts and skills will be taught via didactic presentation, modeling, role playing, brainstorming, cognitive restructuring, and bibliotherapy. After the training, AT subjects will again be given the Adult Self Expression Scale and will rate the videotaped vignettes. The AWA group will participate in 4 weeks (8 sessions) of

assertion training in which the same basic concepts are learned as in the AT group. The difference between the groups will be in the presentation of the concept of aggression, and there will include behavioral rehearsal of appropriate aggressiveness as well as passivity and assertiveness. Both the AT group and the AWA group will focus on assertion and the majority of time in the sessions will be spent on training in assertiveness skills. After training, the AWA subjects will again be given the Adult Self Expression Scales and will rate the videotaped vignettes.

Following the post-testing, all participants will be debriefed about the study.

Measures of the Dependent Variables

The dependent variables that will be measured in this study are: post-test performances on the Adult Self Expression Scale and the videotaped vignettes.

Measures of the dependent variables are as follows:

1. Performance on the Adult Self Expression Scale: Total score on the 48 items of the scale.
2. Performance on the videotaped vignettes: Total number of correct responses to the scenarios (previously determined by the experimenter). These will include situations calling for passive, assertive, or aggressive responses.
3. Performance on the videotaped vignettes: Number of aggressive responses to scenarios in which an aggressive response is the correct one.

The Adult Self Expression Scale (ASES) is a 48-item questionnaire which uses a 5-point Likert formula: Almost Always (0 points), Usually (1

point), Sometimes (2 points), Seldom (3 points), or Rarely (4 points). Items describe different aspects of assertiveness (e.g., refusing requests, expressing approval, initiating conversations); the higher the total score, the more assertive one is.

Test data for the ASES indicates that test-retest reliability is .88 for two weeks and .91 for five weeks. The ASES has been found to correlate positively at $p < .001$ level with the following items from the Adjective Check List: Defensiveness, Number of Favorable Adjectives Checked, Self-confidence, Lability, Achievement, Dominance, Affiliation, Heterosexuality, Exhibition, Autonomy, Aggression, and Change. The ASES was found to correlate negatively at $p < .001$ level for the following items: Succorance, Abasement, and Deference (Gay, Hollandsworth, & Galassi, 1975). Correlations between the ASES and the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale show a significant difference ($p < .001$) between high and low assertive groups and their anxiety scores (anxiety is negatively correlated with assertion). When the ASES was compared to the Buss-Durkee Inventory (a measure of aggressiveness) no consistent relationship was found. The ASES was normed on 464 male and female subjects from a community college in North Carolina. The mean for females is 115 with a standard devation of 21. The mean for males is 119 with a standard deviation of 19.

Design and Analysis

An experimental design utilizing two experimental groups will be used, with equal numbers of subjects randomly assigned to each of the treatment cells. Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) will be used to minimize the effects of pre-test differences between groups.

For Hypothesis 1, a t test will be used to compare means on the Adult Self Expression Scale for both groups. For Hypotheses 2 and 3, t tests will be used to compare scores on the videotaped vignettes for both groups.

Sample size (N=32) was determined to reduce the likelihood of a Type II error. For N=32 and an effect size set at .67 standard deviations, the power of detecting the alternative hypothesis was calculated to be .95. The alpha level will be set at .05 for the main effects.

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THE ADULT SELF EXPRESSION SCALE

The following inventory is designed to provide information about the way in which you express yourself. Please answer the questions by blackening the appropriate box from 0 to 4 on the answer sheet. Your answer sheet should indicate how you generally express yourself in a variety of situations. If a particular situation does not apply to you, answer as you think you would respond in that situation. Your answer should **not** reflect how you feel you ought to act or how you would like to act. Do not deliberate over any individual question. Please work quickly. Your first response to the question is probably your most accurate one.

Almost Always or always	Usually	Sometimes	Seldom	Never or Rarely
(0)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)

1. Do you ignore it when someone pushes in front of you in line?

2. Do you find it difficult to ask a friend to do a favor for you?

3. If your boss or supervisor makes what you consider to be an unreasonable request, do you have difficulty saying "no"?

4. Are you reluctant to speak to an attractive acquaintance of the opposite sex?

5. Is it difficult for you to refuse unreasonable requests from your parents?

6. Do you find it difficult to accept compliments from your boss or supervisor?

7. Do you express your negative feelings to others when it is appropriate?

8. Do you freely volunteer information or opinions in discussions with people whom you do not know very well?

9. If there was a public figure whom you greatly admired and respected at a large social gathering, would you make an effort to introduce yourself?

10. How often do you openly express justified feelings of anger to your parents?

11. If you have a friend of whom your parents do not approve, do you make an effort to help them get to know one another better?

12. If you were watching a TV program in which you were very interested and a close relative was disturbing you, would you ask them to be quiet?

13. Do you play an important part in deciding how you and your close friends spend your leisure time together?

14. If you are angry at your spouse/boyfriend or girlfriend, is it difficult for you to tell them?

15. If a friend who is supposed to pick you up for an important engagement calls fifteen minutes before he(she) is supposed to be there and says that they cannot make it, do you express your annoyance?

16. If you approve of something your parents do, do you express your approval?

17. If in a rush you stop by a supermarket to pick up a few items, would you ask to go before someone in the check-out line?

18. Do you find it difficult to refuse the requests of others?

19. If your boss or supervisor expresses opinions with which you strongly disagree, do you venture to state your own point of view?

20. If you have a close friend whom your spouse/boyfriend or girlfriend dislikes and constantly criticizes, would you inform them that you disagree and tell them of your friend's assets?

21. Do you find it difficult to ask favors of others?

22. If food which is not to your satisfaction was served in a good restaurant, would you bring it to the waiter's attention?

23. Do you tend to drag out your apologies?

24. When necessary, do you find it difficult to ask favors of your parents?

25. Do you insist that others do their fair share of the work?

26. Do you have difficulty saying no to salesmen?

27. Are you reluctant to speak up in a discussion with a small group of friends?

28. Do you express anger or annoyance to your boss or supervisor when it is justified?

29. Do you compliment and praise others?

30. Do you have difficulty asking a close friend to do an important favor even though it will cause them some inconvenience?

31. If a close relative makes what you consider to be an unreasonable request, do you have difficulty saying no?

32. If your boss or supervisor makes a statement that you consider untrue, do you question it aloud?

33. If you find yourself becoming fond of a friend, do you have difficulty expressing these feelings to that person?

34. Do you have difficulty exchanging a purchase with which you are dissatisfied?

35. If someone in authority interrupts you in the middle of an important conversation, do you request that the person wait until you have finished?

36. If a person of the opposite sex whom you have been wanting to meet directs attention to you at a party, do you take the initiative in beginning the conversation?

37. Do you hesitate to express resentment to a friend who has unjustifiably criticized you?

38. If your parents wanted you to come home for a weekend visit and you had made important plans, would you change your plans?

39. Are you reluctant to speak up in a discussion or debate?

40. If a friend who has borrowed $5.00 from you seems to have forgotten about it, is it difficult for you to remind this person?

41. If your boss or supervisor teases you to the point that it is no longer fun, do you have difficulty expressing your displeasure?

42. If your spouse/boyfriend or girlfriend is blatantly unfair, do you find it difficult to say something about it to them?

43. If a clerk in a store waits on someone who has come in after you when you are in a rush, do you call his attention to the matter?

44. If you lived in an apartment and the landlord failed to make certain repairs after it had been brought to his attention, would you insist on it?

45. Do you find it difficult to ask you boss or supervisor to let you off early?

46. Do you have difficulty verbally expressing love and affection to your spouse/boyfriend or girlfriend?

47. Do you readily express your opinions to others?

48. If a friend makes what you consider to be an unreasonable request, are you able to refuse?

University of Oklahoma

AGREEMENT TO PARTICIPATE

Title of Project: Assertion Training for Women

Investigator: Amy L. Flowers, Educational and Counseling Psychology, 325-5974

I, _____, hereby agree to participate as a volunteer in the above named research project, which has been fully explained to me.

I understand that I am free to refuse to participate in any procedure or to refuse to answer any question at any time without prejudice to me. I further understand that I am free to withdraw my consent and to withdraw from the research project at any time without prejudice to me.

I understand that by agreeing to participate in this research and signing this form, I do not waive any of my legal rights.

_____ _____

Date Participant Signature

APPENDIX B

N=Narrator
A=Actor

SCRIPT FOR VIDEOTAPED VIGNETTES

1. N: A person that you do not know well says...

   A: "Hi, I'd like to ask a favor. Since you're going to be out of town for a week, I wonder if I could borrow your car?"

   N: You do not want to lend it and say...

2. N: You are having a conversation with a man who suddenly says...

   A: "What do you women libbers want, anyway?"

   N: You answer...

3. N: You are taking several children home in your car and they are screaming, fighting, and distracting you. You have told them several times to settle down, but two of the boys will not. You are feeling angry and frustrated.

   A: (laughing, hitting each other, loud)

   N: You say...

4. N: A little friend of yours rushes in the room very excited and says...

   A: "Look--I made an E on my spelling test!"

   N: You reply...

5. N: You are in a restaurant and have ordered your steak medium rare. The waitress brings it to you well-done. She says...

   A: "How's everything here?"

   N: You say...

6. N: You go to a party where you do not know anyone, and your date leaves you most of the night to talk to his friends. You feel abandoned and angry at his behavior, and when he says...

   A: "What's the matter? You look mad."

   N: You reply...

7. N: You have had a party and your friend is quite drunk but insists on driving himself home. You are concerned about his safety, as well as others' on the road. He says...

   A: "I'm driving home and that's all there is to it!"

   N: You reply...

8. N: You are standing near the cash register at a store, waiting to pay for your purchase. Others, who came after you are being waited on first, and you are getting angry. The cashier says...

   A: "Who's next here?"

   N: You respond...

9. N: The University sent you an $8 bill for a parking ticket that you did not get. After talking to the Traffic Office and the Bursar's Office about the mistake, a secretary says...

   A: "I'm sorry, but you will not be able to graduate until the fine is paid."

   N: You reply...

10. N: You have been working in groups in class and you have contributed several ideas. After class, one of your group members tells you...

    A: "You had some great ideas for our project. I'm glad you're in our group."

    N: You say...

11. N: A married man persists in asking you out for a date, although you refuse every time. When he says...

    A: "Come on, honey, what harm can it do to go to lunch with me just this once?"

    N: You answer...

12. N: You are babysitting with a 10 year old who is playing with matches. You have told him three times to stop, but you catch him doing it again. You are concerned for his safety.

    A: (plays with matches, trying to strike them)

    N: You say...

13. N: You met a man at a party that you were <u>not</u> interested in. He calls you and says...

A: "I enjoyed talking to you at the party the other night and would like to get to know you better. How about dinner and a movie this Saturday?"

N: You say...

14. N: Your parents have always given you advice, even when it is not solicited. You tell them that you have decided to switch majors and your mother says...

A: "I think you're making a big mistake. With a degree in accounting, you can get all sorts of good jobs. But what can you do with a teaching certificate?"

N: You reply...

15. N: A friend promised to come to a special party and then failed to show up. You call and after a few minutes of the conversation, she says...

A: "Oh, yea, how was the party?"

N: You say...

16. N: You are trying to get a form signed in the Bursar's Office and have been given the run-around from office to office. After an hour of this, you are feeling angry and frustrated. The next person you are sent to says...

A: "I don't usually handle these things. Why don't you come back tomorrow and talk to Susan Smith?"

N: You say...

17. N: Your boss asked you to stay late and work last night. Although you do not like to do that, you feel that to refuse would mean losing your job, which you need desperately. She has called you into her office at 4:00 and says...

A: "I hate to have to ask you again, but I really need you to stay a couple of extra hours and help me tally some figures for the Wayne Report."

N: You reply...

18. N: A close friend keeps pushing you to go out on a blind date but you do not want to go. When she says...

A: "Oh, come on. Jim's a great guy and he <u>really</u> wants to take you to the party Friday night."

N: You reply...

19. N: You have been feeling very upset about a personal problem and a friend has been listening and helping you sort out your feelings. You are feeling much better after talking to her for awhile and want to let her know. She says...

    A: "Well, you seem a lot better than you did a few hours ago."

    N: You say...

20. N: The bus is crowded with high school students who are talking to their friends. You want to get off but no one pays attention when you say "Out, please."

    A: (laughing loudly, joking)

    N: You say...

APPENDIX C

August 1, 1983

To Whom It May Concern:

In May and June of 1983, _____ completed 37 hours of training as a facilitator of assertion training groups. _____ volunteered to be a trainer for my dissertation research in which two models of assertion training were compared. All trainers attended didactic presentations of various aspects of assertive behavior throughout the experiment. Responsible Assertive Behavior (Lange & Jakubowski), Your Perfect Right (Alberti & Emmons), and Creative Aggression (Bach & Goldberg) were used as primary resources. Two trainers then led each of four groups (with approximately eight subjects per group) for eight sessions on assertiveness training. The sessions presented the following topics:

Session 1 - Goals and types of assertion

Session 2 - Discrimination between assertiveness, aggressiveness, and passivity

Session 3 - Listening skills, giving and receiving compliments

Session 4 - Human rights, "stoppers" to assertion

Session 5 - Attacking "stoppers," cognitive aspects of assertiveness training

Session 6 - Considering the consequences of behavior, making and refusing requests

Session 7 - Making statements without explanation, giving criticism, anger and fair fighting

Session 8 - Posttesting

During the course of the experiment, the trainers and I discussed the outcome of each session, and I met with all trainers at the end of the experiment to receive feedback on my methods and procedures. _____ not only effectively presented didactic material to the subjects, but also demonstrated skills in facilitating group process. As a result of this intensive training, I feel that _____ is quite capable of leading assertiveness groups in the future. She has both the skills and the materials required for effective presentation of the subject.

Sincerely,

Amy L. Flowers
(Doctoral Candidate, Counseling Psychology, University of Oklahoma)

APPENDIX D

ASSERTION TRAINING - SESSION 1

1. Name tags, brief introductions, consent forms (10 minutes)

2. Pretesting with the Videotaped Vignettes (35 minutes)

3. Pretesting with the Adult Self Expression Scale (15 minutes)

4. Synopsis of the workshop

   a. Brainstorm what they think assertion training is (10 minutes)

   b. Pass out and discuss the Goals of Assertion Training sheet and Types of Assertion sheet (10 minutes)

   c. Pass out and explain the logs and goal setting sheets (10 minutes)

   d. Pass out copies of the Recommended Reading List

University of Oklahoma

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I understand that by agreeing to participate in this research and signing this form, I do not waive any of my legal rights.

_____ _____

Date Participant Signature

Name: _____

SS#: _____

VIDEOTAPED VIGNETTES

PASSIVE- Allowing your rights to be violated by another person by failing to express your honest thoughts, feelings, and beliefs.

ASSERTIVE- Standing up for your own rights while respecting another person's rights. Expressing your thoughts, feelings, and beliefs directly and honestly.

AGGRESSIVE- Standing up for your own rights but violating the rights of another person. The goal here is to WIN the situation.

PAS 1. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 2. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 3. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 4. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 5. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

SS#: _____

PASSIVE- Allowing your rights to be violated by another person by failing to express your honest thoughts, feelings, and beliefs.

ASSERTIVE- Standing up for your own rights while respecting another person's rights. Expressing your thoughts, feelings, and beliefs directly and honestly.

AGGRESSIVE- Standing up for your own rights but violating the rights of another person. The goal here is to WIN the situation.

PAS 6. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 7. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 8. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 9. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 10. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 11. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

SS#: _____

PASSIVE- Allowing your rights to be violated by another person by failing to express your honest thoughts, feelings, and beliefs.

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PAS 12. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 13. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 14. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 15. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 16. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 17. _____

ASS _____

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PAS 18. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 19. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 20. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

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34. Do you have difficulty exchanging a purchase with which you are dissatisfied?

35. If someone in authority interrupts you in the middle of an important conversation, do you request that the person wait until you have finished?

36. If a person of the opposite sex whom you have been wanting to meet directs attention to you at a party, do you take the initiative in beginning the conversation?

37. Do you hesitate to express resentment to a friend who has unjustifiably criticized you?

38. If your parents wanted you to come home for a weekend visit and you had made important plans, would you change your plans?

39. Are you reluctant to speak up in a discussion or debate?

40. If a friend who has borrowed $5.00 from you seems to have forgotten about it, is it difficult for you to remind this person?

41. If your boss or supervisor teases you to the point that it is no longer fun, do you have difficulty expressing your displeasure?

42. If your spouse/boyfriend or girlfriend is blatantly unfair, do you find it difficult to say something about it to them?

43. If a clerk in a store waits on someone who has come in after you when you are in a rush, do you call his attention to the matter?

44. If you lived in an apartment and the landlord failed to make certain repairs after it had been brought to his attention, would you insist on it?

45. Do you find it difficult to ask you boss or supervisor to let you off early?

46. Do you have difficulty verbally expressing love and affection to your spouse/boyfriend or girlfriend?

47. Do you readily express your opinions to others?

48. If a friend makes what you consider to be an unreasonable request, are you able to refuse?

ASSERTIVE BEHAVIOR TRAINING WORKSHOP
RESPONSIBILITIES OF PARTICIPANT AND LEADER

YOU AGREE

1. To make a commitment to participate fully in the experience and to try to change his/her behavior
2. To pay the agreed upon fee for participation
3. To arrive promptly and participate actively
4. To inform the leader in advance of any intention not to attend a session
5. To set goals for yourself and work actively toward those goals
6. To be responsible about completing assignments related to the training
7. To request additional and private counseling sessions when the need becomes apparent
8. To accept the responsibility for making personal decisions
9. To complete evaluations and questionnaires agreed upon honestly and openly
10. To respect the right to privacy of each participant and the leader by not describing the group's experiences outside the group in a way that might identify the group members

I AGREE

1. To provide the most effective and efficient training possible which will be geared toward the individual needs of all participants
2. To be flexible and adaptable in changing session agendas to meet the individual needs of participants
3. To provide participants with reading lists which will guide them toward further resources
4. To arrive at sessions on time
5. To inform participants in advance of the need to cancel any session
6. To be available for individual counseling sessions or to suggest appropriate referral persons should the need arise
7. To share the results of evaluations and questionnaires with individual participants and to treat the information confidentially
8. To respect the right to privacy of each participant and the leader by not naming participants and by not describing the group's experiences outside the group in a way that might identify the group member

_____ Participant

_____ Leader

GOALS OF ASSERTION TRAINING

The goals of assertion training are to help you:

1. understand the differences between assertion, nonassertion, and aggression
2. understand that your present behavior is a product of learning; therefore, it is possible to learn assertive skills
3. become aware of your legitimate human rights and understand how they operate in interpersonal relationships
4. be sensitive to the rights and feelings of others
5. become aware of how your behavior might be contributing to an unsatisfactory relationship
6. explore how you stop yourself from acting assertively
7. express your thoughts and feelings in a direct, honest way
8. acquire assertive skills, both verbal and nonverbal, through exercises, role playing, and practice on a daily basis
9. generate alternatives which will free you to choose how you behave
10. take responsibility for your behavior
11. feel better about your personal relationships
12. improve your personal relationships

NONASSERTIVE BEHAVIOR- that type of interpersonal behavior which enables the person's rights to be violated by another.

ASSERTIVE BEHAVIOR- that type of interpersonal behavior in which a person stands up for his/her legitimate rights in such a way that the rights of others are not violated. Assertive behavior is an honest, direct, and appropriate expression of one's feelings, beliefs, and opinions.

AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR- that type of interpersonal behavior in which a person stands up for his/her own rights in such a way that the rights of others are violated. The purpose of this type of behavior is to humiliate, dominate, or put the other person down rather than simply express one's honest emotions or thoughts.

Steel & Hochman, 1976

TYPES OF ASSERTIVE BEHAVIOR

VERBAL

Active:

1. greeting others
2. initiating a conversation, an activity with others, a date, etc.
3. asking for something, i.e. information
4. checking out assumptions
5. volunteering a comment, question or answer in class
6. changing the topic of conversation
7. complimenting others
8. deliberately using the word "I"
9. expressing one's feelings, thoughts and ideas directly and honestly

Reactive:

1. disagreeing with others
2. saying "no" . . . refusing unreasonable requests and demands
3. defending oneself, i.e. asking someone not to tease you
4. agreeing with compliments
5. not apologizing or justifying your feelings or opinions
6. speaking up when you feel your rights are being violated, i.e. returning faulty merchandise
7. expressing feelings and opinions directly and honestly

NON-VERBAL

1. eye contact
2. firm, strong voice
3. fluency of speech
4. appropriate facial expression, i.e. don't smile when you're angry
5. relaxed body expression
6. being an appropriate distance from the other person

LOG

TO BE KEPT EACH DAY

Your log or journal is a record of situations/encounters relating to assertion that you encounter in your day-to-day life. It should include the following:

1. Situations in which you did or might have asserted yourself
2. The date
3. A description of your physical reactions, body cues, and non-verbal behavior
4. Your feelings during the encounter
5. A description of your behavior
6. What you liked about what you did
7. What you'd like to improve
8. How you dealt with internal obstacles to assert yourself
9. Your goal in the situation

ASSERTION GROUP BEHAVIORAL CONTRACT

Specify one assertive behavior, either verbal or non-verbal, which you will work on this week. This behavioral goal should be:

1. conceivable: you can put it into words
2. attainable: you believe you can achieve it
3. observable: you'll know when you've reached your goal
4. desirable: you want to do it

Answer the following questions within your goal description:

What? When? Where? With whom? How often?

My goal is _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Signature _____ Effective _____ to _____

Self-Evaluation

At the end of the time period specified above, answer the following questions.

1. Evaluate, by making an 'x' at the point on the line below that best describes your success in reaching your goal in your estimation.

0% 25% 50% 75% 100%

2. Explain your self-rating. _____

_____

_____

3. If you experience difficulty in reaching your goal, what could the assertion group do to help? _____

_____

_____

BOOK LIST FOR ASSERTIVE TRAINING

Alberti, R. W. & Emmons, M. L. Stand Up, Speak Out, Talk Back. New York: Pocket Books, 1975.

Alberti, R.W. & Emmons, M. L. Your Perfect Right. San Luis Obispo, CA: Impact Publishers, 1978.

Bloom, L. Z., Coburn, K., & Pearlman, J. The New Assertive Woman. New York: Delacourt Press, 1975.

Osborn, S. & Harris, G. Assertive Training for Women. Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas Publishers, 1975.

Phelps, S. & Austin N. The Assertive Woman. San Luis Obispo: CA: Impact Publishers, 1975.

Adler, R. B. Confidence in Communication: A Guide to Assertive and Social Skills. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1977.

Fensterheim, H. & Baer, J. Don't Say Yes When You Want to Say No. New York: Dell Publishing Co., 1975.

ASSERTION TRAINING - SESSION 2

1. Collect logs. Discuss Behavioral Contracts and weekly goals (30 minutes).

2. Ask the group to brainstorm the verbal and nonverbal behaviors associated with:

   a. non-assertion
   b. aggression
   c. assertion
   d. Make a list for each on newsprint
   e. Remember to create a set for what brainstorming is all about: no censoring, anything goes, etc. (20 minutes)

3. Do the Discrimination Exercise in Responsible Assertive Behavior p. 41. The answer key is on P. 52. Focus on the following situations: #2, 5, 6, 8, 10, 13, 16, 23, 27, 31, 33, 42, 52, 54, and 55. Have one trainer read "Situation" and the other trainer read "Response." After doing several of these, make the words (verbals) and your tone of voice (nonverbals) inconsistent at times, so that they have to decide which to focus on to get the "real" message. Discuss what they are focusing on when they get a mixed message. (20 minutes)

4. Discuss the differences between assertion, non-assertion, and aggression using the following questions as a guideline:

   a. How do you see assertion differing from non-assertion? From aggression?
   b. What does it mean when someone is non-assertive? When someone is aggressive?
   c. How do you feel when you encounter an aggressive person? When you encounter a non-assertive person?
   d. How do you tell whether your behavior is non-assertive, aggressive, or assertive? (10 minutes)

5. Handouts: Behavioral Contracts
   Summary of Communication Skills

6. The Whip: "The thing I learned in this session is..."

7. After Ss leave, check off the Group Members Discussion Sheet

ASSERTIVE TRAINING

SUMMARY OF COMMUNICATION SKILLS

		PASSIVE	ASSERTIVE	AGGRESSIVE
I.	VERBAL	Apologetic words Veiled meanings Hedging; failure to come to the point At a loss for words Failure to say what you really mean "I mean," "You know"	Statement of wants Honest statement of feelings Objective words Direct statements, which say what you mean "I" messages	"Loaded words" Accusations Descriptive, subjective terms Imperious, superior words "You" Messages
II.	NONVERBAL			
	A. General	Actions instead of words, hoping someone will guess what you want. Looking as if you don't mean what you say	Attentive listening behavior General assured manner, which communicates caring and strength	Exaggerated show of strength Flippant, sarcastic style
	B. Specific			
	1. Voice	Weak, hesitant, soft, sometimes wavering	Firm, warm, well-modulated, relaxed	Tense, shrill, loud, shakey, cold, "deadly quiet," demanding, superior, authoritative
	2. Eyes	Averted; downcast, teary, pleading	Open, frank, direct Eye-to-eye contact, but not staring	Expressionless; narrowed; cold; staring; not really "seeing" you

	PASSIVE	ASSERTIVE	AGGRESSIVE
3. Stance	Lean for support; twisted	Well-balanced; straight-on; "at ease"	Hands on hips, feet apart
4. Posture	Stooped, "shrunken;" sagging, excessive head nodding	Facing; erect; relaxed	Stiff and rigid; rude, involved in somebody else's space
5. Hands	Fidgety, fluttery, clammy	Relaxed, warm, smooth motions	Clenched; abrupt gestures; finger-pointing, fist pounding; cold
6. Feet	Shuffling, restless motions; tucked under chair; toed-in; swinging back and forth	Relaxed, comfortable	Tapping, firmly planted

	PASSIVE BEHAVIOR	ASSERTIVE BEHAVIOR	AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR
Characteristics of the behavior:	Emotionally dishonest, indirect, self-denying inhibited	(Appropriately) emotionally honest, direct, self-enhancing, expressive	(Inappropriately) emotionally honest, direct, self-enhancing, expressive, at expense of another
Your feelings when you engage in this behavior	Hurt, anxious at the time and possibly angry later	Confident, self-respecting, at the time and later	Righteous, superior, depreciatory at the time and possibly guilty later
The other person's feelings about herself when you engage in this behavior	Guilty or superior	Valued, respected	Hurt, humiliated
The other person's feelings about you when you engage in this behavior	Irritation, pity	Generally respect	Angry, vengeful

Definitions of Aggression

In the preceding sections of this paper, aggression was described as an anti-social, disrespectful, harmful, and inefficient response mode. Although the aggressive individual did often accomplish his or her goals, it was at the expense of close, trusting, interpersonal relationships. There are, however, two sides to every coin. Consider the following definitions:

> ....healthy aggression is that form of energetic pursuit of one's needs that is more helpful than harmful to humans and that abets the basic values, goals, or purposes that they choose to make control their existence....it is that form of aggressiveness that tends to abet the human goals of remaining alive, being relatively happy, living successfully in a social group, and relating intimately to some selected members of the group (Ellis, 1976, p. 240).
>
> Aggression is identified as a set of behaviors having positive and negative characteristics, including the constructs of ambition, assertion, belligerence, self-centeredness, concern for appearance, being opinionated, capable, confident, energetic, and competitive (Duncan & Hobson, 1977).
>
> Aggression is a response to either frustration or attack, and may be instrumental to the acquisition of an extrinsic reward (Edmunds & Kendrick, 1980, p. 25).
>
> ....aggression sometimes means self-assertion, mastery, and creative activity (Kermani, 1977, p. 201).
>
> In the area of aggression--that is, making another individual do what we want by the threat of force, producing fear, or the instillation of guilt--we are employing power (Greenberg, 1976, p. 205).

> The directly aggressive person may be initially less comfortable to be with, but he recharges relationships and social situations with an activating energy that is indispensable to staying involved and emotionally healthy (Bach & Goldberg, 1974, p. 23).

The body of literature on aggression presents it as a much more complex phenomenon than simply one of three possible response styles in dyadic communication. Indeed, there is considerable debate over how to define the concept and exactly what it entails. Bardwick (1976) offers a definition of aggression as found in cross-cultural studies:

> ....an egocentric, competitive, dominating style that includes a tendency to compete if the situation lends itself to competition; a single-minded purpose and endurance; a willingness to sacrifice pleasure and affection for the possibility of control and suprafamilial power; a need to assert one's ego; a tendency to impose one's will on the environment; a rather great resistance to do what one has been told to do; and a tendency to dominate in relationships with the other sex (p. 164).

Kahn and Kirk (1968) conceptualize aggression as a motivational state rather than a response class and define it as "an inborn biologically rooted, directionally oriented energizer of behavior that is elicited by frustration of other drives and needs necessary to the survival of the species and the individual organism" (p. 569). Buss' (1961) definition of aggression is the one most commonly cited in the literature: "aggression is a response that delivers noxious stimuli to another organism" (p. 1). It is clear from these definitions that researchers disagree about whether aggression is a drive or a response and whether intent to harm should be one of the criteria. Kahn and Kirk (1968) discuss the problems inherent in popular definitions:

1. with Buss' overt response definition, the same stimuli may be judged as noxious at one time but not at another
2. with aggression defined as an injurious end result, injury may occur by accident or by natural catastrophe
3. with aggression defined as the victim's perception of injury, perception may or may not be reality-based
4. with motivational definitions that consider the intent or goal of the aggressor, motivational states are difficult to identify and measure

One popular theory divides aggression into two categories based upon intent/goal of the aggressor. The distinction is made here between hostile aggression and instrumental aggression. The goal of hostile aggression is injury of the recipient, and it is usually motivated by anger in the aggressor. Instrumental aggression causes inadvertent injury to the recipient, but this is not the primary goal of the aggressor (Berkowitz, 1981; Feshbach, 1964; Kahn & Kirk, 1968; Spielberger, Jacobs, Russell, & Crane, 1982). The goal of instrumental aggression may be the acquisition of some reward, the cessation of aversive stimuli, gaining a position of dominance in a group, self-approval, or gaining access to scarce resources (Berkowitz, 1981; Buss, 1961). Therefore, aggressive behavior can be defined by its consequences (i.e., injury to the victim), but mediating factors (intent) must also be considered before labelling it as a negative and inappropriate act. Indeed, the probability of going through life without ever hurting another person (even inadvertently) is low. The probability of going through life not only without hurting others, but also satisfying one's needs and wants is almost nil. For those individuals suffering cognitive

dissonance because 1) they perceive themselves to be nice people, and 2) nice people do not hurt others, but 3) they have just hurt someone inadvertently, the concept of instrumental aggression is a good way to resolve the dissonance.

Ellis (1976) makes the distinction between healthy aggression and unhealthy aggression. Healthy aggression is that form of energy that allows humans to achieve the four basic goals of survival, happiness, social acceptance, and intimate relations. Unhealthy aggression tends to undermine these basic human goals. Aspects of aggressiveness that Ellis categorizes as healthy include assertiveness, annoyance, and sometimes oppositionalism; unhealthy aspects include argumentativeness, arrogance, domineeringness, fury, hostility, insultingness, and violence. According to Ellis, the healthy forms of aggression are based upon rational and empirically-based cognitions, whereas the unhealthy forms are based upon irrational and magical cognitions.

Tedeschi, Smith, and Brown (1974) suggest that the value system of an individual must be considered before identifying an act as aggressive for him or her. If the victim believes that an actor uses coercive power (threats and punishments) offensively, intentionally, and anti-normatively, then the action will be labeled as aggressive, and retribution will be sought. Therefore, Tedeschi et al., suggest that actors seek to rationalize their coercive actions as defensive, legitimate, or necessary.

Duncan and Hobson (1977), recognizing that the term "aggressive" has a surplus of meanings, asked 933 male and female adults to define it. Although males and females differed in some of the constructs they included, the constructs of ambition, assertion, belligerence, loud-

mouthedness, and self-centeredness were viewed as common characteristics of aggressive behavior by both sexes. Males considered concern for appearance to be a relevant characteristic of aggressiveness and females claimed that being opinionated is a defining characteristic. Males stated that the types of situations in which they feel aggressive are primarily interpersonal situations, whereas females felt aggressive in intrapsychic types of situations (e.g., conflicts involving principles). Both sexes viewed passivity as being predominantly negative. The researchers conclude that aggression is a behavior having positive characteristics (e.g., confident, energetic, capable) as well as negative ones. This lack of specificity characterizes the area of aggression research.

Theories of Aggression

The frustration-aggression hypothesis states that aggressiveness is always the direct result of frustration, and the force of the aggression is linked to the frequency and intensity of frustrating experiences (Feshbach, 1964; Kahn & Kirk, 1968). The arbitrariness of the frustration and the opportunity to retaliate may influence how frustrated an individual will become. The ethological approach to aggression a la Lorenz states that modern human aggression consists of an interaction between rapid technological development and the slower development of innate inhibitions against the expression of aggression. Until human evolution progresses further, this theory advocates sublimation of the aggressive drive through harmless competitive activities (Megargee & Hokanson, 1970). The psychoanalytical approach to aggression states that humans are motivated by two instincts--libido and thanatos, and overt aggression is their outward manifestation. Although the aggressive drives are innate and biologically

determined, inhibitions develop as a result of successful resolution of the Oedipus Complex and the consequent formation of the superego (Megargee & Hokanson, 1970). The ego psychology approach adds that aggression propels growth and development by enabling a person to break libidinal ties which tend to retard individuation (Blanck & Blanck, 1979). Social learning theory postulates that aggression is a learned response to frustration that is acquired via modeling. The more one engages in aggressive behavior (especially if the behavior is reinforced by significant others), the stronger the aggressive habit becomes (Deluty, 1980; Kahn & Kirk, 1968; Megargee & Hokanson, 1970). Larsen (1976) expands the social learning idea in his theory of social cost. Basically, this theory suggests that aggression can be facilitated or inhibited by approval or disapproval from significant others. Social cost (the need for social approval) can inhibit aggression by determining the impact of frustration upon an individual: "Individuals high in approval-seeking are more willing to tolerate frustration and tend to inhibit direct aggressive responses" (Larsen, 1976, p. 44). Social cost explains why females are less aggressive than males in this society: socialization and reinforcement for nurturance, empathy, dependence on others, and gaining "fulfillment" through relationships makes females very vulnerable to rejection. The cost of behaving aggressively then becomes too high, and instead of opting for a compromise (assertiveness), the female guarantees that she will not be rejected by assuming the passive stance. However, it is not healthy to use only external sources for validation of self-worth; one then lives with such anxiety and fear of rejection that one's own wants and needs become stifled. And one also becomes easily manipulated by more powerful others-those with a lower need for social approval who are willing to take interpersonal risks.

Functions of Aggression

If researchers are making such an earnest effort to understand the etiology and manifestations of aggression, it must serve some important functions for human beings. Miller (1979) conceptualizes aggressiveness as psychobiologic energy that drives the individual, as well as stimulates him or her. The more aggression one has, the better he or she will be able to cope with novel situations; conversely, lack of aggression "constitutes a handicap involving inadequate responses to stimuli and eventuating in diminished self-esteem (which derives from....taking credit for our efforts)" (Miller, 1979, p. 109). Therefore, aggression can be a motivator that expands one's range of experience.

Larsen (1976) suggests that aggression leads to power and dominance, which is necessary in preventing constant intraspecies conflict. This same drive for mastery and control enables the child to become an autonomous and independent entity, and to grow and mature as an individual in a competitive culture. As Bach and Goldberg (1974) suggest, "particularly in today's world, where achievement and success are prized and usually result from assertive individual enterprise, the capacity to be constructively aggressive is an integral part of a fulfilling life." (p. 25)

Biaggio (1980) discusses the positive aspects of anger (the affective component of aggression) as energizing the individual, promoting interpersonal trust and intimacy if expressed constructively, and potentiating a sense of personal control. If this force is repressed or suppressed, it may facilitate the development of psychosomatic symptoms and destructive communication patterns, interfere with cognitive efficiency and interpersonal intimacy, and lead to poor task performance.

Berkowitz (1981) sees the goals of aggression as influencing another's behavior, enhancing one's own self-esteem via the use of power, and retaliation for a real or anticipated injury. These goals imply the larger goal of self-preservation and survival for the aggressive individual.

Bach and Goldberg (1974) focus on the ability of aggression, when expressed constructively, to intensify the depth and authenticity of interpersonal relationships. They teach skills in verbal expression of anger and rage, open confrontation, manifesting one's personal power strivings, and identity protection through a variety of exercises and rituals to teach the appropriate expression of aggression.

Selected Research on Aggression

Before reviewing relevant findings from the aggression literature, it would be wise to consider Cochrane's (1975) critique. According to Cochrane, there is still no universal conceptualization of aggression, and as such, no direct assessment of it has been possible (only the derivatives of aggression can be assessed). Research on the manifestations of aggression can be grouped into three categories: physiological, experiential, and behavioral manifestations. Problems with the physiological studies are that no physiological change exclusive to aggression has been identified, and most studies measure transient states evoked by direct external stimulation, not a more permanent trait. Problems with the experiential and behavioral studies are that measurements are usually obtained for transient states induced by contrived experimental procedures, or else measurements are obtained for short-term fluctuations in level of affect due to experimental manipulation. In short, these studies reveal little about aggressiveness as a personality trait, nor do they possess much

external validity. Also, since "aggression" is induced in the subject via instructions by the experimenter, there is some question as to whether the subject is really behaving aggressively, or just being obedient. Cochrane suggests that rather than assessing quantity of aggression induced (as most existing instruments do), a more clinically relevant task would be to assess the quality and handling of aggression.

To exemplify the type of aggression study commonly found in the literature, an experiment by Geen and Pigg (1970) shall be presented. The researchers investigated whether acquisition of a physically aggressive response would generalize to verbal behavior. Subjects (as teachers) engaged in a "learning task" with confederates, (as learners) and were told to punish the learners for an incorrect response by shocking them with the Buss aggression machine (this instrument is similar to the one used in Milgram's obedience study except that subjects are free to choose the level of shock administered as punishment). Half of the subjects were reinforced by the experimenter for giving more intense shocks and half of the subjects received no such reinforcement. This phase of the experiment provided acquisition of the physically aggressive response. Subjects were then given a word association test with six strongly aggressive and five neutral words; the dependent variable was the number of aggressive associations made to the aggressive words. Results showed that reinforcement for physical aggression was quite successful in facilitating the expression of aggressive behavior, both physically, in the shock situation, and verbally, on the word association test. In summary, aggression often begets more aggression, rather than dispelling the energy via catharsis.

The issue of sex differences in aggression has been widely researched, with some surprising results. By presenting some of the relevant findings, the case shall be made here that females are quite capable of exhibiting aggressive behavior but are prevented from doing so directly by sex-role socialization that claims aggressiveness to be a masculine trait. Maccoby (1966) and Maccoby & Jacklin (1974) reviewed the aggression literature from the 1930's to the 1970's to determine whether sex differences in aggression are a myth or reality. From approximately 60 studies (observational studies, experimental studies, projective test results, self-reports, and fantasy aggression in doll play), 44 studies found males to be more aggressive than females, only four studies found females to be more aggressive than males, and nine found no sex differences. However, in the four studies that examined subjects' anxiety and guilt about expressing aggression, all four found females to be more anxious and guilty than males. Maccoby & Jacklin (1974) conclude that:

> Males do appear to be the more aggressive sex, not just under a restricted set of conditions but in a wide variety of settings and using a wide variety of behavioral indexes....it is clear that girls do have a great deal of information about aggression that they never put into practice. The question is whether their failure to perform aggressive actions is to be attributed to anxiety-based inhibition that has been developed as a result of negative socialization pressure in the past. (p. 236)

Gaebelein (1977) studied sex differences in instigative aggression (defined as a subject, in the role of an advisor, instructing a responder which shock intensity to set for an opponent in a competitive reaction

time task). The responders (female confederates) either cooperated or resisted compliance with the instructions passively, or assertively. Results showed that male subjects were significantly more instigative than females, and cooperation by the responder led to more instigative aggression than did either passive or assertive noncooperation. An interesting finding was that when subjects rated responders on likeability items after the task, the female passive noncooperator was least liked by male subjects. The author hypothesizes that the female passive noncooperator may be confusing to others for she violates both appropriate task role demands and sex-role expectations by not complying, yet she also seems to adhere to her appropriate sex role by being passive and hesitant. This pattern of indirect expression of aggression is common among females, who often use passive-aggressive techniques (e.g., guilt induction) to express aggression rather than open and honest confrontation.

Golin and Romanowski (1977) examined sex differences in verbal aggression using a modified Buss method. Subjects were teachers in a "learning task," but instead of administering shocks to the learner for an incorrect response, they gave one of five messages varying in hostile intensity from "Wrong" to "What the hell's the matter with you, you ass? Can't you get anything right?" The learner (a confederate) spoke in a hostile manner following certain trials to create Provocation vs. No Provocation conditions. Results showed that provocation by the learner resulted in greater verbal aggression by all subjects, and there were no significant sex differences in level of verbal aggression administered. Buss (1961) speculates that since physical aggression is taboo for females, they must develop verbal forms of aggression (e.g., tattling, spiteful rejection) to express their anger and hostility.

In summary, males do appear to be more physically aggressive than females (Hartup, 1974; Poorman, Donnerstein, & Donnerstein, 1976). Perhaps, due to socialization of males, the frustration caused by their limited options for expressing feelings results in the physical demonstration of aggression (females are not so restricted in their display of emotionality). Maccoby & Jacklin (1974) believe that sex differences in aggression have a biological foundation because:

1. males are more aggressive than females cross-culturally
2. males are more aggressive than females in humans and other primates
3. sex differences are found early in life
4. aggression is related to levels of sex hormones, which can be experimentally manipulated

Even when females are allowed to express aggression in nonphysical ways, they still experience anxiety about it (Butler, 1976; Frodi & Macaulay, 1977; Knott & Drost, 1970; Landau, Packer, & Levy, 1973; Minturn, 1967).

Aggression and Females

Although there is wide agreement that females in this society are less aggressive than males, researchers in the field do not agree about what inhibits their aggressive tendencies. The literature on sex-role socialization shows that young boys tend to display more physical aggression than girls because they receive more reinforcement for it and fewer sanctions against it (Eron, 1980; Ferguson & Rule, 1980; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974). Also, females are less frequently the victims of aggression (Frodi & Macaulay, 1977; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Sandidge & Friedland, 1974);

consequently, society does not given them permission and skills to retaliate.

Frodi, Macaulay, and Thome (1977) examined the experimental literature to see whether women are always less aggressive than men. Contrary to the findings of Maccoby (1966), Frodi et al. found that out of 72 studies that involved a measure of some form of aggressive behavior, only 39% showed males to be more aggressive than females across all conditions. They found that men display more overt aggression than do women in response to hypothetical questions or in self-reports, but there are not consistent sex differences in approval of violence, appreciation of hostile humor, or willingness to admit hostile feelings. Males and females may react differently to aggressive cues in the environment (e.g., guns), which leads to differential responses (cues that are anger-provoking for males may be anxiety-provoking for females). Richardson, Bernstein, and Taylor (1979) suggest that sex differences in aggression may be artifacts of elements in the experimental situation that evoke conformity to sex-role stereotypes. Bardwick (1971) states that, "the assumption that the male model of aggression is the only form leads to the perception of low levels of aggression in girls. Differences in form need not mask similarities of motive" (p. 126). Nevertheless, even if there are no innate sex differences in aggression, there are still sex differences in the behavioral expression of aggression, and the triggers for that aggression.

One major influence upon the expression of aggression by females is their sex-role socialization which teaches them to be dependent, submissive, supportive, masochistic, narcissistic, and afraid of confrontation (Bach & Goldberg, 1974; Bardwick, 1971; Butler, 1976). Richardson et al.

(1979) blame the female "norm of passivity" for the anxieties about aggression that women have. In a study designed to test the effect of situational contingencies on female retaliative behavior, female subjects competed against "hidden" males in a reaction time task with shock as punishment for the losing opponent. One group of subjects sat alone in the experimental room; one group sat in the presence of a silent female "observer;" and one group sat in the presence of a female "observer" who offered social support for retaliating against the opponent. Results showed that women administered the highest shocks when they were encouraged by the female observer, lower shocks when they were alone, and the lowest shocks when in the presence of the silent observer. The authors speculate that this last group may have been inhibited from retaliating by their assumed expectations about the observer (that she expected them to be nonrevengeful, non-competitive, nonaggressive, and passive). Therefore, women may be reinforcing traditional sex-role stereotypes for each other, even if they are stifling. A similar phenomenon to the "norm of passivity" is "fear of success" in women (Berger, 1977) in that it reinforces traditional sex-role stereotypes. Hymer and Atkins (1973) found that women who favor the views espoused by the Women's Liberation Movement (nontraditional) were able to express aggression in more direct ways than were women who subscribe to more traditional views. For traditionalists, even assertion in women is equated with aggression (with all of its negative connotations) (Bardwick, 1976; Frodi et al., 1977; Hess, Bridgwater, Bornstein, & Sweeney, 1980); it is not surprising then, that the traditional female would have difficulty exhibiting the more extreme behavior of aggressiveness.

Another inhibitor of female aggression may be the presence of males in the situation (Baefsky & Berger, 1974; Larwood, O'Neal, & Brennan, 1977). The fear here would be that by exhibiting a "masculine" characteristic (aggressiveness), the females would be perceived as unattractive and inappropriate, and hence, be rejected by the males. Baefsky and Berger (1974) divided female subjects into career-value, traditional-value, or dual-value groups, then paired them with "hidden" male or female opponents in a Prisoner's Dilemma Game. Subjects could self-sacrifice points to the opponent, aggress by having the opponent sacrifice points to them, or do neither. They found that all subjects aggressed less against males than against females, and interestingly, traditional females were the most aggressive group against other females (a relatively safe situation).

Leventhal, Shemberg, & van Schoelandt (1968) view traditional sex roles a little differently than previously described, in that they equate strong identification with one's sex role (i.e., a masculine male and a feminine female) with the ability to respond appropriately in situations. If aggression is the response called for, the traditionalist of either sex should be able to respond aggressively. In a series of studies examining this hypothesis, they found that masculine males and feminine females (determined by their scores on the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey) who were told that strong shocks after an error produce faster learning, shocked their "learners" with equal intensity (i.e., they used aggression when it was the appropriate response). Their scores were higher than the feminine male and masculine female groups, who were considered to have inadequate sex-role identification. When subjects were given differential information that either strong shocks produce faster learning, or weak

shocks produce faster learning, both male groups produced stronger shocks than the female groups, and the feminine females produced the lowest shocks (Knott & Drost, 1970). Leventhal and Shemberg (1969) propose this theory:

> When aggression is clearly sanctioned....subjects who are well-adjusted to their sex role are able to respond to the situational demands and to be aggressive. These subjects are not required by internal conflicts regarding aggression to inhibit their aggressive behavior. Conversely, subjects who are poorly adjusted to their sex role respond to the situational demand to be aggressive by mobilizing anxiety, which in turn causes them to inhibit the aggressive response. When aggressive responding is not clearly sanctioned....female subjects who are well adjusted to their sex role respond to the absence of such a demand by the more reality-oriented containing of aggressive responding....(p. 283).

A different explanation could be that when aggression was sanctioned, the traditional males and females were simply conforming to the suggestions of the experimenter (conformity correlates highly with adherence to traditional values), rather than independently deciding that aggression was the most appropriate response. Also, a single Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey Scale may not be adequate to characterize a person's sex-role identification.

A third but related inhibitor of female aggression may be the cognitive messages women give themselves when angered (Frodi, 1976). When women become angry and start to feel aggressive, the concomitant anxiety that is aroused may help them to change their thinking to reduce

the anger as a means of coping. They may perceive a provocation as less provoking after taking some time to reflect upon the situation.

Females may be less directly aggressive than males, but they do aggress in more subtle ways. Interpersonal manipulation, verbal hostility, soliciting a powerful other to intervene for them, interpersonal rejection, stubbornness, withdrawal, depression, and physical disorders such as migraine headaches are all manifestations of aggression (Bach & Goldberg, 1974; Bardwick, 1971; Hymer & Atkins, 1973). Symonds (1976) states that women tend to use "horizontal aggression" (guilt-induction) to gain compliance from others. Though it is sometimes a successful technique, the horizontal aggressor still feels helpless and powerless. Men, on the other hand, use "vertical aggression" (threats and punishments) to gain compliance from others; this is a much more powerful stance (Yachnes, 1976).

In summarizing the research on females and aggression, Frodi (1977) states:

> ....in the literature, women do not show consistently lower tendencies than men to be physically aggressive or verbally aggressive, whether in a face-to-face situation or not. Women do not tend to be more aggressive than men in indirect, prosocial, or displaced ways. The kinds of differences that sex role stereotypes would seem to predict are found only in self-report studies designed to measure general hostility or aggressiveness. Here, men have displayed or admitted more overt or explicit aggressiveness than have women....Women apparently consider aggression to be inappropriate behavior in many situations. Thus, through avoidance or anticipatory arousal of aggression anxiety, or guilt, women avoid acting aggressively. (p. 652)

Frodi suggests that more research needs to be conducted to discover if there are sex differences in the dynamics of the elicitation of aggression, to study less dramatic kinds of aggression such as insults and snubs, to discover what individuals do when they choose not to retaliate, to do research on indirect aggression, and to develop a taxonomy of provocations and cues for aggression for both males and females.

In conclusion, this section on aggression has exemplified the problems and contradictions inherent in the field at the present time. Researchers cannot agree on a definition of the term, much less its etiology or manifestations. Sex differences that were once taken for granted are less clearly delineated now. This may be an artifact of experimental design or it may reflect changing sex roles in our society. It does seem clear, however, that women are quite capable of aggression; whether or not they choose to express it is an individual decision influenced by their values, personalities, and situational variables. Aggression has both positive and negative aspects, as does any characteristic when taken to an extreme. Bach and Goldberg (1974) help to keep it in perspective:

> Aggression and its various expressions are a source of great fear. To most people aggressiveness is synonymous with unprovoked, senseless, and hurtful hostility. This horrific definition of the term, which we believe is a distortion of a potentially constructive process, has embedded itself rather firmly in the consciousness of most people.... Aggressive energy, when expressed constructively, can intensify the depth and authenticity of interpersonal relationships and experiences. (p. 83)

In summary, aggressiveness can be defined as an anti-social, harmful response mode in which the aggressor satisfies personal wants and needs at the expense of others. It can also be seen as a response mode involving energy, power, and motivation which facilitates autonomy and growth in the aggressor, and can actually enhance relationships. For this particular study, aggressiveness shall be defined as violating another person's rights and perhaps causing injury to the recipient for a critical superordinate goal. As injury to the recipient is not the primary goal of the aggressor, this would be considered instrumental aggression. Examples of critical superordinate goals are personal safety and self-esteem.

ASSERTION TRAINING - SESSION 3

1. Return logs and contracts and collect new ones. Discuss Behavioral Contracts and weekly goals. (30 minutes)

2. Discuss the importance of listening skills for assertive behavior (the good listener is respecting the other person's right to speak his/her mind and feelings, to have opinions, etc.). (5 minutes)

3. Brainstorming about listening skills

   a. ask group members to recall an instance where they had something important to talk over with someone and they know that that person was really listening to them.

   b. make a list on newsprint of how it felt to be heard (feelings)

   c. make a list on newsprint of what the listener did to let you know that he/she heard you. Make these as concrete and specific as possible (behaviors). (15 minutes)

4. Pass out and discuss the Effective Listening sheet. (10 minutes)

5. Giving and receiving compliments. (30 minutes)

   a. Explain why the "positive assertions" such as giving and receiving compliments and expressing affection are, indeed assertive (see Your Perfect Right pp. 71-74).

   b. Discuss some of the inappropriate ways to receive a compliment:
      1. denying it shyly
      2. returning the focus to the complimenter
      3. rejecting the compliment

   These are inappropriate because they either put down the complimenter's taste or judgment, or they change the whole focus. It took some degree of risk for the complimenter to express the compliment, and this should be recognized and reinforced.

   c. Discuss some of the inappropriate ways to give a compliment:
      1. self-depreciating
      2. sarcastic
      3. crooked (left-handed compliment)

   d. Do Exercise 3, Responsible Assertive Behavior, pp. 74-75.

   ***if a person is uncomfortable with receiving compliments, the most appropriate response is "THANK YOU." Then the topic may be changed. This at least acknowledges that the complimenter has been heard (sign of respect).

6. Handouts: Behavioral Contracts

7. The Whip: "The thing I learned in this session is..."

8. After Ss leave, check off the Group Members Discussion Sheet

EFFECTIVE LISTENING

The sort of communication we are aiming for is based upon mutual respect. This means that you and the person you are talking to allow each other to express your beliefs and feelings honestly, without fear of rejection. It means accepting what the other person says. You may not agree with him/her, but you can demonstrate that you accept his/her feelings. You show acceptance through your tone and the words you use. The communication process is always nonverbal as well as verbal. For the clearest message, make your verbals consistent with the nonverbals that your body is giving. Your nonverbals include tone of voice, silences, pauses, gestures, facial expressions, and posture.

Closed response- Denies a person's right to their feelings by demonstrating the listener's unwillingness to accept and understand.

Open response- Acknowledges the person's right to their feelings by demonstrating that the listener accepts what they feel as well as what they say. Indicates that the listener understands. This is especially important when two people have a difference of opinion.

Example:

Speaker's Remark:	Closed Response:	Open Response:
I can't do it!	Now, don't talk like that! You just got started.	It seems very difficult to you.
I'd like to talk to you about something. (looks distressed)	OK - later.	You seem upset - let's talk about it now.

Points to remember:

1. Effective listening involves establishing eye contact (in our culture) and posture which clearly indicates that you are listening.

2. Focus on both the content of what the speaker says as well as the process of how it is said (e.g., the nonverbal parts of the message).

3. Learn to give open responses that accurately state what the other person feels and means.

4. Avoid closed responses which ignore the speaker's feelings and which say that you have not heard or understood.

5. If the message was not clear to you, check it out with the speaker and let him/her state it more clearly so that you both understand.

ASSERTION TRAINING - SESSION 4

1. Return logs and contracts and collect new ones. Discuss the Behavioral Contracts and weekly goals. (30 minutes)

2. Brainstorm on newsprint all interpersonal human rights the group can think of (e.g., I have the right to express my opinion). (10 minutes)

3. Rights Fantasy Exercise. (15 minutes)

   a. Ask the group to read the list of rights you have brainstormed and choose one that has special meaning to them. Have them fantasize a situation where they do have that right and the same situation where they do not have that right.

   b. Ask the group to break into dyads and share the fantasies.

   c. Process the experience. Discuss:
      1) What right did you select?
      2) How did you feel allowing yourself that right? Denying yourself that right?

4. Stoppers Exercise (20 minutes)

   a. Introduce the exercise and the concept of a "stopper" - something you tell yourself that stops you from being assertive (e.g., "What will the neighbors say?")

   b. Brainstorm on newsprint a list of stoppers.

   c. Discuss:
      1) which particular stoppers do they use?
      2) were they surprised to discover that they <u>do</u> know how they stop themselves from being assertive?
      3) is there any pattern or common thread in our list of stoppers?
      4) compare the list of rights with the list of stoppers. What connections can you draw between the two (they usually are opposite).

5. Handouts (15 minutes): Every Person's Bill of Rights
   Assertive Philosophy
   Non-assertive Philosophy
   Behavioral Contracts

6. The Whip: "The thing I learned in this session is..."

7. After <u>Ss</u> leave, check off the Group Members Discussion Sheet

EVERY PERSON'S BILL OF RIGHTS

1. The right to be treated with respect
2. The right to have and express your own feelings and opinions
3. The right to be listened to and taken seriously
4. The right to set your own priorities
5. The right to say NO without feeling guilty
6. The right to ask for what you want
7. The right to get what you pay for
8. The right to ask for information from professionals
9. The right to make mistakes
10. The right to choose not to assert yourself

ASSERTIVE PHILOSOPHY

1. Each and every human being is entitled to dignity, respect and courtesy.

2. Human adjustment requires that you stand up for your rights.

3. By not standing up for your rights, you are encouraging the other person to continue treating you the same way by reinforcing his behavior.

4. If you don't exercise your rights, you cannot be resentful of people who do.

5. By not expressing yourself, you may be allowing things to build up inside which may result in an inappropriate and hurtful response later.

6. As stated by Ellis: it is unavoidable and undesirable to live your life without hurting someone.

7. As stated by Jeurard: being polite out of fear of being offensive and hiding one's discontent with the situation or the behavior of the other, is a sure way of either destroying a relationship or of preventing one from really forming.

8. Not letting others know how you feel and what you think is a form of selfishness.

9. If you don't tell someone what you think, you deny them the opportunity to change.

10. Each person has a right to express herself as long as the rights of others are not violated.

11. 'Mentally healthy' people stand up for their rights; do not suffer from the 'tyranny of the shoulds'.

NON-ASSERTIVE PHILOSOPHY

1. Others have the right to judge my thoughts, feelings, and actions.

2. I must always have a reason, excuse, or justification for my thoughts, feelings, and actions. Everything I do must make sense. I must always be logical, rational, and reasonable.

3. I must always be consistent, and never change my mind.

4. I must never make mistakes or admit to making mistakes.

5. I do not deserve to be treated with respect, especially when I have made a mistake. I should feel guilty.

6. I must know everything, always have an answer, answer every question. I must never appear ignorant, stupid, or uninformed.

7. I am responsible for finding solutions to others people's problems.

8. I must always be grateful for and dependent upon the goodwill of others. When others are kind to me, I must do as they wish.

9. I must always understand everything, or act as if I do.

10. I must always care about everything and everybody.

11. Everyone I meet must like me and approve of what I do. If I am not approved of, it is awful.

12. I am responsible for and have control over other people's feelings.

13. I am responsible for and have control over the consequences of other people's actions.

14. I am not entitled to my own feelings.

15. I must always conform to the expectations of others.

16. People who love me will always approve of my actions.

17. People who do not approve of my actions do not love me.

18. Love and anger are opposites. They are incompatible.

19. Anger and hate are the same thing.

ASSERTION TRAINING - SESSION 5

1. Return logs and contracts and collect new ones. Discuss the Behavioral Contracts and weekly goals. (30 minutes)

2. Attacking "Stoppers" (15 minutes)

   a. Remind the group members of the exercise you did the last session in which you generated "stoppers" (messages we give ourselves to prevent us from being assertive).

   b. Ask all group members to make one positive statement about themselves. Trainers should go first as models. When finished, explain that saying positive things to ourselves is one way of interferring with our stoppers. Explain that anti-anxiety things (i.e., positive self-statements) often help us feel more confident. Other ways to attack stoppers are the use of humor, mood-generating scenes, and anger. Hand out the "Cognitive Assessment Sheets" as another way to counteract stoppers. Explain how to use it when they are confronted with an especially difficult situation.

3. RET and Changing Beliefs

   a. Give a short overview of RET and how the way we think can cause us to adapt a passive, assertive, or aggressive style most of the time (5 minutes)

   b. Pass out pp. 6-7 "Rational Emotive Therapy" sheet and go over the irrational beliefs and their rational counterparts (10 minutes)

   c. Pass out and go over the sheet that discusses irrational beliefs about being assertive and the rational disputes (10 minutes)

4. A-B-C Theory

   a. Pass out and discuss the ABC Theory sheet and have group members give examples (10 minutes)

   b. Pass out and discuss the Daily Record of Dysfunctional Thoughts as a way to focus on "B" (irrational thoughts <u>they</u> are using) (5 minutes)

5. Handouts: Song Sheet (lead them in song if you want to practice a shame-attacking exercise yourself)
   Behavioral Contracts

6. The Whip: "The thing I learned in this session is..."

7. After <u>Ss</u> leave, check off the Group Members Discussion Sheet

COGNITIVE ASSESSMENT SHEET

1. Describe the problem situation.

2. What happens immediately before the problem situation occurs?

3. How do you usually behave in this situation?

4. How is this present behavior unsatisfactory?

5. What consequences currenty result from handling the situation your present way?

6. Generate as many different ways to handle this situation as you can. Then choose:

   a. the way you like best

   b. the way that has the best long-range consequences for you

   c. all the assertive ways

7. How do you fear you will react in this situation?

8. What are you telling yourself that interferes with your assertive behavior?

9. What is the worst thing that could happen to you if you asserted yourself?

10. What do you know will happen if you don't assert yourself?

11. Take into consideration the above data. How do you intend to handle this situation in the future?

NOTES ON RET

Rational-Emotive Therapy (RET) was developed by Albert Ellis in the 1950's as a reaction to psychoanalytic theory. It comes from Stoic philosophy which says "It is not what happens to you, but what you think about it that matters," or "Nothing is good or bad but thinking makes it so." RET differs from earlier theories in that:

1. it places a great deal of faith in a client's ability to resolve problems through rational processes.
2. it focuses on the present rather than past experiences (e.g., childhood)
3. the counselor acts in an active, confrontive fashion in the counseling sessions (as opposed to client-centered or psychoanalytic therapy)

The Name:

Rational = cognitions, thoughts, beliefs, opinions
Emotive = feelings
Behavior = overt behavior

Nature of Man:

People have the inherent capacity to act either rationally or irrationally. Rational behavior leads to effective behavior and a productive lifestyle whereas irrational behavior leads to unhappiness and a nonproductive lifestyle. An irrational pattern begins early in life and is reinforced by parents and the culture.

Ellis believes that thinking and emotions are closely interrelated. We spend a lot of time in self-talk and this can lead us to behave either rationally or irrationally.

Personality Development:

Ellis believes that personality is a product of innate tendencies as well as environment (nature and nurture). We are born with the potential to be growthful or self-destructive.

Ellis sees people as being very gullible and subject to suggestibility (especially children). Because the child needs love and attention, he or she tries to please others and comes to evaluate himself or herself on the basis of what others say. Taken to the extreme, this leads to Passivity. The emotionally mature individual is able to maintain a fine balance between caring what he or she thinks and feels and caring about what others think.

Irrational Beliefs and the A-B-C Theory:

Ellis proposed that whenever an event occurs which is followed by an unpleasant consequence, we have 2 ways of thinking about it--rationally or irrationally. Most people in our society (and especially those who come for therapy) are irrational thinkers. Ellis contends that it is the messages we give ourselves (our thinking) that determines how we feel. Irrational beliefs are inappropriate because:

1. they cannot be validated or disproven
2. they lead to needlessly unpleasant feelings like anxiety
3. they prevent the individual from going back to the event and changing or resolving it

A ----------	B ----------	C
(the event)	(your beliefs)	(the consequent feelings about the event)

Goals of Counseling in RET:

The major goal is to get the client to internalize a rational philosophy of life, which may involve getting the client to change the whole underlying pattern of illogical thinking. The counselor is directive and authoritative. Building a relationship with the client may or may not be a first step, but it is only a means, never an end in counseling. The counselor induces change in the client by:

1. using counterpropaganda to confront and contradict the irrational self-talk and beliefs of the client
2. encouraging, persuading, cajoling, and commanding the client to engage in behavior that is new, appropriate, and reinforcing

Counseling includes a:

1. Cognitive Component (the client learns to recognize his or her shoulds, oughts, and musts, and how to separate his or her irrational beliefs from more rational ones)
2. Emotive Component (this changes the client's basic value system via techniques like modeling, role playing, unconditional acceptance, and humor)
3. Behavioral Component (this helps the client develop new modes of thinking and behaving via role plays, homework, and operant conditioning procedures)

***The major responsibility for client change lies with the client!

New Developments in RET:

Irrational beliefs have now been condensed into three major ones:

1. I must not fail and be rejected by significant others or I am terrible.
2. You must treat me well or you are terrible.
3. The world must give me what I want when I want it or it is terrible.

Cognitive Techniques that Ellis uses:

1. dispute the client's irrational ideas
2. teach coping (rational) self-statements
3. use humor - in emotional disturbance, problems are exaggerated. Use humor to de-exaggerate them

4. use of semantics - do not use forms of "to be" (e.g., he is neurotic). Question words like always, never, should, must, can't when the client uses them.

Emotional Techniques that Ellis uses:

People have weak, rational cognitive beliefs which cannot compete with strong, irrational feelings. Give them very strong rational statements to say to themselves. Use rational imagery (imagine the worst possible thing that could happen. Get in touch with the feelings, then change the catastrophic feelings to milder ones of disappointment). Use shame-attacking exercises.

Behavioral Techniques Ellis uses:

Strict penalties for non-compliance, "No gain without pain," skill training.

RATIONAL EMOTIVE THERAPY

IRRATIONAL	RATIONAL
1. It is a dire necessity to be loved by everyone for everything one does.	It would be more advisable and productive to concentrate on self-respect, on winning approval for practical purposes, and on loving instead of being loved.
2. Certain acts are awful and wicked and those who perform them should be severely punished.	Certain acts are inappropriate or anti-social, and those who perform them are behaving stupidly or neurotically and would be better to change.
3. It is horrible when things are not the way one would like them to be.	It is too bad that things are often not what one would like them to be and it would be advisable to change or control conditions so that they become more satisfactory. If the change is not possible, one had better temporarily accept their existence.
4. Human misery is externally caused and is forced on individuals by outside events and other people.	Emotional disturbance is caused by the view one takes of conditions.
5. If something is dangerous and fearsome, one should be terribly upset about it.	One would better face the danger or fear and render it non-dangerous and when that is not possible, accept the inevitable.
6. It is easier to avoid than face life's difficulties and self-responsibilities.	The so-called easy way is invariably the harder way in the long run.
7. One needs to rely on something other, stronger, or greater than oneself.	It is better to take the risks of acting and thinking independently.
8. One should be thoroughly competent, intelligent, and achieving in all possible respects	It is better to take risks, accepting oneself as a quite imperfect creature with general human limitations and fallibilities. It is better to do than need to do well.

IRRATIONAL	RATIONAL
9. Because something once strongly affected one's life, it should indefinitely affect it.	One can learn from past experiences while not being overly attached to or prejudiced by them.
10. One must have certain and perfect control over things.	Our world is one of probability and chance, and life can be enjoyed despite this.
11. Human happiness can be achieved by inertia and inaction.	Humans tend to be happiest when they are vitally absorbed in creative pursuits, or when they are devoting themselves to people and projects outside themselves.
12. One has virtually no control over one's emotions and certain feelings cannot be avoided.	One has enormous control over one's destructive emotions if one chooses to work at changing the bigoted and unscientific hypothesis employed to create them.

Objective: To assess which irrational beliefs are used most frequently.

Activity:

TASK DIRECTIONS

Read through the following 7 irrational beliefs that frequently are tied to assertive behaviors. Pay attention to the rational disputes to these irrational beliefs. Mark the irrational beliefs you use most frequently to stop yourself.

_____ IRRATIONAL BELIEF #1

If I assert myself, others will get mad at me.

RATIONAL DISPUTES TO #1

If I assert myself, the effects may be positive, neutral, or negative. However, since assertion involves legitimate rights, I feel that the odds are in my favor to have some positive results.

Possible applications of this are: If I assert myself people may or may not get mad at me/they may feel closer to me/like what I say or do/help me to solve the problem.

_____ IRRATIONAL BELIEF #2

If I assert myself and people do become angry with me, I will be devastated; it will be awful.

RATIONAL DISPUTES TO #2

a. Even if others do become angry and unpleasant, I am capable of handling it without falling apart.

b. If I assert myself when it is appropriate, I don't have to feel responsible for the other person's anger. It may be his problem.

_____ IRRATIONAL BELIEF #3

Although I prefer others to be straight forward with me, I'm afraid that if I am open with others and say "no," I will hurt them.

RATIONAL DISPUTES TO #3

a. If I am assertive, other people may or may not feel hurt.

b. Most people are not more fragile than I am. If I prefer to be dealt with directly, quite likely others will too.

_____ IRRATIONAL BELIEF #4

If my assertion hurts others, I am responsible for their feelings.

RATIONAL DISPUTES TO #4

a. Even if others do feel hurt by my assertive behavior, I can let them know I care for them while also being direct about what I need or want.

b. Although at times others will be taken aback by my assertive behavior, most people are not so vulnerable and fragile that they will be shattered by it.

_____ IRRATIONAL BELIEF #5

It is wrong and selfish to turn down legitimate requests. Other people will think I'm terrible and won't like me.

RATIONAL DISPUTES TO #5

a. Even legitimate requests can be refused assertively.

b. It is acceptable to consider my own needs--sometimes before those of others.

c. I can't please all of the people all of the time.

_____ IRRATIONAL BELIEF #6

At all cost, I must avoid making statements and asking questions that might make me look ignorant or stupid.

RATIONAL DISPUTES TO #6

It's all right to lack information or to make a mistake. It just shows I'm human.

_____ IRRATIONAL BELIEF #7

Assertive women are cold, castrating bitches. If I'm assertive I'll be so unpleasant that people won't like me.

RATIONAL DISPUTES TO #7

Assertive women are direct and honest, and behave appropriately. They show a genuine concern for other people's rights and feelings as well as their own. Their assertiveness enriches their relationships with others.

CONCLUSION

THREE IMPORTANT QUESTIONS TO ASK YOURSELF

* Am I assuming that people will always react negatively to my assertion? That's irrational.

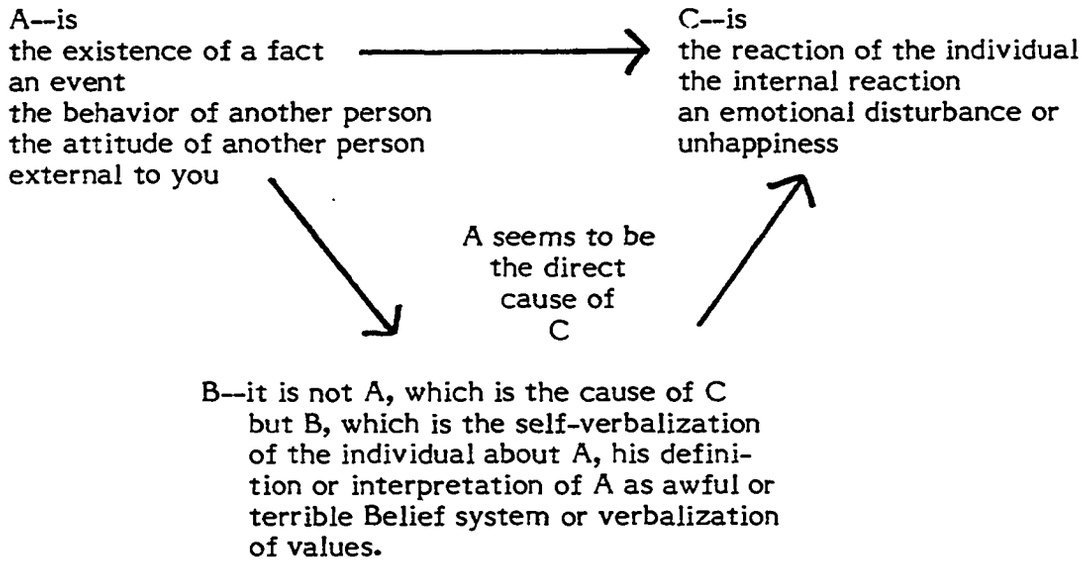
* Am I focusing on the negative outcome of my assertiveness and not considering other options? That's irrational.

* Do I think I can't handle the results of my assertive behavior if they are, in fact, negative? That's irrational.

RATIONAL-EMOTIVE PSYCHOTHERAPY----THE ABC THEORY

by

Albert Ellis



THE TASK OF THE COUNSELOR IS TO HELP THE CLIENT GET RID OF THE ILLOGICAL AND IRRATIONAL IDEAS

FOUR STEPS

1. Show the client that he is being irrational and illogical and why.
2. Show the client that he maintains his disturbance by continuing to think irrationally.
3. Get the client to change his thinking and abandon his irrational ideas.
4. Present more rational philosophy of living and thinking so the client can avoid falling victim to other irrational and illogical ideas and beliefs.

DAILY RECORD OF DYSFUNCTIONAL THOUGHTS

DATE	SITUATION Describe: 1. Actual event leading to unpleasant emotion, or 2. Stream of thoughts, daydream or recollection leading to	EMOTIONS 1. Specify sad anxious angry 2. Rate degree of of emotion 1-100%	AUTOMATIC THOUGHT(S) 1. Write automatic thought(s) that preceded emotions(s) 2. Rate belief in automatic thought(s) 0-100%	RATIONAL RESPONSE 1. Write rational response thought(s) 2. Rate belief in rational response 0-100%	OUTCOME 1. Re-rate belief in automatic thought(s) 0-100% 2. Specify and rate subsequent emotions 0-100%

EXPLANATION: When you experience an unpleasant emotion, note the situation that seemed to stimulate the emotion. (If the emotion occurred while you were thinking, daydreaming, etc., please note this.) Then note the automatic thought associated with the emotion. Record the degree to which you believe this thought: 0%=not at all; 100%=completely. In rating the degree of emotion: 1=a trace; 100=the most intense possible.

SONG SHEET

WHINE, WHINE, WHINE! (Yale Whiffenpoof song, tune by Guy Scull)
I cannot have all of my wishes filled—
Whine, whine, whine!
I cannot have every frustration stilled—
Whine, whine, whine!
Life really owes me the things that I miss,
Fate has to grant me eternal bliss!
And if I must settle for less than this—
Whine, whine, whine!

PERFECT RATIONALITY (tune, Luigi Denza, Funiculi, Funicula)
Some think the world must have a right direction
And so do I! And so do I!
Some think that, with the slightest imperfection
They can't get by—and so do I!
For I, I have to prove I'm superhuman
And better far than people are!
To show I have miraculous acumen—
And always rate among the Great!

Perfect, perfect rationality
Is, of course, the only thing for me!
How can I even think of being
If I must life fallibly?
Rationality must be a perfect thing for me!

I LOVE YOU UNDULY (Carrie Jacobs Bond, I love you Truly)
I love you unduly, unduly, dear!
Just like a coolie I persevere!
If you should phase me right out of your door,
I am so crazy, I'll love you more!
I love you truly, truly dear!
Very unduly and with no cheer!
Though you imbue me with a pain in the gut,
I love you truly—for I'm a nut!

MY SWEET LITTLE LOUSY BLUE MOOD (Tune, Harry Tierney, Alice Blue Gown)
On my sweet little lousy blue mood
I endeavor to never intrude
Though I say I intend
All my sorrows to end,
I refreshen depression
And make it my friend!
I am quite undetermined to choose
To stop sighing and crying the blues
I'm pigheadedly drawn to and madly hang on to
My sweet little lousy blue mood!

I AM BAD, OH SO BAD! (Dvorak, Going Home from the New World Symphony)
I am bad, oh so bad, just a worthless cad!
Oh! my gad, let me add I'm so bad it's sad!
I'm so bad I deserve every ugly twist!
I'm so bad I've a nerve even to exist!
I'm so bad that I'm clad in pure villany!
Oh, I'm so bad, you egad,
Must take care of me!
Yes, take care of me!
Yes, take care of me!

GLORY, GLORY HALLELUJAH! (tune, Battle Hymn of the Republic)
Mine eyes have seen the glory of relationships that glow
And then falter by the wayside as love passions come—and go!
I've heard of great romances where there is no slightest lull—
But I am skeptical!

Glory, glory hallelujah! people love you 'til they screw ya!
If you'd soften how they do ya, then don't expect they won't!
Those who say they madly love you often put all else above you!—
And at times they push and shove you!
So don't expect they won't!

WHEN I AM SO BLUE (Johann Strauss, Blue Danube Waltz)
When I am so blue, so blue, so blue,
I sit and I stew, I stew, and I stew!
I deem it so awfully horrible
That my life is rough and scarrable!
Whenever my blues are verified
I make myself doubly terrified,
And I never choose to refuse
To be blue about my blues!

I WISH I WERE NOT CRAZY (Tune Dixie by Dan Emmett)
Oh, I wish I were really put together—
Smooth and fine as patent leather!
Oh, how great to be mated to this lovely state
But I'm afraid that I was fated
To be rather aberrated—
Oh, how sad to be mad as my Mom and my Dad!
Oh, I wish I were not crazy! Hooray, hooray!
I wish my mind were less inclined to be the kind that's hazy!
I could, of course, refuse to be so crazy,
But I, alas, am just too goddamned lazy!

ASSERTION TRAINING - SESSION 6

1. Return logs and contracts and collect new ones. Discuss the Behavioral Contracts and weekly goals (20 minutes).

2. Finish Session 5 if all topics were not covered (15 minutes).

3. Considering the Consequences of your Behavior (15 minutes).

   a. Read "Considering the Consequences" paper

   b. Discussion of the paper (have the group give examples of the appropriate use of aggression)

4. Making and Refusing Requests

   a. Exercise 15, pp. 102-104 in Responsible Assertive Behavior (20 minutes)

   b. Exercise 17, pp. 106-108 in Responsible Assertive Behavior (20 minutes)

5. Handouts: Considering the Consequences paper
   Behavioral Contracts

6. The Whip: "The thing I learned in this session is..."

7. After Ss leave, check off the Group Members Discussion Sheet.

CONSIDERING THE CONSEQUENCES OF YOUR BEHAVIOR

The decision to act passively, assertively, or aggressively in any given situation is always your choice and to make the most appropriate choice, you must consider the consequences of each behavior, for you are responsible for your own behavior.

People who generally choose a Passive communication style were probably not rewarded by significant others for being assertive during their development. They may have been (and still are) encouraged to be non-assertive by others who praise them for their selflessness, femininity, for being a good friend, child, or student, and for being quiet, subservient, generally agreeable, and not causing problems for other people. There are some advantages to being passive: research shows that passive people are seen as likeable, and they are positively evaluated and responded to by others. Since there is a cultural press in our society to be "nice" and not to hurt others' feelings, the passive person is heavily reinforced for using this communication style. On the other hand, many of the wants and needs of the passive person go unmet and he or she may lose a sense of self-esteem and develop feelings of hurt, anxiety, and anger (though they are not openly expressed). This may cause somatic problems such as headaches, backaches, stomach aches, or emotional states like depression. Others may initially feel sorry for the non-assertive person, but their pity often turns to irritation, then disgust, and lack of respect. Does this mean that one should never choose the passive option? No. You must always consider the consequences. If the benefits of being non-assertive outweigh the gains of choosing the assertive option, then the best choice is passivity. If it is very important to your boss for you to stay late and it does not make that much

difference to you, then stay. If you are half way home from the grocery store and find that you were shortchanged 50¢ and it would cost $1 in gas to get back, then you may decide that it is not worth the trouble, so you choose the passive option (the situation is much different if you have been shortchanged $10). If you never use the Student Health Center and therefore think that you should not have to pay for those services, but the consequences of not paying are that you cannot attend the University, then you should choose the passive option--the consequences here are harsh for noncompliance with the rules.

People who generally choose an Aggressive communication style may do so for several reasons. They may feel vulnerable to an anticipated or actual attack, so they take the offensive rather than the defensive position. They may have originally been passive, but the "gunnysack" of hurts and unexpressed feelings finally broke and now all they feel is rage. Or they may have been reinforced for acting aggressively. The immediate consequences of aggression are usually positive--the person meets his or her wants and needs, there is a feeling of emotional release, and a sense of power. On the other hand, the victims of aggression may feel anger, hurt, frustration, and may counterattack the aggressive person. Frequently, close interpersonal relationships cannot be maintained, and the aggressive person may end up feeling deeply misunderstood, unloved, and unlovable. In most cases, assertiveness is a much more appropriate response than aggressiveness because the immediate consequences of getting one's wants and needs met is achieved, but the negative consequences of alienating others does not occur. Does this mean that one should never choose the aggressive option? No. You must consider the consequences in each situation. First, however, let's look at the concept of aggressiveness in a different light.

Aggressiveness can be seen as an energy or a life force that motivates a person to achieve his or her goals. It includes the characteristics of being ambitious, capable, confident, energetic, and competitive. It enables us to use power. And concerning relationships, as the authors of Creative Aggression state, "The directly aggressive person may be initially less comfortable to be with, but he recharges relationships and social situations with an activating energy that is indispensable to staying involved and emotionally healthy."

Research shows that although females in our society are generally less aggressive than males, they are nonetheless quite capable of behaving aggressively. They may do it in more subtle ways--through interpersonal manipulation, verbal hostility, interpersonal rejection, using guilt, stubbornness, withdrawal, depression, and physical disorders such as migraine headaches.

Is it ever appropriate to choose the aggressive option? Yes. When you have tried assertion and it has not worked, it is sometimes necessary to escalate. *If you have a goal that is vital to you to accomplish, and in order to do so you must violate the rights of others, then choose the aggressive option. Or if your goal is to WIN the situation, it may be necessary to be aggressive. We hit a child's hand to prevent him from touching a hot stove. The goal here of the child's safety is more important than his right to be curious. Sometimes we must hurt others in our climb up the success ladder. Here, competition is the name of the game (as men have always known), and truly, the nice guy will finish last. Our goals of professional and financial success and self-esteem sometimes make it necessary to violate the rights of others. If success is important to you, then take the aggressive option. Aggressiveness may be the most appropriate response, but if hurting others is your prime reason for being aggressive, then it is almost never appropriate. Consider the consequences of the response style you want to use in each situation.

It is important to remember that if you do choose the assertive or aggressive option, there is no guarantee that another person's behavior will change or that you will get your needs and wants met. You have the right to request something from others, and they have the right to refuse. Always consider the possible consequences of your behavior.

ASSERTION TRAINING - SESSION 6

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   a. Read "Considering the Consequences" paper

   b. Discussion of the paper (have the group give examples of the appropriate use of passivity)

4. Making and Refusing Requests

   a. Exercise 15, pp. 102-104 in Responsible Assertive Behavior (20 minutes)

   b. Exercise 17, pp. 106-108 in Responsible Assertive Behavior (20 minutes)

5. Handouts: Considering the Consequences paper
   Behavioral Contracts

6. The Whip: "The thing I learned in this session is..."

7. After Ss leave, check off the Group Members Discussion Sheet.

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ASSERTION TRAINING - SESSION 7

1. Return logs and contracts and collect new ones. Discuss the Behavioral Contracts and weekly goals (20 minutes).

2. Making Statements without an Explanation (20 minutes).

   a. Exercise 16, pp. 104-106 in Responsible Assertive Behavior.

3. Giving Criticism (5 minutes)

   a. Pass out and briefly discuss the Criticism sheet

4. Anger and Fair Fighting (40 minutes)

   a. Before class, read pp. 83-89 of Your Perfect Right.

   b. Pass out the Anger and Fair Fighting sheets and go over them in detail. Have group members give examples or problem situations and evaluate how they handled them using this criteria.

5. Handouts: Behavioral Contracts

6. Emphasize that it is very important for them to attend the last session (that is where I will get my data).

7. The Whip: "The thing I learned in this session is..."

8. After Ss leave, check off the Group Members Discussion Sheet.

GIVING CRITICISM

Just as there are appropriate and inappropriate ways to give compliments, so there are more and less hurtful ways to give criticism. Criticism should be as specific as possible and should focus on the other person's behavior rather than his or her whole personality. Sometimes there is a great temptation to bring up all the times that the other person has behaved similarly, but this will only cause him or her to be hurt and defensive, and your message will not be heard. Giving criticism appropriately is one of the more difficult assertive behaviors. Here are some points to remember:

1. Make the criticism a direct, honest, and specific statement (you are more likely to get the other person to change if he or she knows exactly what the problem is).

2. Focus on behavior rather than personality (e.g., "You need to pick me up earlier for class because I've been late several times" vs. "Can't you be more responsible when you make a commitment?").

3. Offer alternatives to the unacceptable behavior (e.g., "This paper needs some work. Let's set up a time to discuss how we can make it sound more professional" vs. "This paper is terrible. Do it over!"). Do not just criticize the present behavior without explaining the kinds of changes you want. Negotiate an agreement with the other person.

4. Be sensitive to how the other person is responding to the criticism. Be empathic. If it is at all possible, explain how his or her behavior makes you feel. Use "I" statements.

5. Give the other person a chance to respond but beware of excuses.

6. Do not use so many qualifiers, apologies, and watered-down words that the person does not know he or she is being criticized (e.g., "You're a really great roommate and I'm glad we're friends. I really appreciate all the little things you do around the house. I was wondering, if, maybe, on those nights before I have exams, if you could maybe ask your friends to be just a little quieter when they come over. Or maybe I'll just go study at the library. I don't want to impose or anything.").

7. Do not "gunnysack" your complaints until the sack breaks and the victim gets the brunt of full rage. Relationships cannot be direct and honest if there are too many "lumps under the carpet" where things have been swept instead of dealt with. It is not fair to the other person and it is not fair to you to gunnysack.

ANGER AND FAIR FIGHTING

In our culture, "helping" someone only involves being supportive, kindly, gentle, and positive. We are not conditioned to see anything constructive or helpful in engaging someone in an interaction by confronting them, getting angry at them, or helping them release their angry feelings by letting them get angry in return.

Anger is not the same thing as Aggression. Anger is a perfectly natural, healthy human emotion which may be expressed in a number of ways, including aggressively, non-assertively, assertively, or not at all. Anger is a feeling, an emotion we all feel at times. Aggression is a behavioral style of expression.

A direct aggressive attack may provoke additional aggression, both in the attacker and in the subject. Assertive responses, on the other hand, can both effectively express your strong feelings and give the other person a chance to respond non-defensively and perhaps even to change that behavior which angered you in the first place.

There are several general points to remember when expressing anger to maximize the effect:

1. Recognize and allow yourself to believe that anger is a natural, healthy, non-evil human feeling. You need not fear your anger.

2. Remember that you are responsible for your own feelings. You got angry at what happened; the other person did not "make" you angry.

3. Remember that anger and aggression are not the same thing. Anger can be expressed assertively.

4. Get to know yourself, so you recognize those events and behaviors which trigger your anger. As some say, "find your own buttons, so you will know when they are pushed."

5. Learn to relax. If you have developed the skill to relax yourself, learn to apply this response when your anger is triggered.

6. Develop assertive methods for expressing your anger: do not wait and let it build up resentment; state it directly; avoid sarcasm and innuendo; use honest, expressive language; avoid name-calling, put-downs, and physical attcks.

7. Keep your life clear! Deal with issues when they arise, when you feel the feelings--not after hours/days/weeks of "stewing" about it.

CONFLICT AND FAIR FIGHTING

When there is a conflict to be resolved constructively, use these guidelines (for both parties):

1. Avoid a "win-lose" position. The attitude that "I am going to win, and you are going to lose" will more likely result in both losing. By remaining flexible, both can win--at least in part.

2. Gain the same information about the situation. Because perceptions so often differ, it is good to make everything explicit!

3. Have goals which are basically compatible. If you both want to preserve the relationship more than to win, you have a better chance.

4. Act honestly and directly toward one another.

5. Accept responsibility for your own feelings ("I am angry!" NOT "You made me mad!").

6. Be willing to face the problem openly, more than to avoid or hide from it.

7. Agree upon some means of negotiation or exchange. Each party should agree to give some points.

8. Keep the discussion in the "here and now"—no gunnysacking past grievances.

9. Use "I" statements and describe your feelings.

10. Give the other person a chance to respond.

11. Be aware of the other person's "Achille's heels"--those very sensitive areas, and avoid using them to hurt the other. Likewise, your Achille's heels should be respected.

12. Avoid using terms like "You always" or "You never."

Bach and Goldberg in the book Creative Aggression evaluate a fight to see if it was fair by looking at the following dimensions:

1. Reality- Are the statements made rational and realistic or were they insincere and manipulative?

2. Fairness- Can the other person cope with and respond to the statements that were made? Did you "hit below the belt?"

3. Involvement- Are the statements made with genuine feeling? Or does the fighter remain detached and withdrawn?

4. Responsibility- Does the fighter acknowledge his or her share of the responsibility for the conflict and its resolution?

5. Humor- Does the humor that is present produce joyous relief and generate a relaxed closeness (e.g., the two women hitting each other with their purses in the movie "The Turning Point"? Or are sarcasm and put-downs used to humiliate the other person?)

6. Feedback- Is the feedback accurate or does the fighter immediately counter with his or her own argument?

7. Specificity- Are the statements clear and do they contain specific, concrete details?

8. Perspective- Do the statements relate to the "here and now?" Or are complaints and issues from the past added?

9. Change Readiness- Are the fighters flexible and open to change? Or does each expect the other to make all the changes?

10. Crazymakers and Hidden Aggression- Are the fighters playing straight with each other or do they use techniques like passive--aggression, intellectualizing, guilt-making, and the double bind?

ASSERTION TRAINING - SESSION 8

1. Return logs and contacts. Discuss if necessary (15 minutes).

2. "Gift of Words Exercise" (20 minutes)

   a. Hand out index cards. Each person should have as many cards as there are people in the group.

   b. Each member (including the trainers) writes a compliment for each other person (like a Valentine), then delivers them.

3. Please tell the group members that there will be one or two assertion training groups beginning the first week of July at the OU Counseling Center. If they know someone that may be interested, please have them contact Dr. Gregg Eichenfield at 325-2911 to sign up. The groups will be mixed (males and females). Also verify addresses for a 6-month follow-up that I will send.

4. Post-testing

   a. Videotaped Vignettes

   b. Adult Self Expression Scale

   c. State-Trait Personality Inventory

   d. Give them the Debriefing Sheet

5. After Ss leave, check off the Group Members Discussion Sheet

6. Give Amy the post-test materials and arrange for de-briefing and feedback session.

Name: _____

SS#: _____

VIDEOTAPED VIGNETTES

PASSIVE- Allowing your rights to be violated by another person by failing to express your honest thoughts, feelings, and beliefs.

ASSERTIVE- Standing up for your own rights while respecting another person's rights. Expressing your thoughts, feelings, and beliefs directly and honestly.

AGGRESSIVE- Standing up for your own rights but violating the rights of another person. The goal here is to WIN the situation.

PAS 1. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 2. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 3. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 4. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 5. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

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PAS 6. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 7. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 8. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 9. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 10. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 11. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

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PAS 12. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 13. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 14. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 15. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 16. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 17. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

SS#: _____

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PAS 18. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 19. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

PAS 20. _____

ASS _____

AGG _____

ASSERTIVENESS TRAINING - DEBRIEFING

For the past four weeks you have been participating in an experiment which compared two types of assertiveness training. All groups learned the basics of differentiating between passive, assertive, and aggressive behaviors, developing listening skills, recognizing rights and stoppers, differentiating rational from irrational thinking, and considering the consequences of your behavior. The major difference in the groups was in the way that aggression was presented. It was hypothesized that if women were given permission to be aggressive at times, then assertiveness would not seem so extreme a behavior. Therefore, the women who discussed aggression as a behavioral option would more often behave assertively and aggressively (when appropriate) than would women for whom aggression was not presented as an option.

If you would like to discuss this experiment in more detail, please contact Amy Flowers at 325-5974. If, as a result of this training, problems have developed in any of your relationships and you would like to discuss them with a counselor, please contact the OU Counseling Center at 325-2911.

Very little follow-up work has been done with the participants in assertiveness training groups. I would like to send you a six-month follow-up questionnaire. You are free to complete it or not; your credit points for this experiment will not be affected in any way. However, for those of us who teach communication skills, this additional data will be helpful and very much appreciated.

APPENDIX E

RECORD OF VERBALIZATION CHART

DATE _____

GROUP _____

Subject Name	No Verbalization	Solicited Brief Verbalization	Solicited Extended Verbalization	Unsolicited Brief Verbalization	Unsolicited Extended Verbalization