CHAPTER—VII

INTERVENTION FOR STUDENTS WITH CONDUCT DISORDER

7.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter gives a detailed description about the principles and procedures adopted for remediating conduct disorder, in students. The objectives of the remedial phase of the programme were the following.

1. To plan a remedial intervention programme for students with conduct disorders to improve
   a. Level of self concept
   b. Level of Scientific attitude
   c. Extent of Social cognition
   d. Extent of assertion
   e. Problem solving skill and to
   f. reduce the number of social skills problems present

2. To study the effectiveness of the above mentioned programme for students with conduct disorders in improving the
   a. Level of self concept
   b. Level of Scientific attitude
   c. Extent of Social cognition
   d. Extent of assertion
   e. Problem solving skill and to
   f. Reduce the number of social skills problems present
Thus in the first phase of Intervention, planning a systematic and strategic programme was done and in the second phase, the programme was tested for the effectiveness.

7.1 PLANNING THE REMEDIAL PROGRAMME FOR STUDENTS WITH CONDUCT DISORDER

In order to meet the first objectives of the remedial phase, the following were considered.

1. The strength and weakness of students with conduct disorders in the areas of
   a. Self concept
   b. Social skills
   c. Scientific attitude
   d. Assertive skills
   e. Problem solving skills
   f. Emotional intelligence

2. The specific problems exhibited by each student in different situations

   When the deficits made by students with conduct disorders were analysed the results revealed that students with conduct disorders lacked skills such as social skills, communication/conversation skills, problem solving skills, assertive skills and qualities such as scientific attitude, self control, cognitive restructuring, etc.

   The time taken to react to a situation is less and hence it lead to several disruptive behaviours. Frequent disruptions in behaviour, inability to identify and manage emotions were observed consistently among students with conduct disorder.
3. Various theoretical bases and principles recommended for intervention programme for students with conduct disorder.

4. If appropriate intervention is used, conduct disorder can be remediated properly.

5. Continuous observation, remediation and evaluation of progress is required during the implementation of the intervention programme.

All the above criteria were considered while planning the intervention programme for remediating conduct disorder of students with conduct disorder.

7.1.1 Principles Underlying the Intervention Programme

The following principles of intervention were considered while planning the sessions and administering them to the students with conduct disorder.

The principles were the following:

1. Each step taken was small and manageable. It should be able to help the student move a little bit forward in developing a skill.

2. Daily reinforcement is essential before starting the new one.

3. There should be ample interaction in the class so as to boost the self esteem and improve the self confidence of students.

4. The ideas of the student should be encouraged and incorporated promptly.

5. Games and activities that help in improving the behaviour were incorporated in the class daily.

6. Learning activities should include the use of two or more sensory modalities simultaneously.
7. Strength and weaknesses of the student should be considered and teaching should be age appropriate.

8. Intervention should be given individually or in groups depending upon the type of problem behaviour.

9. Classes during the intervention should be consistent and regular.

10. Classes during the intervention should be engaged by the same individuals, i.e. the instructor who is giving the remedial instruction should not change day by day.

11. Activities planned should be enjoyable, so that genuine interest in the students should be maintained throughout the sessions.

12. Cognitive, behavioural and affective strategies should be selected according to the maturity level and interest of the student.

13. Students should be given opportunities to monitor and reward their own performance.

14. Whenever possible, students can be helped to apply the learning to the new situation.

15. Consequence of each conduct problem must be notified immediately.

16. Practice of each skill everyday will ensure proper acquiring of the skill.

17. The response of the student to each skill is to be given more emphasis. Teacher should guide the student by giving certain tips and tricks for the easy acquisition of a skill.
18. The student is not supposed to accept everything as such told by the teacher. He is supposed to have his own queries and doubts during the practice of each skill.

19. Questions regarding each session should be encouraged.

20. Multisensory learning techniques should be employed so as to promote the principle of variety.

21. As each student exhibits problems in specific areas of conduct disorder, intervention programme should be given as individualised counselling according to the needs of each student.

22. Mistakes/Errors while practicing the skill must be notified immediately.

23. Students should be exposed only to one subcomponent of a skill at a time.

24. Students should not start a new skill, unless the older ones are properly practiced.

25. Students who are able to perform basic skills are trained in higher order skills like holding conversations, making assertive responses, general social problem solving, etc.

26. Specific skills should be taught depending on the severity of students’ skill deficits.

27. Sometimes skills training requires modeling by the teacher.

28. Each student is allowed to follow his own pace in acquiring the skill.

29. During role playing sessions, the student has to rehearse the similar responses, which he is supposed to make during a real situation.

30. For the Intervention to be effective, immediate feedback and reinforcement is essential to the students with conduct disorder.
7.1.2 Approaches and Strategies Employed for Developing the Remedial Programme

This section includes the different approaches and strategies that have been incorporated and followed in developing intervention programme in the present study.

Interventions are commonly pragmatic hybrids, borrowing from different theories. Under such conditions, a rigid and well recognised vocabulary has not developed, nor at this point can such interventions always be neatly circumscribed as of one distinct family representing one clear conceptual model. Mainly two types of psychoeducational interventions can be employed for students with conduct disorders (Carpenter and Apter, 1988). They are:

1. Behavioural Intervention
2. Cognitive Emotional Intervention

7.1.2.1 Behavioural Intervention

Behavioural Interventions are mainly derived from applied behaviour analysis (Baer, Wolf and Risley, 1968) and from social learning theory (Bandura, 1969). These models emphasise the use of overt, objectively, observable behaviour of the students with behaviour disorders as dependent measures (Nelson and Polsgrove, 1984). They are intended to the external control of students with behaviour disorders through some procedures. These interventions may be represented on two continua: one depicting behaviour enhancement procedures and one depicting behaviour reduction procedures. Behaviour enhancement procedures include reinforcement and modeling whereas behaviour reduction procedures include extinction, physical and verbal aversive and overcorrection. Studies have shown that these strategies
mentioned under behaviour interventions are effective in reducing undesired behaviours and increasing desired behaviours across students with behaviour disorders of all ages, culture and psychological characteristics.

Behavioural intervention utilise cognitive processes as a component of the intervention procedure. On this basis these interventions can be subdivided into two. They are:

1. Cognitive behavioural interventions
2. Social cognitive interventions

7.1.2.1.1 Cognitive behavioural interventions

Cognitive behavioural interventions, though behavioural in nature actively employ the cognitive processes of the student in the intervention procedure. The principal goal of cognitive behavioural interventions is helping the student with conduct disorder to have a self control of his own behaviour through the organisation of information and making decisions (Rutherford and Howell, 1980). The investigator has used three stages of cognitive behavioural interventions. They are: (1) Self monitoring, (2) Self evaluation and (3) Self reinforcement.

(1) Self Monitoring

As suggested by Douglas, Parry, Marton and Garson (1976), self monitoring of the cognitive behavioural approach are relied on for better change of undesirable behaviours. Here the student attends to his/her own specific behaviours or group of behaviours in a conscious and systematic fashion. He is prompted to record his behaviour or observe his behaviour that requires a change. For example, a prerecorded harsh tone towards the teacher or a parent from a cassette tape player
might serve as a cue to monitor a student’s behaviour (Blick and Test, 1987). The intention of this stage is to make aware of the students with conduct disorder about the desirable and undesirable behaviours they exhibit in each situation, through their systematic observation and recording. The investigator created different situations in the classroom that evoked the emotions in the students. They included home situations like parent-student interactions, sibling interactions, school situations like interaction between students and teacher, between peers and between students and other school authorities. Situations selected were mainly problematic ones like compulsions to do work, non-permittance for enjoying with peers, tempting situations, fighting most peers, etc.

Self monitoring is an initial strategy incorporated with other strategies to teach social skills and social cognitive skills as is clearly evident in Model Affective Resource Curriculum (1983), Think Aloud (Camp and Bash, 1981) and Cognitive Training Program of Douglas, Parry, Marton and Garson (1976).

Thus it is clear that the systematic procedure of self monitoring cannot be used alone, but can be used along with other strategies, by which students with conduct disorders may become clearly aware of their own behaviours. It would be better if the practitioner knows which behaviours are most amenable to change under different circumstances.

(2) Self Evaluation

In the second stage of cognitive behavioural approach, i.e. in the self-evaluation stage, the conduct disorder student compares his/her observations or recordings during the self monitoring stage against some pre-established standard.
The pre-established standard may be negotiated by both the student and the teacher/practitioner. The standard should be either pre-determined or established as a result of data collected during the monitoring. So according to Polsgrove (1979), if a conduct disordered student is asked to evaluate his performance against some standard they may presumably engage in covert self reinforcement/punishment. In the study the investigator along with the students set up certain social norms and rules accepted as standard and maintained in the classroom. During self evaluation, the students with conduct disorder cross checked their behaviours with that of standard ones recorded and maintained. If the student’s behaviour was found to match with the standard, the student was reinforced either verbally or non-verbally or through some incentives. If both were mismatching, the student will be enabled to understand the consequences of the particular undesirable behaviour exhibited by him/her.

(3) Self Reinforcement

Rutherford and Rueda (1982) confirms that in self reinforcement, the final stage of self management, the student with conduct disorder is able to know which are the desirable behaviours that require self reinforcement and which are the undesirable behaviours that requires punishment. Thus at the end of the approach, the student is able to differentiate between desirable behaviours and their merits and undesirable behaviours and their consequences without any external control. Self reinforcement is a self managing procedure which if accomplished by a student once can be used at any time without any external force during self evaluation stage.
7.1.2.1.2 Social cognitive interventions

Green Span (1979) pointed out that social cognitive interventions are a group of techniques designed to teach the students better to comprehend and deal with social and interpersonal events. As a student with conduct disorder is unable to deal with a social situation, these type of interventions helps them to utilise their cognitive processes in a better way so as to maintain good interpersonal relationship with others. Thus a student with conduct disorder who generally violates societal norms and basic rights of others try to understand a social situation and cooperates with others, through the continuous use of social cognitive strategies.

These interventional strategies includes both self management procedures and social problem solving methods. Model Affective Resource Curriculum (1983), is a social cognitive curriculum that combines different procedures. It includes self instruction, several step problem solving procedures and communication skills along with the specific teaching techniques like modeling and rehearsal, which will enable a student with conduct disorder to deal effectively with problematic situations in life.

The principle elements under social cognitive interventions are self instruction, social problem solving and social skills training, which is discussed below in detail.

Self Instruction

Alberto and Troutman (1982) suggests that self instruction is the process by which a student provides prompts to himself in order to direct or maintain a particular behaviour. The goal of self instructional training is to teach students to think and plan before acting to stop, look and listen. Luria (1961) identify three stages of development of verbal control over motor behaviours. In stage one, student’s motor
behaviour is controlled by speech of adults. Stage two sees the student’s own overt speech as beginning to exert control, followed by the third stage in which the student’s inner speech regulates his behaviour.

Thus typical self instruction training is a sequential process that moves a student with conduct disorder from adult instruction in verbal mediation to overt self-verbalisation of mediation to covert self instruction in order to improve their undesirable behaviours and emotions in them. The purpose of this method is to teach self control over the behaviours which a student with conduct disorder lacks clearly making him an annoyance to adults and peers. Thus this is a useful component of multiple component interventions, as it is clearly evident in the study conducted by Robin, Schneider and Dolnick (1976) where self instruction has been used to reduce aggressive behaviour.

Social Problem Solving

Spivack, Platt and Shure (1976) suggested that a student with conduct disorder is unable to utilise their cognitive processes in an organisational way for decision making. That means students with conduct disorder have greater problem solving deficits than do their normal age peers in social situations. Glen, Rueda and Rutherford (1984) suggested that this is because, such a student lacks metacognitive processes that would allow him to react flexibly in his own interest while facing ordinary social problems.

So Spivach and Shure (1974) found that a student with conduct disorder should be taught how to generate alternative solutions to their social problems, so that they can control their aggression and impulsivity and increase their social
interactions. Before mastering the problem solving strategies a student with conduct disorder should be aware of his/her cognitive processes and abilities. Once that is accomplished, they can learn when and how to employ social-problem-solving strategies.

Weissberg and Cowen (1978) identified the components of a social problem solving training programme. They are:

1. Problem definition
2. Goal statement
3. Impulse delay (stop and think before you act)
4. Generation of alternatives
5. Consideration of consequences (think of the different things that may follow each solution in stage 4)
6. Implementation
7. Recycling (use of self evaluation and error correcting options)

During social problem solving training programme, a students with conduct disorder has to find solution for each problem by understanding and following the above mentioned steps. Thus according to Spivach and Shure (1974) this training program enable the students with conduct disorder to identify their irrational feelings, beliefs and consider others, generate solutions to social problems and evaluate the results of their activities in social situations with peers.

**Social Skills Training**

Social skills, the interpersonal competencies, necessary to successfully interact with others, are essential for normal living. Their absence is correlated with a host of
behavioural and emotional problems throughout the life span. Social skills deficits are
associated with social isolation, aggression, lose of empathy, poor academic
achievement, etc. which will lead to conduct disorder and sometimes even to juvenile
delinquency. Thus a student with conduct disorder is unable to establish proper
interpersonal relationships with others as he/she have not learned how to be friendly
with other peers, how to make conversation, how to express anger approximately and
soforth. Liberman, Mueser and DeRisi (1989) pointed out that in light of these
findings, therapists are increasingly using social skills training to improve the social
abilities of students with conduct disorder.

Social skills training which depends on the principles of operant conditioning
and observational learning is essentially an educational approach for correcting the
behavioural deficits of students with conduct disorder. Stephens (1978) reported that
after assessing the behavioural deficits in various social skills problem areas such as
presentation, interaction difficulties, conversation skills, social discomfort, social
isolation, these skills can be actively and directly taught to the student.

Social skills training emphasises on mainly three tactics, shaping, modeling
and behavioural rehearsal. In modeling, the students with conduct disorder is
encouraged to watch socially skilled friends or the investigator who models the
desired behaviour, so that responses can be acquired through observation.

In behavioural rehearsal, the students with conduct disorder tries to practice
social techniques in structured role playing exercises. Practitioner provides corrective
feedback and uses approval to reinforce progress. These newly acquired skills are
used in real life situations.
Shaping is used in that students are gradually asked to handle more complicated and delicate social situations, after handling simpler ones.

Social skills training should not just consist of a description of the skill and why it is important, but also explain and demonstrate how to implement the skill and when and why to implement it practicing each social skill is vital.

7.1.2.2 Cognitive Emotional Interventions

According to Carpenter and Apter (1988) cognitive emotional intervention is a term used to embrace the broad array of approaches that have emerged from developmental and social perspectives and also they are interventions for remediating conduct disorders of school age students and youth. It can be viewed as a combination of both cognitive and emotional (affective) intervention strategies.

7.1.2.2.1 Cognitive interventions

Strategies that are rooted in cognitive change approaches assume that emotions and overt behaviours are influenced by their beliefs, attitudes or cognitions. Errors in thinking produce emotional distress and undesirable behaviours. So the aim of cognitive interventions is to reduce emotional distress and corresponding maladaptive behaviour patterns through correcting errors in thoughts, perceptions and beliefs. Beck (1976) observed that changes in behaviour occur once the student with conduct disorders distortions in thinking are unraveled and replaced with alternative more realistic way of thinking about experiences. Cognitive interventions also stress the importance of self control. Thus students with conduct disorder should become direct agents of their own changes rather than as helpless victims of external events and forces.
Major Strategies Used by the Investigator under Cognitive Interventions

Strategies used by the Investigator to correct the thoughts, perceptions and beliefs using cognitive processes are mainly,

a. Cognitive restructuring
b. Cognitive problem solving skills
c. Thought stopping strategies
d. Three column technique
e. Cognitive mapping

In all these techniques, the Investigator has provide relevant information to correct the faulty logic of students with conduct disorder. Each of the strategy is discussed in detail.

(a) Cognitive restructuring

The term cognitive restructuring is coined by Meichenbaum (1972) which is also referred to as rational restructuring by Goldfried and Weinberg (1974). This technique involves identifying and altering the irrational or negative cognitions, cope with stress situation and to acquire assertive responses. Cognitive restructuring is mainly used when the behaviour problems exhibited by the students with conduct disorders are maintained by an excess of maladaptive thoughts.

The principle behind cognitive restructuring is that what we feel is based on how we think about what is happening. If we change the way of interpreting a predicament we thus change how we feel about it, i.e. one can have choices about how they can react to events in their life. Thus one can avoid annoying and frustrating situations. It is our perception of our experience that determine our reactions.
The steps involved in cognitive restructuring are:

1. Help the individual to identify the feelings in troublesome situations.

2. Encourage to describe the particular situation the one believes is causing the problem (describes exactly what took place).

3. Help to identify the irrational beliefs that are creating suffering.

4. Learns to substitute a variety of coping self statements whose importance and role in affecting the student’s resulting feelings and behaviour will be emphasised by the practitioner.

5. Shift from self defeating thoughts to coping thoughts during simulations and then in vivo problematic situations.

Practice of this shift helps the student learn to view the presence of a self defeating thought as a red light, a cue for an immediate switch to coping thoughts. Through practice a person try to apply the same process to daily life problems. The more one practice confronting their irrational beliefs and illogical thoughts, the more we will notice profound changes in his personal life. Thus cognitive restructuring strategy is a problem solving approach that can make a difference in an individual’s life in a short period of time. This is clearly evident when Forman (1980) reports who that cognitive restructuring has been used to modify aggressive behaviour.

(b) Cognitive Problem Solving

Kazdin (1996) pointed out that cognitive problem solving skills training focuses on the cognitive deficiencies and distortions displayed by students and adolescents with conduct problems in interpersonal situations. The underlying assumption of cognitive problem solving skills training is that the student’s
perceptions and appraisal of environmental events trigger aggressive and antisocial response and that changes in faulty thinking will lead to changes in behaviour. So in this training they were made to use five problem solving steps to identify thoughts, feelings and behaviours in social problem situations and to generate solutions to them. The five basic steps proposed by Thomas D’Zurilla and Marvin Goldfried and used by the investigator for planning the intervention are:

1. Adopting a problem-solving orientation.
2. Defining the problem and setting goals
3. Generating alternative solutions
4. Deciding on the best solution
5. Implementing the solution and evaluating its effects

Successful completion of each stage depends on skills and information learned in previous stages. If difficulty is encountered in later stages, it may be necessary to return to previous stages. Variety of techniques were used to teach problem solving to students with conduct disorder. They include modeling, prompting, self instructions, brainstorming and reinforcement. In the early stages, the investigator had employed cognitive modeling to demonstrate the problem solving process. Later the students were able to do along with the guidance of the teacher. At the end the students had become masters in problem solving process.

(c) Thought Stopping Strategies

It is observed that students with conduct disorder exhibit conduct problems as they are having some unwanted, disturbing thoughts in their minds. So thought stopping strategy is confined to decrease the frequency and duration of disturbing thoughts by interrupting them and substituting pleasant thoughts for them. This
technique has two phases: (1) first the individual is asked to concentrate on the troublesome or unpleasant thoughts which are then stopped by means of interruption such as loud noise, hand clap or a whistle or the word ‘stop’ by the student. (2) then focusing on pleasant thoughts, that compels with the disturbing thought. The word ‘stop’ is said with a sharp jolting expression as if warning of imminent danger.

The two phases of thought stopping procedure is similar to aversion – relief therapy because it simultaneously decelerates undesirable target behaviour and accelerates alternative desirable target behaviour.

(d) Three Column Technique

The Investigator used the three column technique as a homework procedure to identify errors in thinking. A sheet of paper is divided into three columns. In the first column the student writes the problem situation, in the second the automatic thoughts that come to the mind during problem situation and in the third, logical errors in these thoughts. Later the student was asked to phrase the automatic thoughts as hypotheses to be tested empirically.

(e) Cognitive Mapping

In this strategy, students with conduct disorders are made to visualise the whole incident, which they consider as the troublesome/problematic situation. If it is possible draw a rough sketch of the event and write all the things about the incident, the student remembers. After visualising the situation, the student should be able to analyse and list down each unwanted/disturbing thought that came to the mind, during the problematic situation. After listing down the thoughts he/she has to write the consequence of each thought. Realising the negative consequences of the undesirable
thoughts, the student will be able to incorporate pleasant thoughts just as in thought stopping strategy. The investigator acted as a guide by giving clues/hints for analysing consequences and changing the thoughts.

7.1.2.2 Affective intervention strategies

The thoughts and behaviours as well as the interactions with others have a feeling dimension. Therefore feelings can be the source or at least a significant part of the problem one experience. This is the case of students with conduct disorder. But if a person is taught how to express feelings, how to identify or discriminate between feelings, and how to alter or accept feelings, the above problems can be solved. That means, when a student with conduct disorder is taught all the three steps mentioned, he will be able to express the feelings in terms of desirable behaviours rather than undesirable ones. The intervention strategies that emphasise on the emotional context that give rise to thoughts, beliefs or behaviours rather than thoughts or behaviour patterns are commonly referred to as affective intervention strategies.

MAJOR AFFECTIVE INTERVENTION STRATEGIES USED BY THE INVESTIGATOR

The strategies that emphasised on emotional context and aimed at the emotional development of an individual are listed below. They are:

a. Bibliotherapy
b. Life space interviewing
c. Reality therapy
d. Attribution retraining
e. Three column technique

The details regarding each strategy are discussed.
(a) Bibliotherapy

Bibliotherapy is a teaching technique where reading materials like paper clippings, stories, biographies and other books related to problematic situations are given to students with conduct disorder. These reading materials help the students to understand themselves and their problems in a better way. Students were made to see how the characters in the books learn to cope with problems and situations similar to those faced by the students. Through identifying with the character, the students release emotional tensions and achieve a better understanding of themselves and their problems. Characteristics, attitudes, values and situations in the reading materials can also serve as models for the students.

Hoagland (1972) suggested three phases to make bibliotherapy effective. They are identification, catharsis and insight.

1. **Identification**: Students must identify themselves with the characters or see a situation similar to some of their own situations.

2. **Catharsis**: Students must release emotional tensions regarding the problems.

3. **Insight**: Through empathizing with the character, students must reach a better understanding that tempers their emotional drives.

Another approach to bibliotherapy was followed by Cianciolo (1965) which insists five steps.

1. Retell the story read by the student and emphasise incidents, feelings, relationships and behaviour.

2. Discuss changes of feelings, relationships and behaviours.
3. Identify similar events from the students life.

4. Explore the consequences that occurred.

5. Generalise about the consequences or helpfulness of alternative behaviours.

Through bibliotherapy the student should begin to realise that many other people have experienced the same problem and that there is more than one way to solve a problem. Books chosen were according to the need and level of the students. They depicted realistic approaches and life like characters.

The Investigator followed both approaches during bibliotherapy giving more weightage to the approach suggested by Cianciolo (1965).

(b) Life Space Interviewing

Redl (1959) pointed out that of several intervention strategies followed, the one which was developed directly from work with students with behaviour disorders is life space interviewing.

Life space interviewing is a verbal strategy that attempted to structure a situation so that the students worked out the problems independently. The investigator acted as a listener and helper as the students made decisions about who to handle the problem. The steps outlined by Morse (1971) adopted in life-space interviewing and that by the Investigator are:

1. Student has to give his/her own impressions of the occurrence of the incident involving problem, without interruption.

2. Teacher listens without casting judgements. Then asks questions to determine the accuracy of each students perception.
3. If the students cannot resolve the problem agreeably, teacher has to suggest an acceptable plan to deal with it.

4. Students and teacher work together to develop a plan for solving similar problems in future.

Life space interviewing provides emotional first aid at times of stress. Thus this technique is used to reduce the mental tensions and frustration of students with conduct disorder by giving them support during an emotional situation, change behaviour and reinforce behavioural and social rules, enhance self esteem and assist students to solve their own everyday problems by expanding their understanding and insight into their own and others behaviour and feelings. Thus in general, life space interviewing is intended to use when the student is in an aroused state of emotion.

The Investigator behaved politely and maintained eye contact with the students. The Investigator had maintained proper attitude and behaviour throughout the sessions, as it would influence the effectiveness of life space interviewing.

(c) Reality Therapy

A student with behaviour problems is unable to behave responsibly and face reality. With this view in mind Glasser (1965) had developed an approach called ‘Reality therapy’ through with a student with conduct problems is taught how to manage their behaviours and behave responsibly by realising the consequences of irresponsible behaviour.
Glasser (1965) presents a three step format for applying reality therapy.

1. Identify the problem
2. Develop a value judgement
3. Carry out a plan to correct inappropriate behaviour

The Investigator had adopted Glasser’s approach during the intervention programme with a view that it will be beneficial in the case of students with conduct disorder as morality of behaviour is emphasised and the students are taught socially accepted ways to handle problems.

Some of the merits of reality therapy technique are that students are assumed to be responsible for their own behaviour and inappropriate behaviours are not excused. Also Investigator and the student jointly develop a plan to increase the students’ responsible behaviour and the student is encouraged to make a commitment to carry out the plan. The major techniques used in this approach were teaching, employing humour, role play and contracting, where teaching involves comparing of people having realistic behaviour and with unrealistic behaviour, with a view that student should understand the consequences of unrealistic behaviour.

(d) Attribution Retraining

Attributions refer to a person’s beliefs concerning the causes of events. Those who believe in an internal locus of control explain the outcomes of their actions on the basis of their abilities or efforts. In contrast, persons with an external locus of control believe that factors outside their control such as luck, task difficulty determine their fates.
Bryan (1986) noted that students with conduct problems are more likely than normal students to believe that their problems are a function of external factors. So it would be advantageous to induce in such students more positive and self-serving expectations of their strengths in life. As students with conduct problems experience many failures in solving problems, self control, acquiring social skills, etc. they are likely to lack confidence in their abilities and doubt that anything they do will help them overcome their problems. Thus they may lessen their efforts especially when faced with more difficult problems. In other words, repeated failure in solving problems lead the students to believe that they are not capable of overcoming their difficulties and students’ beliefs about their abilities can affect their further accomplishments in life, may even lead to severe conduct problems.

In such a critical situation attribution retraining can help students. Through proper training students can attribute their failures to insufficient effort from their part. Thus realising that the failures they are experiencing can be overcome through persistent effort, students gain confidence and try to work on their own acquiring new skills. This will lead to success in their life.

Investigator followed the instructional sequence in attribution retraining proposed by Ellis, Lenz and Sabormie (1987). It included three steps.

1. Teach students to make statements that reflect effort.
2. Teach students to attribute difficulty to ineffective strategies.
3. Arrange for students to have success with newly learned strategies.

During the retraining, prompting and reinforcement was given while the student’s verbalised the appropriate effort attributions.
(e) Three Column Technique

This is similar to the three column technique used as in cognitive strategy. This is a homework procedure given to the students by the Investigator to identify faulty feelings, occurring during each trouble some situation. At the top of a sheet of paper, the incident occurred is described. After that the sheet of paper is divided into four columns. In the first column the student writes the irrational beliefs occurred in the mind during the incident, in the second, the emotional consequence of that particular irrational belief is written. Third column emphasises on how to dispute the irrational belief that occurred in the mind initially whereas in fourth column, the student has to mention the emotional consequence after disputing the irrational belief. After filling the columns the students are made to compare the emotional consequences of irrational and rational beliefs.

Thus with the help of the Investigator, the students reached a conclusion that positive emotions that keep the mind healthy are outcomes of rational beliefs. So to maintain proper emotional stability, one has to change the irrational beliefs.

7.1.2.3 Other strategies adopted by the investigator for the intervention programme

In addition to the strategies mentioned under cognitive behavioural intervention, social cognitive intervention and cognitive emotional intervention, the Investigator used some additional strategies so as to fulfill the purpose of the intervention programme. They were used individually or in groups depending upon the situation. They were used in between cognitive, and affective strategies also. Major strategies adopted are:
a. Brainstorming

b. Role playing

c. Modelling

d. Assertion training

e. Instructional strategies in moral education

f. Cooperative learning

a. **Brainstorming**

The most common group approach for solving problems and generating ideas adopted by the Investigator during the intervention programme was brainstorming propounded by Alex Osborn (1957). Brainstorming offers certain rules for conducting problem-solving sessions. This is also known as idea production technique, as it generates large number of alternate solutions.

Brainstorming sessions always kept informal so that a creative atmosphere with psychological safety and freedom should prevail in the session. Initially the whole class is divided into groups. Each group is assigned a leader and there will be a common leader who controls the session. In the intervention programme the Investigator acted as the column leader. The leader begins by explaining the procedural rules. After explaining the rules, the specific problem that is to be dealt with is described, and the session begins. Ideally it is a free-wheeling wide ranging affair with ideas coming very rapidly from all sources. All forms of evaluation in between the sessions are forbidden. After discussing the problem in groups, the leader of each group has to present the ideas of the group in the class. Finally all the ideas regarding the problem were consolidated by the Investigator and taught to students.
The real purpose of brainstorming is to overcome various blocks that prevent the individuals from being as productively creative as they might be. This can also inculcate various values in students.

b. Role Playing

Role playing technique was used by the Investigator along with different intervention strategies. That means it was a common strategy used in some of the sessions.

In role playing, students assume the role of a character and act out brief episodes that involves a problem. In each session, only some students are role players and remaining are observers. But it was taken care that all the students who attended the intervention programme were given equal chance to become role players. The role playing process involved four steps.

1. Identification of a specific problem.

2. After the description of the problem, role must be established and assigned to various students.

3. Role playing takes place. The same situation can be repeated several times with different students to present many solutions to a single problem.

4. Discussion follows, focusing on the role or behaviour rather than students portraying it.

Thus through role playing the student faced reactions of other people and learned ways to cope with similar situations.
c. Modelling

Just like role playing, modeling was also used along with different intervention strategies especially during skills training like social skills training and cognitive problem solving training. Modeling is based on observation learning theory of Albert Bandura. It refers to procedures in which the student observes a person demonstrating some behaviour or skill from which the student can benefit.

The students with conduct disorders are unable to exhibit desirable behaviours in social situations as they lack proper social models. So in the present intervention programme the Investigator presented both live models and symbolic models. Live modelling was done by Investigator and symbolic models are observed on albums, in books, and through oral description. Mythology and fairy tales are rich, time honoured sources of culturally shared symbolic models. Thus by observing the social models, the students with conduct disorder is able to imitate their behaviours. The three stages of modeling were practiced in different sessions which involved exposure to model’s behaviour, acquisition of model’s behaviour and acceptance of model’s behaviour.

d. Assertion training

Assertive behaviours are actions that secure and maintain what one is entitled to in an interpersonal situation without infringing on the rights of others. A student with conduct disorder lacks these behaviours and so they behave aggressively in social situations. To reduce the aggressiveness and to develop an active orientation to life, assertion training was given by the Investigator to students with conduct disorder,
who is characterised by low self concept, lack of communication skills and rejection by peers.

Assertion training is a training procedure used to teach students how and when to behave assertively, i.e. to develop the art of saying ‘no’ without being aggressive and feels free to reveal oneself. Thus assertion training stresses on what we can do to change ourselves now.

The techniques mainly used in the assertion training and implemented in the present intervention programme were role playing, use of imagination, use of reciprocal inhibition principles like relaxation principle.

Thus a student who had undergone assertion training in the intervention programme was able to communicate the feelings in an open, direct way, i.e. saying NO when he/she wants to say NO and saying YES when he/she wants to say YES. They tried to learn how to behave assertively rather than aggressively.

Some of the strategies used to develop assertive skills during the intervention programme were:

a. Practicing elementary behaviours like making eye contact, standing straight, speaking in a loud clear voice.

b. Expressing the feelings in an open direct way.

c. Setting up a time for discussion.

d. Developing the art of saying ‘No’ without being aggressive.

e. Developing the habits of saying I want, I like, I don’t want, or I don’t like.

f. Making requests in proper way.

g. Be prepared to face resistance/criticism.
h. Keep relaxed.

i. Keep self image almost positive

j. Paying attention to important things in life.

Thus a student with conduct disorder learned to manage his/her emotions, to accept criticism to develop self confidence and a positive attitude towards life through the assertion training.

e. Cooperative learning

Cooperating learning is a learner centered instructional process which was used by the Investigator throughout the sessions of the intervention programme. The students with conduct disorder who attended the sessions were divided into small, intentionally formed groups to work independently on well defined learning tasks given throughout the programme. Individual students were held accountable for their performance and the Investigator served as a facilitator or consultant in the group learning processes. Cooperative learning led to group interaction, interdependence among group members, individual responsibility in a group, development of social skills thus maintaining an effective interpersonal relationships with others which is essential for students with conduct disorder. Thus when students with conduct disorder started working together in groups towards a set of goals, they understood the feelings of others, how to react to particular social situations and how to work in a team. So the qualities like cooperation, tolerance, etc. were tried to develop through cooperative learning.
f. Instructional Strategies in Moral Education

Traditionally moral education has been taught mostly by precept and authority. Philosophy and religion supplied the materials for teaching. Wherever there has been formal moral education, other than through religious education, it was through stories, fables, proverbs, biographies, etc. In some of these moral content is explicit whereas some others require explanation or interpretation. Other strategies include inductive-deductive reasoning, discovery approach and moral education through existing subjects. The Investigator had used a hybrid of these approaches in moral education to remedy students with conduct disorders, as they lack the moral values, positive attitudes towards life and the socially acceptable manners or behaviour.

Few of the strategies are discussed in detail.

a. Stories: Stories may be either straight forward narration or they may be in the form of fables. Reasoning can be employed in moral education lessons based on these stories. The Investigator had selected stories according to the development level of the students. The Investigator first began with an introduction based on the theme of the story and then narrated the story. After narration, a few developmental questions related to the story were asked and answers were discussed. At the end the moral contained in the story was elicited from the students and written on blackboard. Stories containing more morals were taken and narrated. At the end an assignment was given either to describe a story or an incident with the same moral discussed in the class.

b. Biographies: Just like stories, biographies were also used as moral lessons. But it was condensed in such a way as to highlight the moral aspects in the life of the
individual. The events are described either sequentially and discussing about the achievements or virtues of the personality or related events were brought together depicting each one of the virtues of great personality.

c. **Inductive-deductive reasoning:** The process of reasoning was made use of in the moral development.

   It is a type of imitation also, i.e. observing an action, drawing the inference (Is it expected to do so or not?) generalises, do the action, practice it until it is transferred as a part of life. Since it is not mere imitation and based on reasoning it will be retained throughout life and reach the autonomous stage much earlier than others. For example, student observing a gathering assembled for a dinner or prayer. Looks the way people sit, stand or do things and reasons why they do so? Realising the need of such a behaviour in a particular situation the student generalises the ideas and try to act according to situations. Arriving at a generalization on the basis of particular facts is inductive reasoning and application of this inductive generalisation is deductive reasoning.

   Incidents related to some virtues were discussed and the Investigator tried to elicit necessity of that particular virtue at home, school or in the society. In the case of biographies, process of inductive-deductive reasoning was used to elicit the moral qualities of the person from few situations illustrating the moral greatness of the eminent person.

d. **Discovery Approach through Science:** In this approach the student is expected to discover for himself the moral principles contained on a subject matter or other
learning experiences offered like situations in daily life, events from newspapers, proverbs and parables are situations in which this technique can be employed.

The students were exposed to different situations real or fabricated, involving a moral issue. They were asked to exert themselves to resolve the issue and discover the moral principles on which he bases his solution. In such a process, he gets training in moral thinking. Repetition of the training develops a moral autonomy.

Longback Science was defined as a systematised body of knowledge. But day by day science is getting more complex and comprehensive. Its branches are losing their distinct boundaries. It is getting more and more mysterious. The belief that reason alone can explain why the secret of universe is receding. There seems to be something beyond reason. In an attempt to find out the mystic reasons, science has developed far beyond.

Facts of science by themselves will not be of much help to imbibe worthwhile values in students. Thus everyone realised the importance of including process aspect in science curriculum. Students were made to follow certain processes like observation, experimentation, classification, etc. while mastering the concepts in science. These processes led to the emergence of new concepts, which further led to more experiments and observation. This indicates the dynamic nature of science. One of the goals of science teaching is injecting this dynamism in the minds of students to search the truth behind different phenomenon existing in the universe. A way to inject this dynamism is to train the students to follow scientific method. Scientific method helps in developing scientific thinking, virtues such as patience, intellectual honesty, curiosity, perseverance, judgement, truth, problem solving ability, etc. Scientific
method is not a prerogative of only the men of science, it is necessary for all men, whatever may be their pursuit in life. Closely allied with the scientific method is the development of scientific attitude, which has many attributes such as keen observation, open mindedness, intellectual curiosity, belief in cause and effect relationship and an aversion to dogma and superstition. In the absence of scientific attitude, the method of science will not succeed. Both these go by a single name ‘scientific temper’ which is a value based on scientific thinking and reasoning. Attributes of scientific temper are closely related to other moral values. This indicates the practical function of science in inculcating values.

With this particular idea in mind, the investigator has adopted an experimental approach while teaching scientific concepts. In the experimental approach, various experiments were performed by the students themselves. Each experiment has a moral principle behind. After performing the experiment the investigator elicited the moral principle behind it, which was followed by discussion.

**7.1.2.4 Main features of the Remedial Programme**

The remedial programme developed was based on the objectives of the study, the theories and principles propounded by various researchers and the unique nature of conduct disorder. The environment during remediation was very informal so that the students can interact freely. However a firm schedule (time frame) was followed in order to complete the task. As the students were encouraged to interact with each other they got opportunity to understand each other. As the sessions progressed there was simultaneous improvement of social skills, communication skills, self concept, problem solving skills, emotional self control, etc.
Altogether there were sessions which consisted of two phases. Phase I included 55 sessions and Phase II included 53 sessions. Sessions were arranged even on holiday so as to continue the contact with students. In between, certain Sundays, Saturdays and week days were avoided due to their terminal examination.

Sessions have the following features.

1. Each session has a specific objective.

2. Activities/strategies used in each session were arranged in a sequential order starting from simplest skill to complex skill.

3. Students progress to the next session after achieving the objectives of previous session.

4. Sessions were of 1½ hours duration and it covered only one component of a skill.

5. Wherever possible, the skills studied in the previous session were incorporated.

6. Students were encouraged to interact freely and whenever difficulty in developing a skill occur, self correction was done.

7. Before starting each session, the students were asked to review the previous sessions.

8. Revision of skills taught were done before going to new skills.

9. Each session incorporated multilearning activities.

10. Session provided opportunities to practice situations which one has to confront in real life.
11. Sessions are controlled by the investigator even though students are the key components of the sessions.

12. Activities used for individual subjects depended upon the ability of the particular student and the accuracy with which he is acquiring the skill.

13. During the practice, acknowledge the contributions and assistance of the student.

14. While practicing communicating skills, students were made to use the appropriate and effective language.

15. Different situations were created inside the classroom to teach skills like greeting teachers, parents and elders, how to listen carefully and how to answer questions back.

16. Role play was conducted to enact different situations involving social skills.

7.1.2.5 Strategies Used for Developing Different Skills and Subskills

(a) Social Skills

Each session related to social skills started with an orientation about social skills, need of developing various social skills, different social skills that should be acquired at home, school and community interaction. After preparing the students for the session activities were started. The general strategies used to develop social skills and communication skills during the intervention programme are as follows.

1. The students were enabled to listen the oral description given by the investigator regarding each social skill.

2. Students were made to observe the demonstration of social skills done by the investigation and socially accepted peers as live models.
3. In addition to live models, symbolic models like models from television, history, mythologies, fairy tales, pictorial models, etc. were also used.

4. Students were asked to observe the demonstration and enact the skill.

5. They were also made to repeat verbally the steps required to ensure that the students have memorized the steps in sequence and can instruct themselves in what to do next.

6. Structured practice regarding each social skill was emphasized.

7. Instructions given during practice of skill should be simple and structured.

8. Self corrections were encouraged.

9. Skills were practiced individually as well as in groups.

10. Group activities were highly encouraged so as to improve the social contacts.

11. During social skills training students were exposed to both live models and symbolic models depending on the situation and the skill.

12. Praise the student if they exhibit appropriate social behaviour in the presence of others.

(b) **Assertive Skills and Communication Skills**

Assertive skills are behaviours that serve the function of expressing wants, needs, opinions or rights (Wehmeyer, Agran and Hughes, 1999). These skills teach a person to express positive and negative feeling appropriately, initiate conversations and end conversations at the right time and express their opinions properly. Assertive skill includes both observable and non-observable components. Observable components include content of a verbal interaction, vocal characteristics and non-verbal characteristics of interaction like facial expression and body posture.
Non-observable skills include knowledge, beliefs and other self management skills that are component skills of self determination. For remediation both areas i.e. overt and covert components were considered, as these components are parts of other skills also mentioned in this study. While teaching and practicing assertive skills, the following techniques were adopted.

1. In the beginning the students were made to discriminate between assertive, passive and aggressive behaviours.

2. Role plays were conducted to show how people express their wants and needs and how others react with different expressions.

3. The differences between the three styles of communication were illustrated by the investigator.

4. The three styles of communication were practiced by the students.

5. Students were made to keep their voice calm i.e. to speak up, but not shouting.

6. They were asked to listen to their pitch and tone of voice.

7. Students were encouraged to speak clearly, audibly and calmly.

8. While communicating with others, they were taught how to make eye contact, good posture and have a pleasant look on the face.

9. Students were made to realise that interrupting with other people makes them angry and hence wait for their turn to speak. If one have a hard time getting a word in, lift the finger/hand to show that, he/she wants to say something.

10. The students were taught how to interpret the meaning of statements spelled out by others during conversations.
11. Encourage the students to maintain politeness and respect during conversation with others.

12. Students were taught to listen to others’ views and do not hurt others physically and emotionally.

13. While talking with others, students were made to use ‘I’ statements such as I understand, I feel that, I want, I need or I can. This allows a person to express feelings without placing blame on others.

14. In between the students are made to constantly evaluate the risks and benefits of acting in an assertive manner.

15. Practice the students to speak in a firm tone.

16. Students were shown how to keep comfortable distance with others while speaking.

17. Students were made to see that they are able to match the face with their emotion they are having and what they are saying.

18. While talking students were encouraged to speak fluently i.e. using words in an efficient manner.

19. Students were made aware that making requests and expressing negative feelings should be done at the right time.

20. They were made clear that most importance should be given to the message conveyed.
7.1.2.6 Objectives of the Sessions in the Intervention Programme

1. Objective 1: To introduce oneself and introducing other people.
2. Objective 2: To understand oneself, one’s strength and weakness
3. Objective 3: To improve listening skills
4. Objective 4: To reduce the lying behaviour of the student
5. Objective 5: To reducing the stealing nature.
6. Objective 6: To understand people around.
7. Objective 7: To know and express the feelings.
8. Objective 8: To gain insight into their attitudes and values.
9. Objective 9: To develop rational thinking
10. Objective 10: To explore a subject matter in varied ways
11. Objective 11: To analyse the consequences of destroying the property of others
12. Objective 12: To familiarize oneself.
13. Objective 13: To improve the presentation of oneself.
14. Objective 14: To interact effectively with peers.
15. Objective 15: To interact with the teachers.
16. Objective 16: To start and maintain a conversation.
17. Objective 17: To avoid social discomfort while interacting with others.
18. Objective 18: To make friendship.
19. Objective 19: To develop cooperation and team spirit
20. Objective 20: To solve problems in daily life
21. Objective 21: To self monitor oneself
22. Objective 22: To feel free to reveal himself.
23. Objective 23: To communicate with people at all levels.
24. Objective 24: To act in a way self esteem increases.
25. Objective 25: To develop the art of saying ‘no’ without being aggressive.
26. Objective 26: To mould one to accept criticism and failure without much anxiety and tension.
27. Objective 27: To develop self confidence
28. Objective 28: To develop positive attitude towards life.
29. Objective 29: To improve voice and modulation.
30. Objective 30: To maintain an eye contact with the person whom one is communicating.
31. Objective 31: To develop appropriate gestures and expression while communication.
32. Objective 32: To develop negotiation skill.
33. Objective 33: To give and follow instructions
34. Objective 34: To understand the feeling of others.
35. Objective 35: To share something and helping others.
36. Objective 36: To keep out of fights
37. Objective 37: To use self control
38. Objective 38: To avoid trouble with others
39. Objective 39: To make a complaint and answer a complaint
40. Objective 40: To respond to persuasion
41. Objective 41: To deal with group pressure.
42. Objective 42: To decide on something to do.
43. Objective 43: To set a goal according to your abilities.
44. Objective 44: To concentrate on a task
45. Objective 45: To release tensions through reading materials related to life.
46. Objective 46: To explore the consequences of a problem behaviour.
47. Objective 47: To develop a plan to solve a problem in life.
48. Objective 48: To list out socially accepted behaviours
49. Objective 49: To get rid of feelings of inferiority and inadequacy
50. Objective 50: To explore different solutions for a problem
51. Objective 51: To work for a common goal in a team.
52. Objective 52: To enhance the thinking process
53. Objective 53: To develop the ability to face real life situations.
54. Objective 54: To make them judge the difference between aggressive and assertive behaviours.
55. Objective 55: To make them understand how choice of words, tone of voice, and different situations can change the interpretation of meaning.
56. Objective 56-60: To understand the nature of science in developing values.
57. Objective 61: To understand how the lives of great scientists influence our life.
58. Objective 62: To develop scientific temper as a value
59. Objective 63: To improve the ability to observe.
60. Objective 64: To enhance open mindedness
61. Objective 65: To develop the ability for reasoning.
SAMPLE LESSONS

SAMPLE SESSION – 1
UNDERSTANDING RELATIONSHIP

(OBJECTIVE – 6)

OBJECTIVES

1. Identify the difference between a stranger, acquaintance, and friend.

2. Identify the difference in how you behave around strangers, acquaintances, and friends.

MATERIALS NEEDED

Paper, Book, pens.

INSTRUCTIONAL FORMAT

This topic will involve discussion of different relationships people have. Before a person can work on making friends, it is important to understand the difference between the various relationships we have. How we act around a stranger (a person we do not know) and an acquaintance (we may or may not know his name, but we have spoken to him and have seen him on a regular basis) is going to be different from how we act around a friend (a person we do things with, trust, and feel close to). The investigation also discussed other relationships we have with family members and peers.

1. Discuss the different relationships we have with people around us. Talk about strangers, acquaintances, friends, and other people who are close to us (family peers, etc). To test the student’s understanding of the concept, ask about different people they might run into a daily basis. For example: At work there is a woman who you see a few times a week. You don’t remember her name, but you talk about football and weather. Is she stranger, acquaintance or friend? Acquaintance.

You are standing in line at the store. You have never seen the person in front of you, but she starts talking to you, is she stranger, acquaintance, or friend? Stranger.
George, a man you have known at church for five years, is in the hospital. You go out to lunch with him once a month after church, go to the movies or some other activity a few times a year, and you feel that you can tell him personal things about your life. You want to visit him. Is he a stranger, acquaintance or friend? Friend.

2. Discuss the appropriate behaviour around different people. This topic is especially important for people who have intellectual disabilities. Moreover, focus on how you would behave around people at work versus outside of work. For example, because you want to be able to get along with the people you work with, you may want to get to know some strangers at work. You are probably not going to try to get to know strangers in a store. Another example is that you may enjoy with friends when you see them outside of work, but you probably should not enjoy with that person except for certain circumstances when you are at work. When discussing strangers and acquaintances, it is important to point out that some of the guidelines about touching and how much you talk to a person apply to situations outside of work. For example, you never enjoy with a stranger or acquaintance no matter where you are. And, you do not talk much to people you do not know.

**SIGNS OF GENERALIZATION**

Students keep appropriate physical boundaries with people at work. They do not enjoy with all people. They act appropriately at work around those people who are friends (i.e., he is not hanging around that person all the time).
SAMPLE SESSION – 2

MAKING FRIENDS

(Objective – 18)

OBJECTIVES

1. Identify what characteristics are important in a friend.

2. Identify what a good friend does.

3. Identify the things to consider when making friends at work

4. Identify the things to consider when making friends outside of work.

5. Practice skills that help people make friends.

INSTRUCTIONAL FORMAT

This topic will involve discussion and practice of skills to make friends. It is important to talk about the importance of making friends in and out of work. It is important to convey to the students that they have a limited time to make friends in class (breaks and outside of work). It is going to take time to get to know people if you are just hanging out during breaks. On the other hand, when you are trying to make friends outside work, you have to seek people out by getting involved in other activities. Remind students that not everybody is going to want to be friends with them. So, no matter what efforts they make, not all relationships are going to work out.

1. Make a list of characteristics (funny, nice, good looking, etc.) of people they would like to have friends. To help the discussion, use characters on television as examples. Have the students say why they would like to be friends with that person and why.
2. Discuss the types of things friends do for one another. Point out what to look for when a person is not being a good friend.

3. Discuss the issues around making friends at work. Some issues include:
   - When you are in class, you have a limited time to build the relationship. You should not be too pushy with the relationship. Let the friendship develop gradually through getting to know the person during breaks and doing things outside class.
   - Just because you study with someone, it does not mean that you will automatically be friends. Some people may not be interested.
   - Peers probably are going to have other friends at and outside the class.
   - Class time is for study. You do not want to get in trouble by spending a lot of time socializing while you are supposed to be studying.
   - Some people can chit-chat while they study and still get the work done. Some people cannot.
   - Even though it may be appropriate for friends to enjoy, play jokes on each other, or talk about personal things outside school, it probably is not going to be appropriate to do that kind of thing during studying, even on breaks.

4. Discuss issues around making friends outside school. Some issues include:
   - You have to find people who you can meet. This can be difficult. But some ideas for places to meet people are at worship places, in the neighbourhood, at community centers, or any other places you may find activities that you enjoy.
• Building friends outside school takes time and effort. Remind students that people have other activities such as work and other interests. Thus, you cannot expect a friend to hang around with you whenever you want.

5. Role-play situations of meeting people, engaging in small talk, and asking someone to do something. Use instruction, modeling, role-play and feedback. Make sure to talk about cues that a person can pick up if the other person is not interested. For example, the person avoids you, is not interested in what you have to say, consistently refuses to do things with you, and generally is not interested in your life. Help the students understand that not everybody is going to want to be friends.

SIGNS OF GENERALIZATION

Students are getting along with co-workers. They are appropriate in their relationships a school. They are not intrusive, have healthy relationships in and out of school and their relationships, or lack thereof, do not interfere with work. Students are observed introducing themselves and asking people to do thing outside school. The investigator assisted in this process by prompting students to go up and talk to people they do not know. They investigator has given some coaching prior to the students practicing skills in a real situation.

TIPS FOR INTRODUCING (Based on objective 1)

1. Decide when it is a good time to do it. Provide different scenarios such as during work time, while the person is talking to a supervisor, during break, while the person has a large group of people at their house, during usual meal times, while the person looks like they are busy with something or someone, etc.
2. Approach the person while keeping good personal space.

3. Look the person in the eye.

4. Extend your hand for a handshake (may have to practice giving a good handshake).

5. Say something like “Hi, my name is ____________________. What is yours?”

6. Say something like “Pleased to meet you.”

ENGAGING IN SMALL TALK

1. Decide when it is a good time to do it. Provide different scenarios such as during work time, while the person is talking to a supervisor, during break, while the person has a large group of people at their house, during usual meal times, while the person looks like they are busy with something or someone, etc.

2. Approach the person while keeping good personal space.

3. Look the person in the eye.

4. Say hello or some other greeting.

5. Talk about the weather, ask the person how he is doing, what he is doing on the weekend, etc.

6. Listen to what the other person has to say.

7. Ask further questions or provide information that is relative to the topic.

8. At the end of the conversation, say something like “It’s been nice talking to you, I will talk to you later.”
Asking someone to do something.

1. Decide when it is a good time to do it. Provide different scenarios such as during work time, while the person is talking to a supervisor, during break while the person has a large group of people at their house, during usual meal times, while the person looks like they are busy with something or someone, etc.

2. Decide what you would like to do and when

3. Approach the person while keeping good personal space.

4. Look the person in the eye.

5. Say hello and ask the person how she is doing

6. Allow the person to respond and make any conversation she wants to.

7. After finishing the small talk, ask the person if she would like to do the activity you decided on.

8. Be flexible. Allow the person to make other suggestions about the activity or time.

9. If the person accepts, tell her that you are pleased and can’t wait until the activity. If the person declines, don’t take it personally. You can’t be friends with everybody.
SAMPLE SESSION – 3

SOLVING PROBLEMS

(Objective 20)

OBJECTIVE

Identify the steps in a standard process to solve problems and make decisions.

INSTRUCTIONAL FORMAT

Problem-solving is a cognitive skill that is difficult for many people, regardless of intelligence. After working through the problem-solving process, discuss handling problems in a crisis situation. The process that is presented below is frequently credited to D’Zurilla and Goldfried (1971).

1. Instruct the students on the process to solve a problem or make a decision. The investigator has written the steps on the board.

1) Define the problem – A person cannot solve a problem until he clearly understands and identifies the problem. Try to label the problem in precise and concrete terms. For example, “My brother can’t drive me to school as I have to reach school early today” identifies a problem. However, it may or may not be a problem depending on other factors. The definition above describes the cause of a potential problem. Rephrasing the problem to “How will I go to school?” puts the focus of the problem-solving on getting to school rather than on the fact that the brother stood you up. The fact that your brother can’t drive you to school may not be a problem if you have other alternatives. When your brother told you he could not drive affects the significance of the problem. If he told you two days ago, you have less of a
problem. A better definition of the problem is “I have to go to school early today. There is no bus at that time.

2) Develop alternative solutions – This is better known as brainstorming. No idea is a bad one. Each idea could be a possible solution. Try to predict your ability to accomplish each solution and predict the consequences. Using the example above, you may consider calling a taxi. In evaluating this alternative, factors such as cost and whether the taxi can get you to work on time would need to be considered. Have the class generate solutions to solve the problem proposed above.

3) Make a decision and execute – Pick the best solution and solve the problem using the solution you picked. Have the class pick the best solution to get to work on time.

4) Evaluate the outcome – This is where a lot of learning takes place. If the outcome was successful, then the person learns that this is a good solution if the problem arises again. If it was unsuccessful, the person knows that it would be best not to try that solution in the future.

2. Pose various problems to the students and have them use the process from above to solve the problem. Use a marker board to write the alternative solutions the class generates. If necessary, the trainer should model this process again for further instruction. The problems below may be defined well enough to complete the first step in the process. However, always clarify and ask “What is the problem?” Let the students work through the process as independently as possible.
Once they pick a solution and decide how to execute it, present a likely outcome for them to evaluate.

- You see your best friend at school take some money that does not belong to him.
- Your teacher scolds you for unnecessary reasons
- Your father devices permission to go for play during a holiday.
- You break some thing at school
- Somebody at school borrowed Rs. 500 from you and has not paid you back.

3. Discuss solving a problem in a crisis. What is a crisis for some people is not a crisis for others. Ask for examples of what the students consider crises. With the help of the students, discuss why it is difficult to make decisions during a crisis. To begin with, decisions that need to be made tend to be harder to make. This could be why a person is in crisis. They have put off making a tough decision or solving a problem until it was an emergency situation. One example is not deciding to go to the doctor for minor chest pains until the chest pains are unbearable. Another problem with making decisions in a crisis is people tend to be emotional, making it difficult to think clearly. A third problem with making decisions during a crisis is that they often need to be made in a hurry. This leaves less time to develop possible solutions. Discuss other factors that the students contribute.

- If a crisis does develop, try to stay as calm as possible. Keeping a cool head will increase the likelihood that you will make good decisions.
• Take as much time as possible to make a decision. Even if you are under a time crunch, it may be better to make the right decision a little late than a wrong decision early.

• Get assistance. Rely on other people to help you through the crisis.

**SIGNS OF GENERALIZATION**

Students are using good decision-making and problem-solving skills in everyday life. As much as possible, training on these skills should occur outside of the classroom. Students should be encouraged to seek the assistance of adults when they encounter problems. This will allow adults to coach them through the decision-making process. By using a process, students will improve the decisions they need to make.
SAMPLE SESSION – 4
MODIFIED PROBLEM-SOLVING PROCEDURES
(Objective – 20)

OBJECTIVE

1. Identify the steps in a modified process to solve problems and make decisions.

INSTRUCTIONAL FORMAT

This lesson will provide additional problem-solving procedures for those students who may find the standard process too complex. Researchers have been successful in training people with developmental disabilities to problem solve (Hughes, Hugo, & Blatt, 1996, Hughes & Rusch, 1989, Park and Gaylord, 1989). Students will learn best if they try to solve real-life problems instead of hypothetical problems. These are some “real-life” problems suggested, but they may be difficult to implement. Hypothetical problems also are suggested.

1. The process described below was shown to work with people with severe mental retardation to solve problems (Hughes, 1992). Trainers should utilize self-instruction training to train students in this process. Use an example of spilling a bucket of water at work to demonstrate this process.

   1. State the problem – “The floor of my class is wet. It is dangerous”.
   2. Make a generic response to fix the problem – “I need to clean it up”.
   3. Make a specific response to fix the problem – “I need to mop the floor.
   4. Provide as self-reinforcement – “Good job”.

2. Posed the following problems to the students and train them to use this process when solving the problem. Instead of describing the steps as they are listed above, use
the following prompts: What is the problem? What do you need to do? How are you going to do it? Did you fix the problem? Did you do a good job?

- During vocational training, assign a task to a student, but do not give him all of the materials to complete the task.

- Bring some type of battery-operated gadget (flashlight, toy, radio) with dead batteries in it. Have a student try to turn it on. Prompt her to try to figure out the problem. Have different types of batteries on hand.

- Bring a television to class. Set it up, but do not plug it in. Tell the class that they are going to watch a short video. When it does not turn on, ask a student for assistance.

3. If these problem situations cannot be practiced in the classroom, pose the following hypothetical situations for the students to try to work through.

- You just missed your bus to take you to school

- Teacher tells you to clean the class but your friends wants you to come for play. You want to go to play.

- A friend keeps trying to borrow money from you. He never pays you back and you never have enough money to buy things you need.

4. Discuss a final strategy for solving problems.

- Who should I talk to?

- Where should I look for help?

- What should I say?

- When will the problem be solved?
Have the students answer these questions in an attempt to solve any of the problems in this lesson or the previous one. Have the students actually practice what they will say to the person from whom they are getting help.

**SIGNS OF GENERALIZATION**

Students are using good-decision making and problem-solving skills in everyday life. As much as possible, training these skills should occur outside of the classroom. Students should be encouraged to seek the assistance of trainers when they encounter problems. This will allow trainers to coach them through the decision making process. By using a process, students will improve the decisions they need to make.
SAMPLE SESSION – 5
CRIMINAL VIOLATIONS
(Objective 46)

OBJECTIVES

1. Identify at least 10 illegal acts.

2. Identify at least two consequences of illegal behaviour.

INSTRUCTIONAL FORMAT

This lesson will provide information on behavior that is illegal. Hopefully, students have an understanding of “right and wrong”. Developing skills in the area of anger management, assertiveness, and problem solving will help students avoid some situations in which they may be vulnerable to committing crimes. This lesson should serve as a reminder and an opportunity to think through all of the consequences of illegal behavior.

1. Discuss criminal violations. Have the students list as many violations of the law as possible. Write these on the marker board. Remind students that use and possession of illegal drugs, driving without a license, hitting someone, not paying child support, and public drunkenness are violations of the law. Inform students that when people are under the influence of alcohol or illegal drugs, the likelihood of engaging in illegal behavior is greatly increased.

2. Discuss the consequences of criminal behavior. The discussion should cover time in jail, loss of money due to lawyer fees, fines, and time away from work, potential loss of a job and difficulty obtaining employment in the future. Inform students that illegal behavior could lead to the termination of their jobs.
3. Discuss the perception that some people think it is OK to commit an illegal act if other people around them are engaging in a similar behavior. People often think it is OK to use illegal drugs, drive while under the influence of alcohol, steal from work, and cheat on taxes because their friends, neighbors, and family do it. Remind students that it is not wise to break a law because they disagree with it or because other people do it and do not get caught. A law is a law, and if they get caught, there will be consequences.

SIGNS OF GENERALIZATION

Most people who commit illegal activity understand that the behavior is against the law and could result in consequences. Thus, the information taught in this lesson is not going to necessarily generalize to the prevention of illegal behavior on the part of students. As mentioned earlier, skills such as anger management, assertiveness, and problem solving will provide the best defense against the temptations of illegal behavior.
SAMPLE SESSION – 6

(Objective - 64)

Purpose

1. To make them judge the difference between aggressive and assertive behavior.

2. To make them understand how choice of words, tone of voice, and different situations can change the interpretation of meaning.

Activity

A particular situation is described. Tell how you will react to it. You went to a hotel with one of your friend. There you asked for South Indian meals. While you were eating, you found a worm in your plate. How will you react in this situation.

Method

Step 1 : Explain the activity is the participants by saying that this will help them for changing their aggressive behavior.

Step 2 : Just imagine the scene, in which the students are asked to think of a situation where he / she went to a hotel with his / her friend. There they found a worm in the plate. As you are host you feel you should do something about the situation. Each participant is given a note where they can write the possible response. They should explain why they have chosen such a decision/response.

Step 3 : Each participant has to read his response. Participants having almost similar responses are grouped together. They are divided into three
groups, one whose responses are in an aggressive manner, second in a passive manner and third group who have given an assertive response.

**Step 4**: After grouping the participants, each member of the group has to read the response and also mention the reason for the choice of the response. Members of the other group have an opportunity to question the response and they can suggest the consequences for the response.

**Step 5**: Record the consequences of each type of response and then prepare a chart with three column writing the consequences for the three aggressive response, passive response and assertive response.

The children were very cooperative during the discussion. They interacted properly and explored different consequences of aggressive and passive response. Thus they came to a conclusion that assertive responses are better than aggressive and passive responses as it more socially acceptable.
SAMPLE SESSION – 7

(Objective 52)

Sometimes we feel, “if I would have been the prememinister, I would have done ………..”. But when we face actual situations, we act in a different manner. This activity will put youth such a condition in which all your suggestions will be acceptable, and it make you feel the touch of real situation.

OBJECTIVES:
1. To enhance the thinking process.
2. To develop the ability is are real life situations.

Method:
Step 1: Discuss with students some real life situations, like kidnapping cases attacks, thefts etc.

Step 2: Explain a real life situation to think over.

“A team of 10 trekkers from a college have gone to explore beautiful treks in a remote area. Suddenly they are kidnapped by a group of terrorists. Fortunately one of the members of the trekking team has a mobile on which he is able to send an SMS to the college principal to rescue them at the earliest, other wise terrorists might kill them header of the terrorist group has also sent a warning to principal of the college about their act and told that the team members will be killed unless their demands are met within next three hours. Imagine yourself to be the principal of the college and it is your responsibility to take an immediate decision. What will you do?

Step 3: Ask them to write all the possible solutions in a paper.

Step 4: Divide them into groups and discuss all the solutions.

Step 5: End up the activity with discussing the reasons of terrorism in the world and possible ways of overcoming it.
SAMPLE SESSION – 8

(Object 4)

Aim: To reduce the laying behaviour of a student.

Theoretical background

Lying is one of the major characteristics of aggressive behaviour leading to delinquency. This is mainly used to escape from a real life situation. Repeated lying indicates the conduct problem in a child. A child may learn the habit of laying from adults who are in the habit of exaggeration their achievements. A child may also lie to win praise, gain prestige, boost his ego, gain friends, and to escape from punishment or displeasure of parents. Among all these saving themselves from unpleasant situations is the most significant cause.

Strategies/Activities

Step No: 1

The teacher may begin with an appropriate introduction based on the value of truth in daily life.

Step No: 2

The students are asked to write a false story, they are told that one who writes the best false story will be given an incentive. After giving adequate time, the stories and characters are properly analysed. Each student have to give two arguments to show why the particular character in the story behaved in such a way in a situation. Those arguments are collected and discussed. Finally they reach a conclusion about situations where ‘lying’ is inevitably used by people.
Step-3

The teacher narrates the story of the boy who deceived the villagers by shouting ‘wolf – wolf’ when wolf was not there. But when the wolf came readily, even though the boy cried for help, no one turned up to hill the wolf, as he cheated the villagers by lying two times. This story reveals the moral that “nobody will trust a liar”, ie even when the habitual liar tells the truth, no one believes him.

Step- 4:

Number the students and form different groups, each group is given different characters of different stories where they lied is others.

Eg: Huckleberry fin, the nnaliraman

I ago in oliver twist, Yundishtira

Step – 5:

Based on the stories, role plays were conducted by different groups.

Step – 6:

Discuss the consequences of lying.
Objective: To Improve assertive skills

INSTRUCTIONAL FORMAT

This topic will mainly involve modeling and role-playing. The investigator needs to do some instruction prior to modeling the assertive behaviors. The investigator will need to take into account the students' verbal abilities when instructing them on assertive messages. It is important that the students become comfortable in using different types of assertive skills. This unit may need to be broken up into multiple sessions in order to practice the skills thoroughly. It is helpful to video-tape role-plays. If you have the equipment, it is highly recommended.

1. Instruct on the "Tips for Being Assertive." Depending on the audience, a trainer may need to limit the information provided in this handout. The suggested components are marked with an asterisk. The role-modeling should then focus on these areas.

2. Instruct on the three different categories of assertive behavior. Again, depending on the student's comprehension abilities, this information should be modified as needed. According to Cooley and Hollandsworth (1977) and Christoff and Kelly (1985) there are three basic categories of assertive behavior. Use the categories listed below as guides for the content of the different assertive messages. Each student should practice the three different types of assertive behavior.

- Refusal Assertiveness - How to say no at the right time and in the right way
- State your position - "No, I can't."
• Explain your reason - "I have something else to do that day."

• Express understanding - "I hope you can find something else."

These skills should be practiced in the context of a person trying to get the student to do something that is harmful (use drugs, steal, skip work, etc.) or a person trying to get the student to do something when he she has another commitment (work overtime, babysit, work on a day off). Remind students that they have a right to say no whenever they want, but there may be serious consequences (i.e., boss asks you to do a job, police ask you to pull over, etc). The point of saying no is to keep from being taken advantage of or doing something harmful, not to keep from engaging in daily responsibilities. When practicing refusals of harmful behavior, it is not appropriate to make understanding statements (i.e., I hope you have luck getting someone else to snort cocaine). It is most important to focus on the refusal and the reason.

• Expressing Feelings - Telling people how you feel

• Express positive feelings - "You did a great job."

• Express negative feelings - "I am upset by what you did."

There is a unit on expressing negative feelings in the "Anger Management" lesson. In both situations it is helpful to teach the person to give reasons for her feelings, especially when assertively expressing negative feelings. Expressing positive feelings and giving compliments are important skills in building healthy relationships. Complimenting people at work is an excellent way to demonstrate good social skills on the job. It is important for people to distinguish what is appropriate in different
situations. For example, it is not appropriate for people at work to make statements such as "Good job on that project, I love you!"

- Request Assertiveness - To get information, clarification, and ask for what you want
- State the problem - "Boss, you have given two different instructions."
- Make a request - "Can you let me finish one project before starting the other?"
- Getting Clarification - "Can you explain what you want done again?"

Making requests is an important skill, especially on the job site. Remind students that just because they are being assertive, they do not have the right to make any request they want. It is important for students to practice approaching supervisors with different requests. Some examples include getting clarification on an instruction, asking them to do something different when criticizing work (i.e., "please do not yell at me in front of co-workers"), asking for time off, asking for different work, etc. Often times, another form of assertiveness is combined with requests. One example is, "I am upset, please do not yell at me in front of the other workers."

3. Model good assertive skills for each of the three categories of assertive behavior.
   Do it incorrectly every once in a while to see if the students can correct it.

4. Students should role-play multiple scenarios for each of the three categories of assertive behavior. There are some suggested scenarios to role-play under each category of assertive behavior.
SIGNS OF GENERALIZATION

When students encounter a situation that requires assertiveness, they talk to the trainer to get coaching about the approach they will take. The students are making assertive statements most of the time, especially with request assertiveness where the person has time to consider what request he/she needs to make. The students are providing compliments to people around them. The students are not letting people take advantage of them.

TIPS FOR BEING ASSERTIVE

• EYE CONTACT - Make sure the person is more interesting than what is on the floor. Look at the person most of the time. But, do not stare at people 100 percent of the time.

• BODY POSTURE - Try to face the person. Stand or sit up tall. But, don't be a stiff board.

• DISTANCE/PHYSICAL CONTACT - If you smell or feel the other person's breath, you are probably too close. Keep a comfortable distance.

• GESTURES - Use hand gestures to add to what you are saying, but remember that you are not conducting an orchestra.

• FACIAL EXPRESSIONS - Your face should match your emotion and what you are saying. Don't laugh when you are upset and don't have a frown when you are happy. A relaxed, pleasant face is best when you are happy. A relaxed, serious face is best when you are upset.

• VOICE TONE, INFLECTION, VOLUME - When you are making an assertive message, you want to be heard. In order to be heard you have to pay attention to
the tone of your voice (happy, whiny, upset), the inflection of your voice (emphasis on syllables), and volume of your voice (whisper to yell).

• FLUENCY - It is important to get out your words in an efficient manner. If a person stammers or rambles on, the listener gets bored.

• TIMING - When you are expressing negative feelings or making a request of someone, this is especially important. Seven days later may be too long. Doing it right on the spot in front of people may not be the right time to do it. Do it as soon as there is a time for both parties to resolve their issues alone.

• LISTENING - An important part of assertiveness. If you are making statements that express your feelings without infringing on the rights of others, you need to give the other person a chance to respond.

• CONTENT - What a person says is one of the most important parts of the assertive message. Depending on what a person is trying to accomplish, the content is going to be different.
SAMPLE SESSION — 10

IDENTIFY FEELINGS

OBJECTIVES

1. Identify at least three feelings or emotions.
2. Identify the difference between negative ("bad") emotions and negative behavior.

MATERIALS

Feelings chart with pictures of different facial expressions is used.

INSTRUCTIONAL FORMAT

This topic will be discussion-based in which the student will learn about feelings and behaviors. The important point to stress is that all feelings are OK, but negative behaviors as a result of those feelings are not.

1. Identify different types of feelings or emotions. Make a list of as many emotions as possible. Use pictures if students need a visual representation of feelings. Leader and participants can also act out different emotions.
2. Identify different situations in which people feel common emotions such as happiness, sadness, anger, fear, and excitement. Have the participants describe how they behave in those situations.
3. Differentiate between the feelings of anger and the behaviors of anger. Ask if there are any "bad" emotions. Stress throughout the lesson that anger, sadness, etc. are not bad. "It is OK to be angry, but it is not OK to hit, call people names, or yell at people." Spend time discussing and using examples that differentiate bad behavior from "bad" emotions. Have participants provide examples from their own lives.

SIGNOS OF GENERALIZATION

Students should be able to correctly identify their emotions and the emotions of those around them the majority of the time. Look for statements such as "He is laughing, he must be happy," "My grandmother died, I am sad," and "She just lost her job, she is probably angry." Trainers can test people by having them observe others and label their feelings or ask how they are feeling after different events in their life.
OBJECTIVES

1. Identify the differences between good body language and bad body language during conversation.

2. Identify the differences between good body language and bad body language when taking instructions or receiving criticism from a teacher.

3. Practice good body language during a conversation.

INSTRUCTIONAL FORMAT

This topic will mainly involve modeling and role-playing. Begin the lesson by talking about the importance of how one looks on the outside during interactions with others. If a person looks uninterested during a conversation, he will have a hard time making and keeping friends. If a person looks angry or annoyed when her boss tells her to do something, her boss may think she has a bad attitude. It is helpful to videotape role-plays. If you have the equipment, it is highly recommended.

1. Model both bad and good body language during a conversation. Have the students try to identify whether you have good or bad body language. Good body language involves keeping good personal space, making eye contact, sitting or standing up straight, and looking interested. When you are doing the bad role-play, do only one thing wrong (stare at the floor, turn body side-ways, scowl, fidget, rock back and forth, cross arms, slouch, etc.), and see if the students can identify what you are doing wrong.
2. Model both bad and good body language when a supervisor is giving instructions or criticizing. Have the students try to identify whether you have good or bad body language. Good body language involves keeping good personal space, making eye contact, sitting or standing up straight, and looking interested. When you are doing the bad role-play, do only one thing wrong (stare at the floor, turn body side-ways, scowl, point finger, roll eyes, laugh, cross arms, slouch, etc.), and see if the students can identify what you are doing wrong.

3. Instruct students on good body language during conversation and when supervisors are giving orders. Have the students practice the skills in role-plays. The components of good body language during spoken communication mainly involve not doing the bad things mentioned above. But, it is important to talk about the following:

- Eye contact - look at the person the majority of the time.
- Keep still - don't fidget, rock back and forth, play with hair or clothes.
- Personal space - it is hard to talk when you are 10 feet apart, but you do not want to be 6 inches apart either. Generally, 2-3 feet is a comfortable distance for most people.
- Posture - sitting up straight or even leaning toward the speaker lets the person know you are interested. When you slouch, it is not showing good manners and it tells the speaker that you are more interested in relaxing or maybe falling asleep than listening to her.
SAMPLE LESSON — 12

LISTENING SKILL

OBJECTIVES

1. Identify the skills of active listening.

2. Practice the skills during role-play situations.

INSTRUCTIONAL FORMAT

This topic will mainly involve modeling and role-playing. Use the lesson on body language to reinforce the information taught in this topic. Remind the students that effective listening takes practice and effort. There are going to be times when a person does not feel like listening. Inform her that it is probably more courteous to inform the speaker that it is not a good time to talk rather than to pretend to listen. However, on a job site, a person may not have that option and will need to use all of her energy to listen to a supervisor or co-worker. It is helpful to video-tape role-plays. If you have the equipment, it is highly recommended.

1. Ask the participants to list skills that are necessary for effective listening. Use the handout, "Keys to Effective Listening" to aid in the discussion. Make sure to cover each of the major points.

2. Model both bad and good listening skills during role-play conversations. The conversations can be about the weather, sports, what is going on at work, what people are going to do on the weekend or did last weekend, etc.

3. Students should role-play conversations using the skills of effective listening. There are some activities that could be used to practice the skills beyond the role-plays. These activities may not be appropriate for all students, depending on their
functioning level. Trainers should use their judgement in what activities are appropriate for what classes.

- One activity is to give the learner a set of instructions to complete something. This is a good way to test listening and comprehension skills. One skill that can be employed when giving instructions to lower functioning individuals is self-instructional training. This is outlined in the Introduction and in Topic 4 of the "Anger Management" lesson. Self-instruction training requires the listener to repeat what is said as a way to remember the instructions. Initially, the student says the steps out loud. Following practice, the student hopefully will be able to say the instructions in her head. The instructions and activity should be modified for different learning, cognitive, and or physical abilities. Activities should involve two or more steps. For example, (1) pick up the pen, (2) go over to the table where the paper is, and (3) write your name. Or, (1) Go to that table, (2) pick up the ball, (3) bounce it three times, and (4) put it back on the table.

- A second activity is to do the "gossip" game in which a person tells one person a short story (three to four sentences that are written down), the listener then whispers the story to his neighbor, and this continues until the last person tells the story out loud. The object is to see how much the story is changed in the translation. Do this activity. To demonstrate the benefits of effective listening, do the same activity but have the participants use good listening skills rather than just whispering into each others' ears. For the purpose of this exercise, the
leader will take one person out of the room or away from the group and tell a different story. This will allow the speaker and listener to use good skills instead of whispering the story in each other's ear. Once the story is told, the leader calls another student away from the group and observes while the previous listener tells the new person the story. This should continue until all students get a chance to listen. If the group is too big, stop the activity after about five to ten minutes. Gather the whole group together and have the last listener tell the story. The trainer should read the original story so the class can compare. The complexity of the story should be altered depending on the cognitive abilities of the students. Discuss whether the story is translated better in the second exercise.

- A third activity is a version of "Simon Says." During the first round, have the students face away from "Simon" and look at a TV. During the second round, they look at "Simon" and can repeat the instructions (self-instructional training). Discuss whether the students followed directions better the second time around.

**SIGNS OF GENERALIZATION**

Students are observed using good listening skills in most situations. When trainers are speaking with the students outside of class, they can coach the students on the skills they are lacking.
KEYS TO EFFECTIVE LISTENING

• Stop working.
• Stop watching TV.
• Stop reading.
• Look at the person.
• Keep a good distance between you and the speaker.
• Don't turn away from the speaker.
• Sit-up straight.
• Nod your head and make statements such as "uh-uh," "I understand," and "I see what you mean" to show the speaker you truly understand what he/she is saying.
• If you don't understand, let the person know that. Don't fake listen!
• Repeat back phrases to clarify what the person is saying.
• Act like you are interested and ask questions to show that you are interested in what the person is saying.
• Don't interrupt the speaker.
Some of the activities introduced in the sessions as part of intervention programme.

**ACTIVITY-1**

**Aim:** To improve social skill

**Objectives**

- **Group size:** 15-20
- **Time:** 10-15 minutes

**Procedure:** The students are asked to stand in a circle. One of the students is asked to introduce his/her name. While introducing himself he/she has to mention one of his/her ability. The second student has to repeat the first student’s name and ability and his/her own name and ability. At the end of the fifteenth child should say the names and abilities of previous fourteen students and then his/her name and ability, thus accepting others.

**Objectives**

1. To interact with other.
2. To accept the ability of others of a group.

**ACTIVITY-2**

**Objectives:** To reduce lying behaviour.

**Procedure:** Students are asked to sit in a circle. The student who starts, tell something to the next student in a low voice, and this goes on until the last student is reached. The last student has to report what he heard. The first student was asked to say what he told to the second one. Finally they realise the fact that any information when passed through different persons will be transformed into something blurred by adding up of exaggerations.
ACTIVITY-3

**Objective:** To differentiate between desirable and undesirable behaviours.

**Procedure:** A number of cards are prepared with photos of different personalities. Students are asked to differentiate between famous and notorious personalities according to them. They are given chances to substantiate why they consider each one as famous or notorious. What are the characteristics that leads to the categorisation of notorious group is discussed. After discussion, they are asked to note down the traits of both famous and notorious personalities. They also discuss whom do they prefer and reasons behind the preference.

ACTIVITY-4

**Objective:** To improve problem solving behaviour.

**Procedure:** The class is divided into different groups. A situation where the student finds difficulty to solve a problem is discussed. E.g. A boy is in need of Rs. 10. He found Rs. 10 on a desk in his class. He was in a conflict while taking the money. He was confused.

The groups discuss the problem and come out with the consequences if he has taken the money. The consequences are gathered and discussed. Finally different solutions to solve the problem are also discussed in different groups. Different ways of solving a problem is enunciated by different groups and discussed.

Finally for each situation/problem, the students will learn a number of ways of solving the problem.

[NB: Each behaviour is defined in the form of situations/stories and discussed about the consequences and solutions.]
**ACTIVITY-5**

**Objective:** Introducing the neighbour.

**Procedure**

**Step I**  
Explain the purpose of the activity.

**Step II**  
Explain the activity to the participants.

**Step III**  
Explain the condition. The condition is:

(a) The participant has to choose some one who is not known to him/her earlier.

(b) Need not to choose a person who has already been chosen by some one else.

(c) And while introducing, if an individual introduces member A, then he need to be introduced by some one other than A.

(d) Check that everyone is being introduced. None should be left alone.

**Step IV**  
Close the activity by highlighting the advantages of self confidence.

**ACTIVITY-6**

**Objective:** To develop self confidence.

**Procedure**

**Step I:** Ask each participant to speak something about an object which he has brought in the room or anything possessed by them at home.

**Step II:** Allow the members to recall about the qualities, benefits and usage of the object for which they want to speak about.

**Step III:** The teacher should initiate the step by giving an example.
Step IV: Encourage the participants who are feeling difficulty to speak.

Step V: Check that all the participants have at least spoken something.

**ACTIVITY-7**

**Objective:** Skills of listening, reflecting, summarizing, probing and supporting.

**Procedure**

**Step I:** First differentiate between learning and listening.

**Step II:** Divide the whole group into small groups of three persons A, B and C.

**Step III:** Place different groups into different corners of the room, so that one may not distract the other.

**Step IV:** Ask A to discuss a real personal problem. B and C should listen but B should give a possible solution. Ask C to observe.

**Step V:** Tips for developing listening skill are discussed and consolidated by all the groups and read out in the class.

**ACTIVITY-8**

**Objective:** To teach moral principles through science experiments.