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CONFLICT MANAGEMENT: STUDENT SELECTION AND
TRAINING PROCEDURES

University — Université

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

Degree for which thesis was presented — Grade pour lequel cette thèse fut présentée

M. ED.

Year this degree conferred — Année d'obtention de ce grade

1983

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CONFLICT MANAGEMENT: STUDENT SELECTION AND TRAINING
PROCEDURES

by

JAMES CANNIFF

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
OF MASTER OF EDUCATION
IN
COUNSELING PSYCHOLOGY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

Fall, 1983

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

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Dedication

• *FOR EDIE*

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this descriptive study was to investigate student selection and training procedures used during a Conflict Management Training Program. Conflict Management represents a peer counseling program using students to help resolve conflicts between other students in a school system. Student helpers are taught specific micro-counseling skills as well as a clear set of procedural steps.

The literature reviewed provided little information about either Conflict Management Programs or peer counseling at the elementary school level. Support for use of peer counseling at the senior high and college level using short term training programs of 20 to 40 hours was found. Training in micro-counseling skills of empathy, client respect and body language were frequently noted. Training techniques which generally supported the active involvement of the trainee and benefit to the helper in terms of improved self concept were also recorded.

The sample for this study consisted of a total of 25 students in grades five and six from four Edmonton Public School elementary classes. Students were chosen by their schools to participate in the last Conflict Management Training Program of the 1982-83 school year.

Class nominations as gauged through sociograms were compared with school nominations to examine school selection procedures. Trainee micro-counseling skills and learned

procedures were measured using pre-post assessments of demonstrated skills in a mock role-play involving trained confederates. Trainee self concept was also measured utilizing self-administered pre-post test measures. A time period of approximately five weeks elapsed between testing sessions.

Results of this study provided general support for the selection procedures used by schools. A demonstrated difference in trainee micro-counseling skill level and learned procedures was clearly indicated. No change in trainee self concept was noted.

Implications and suggestions for further research emphasized the need for:

1. a comparison study of three frequently used trainee selection procedures; requests for volunteers, faculty nominations, and empirical nominations,
2. the development of personality profiles of successful Conflict Management trainees,
3. the examination, through further research, of the effects of differing variables involved in the Conflict Management formal and informal training program,
4. an evaluation of the effectiveness of Conflict Management techniques upon which the selection and training procedures are based.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My special thanks to Dr. John Paterson for both his support and guidance as my thesis supervisor, as well as personal mentor through these past few years.

Appreciation is also expressed to the following persons:

Dr. Clement King and Dr. Ken Ward, my committee members, for their interest, time and useful comments.

My wife, Edie, for her affection and support during the most difficult times of writing.

Jenny Wong, Kenny Wong, Trudat Luu, and Maria Luc for their excellent role-playing.

My school administrator, Mr. Rod Fay, for his understanding and flexibility.

The training staff and organizers of the Conflict Management Program, for allowing my observations of their work.

Finally, the staff and students of Callingwood, Capilano, Delwood and Keheewin Elementary Schools who participated in making this study possible.

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I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background

School guidance and counseling programs and services ~~have included a broad range of services for students,~~ teachers and parents. Alberta Education's Task Force Report on Guidance and Counseling (1981); indicated that these services and programs,

...should/must:

- a. Enhance the goals of schooling of Alberta Education.
- b. Develop individuality and social responsibility.
- c. Help students become effective problem solvers.
- d. Be available to all students.
- e. Be integrated with the education process.
- f. Be developmental as well as prescriptive or remedial.
- g. Be staffed by personnel with effective planning and evaluation skills.
- h. Provide the separate but related functions of guidance and counseling. (p. iv)

To provide these services and programs human resources within the school system must be readily available and in ample numbers. Several authors, including Brown, Wehe, Zunker and Haslam, 1969; Carr and Saunders, 1980; Fink, Grandjean, Martin and Bertolini, 1978; Hamburg and Varenhorst, 1972; Rockwell and Dustin, 1979; and Wolff, 1969, have attested to the inadequate supply of these skilled personnel in educational settings. Conclusions from the Task Force Report on Guidance and Counseling (1981) indicated "Regretfully, that many Alberta schools do not provide guidance and counseling programs which offer a full range of

services" (p. ix).

Scarce human resources coupled with economically dictated budgetary restraint necessitate the use of innovative approaches towards meeting the needs of counseling and guidance programs.

Peer counseling, a process of using student helpers or facilitators to deal with other students encountering difficulties, has recently gained prominence within school systems (Pyle, 1977; Raiche, 1979; Rapp, Dworkin, Moss, 1978). While many different forms of peer counseling programs exist, the Edmonton Public School Board (EPSB) has most recently begun using one variation known as Conflict Management. Conflict Management established as its objectives to:

- a. Provide a positive alternative for discipline.
- b. Reduce the amount of time teachers, administrators, and counselors spend on conflict.
- c. Reduce tension between students.
- d. Improve school climate.
- e. Prove that students (even disruptive students) can handle sophisticated responsibility.
- f. Provide an opportunity for power orientated children to have a positive impact on the school. (Krenz, 1982, p.1, see Appendix A for complete derivation)

While being a relatively new concept for EPSB, a high interest by schools has been demonstrated. In the 1981-1982 school year, three schools initiated Conflict Management Programs utilizing peer counselors. In the 1982-1983 school year, more than 40 schools received training and began implementation of the concept. However there remained little

or no research regarding this approach, especially as it related to elementary school children.

Of particular interest were both the selection procedures used for identifying "helpers" and the training procedures used. Conflict Management used a brief formal training program which was supplemented by "on-the-job" experience.

B. Purpose of the Study

Three areas of study were indentified. Firstly, did the selection procedures used by schools to choose trainees accurately ascertain those students identified by their peers as leaders within the class? Secondly, did the training program result in micro-counseling skill development and the learning of required procedures? Thirdly, did the training program have any effect on the self concept of the trainee?

The purpose of this descriptive study, then, was to explore the suitability of the helper selection and training processes, as well as their effect on the helper's self concept.

C. Limitations of the Study

A major difficulty in determining the effectiveness of the training program was found in the delay between training periods. While the number of hours of formal training totaled approximately six, there were actually two-three

hour sessions which had a two week delay between them. The second session was also followed by a further two week period after which a final brief "trouble shooting" meeting occurred. Thus, it became difficult to delineate the variables which could be affecting the performance of the facilitators.

It may also be argued that it may not be the actual training program itself which acted as the independent variable, but rather the characteristics of the individual trainers. For that reason a careful explanation of the training program has been made in Chapter III for those wishing to replicate it .

A further difficulty related to the population sample. Statistical inference has been made but must be cautiously viewed because of the the small numbers of subjects used. It should also be realized that if positive trends were noted in this descriptive study then future expanded use of Conflict Management would probably occur within EPSB.

This study did not have a true control group. Difficulty in obtaining the necessary sample as well as approval for testing prior to the commencement of facilitator training prevented this. As this was to be a descriptive study, the control group was not deemed necessary.

D. Organization of the Study

Chapter II contains a condensed review of the literature regarding peer counseling. In Chapter III the selection process and training programs are described in detail. Chapter IV contains the study design including the methods and procedures used in administering the sociogram and other tests. The interview used to measure the micro-counseling skills is also outlined in this chapter. The results of the study are reported in Chapter V. Chapter VI consists of a summary and discussion, as well as the recommendations for further study.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Interest in peer counseling has proved strong, as can be evidenced by the number of published articles available through the Educational Resources Information Centre (ERIC).. A bibliography developed from that source by McKee and McDowell (1981) listed in excess of 80 titles covering the period from May, 1978 to July, 1981.

A. Peer Counseling Defined

Brammer (1977) broadly defined a helper as being an individual who helped someone help himself: "'Meeting the other's needs' is a common descriptive phrase but the real goal of all helping is self-help which means teaching people to meet needs through their own efforts" (p. 303). Brammer (1977) went on to describe peer helpers or counselors as being, "The same or near in age to the clients and often have similar problems that they have overcome" (p. 307).

Drummond (1980) created some question as to how close in age client and helper must be in order for "peer" counseling to occur. She supported the view that larger age differences became less relevant as supervision, training and guidance increased.

Buck (1977), in quoting from another source, defined peer counseling as:

A learning situation in which students counsel and help facilitate the growth and development of other students. That is, students develop and utilize their leadership skills in a positive, helping, service-type relationship with their peers. Such involvement of students with students with selected

individuals functioning as leaders, tends to increase the possibility that a designated individual's progress in the social, academic and emotional spheres will reach its highest potential (Zunker and Brown, 1966). (p. 362)

While focusing more specifically on the adolescent, Carr (1981) supported Buck's view of peer counseling as being a learning situation when he described it as, "A deliberate and systematic form of psychological education" (p. 4).

The definition of peer counseling as offered by Buck (1977) was adopted for the purpose of the present study.

B. Historical Perspective of Peer Usage

Peers have been utilized in a variety of roles with a variety of populations. Long established groups including Parents Anonymous and Alcoholics Anonymous have exploited the influence of adults towards the improvement of peer behavior (Brammer, 1977; Garbarino & Jacobson, 1978; Reisman, 1965; Vriend, 1969a). Carr (1981) noted more recent adult influence groups including, "Women's groups, weight watchers, cancer patients, family groups, single parents (and) Parents of Murdered Children" (p. 11).

In educational settings, early uses of peers in a helping role first gained prominence at the college level. Brown (1965) noted a survey conducted by Hardee and Powell (1959) which revealed that 147 out of 218 colleges used some form of peer counseling. Most of these colleges used peers to assist in the initial orientation and adjustment of

freshmen to college life. Brown (1965) used peer counselors in three ways: "Environment orientation, academic adjustment and educational planning" (p. 812). Significantly higher measures of study behavior ($p < .01$) as well as improved letter grades in the experimental group of 216 subjects were reported.

Zunker and Brown (1966) also used peer counselors to provide academic adjustment counseling to college freshmen and reported equal effectiveness when comparisons were made with matched groups counseled by professional counselors. Brown, Wehe, Zunker and Haslam (1969) applied a similar strategy with 124 college freshmen identified as potential dropouts, and reported meaningful results on all measures.

Other uses of peer counselors in the late sixties included a youthline for adolescents and young adults (Drummond, 1980), cross-age tutoring involving junior high and elementary school-aged children (Chandler, 1980), and peer counseling in groups with junior high students for academic achievement (Vriend, 1969b). Positive results or trends were noted in these situations.

Two further studies involving college students offered slightly altered foci. Pyle and Snyder (1971) provided financial incentives of bursaries and scholarships in exchange for peer counselor time (as opposed to either course credits or volunteer "status"). Woundenberg and Payne (1978) placed peer counselors in a helping role with the intent of actually developing positive growth and

development within the helpers as well as the helpees. Results from the study, which had a small sample (N=17), supported their contention.

Scott and Warner (1974), in a review of published literature, summarized the then current practices:

Peer counseling programs have been established to be used in crisis intervention (eg., drug problems), to provide information services, to develop interpersonal and social skills, to improve academic and decision making skills, and simply to provide friendship.

By far the largest number of studies dealing with peer counseling have been conducted at the college level. (p. 229)

These successful college programs, using peer counselors in a variety of roles, excluded direct input from professional counselors during counseling sessions. Clear supervision was provided, but peer counselors in most programs did not have the attendance of fully qualified counselors while counseling fellow students.

As peer programs gained exposure, authors such as Hamburg and Varenhorst (1972) wished to, "See the principle extended to the secondary schools" (p. 567). These authors helped develop a district-wide program in Palo Alto, California, involving three junior high and three senior high schools with a total student population of approximately 7000. One hundred and fifty-five of these students were trained as peer counselors and used as:

Assistants in solving personal problems; teaching social skills; giving information about jobs, volunteer opportunities and mental health resources in the community; acting as models; developing friendships; acting as a bridge to adult world for disaffected students; and finally, over a period of

time, serving as agents of change where the school atmosphere is characterized by coldness and indifference. (Hamburg and Varenhorst, 1972, p. 567)

Subjective results from this study offered positive support for usage of peer counselors at the secondary level.

Varenhorst (1974) described the work of secondary school peer counselors as "paraprofessional" (p. 274) and lent support to her previous work with Hamburg in 1972, adding new student orientation as a peer counselor service. Pyle (1977) also referred to the value of using peer counselors "to assist minority students to adjust to new environments" (p. 278).

The question of whether student helpers at the secondary level could or should operate groups established for the purpose of personal and/or academic adjustment without direct supervisor participation of trained professionals was explored by different authors. Varenhorst (1974) promoted group leadership by a professional with support from peer counselors. Frank, Ferdinand and Bailey (1975) had peer counselors work in pairs with groups and report to a trained supervisor. Mosher and Sprinthall (1970) extended the practicum concept established at the college and university level to secondary student helpers. Emphasis in the latter two studies centered on the improved functioning of the helper as well as the helpee. Raiche (1979) saw the junior high peer counselor as being a strong adjunct to the qualified adult counselor:

The peer counselor can help by encouraging troubled youth to see the adult counselor. Supplying a model,

offering support and performing other services that will enhance the adult's efforts can all be part of the peer counselor's role. As Vriend (1969) noted, "The helper principle has great potential for schools since helpers from the same age level and backgrounds can often find the right idiom, the right example, and generally serve as a communicator between adult and child" (p. 51). (p.89)

Rapp, Divorkin and Moss (1978) referred to students in their junior high project as "helpers" rather than counselors or paraprofessionals and delegated the helpers to positive role model responsibilities, tutoring, orienting new students and general activities common to good school citizens. Grady (1980) reported on a similar program, with some "one-to-one" counseling.

Acceptance of peer counseling practices at the elementary or primary level is still in its infancy. Scott and Warner (1974) noted only one study at this level in their literature review of 61 peer programs. In their study, Kern and Kirby (1971) compared the effectiveness of personal adjustment groups for elementary students. Half the groups were led by professional counselors with heavy support from designated peer helpers. The remaining groups relied solely on counselor input. Results provided sustenance to the use of peer counselors under the guidance of a professional counselor, although the sample was small (N=12). A subjective evaluation of a similar program described by McCann (1975) utilized peers in a student drop-in centre, again under the direct supervision of an adult counselor, and found parallel results.

Summary

A distinctive trend towards the use of younger and younger peer counselors or peer helpers was noted. While early models centered on the use of adults and college students as peer counselors, recent studies have seen children in the upper elementary grades participating with trained counselors in programs to help fellow students. The Pennsylvania State Department of Education (1977), in a position statement, summarized the four major forms that peer counseling usually assumed: "Informal, unsponsored peer counseling; group counseling; student tutoring; formal sponsored peer counseling" (p. 24).

C. Peer Counseling Rationale

A logical basis for the use of peer counseling has been developed from six complimentary perspectives: shortage of professionally trained counselors, preference of friends and peers over adult counselors, lack of understanding caused by the "generation gap," effectiveness of paraprofessionals, value of peer counselors in prevention, and direct benefits to the helper as well as helpee. Support from the literature can be found for each of these rationale.

Supply and Demand

Kern and Kirby (1971) commented that there was a serious shortage of trained professional counselors in comparison to the ever-increasing numbers of school-age

students who required professional assistance. Several authors echoed this supply-demand problem (Brown, Wehe, Zunker & Haslam, 1969; Rapp, Divorkin & Moss, 1978; Rockwell & Dustin, 1979; Varenhorst, 1974; Winters & Arent, 1969; Zunker & Brown, 1966). Gruver (1971) stated that "With

present methods and models in the mental health field it is simply not possible to satisfy the ever increasing social demands for professional personnel" (p. 111). Ten years later, Carr (1981) testified to Gruver's accuracy:

Despite increases in professional personnel and advances in effective therapeutic interventions, the problems of teenagers continue to outpace the growth and availability of formal help. Skyrocketing costs for services, unmanageable case loads and long waiting lists, growing cynicism about the skills of professionals, and frightening statistics about adolescent death and disability, violence and depression require the enlistment of adolescents themselves in helping each other. Students generally know much sooner than adults when another student is experiencing trouble, and can be in closer more spontaneous contact. Peer counselors supplement existing counseling services, and can free counselors to work with or refer seriously troubled students. Peer counselors can also serve as a bridge to get a troubled friend involved in professional help. (p. 12)

Peer counseling, then, can provide an immediate and available solution to the manpower dilemma. Fink et al. (1978) asserted that peer counseling, "Should first expand the resources of school counseling services in terms of manpower and range of program offerings" (p. 80). Brown (1965) also offered that it was in fact cheaper and more practical, in terms of supervision and physical setting requirements, to use peers.

Peer Preference

Students seek help from other students in their peer group when confronted with difficult personal, social or academic problems. For them, significant others are frequently their immediate, same-sex friends and not professional counselors. Professional counselors tend to deal with school related issues. Regardless of what professional counseling is available or age level of students, it is fellow students that are most often turned to for support (Carr, 1981; Pennsylvania State Department of Education, 1977; Pyle & Snyder, 1971; Rockwell & Dustin, 1979; Sparks, 1977).

Raiche (1979) contended that there was justification for this choice of peers:

When an adult counselor begins to communicate with a child, the child's perception of that counselor is colored by the child's transferring to counseling what was learned in previous experiences with adults. The relationships between adults and children in our culture often involve, among other things, the adult accepting responsibility for the child, providing values to the child, directing the child to do what the adult deems best for the child's growth, and, when necessary, restricting or punishing the child to teach survival and socially accepted behaviors. Although these aspects of the adult/child relationship may be common, counseling is a special relationship requires the child to have different perceptions of the counselor. The perceptions and expectations the child brings into the session with the adult counselor have the potential to impede the counseling relationship. For these same reasons, the peer counselor is more likely to be sought out and used by the members of his or her group. (p. 89)

Peer counseling offers students the alternative to discuss concerns with trained peers.

Generation Gap

The adolescent is seen as "living in a society of his own" (Vriend, 1969b, p. 897), quite apart from the adult world of the professional counselor. He has particular concerns and priorities quite apart from what, "Adults perceive as the major problems" (Carr, 1981, p.6), which create a distance or "gap" in terms of understanding between them. Brammer (1971) suggested, "A new type of intermediate role model to bridge the generation gap" (p. 307) among adults and children. Vriend (1969a) implied this could be done if one was to:

Take the adolescent society as it exists and channel its influence so that the child moves in directions conducive to effective behavior. When a shift in behavior is supported by a group standard, the new behavior of students will be reinforced by the group members. The leadership of students who have already experienced success in the desired behavior can be utilized to implement different behavior in their peers in the safe climate of the group. Peers can influence others to structure and carry out practice in improving specific skills, and to provide support and rewards helpful to students seeking a starting point for new behavior. (p. 50)

This behavior "shift" can be produced either by student to student counseling or with students acting as a intermediaries. Buck (1977) explored the use of senior high school students working directly with other students while Gruver (1971) indicated support for students involved in a "bridging" role between counselors and students.

Paraprofessional Effectiveness

Paraprofessionals, or lay persons, have been shown to be effective in working with troubled peers. Their effectiveness has been reported with populations experiencing conflicts which ranged from the very minor to the more acute (Brammer, 1977; Brown, Wehe, Zunker & Haslam, 1969; Funk et al., 1978; Pyle & Snyder, 1971). Carr (1981) noted that in educational settings:

The skills associated with effective helping have not only been described and demystified, but have also been shown to be learnable by a variety of lay persons, including paraprofessionals (Carkhuff, 1969), high school students (Carr and Saunders, 1979), junior high students (Carr, McDowell and McKee, 1981), and elementary age students (Bowman and Myruck, 1981). (p. 6)

There has also been some support which has suggested paraprofessionals may have advantages over their professional counterparts in that they are probably more similar to their clients if they are peers and can thus, "Empathize with, and be effective within a client's frame of reference (Carkhuff, 1968b)" (Hoffman & Warner, Jr., 1976, p. 494). Some studies, as described by Gruver (1971) have indicated superiority of lay persons over professionals:

More provocative is the evidence that some non-professionals are more effective than their professional counterparts in working with some populations which are presently receiving professional focus. Zunker and Brown (1966) for example, found that student counselors were more effective in counseling college students than were the professional counselors. Poser's (1966) college girls produced more positive changes in hospitalized chronic schizophrenic patients than did the professional staff. (p. 112)

Prevention

For school systems, peer counseling programs have provided much needed support to prevention efforts. Department of Health and Human Services (1981) commented that, "Peer programs have been a mainstay of prevention programs for schools of all kinds" (p. 3).

Sheer availability of peers allows for opportunity for troubled students to find assistance. Peer counselors can therefore reduce both the frequency and the strength of destructive forces within the school environment (Carr, 1981; Pyle & Snyder, 1971). Their numbers also provide for development of a school or system-wide network which can spread and grow to encompass greater numbers as more peer counselors are trained and as they effect their fellow students. Finn (1981) referred to this as, "Multiplier effects and teachable moments benefits" (p. 93); Fink et al. (1978) as a school-wide network of sensitive and empathic students" (p. 80).

Value to Peer Counselors

Other studies have further shown that, in addition to the considerable help that can be rendered by students to each other, there is a highly significant gain to the helping person. Therefore, in assigning a student to help another student, the intervention is of mutual benefit. (Hamburg & Varenhorst, 1972, p.567)

This symbiotic relationship between helper and helpee has been demonstrated at the college level (Woundenberg & Payne, 1978), senior high schools (Fink et al., 1978), junior high

schools (Chandler, 1980), and elementary schools (Winters & Arent, 1969). In addition to improved skills in interpersonal interactions and general knowledge, an improved self concept has also been demonstrated (Raiche, 1979; Rapp et al., 1978).

D. Peer Counselor Recruitment and Selection

Recruitment and selection processes are dependent upon the goals of the peer counseling program, training procedures to be used and target populations. Several methods present themselves as possibilities, including asking for volunteers, having students nominate other students, staff nominations, parent nominations, empirical nominations and direct observations of students. Support for these methods, or a combination of, is evidenced in the literature (Carr, 1981; Rockwell & Dustin, 1979).

Volunteers

Hamburg and Varenhorst (1972), as well as Varenhorst (1974), established programs at the secondary level which allowed for volunteers to be accepted for training without screening. Hamburg and Varenhorst (1972) believed that the inherent benefits to those students receiving the training, as well as the strict requirements of the training program, tended to sift out undesirable students and provided ample justification for their selection procedures. Their focus was upon students who demonstrated, "positive personal

characteristics, a strong sense of responsibility, high dedication to their work, and a feeling of involvement" (Hamburg & Varenhorst, 1972, p. 570).

In training programs offered through the Department of Health and Human Resources (1981) all members of the student body were eligible and "for the sake of fairness, names are drawn randomly so that there is no elitism associated with the course" (p. 7).

The use of volunteers where a condition or conditions were placed on their final acceptance was noted. Fink et al. (1978) required letters of recommendation while Rapp et al. (1978) expected teacher references and a follow-up interview with the school counselors before students became eligible for training.

Faculty Nominations

Choice of trainees for peer counseling programs rested with the educational faculty in college settings (Brown, 1965; Pyle & Snyder, 1971; Scott & Warner, Jr., 1974) and senior high schools (Pyle, 1977; Johnson, Miskel & Crawford, 1978).

Brown (1965) established an eight step process which considered the student's "Scholastic ability, study orientation, academic history, peer acceptance, leadership experience, and conversational effectiveness" (p. 813), while Pyle (1977) asked faculty members to nominate students who met the following criteria:

- a. An ability to communicate effectively with younger students and peers as evidenced by previous successful experience in some kind of leadership position.
- b. A positive self concept as exemplified by an openness to constructive criticism and the ability to handle a variety of situations with poise.
- c. A concern for the problems and needs of other students as demonstrated by close peer relationships and friendships beyond the confines of cliques.
- d. An unsheltered background and life style that provide evidence of an ability to empathize with the problems and needs of students from a variety of backgrounds and experiences. (p. 279)

The importance of inclusion of minority group members as peer counselors has been stressed in several studies.

Students from similar socioeconomic and ethnic backgrounds may be able to respond to the needs of those peers whom traditionally have avoided counseling (Scott & Warner, Jr., 1974). "Seeing" the world from the same slant may depend on an awareness of cultural experiences shared by the helper and the helpee (Brammer, 1977).

Johnson, Miskel and Crawford (1978) provided an example of minority group selection:

Students, teachers, administrators, and security officers were asked to nominate students whom they considered to be student leaders. The names of nominees were compiled, and a representative cross section of students was selected. Some of the participants were leaders of formal organizations, such as student government, athletics and traditional school clubs. An additional, equally important group of leaders represented racial groups, parking lot sitters, chronic absentees, and socioeconomic cliques. In short, a diverse and, in traditional terms, an unconventional set of leaders was chosen. (p. 560)

Empirical Nominations

Students have always turned to fellow students for advice and assistance. These "natural" counselors operate within an informal network not always obvious to school staff members. In selecting potential peer counselors there is also a built-in risk factor, that faculty selections may represent mirror images or extensions of themselves which may in turn negate their acceptance by peers (Raiche, 1979). Raiche (1979) said:

The variable that governs whether or not a counselor will be selected by peers is not likely to be changed greatly during training. The likelihood of a peer being selected seems pre-established, and those peers with the potential are already being sought out for help. The task is not to select peers who may be chosen but to select those already being chosen and train them to be more effective in their present roles. (p. 90)

The use of sociograms which rely on student nomination represents one method of locating "natural" counselors already being sought by peers for informal counseling. McCann (1975) used this approach with elementary students from three grade six classes after a discussion of peer counselor characteristics. Kern and Kirby (1971) used the Social Power Inventory (which yields much the same information as a sociogram) to choose potential trainees from twelve classes of fifth and sixth grade students. The use of these measures at the elementary school level was supported by both former studies.

Frank et al. (1975) attempted the utilization of a sociograms approach to the selection of peer counselors at

the high school level and reported that this technique was not effective. A "popularity contest" resulted and the authors resorted to requests for volunteers who were heavily screened for a variety of characteristics.

E. Peer Counselor Training

Training programs for peer counselors were tailored to meet the needs of specific goals and objectives according to their target populations. While common strands could sometimes be observed, each study had its own tangential thread which developed a novel pattern of its own.

Skill Learning

Most studies supported skill development according to Carkhuff's work (1971) as noted by Scott and Warner (1974):

Training peer counselors has generally involved the development of interpersonal or human relations skills. Carkhuff's (1971) model for human relations training has been used extensively for this purpose. The publication "The Art of Helping" (1972) should also be a useful training tool. (p. 230)

These skills included empathy, regard and genuineness towards clients (Hoffman & Warner, Jr., 1976; Raiche, 1979). As well, the importance of specific skill development including reflective listening (Grady, 1980; McCann, 1975; Raiche, 1979), decision making (McCann, 1975; Varenhorst, 1974), group interaction (Fink et al., 1975) and following specific procedures (Kern & Kirby, 1971) was observed.

Training Techniques

A wide spectrum of techniques were supported, with a major emphasis being placed on active participation by the learner. Buck, 1977, summarized these approaches which included:

1. Task Exercises
2. Lectures
3. Simulated Problem Situations
4. Role Playing
5. Group Discussions
6. Expressive and Creative Activities
7. Audio-Visual Aids

Buck (1977) as well as Vriend (1969b) also gave support for the use of groups as a training medium:

Since students, like everyone else, spend the majority of their time in various types of groups, most of the experiences selected for use in the training program were implemented in a group setting. The rationale for using the group process was related to the findings in the literature (Chester & Fox, 1966; Himer, 1970; Schmuck, 1968) that a student's general level of adjustment correlates positively with his effectiveness as a member in all or some of the groups in which he functions. (Buck, 1977, p. 363)

Finn (1981) and Varenhorst (1974) both included a practicum component in their training programs. Students were not considered finished their training until the practicum was concluded.

Duration of Training

Level of expertise required of trainees generally determined the training program length. Elementary school peer counselors (Kern & Kirby, 1971; McCann, 1975) were trained in the shortest time length covering the fewest skills (less than nine hours). Senior high and college level trainees were found to spend upwards of 40 hours in training (Brown, 1965; Pyle & Snyder, 1971). Secondary and college level programs also tended to include full day workshops (Frank et al., 1975; Grady, 1980), or multiple day retreats (Drummond, 1980).

Summary

Hoffman & Warner, Jr. (1976), at the conclusion of an extensive literature review summarized peer counselor training programs:

The results of the training reported in the literature indicate that paraprofessionals can be trained to communicate at effective levels of empathy, respect, concreteness, genuineness, confrontation, and immediacy. It has been established that significant gains can be realized with as little as one hour of training, but minimally effective communication seems to require at least 20 training hours. Given, then, that lay personnel can be trained to be effective communicators, the next question concerns how effective they are with specified tasks in various work settings. (p. 494)

III. SELECTION PROCEDURES AND SKILL LEARNING

A. Selection Procedures

A total of twenty five students in grades five and six were selected from four elementary school populations in the Edmonton Public School System. The student helpers selected in each of the schools were chosen using slightly different methods. While peers were heavily involved in this process, explanations to students prior to formal nominations, actual voting procedures and use of staff veto powers resulted in each school adopting unique final selection criteria.

B. Callingwood Elementary School

At Callingwood, the school counselor responsible for coordination of the Conflict Management Program approached the grade five, split five/six, and grade six classes individually, providing them with the following information:

- a. An explanation of the Conflict Management Program,
- b. A copy of Alberta Alcoholism and Drug Abuse Commission (A.A.D.A.C.) decision making guidelines.

Students were next involved in a brainstorming exercise (paper and pencil as well as oral) to develop a list of characteristics common to the ideal student helper. Finally, students were then asked to secretly nominate three students from their class whom they believed most closely approximated the ideal student helper. Using this information, the counselor selected the top eight students

and gave staff members the opportunity to discuss their suitability for the program. The principal was then offered the final veto power. No alterations were made to the student selections, although some reservations were expressed concerning the lack of male student helpers as only one was chosen.

C. Capilano Elementary School

The principal at Capilano School discussed leadership qualities with the grade five and six classes (separately) and asked students to rank order the top five students possessing those qualities. Scores from each room were then condensed resulting in a top male and female from each class. At the principal's discretion, a female with the second highest score in one of the classes was selected. Commitment and leadership abilities were stressed over popularity.

D. Delwood Elementary School

The school counselor approached each of six grade five or six classes individually to carry out the selection process. After a discussion of leadership and leadership skills the class was asked questions such as, "Who would you follow if they told you to ...?", or, "Who would you listen to if they said to stop fighting?". Students were next asked to select three males and three females from their room, using a secret ballot. Results were then

privately tabulated by the counselor. The top six students names were randomly put on the board and the students were asked to choose the top three students from these, based on the same criteria. These results were then tabulated and from this list of three students, the class was finally asked to choose their best candidate. Results of this final vote were not published at this point. Each class provided a ranked order of the top three students in terms of leadership ability as determined by the students.

The top student nominated by class peers was accepted from four classes. In the fifth class, the counselor and teacher felt the student selected was inappropriate as the student was new to the school. In the sixth class, the student chosen was shortly to change schools. In both cases the second choices nominated by students from each class were accepted.

E. Keheewin Elementary School

Keheewin Elementary selected their student helpers by first initiating a large group discussion with all Division II students in one location. The principal and teachers of the three classes took part in the discussion which focussed on leadership qualities, the Conflict Management Program and what responsibilities student helpers would have. Next students were asked to choose, by secret ballot, a student from either the grade five or six class whom they felt would be qualified to be a student helper. The top four grade six

students and top three grade five students were then accepted as student helpers eligible for training.

7 F. Student Helper Training Procedures

Training of student helpers (as well as support adults involved) occurred primarily during two three-hour sessions. These sessions had a two week time lapse between them during which actual commencement of Conflict Management Programs within each school were to have begun. During this two week period trainers were available for consultation. The first three-hour session was structured to provide sufficient information and skills to allow for the Programs commencement. After the completion of the second three-hour session, a trouble shooting session was arranged for all schools trained during the previous year. Trainers continued to provide consultative services where requested. Appendix B outlines the specific agenda for each session.

During the two three-hour sessions two key trainers were used, sometimes separately with distinct groups (such as adults and children), but more often in concert with each other and with the whole group. Each trainer generally took leadership responsibility for the introduction of specific topics as they were presented, but both strongly supported each other after the initial introduction of the topic. A general introduction was provided by a third member of the support team.

G. Training Procedure Rationale

Specific support for the training procedures used in Conflict Management was not provided with other Conflict Management documentation. A search of the literature also did not reveal any direct studies of Conflict Management or a rationale for its training procedures. It would appear, however, that its theoretical framework is supported by work done by Rudolf Dreikurs.

Dreikurs viewed man as a social being who was dependent on the group for survival. All action (behavior) was purposeful and geared towards adaptation to the society. "All his actions, emotions, qualities and characteristics serve the same purpose. They show him trying to adapt to society" (Dreikurs, 1950, p. 13). He described children's purposeful behavior as being either attention-seeking, power-seeking, revenge-oriented or inadequacy-oriented. While attention-seeking behavior could represent appropriate behavior (active-constructive), inadequacy-oriented or assumed-disability (passive-destructive) represented very serious inappropriate behavior (Dreikurs, 1974).

Dreikurs (1970) referred to four principles as essential requirements for conflict solving:

- a. All conflicts can be resolved only on the basis of mutual respect. This excludes fighting or giving in. Fighting violates respect for the opponent; giving in, respect for oneself. Logical consequences permit an alternative.
- b. In any conflict situation one has to pinpoint the real issue. And the real issue is never the whole of,

the conflict; underneath each argument is the problem of personal involvement on the part of each participant, personality concerns like status and prestige, the desire to win, the fear of losing, of being unfairly treated, of being deprived of one's rights. By not recognizing the importance of personal involvement, people turn mere disagreement into unsolvable conflicts.

- c. Conflicts can be resolved only by agreement. Instead of agreeing to fight, to overpower, or to abuse, the participants in the conflict must agree to work out an amicable solution.
- d. Conflicts can be resolved only through participation in decision making, through shared responsibility. Cooperation has to be won instead of demanded; that is, the opponents have to decide in favor of peace instead of war. (p.46)

These four principles were clearly found in the procedural steps learned by Conflict Management trainees (See Appendix E):

It would therefore appear that the conceptual model for Conflict Management was based on Rudolph Dreikur's work.

H. Specific Training Methods

Large Group

The majority of activities occurred in a large group setting which included administrators, school secretaries, parent representation, program coordinators (frequently the school counselor), and student helpers. Trainers, especially in the opening remarks, noted the significance of active participation in the training process by the key adults in order that these adults have both ownership in the program and yet also realize that a certain amount of power or authority must be relinquished to the student helpers.

The adult body participating in training was provided with specific role-related information by one of the trainers in a segregated session during the first three-hour session. As well, supportive written materials outlining much of what occurred during the training, in addition to suggested support measures which could be used by schools, was provided to all schools involved (see Appendix C for complete derivation).

Large group settings were used to provide introductions to many of the practical exercises engaged in by student helpers. This format allowed trainers to provide instructions quickly, role-play examples for the large group, draw on volunteers, and provide answers to questions of concern to the entire group. Trainers also used this format to demonstrate a micro-counseling skill which was heavily stressed throughout the training periods, that of reflective listening. Exercises which occurred in the large group gradually required more and more interaction between student helpers from different schools. Concluding exercises during the second session required student helpers to work with student helpers from other schools.

The large group arrangement was also used to provide a discussion arena for participants.

Small Groups

While general information sharing, demonstrations, and problem solving occurred in the large group setting, the

small group format was used abundantly to practice and develop specific micro-counseling skills. Adults accepted the role during most of these mini-sessions of either observers or critical analysts. Where an exercise required a specific number of participants, adults filled the required vacancies in some groups.

Student helpers worked primarily with other individuals from their school and in didactic formations during the initial exercises. As students became more experienced in role-playing and confident in their own abilities, larger groups of three, four and five members, involving students from other schools, were formed.

Visual Displays

An initial slide presentation of Conflict Management in action at a local elementary school was presented to the large group. In addition, overheads outlining important procedures, tips for success and common problems were used. This material was both discussed and made available to participants.

Fee Assessment, Facility Location, Nutrition Break

A twenty-five dollar fee was assessed each participating school to cover the cost of rental of a location for training and a "nutrition break" during both of the three-hour sessions. The location chosen (Kinsmen Aquatic Centre) allowed students to swim after completion of

the final three-hour session. This location was also chosen to provide a neutral setting apart from the school environment.

I. Skill Learning

Key micro-counseling skills were heavily emphasized and practiced throughout the training sessions. Reinforcement through verbal praise in small groups and large group sessions was provided by both the trainers and other adults present.

Eye Contact and Body Language

Early emphasis was placed on the value of eye contact during the interview between combatants and student helpers. The significance of eye contact was demonstrated, then practiced, with and without an observer, using chairs with participants placed back to back as well as facing each other. In later role-playing the more subtle messages that can be given through body language were discussed and some examples practiced. A particular emphasis on "Insincere Commitments" was stressed during the latter part of the training (see Appendix D for complete derivation).

Reflective Listening

Students observed a role-play situation presented by the trainers, discussed the key ideas behind reflective listening through a large group discussion which relied on

both inductive reasoning by the student helpers and continued active reflecting by the trainers, and then commenced actual practice of the technique. Observers were usually used. Trainers initially presented neutral topics for students to use as discussion points and gradually made these issues either more personal or complex, or allowed the students to choose their own. "Real life" conflict situations chosen by students were used throughout the second three-hour session whenever this skill was practiced.

Paraphrasing

Although not clearly labelled or dealt with as a specific counseling skill, trainers did discuss the value of "summing up" what the student combatant appeared to really be saying as compared to straight reflective listening. The difficulty with straight "parroting" was also clarified to students. Adult observers working with small groups during the second three-hour session frequently tried to provide feedback to group members who were simply parroting.

Problem Solving and Compromising

The concern of who owned the problem and methods of resolutions provided a framework for the team procedures. Once students understood that it was not their problem to solve and that combatants were responsible for solutions and compromises, the role of the student helpers was far more visible.

While student helpers were taught reflective listening, the significance of body language (particularly eye contact and facial gestures), as well as some paraphrasing, it was clearly stated that the combatants had the major role to play in resolution of the conflict. The student helpers were free to clarify and explain what they saw and heard, but it was the combatants who had responsibilities for solutions.

Awariness of Resolution Procedures

A very prominent component of the training program revolved around the clear set of procedures that student helpers were to follow. These procedures were discussed in the large group, viewed on an overhead and handout, and practiced in several role-play situations. Procedures were of two kinds; what to do when with the combatants and general office procedures. Each had their own emphasis, with the former being more relevant to the student helpers and the latter to the administrators, secretaries, supervisors and parents (see Appendix E for complete derivation).

Selling the Program

Student helpers and supporting adults were presented with materials and suggestions which could be used to introduce the concept of Conflict Management into their home schools (see Appendix F for complete derivation).

IV. DESIGN OF THE STUDY

A. Population

The population of this study consisted of 25 fifth and sixth grade students who attended school within the Edmonton Public School System. Four schools participated, with each school contributing at least four students of either sex. There were 15 females and 10 males. The subjects ranged in age from 10 to 12 years with a mean age of 10.8 years.

B. Procedures

Subjects selected for testing included all students who participated in the final Conflict Management Training Program of the 1982-83 school year. Approximately two weeks prior to commencement of the actual training program, the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale and a set of Semantic Differential Scales were administered to the 25 students. In addition, each class in each of the four schools which contributed a minimum of one member to the study population completed a class sociogram.

Finally, subjects were cast in a three minute "mock" helping role with two students who had supposedly experienced a conflict, but who were in fact, confederates.

Approximately one month after completion of the final training session, student helpers were reassessed using the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale and Semantic Differential Scales, as well as being placed in a second

unique "mock" conflict situation.

C. Test Instruments

Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale

This scale was used as a measure of general self concept. Developed in 1969 by co-authors Piers and Harris as a self-report measure of self concept, it was constructed using 80 items which consisted of forced choice "YES-NO" responses. The 80 items were extracted from Jersilds' (1952) original pool of 152 items. Nearly 50% of the first-person declarative statements were worded to support a positive self concept and the remainder to support a negative self concept. Response set bias was therefore reduced.

Piers (1969) reported that while cluster scores for behavior, intellectual and school status, physical appearance and attributes, anxiety, popularity and happiness, and satisfaction could be obtained, this information was at best "tentative" (p. 20). These clusters paralleled Jersilds' (1952) categories of physical characteristics and appearance, clothing and grooming, health and physical soundness, home and family, enjoyment and recreation, ability in sports and play, ability in school, intellectual abilities, special talents, and personality-character-inner resources-emotional tendencies.

Standardization of the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale was based on a sample of 1183 children in

grades 4 to 12. Reliability was measured in terms of internal consistency (.78 to .93) and test-retest reliability (.71 to .77).

Convergent validity was reported by Mayer (1965) who compared Piers-Harris scores with scores obtained on the Lipsitt Children's Self Concept Scale (1958) and obtained a correlation of .68. The sample used consisted of 98 special education students aged 12 to 16 years. This was further supported by Cox (1966) who noted that the scale correlated negatively with anxiety and health problems (-.48 to -.69) in a sample of 97 children in grades six to nine. Millen (1966), in five studies using student samples from grades 4, 6, 8, 10, or 12 also found negative correlations, (-.54 to -.69) between the Children's Manifest Anxiety Scale and Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale. Cox (1966) reported coefficients ranging from .31 to .43 between teacher and peer ratings of self concept, social effectiveness or superego strength and children's personal ratings. Piers (1969) also indicated correlations for teacher and peer ratings with the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale ranging from .06 to .49 and commented that girls and peer ratings corresponded better with self-report than teacher ratings.

Predictive validity of the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale in terms of correlations with measures of intelligence and achievement were reported in several studies outlined by Piers (1969). Correlations ranged from

-.06 to a high of .50.

The instrument was designed primarily for research purposes, and this use has been supported in a review by Bentler (1970). Anderson (1979) noted 12 recent studies which involved this test as a measure of children's self concept.

The Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale is found in Appendix G.

Semantic Differential Scales

Semantic Differential Scales were constructed and used as a second measure of student self concept.

The concept of semantic scales was developed by Osgood (1957) based on earlier work of Karwoski. Osgood (1957) defined semantic differentiation as, "The successive allocation of a concept to a point in the multidimensional semantic space by selection from among a set of given sealed semantic alternatives" (p. 23).

Semantic Differential Scales do not represent a specific standardized test; they are a concept/scale interaction constructed to meet the unique specifications of the researcher. This technique attempts to measure what meaning a particular concept might have for subjects based on dimensions which have been empirically defined and factor-analyzed (Mindak, 1969). These scales are often chosen from 50 pairs of polar adjectives developed by Osgood (1957) which he determined to have heavy factor loadings in

three areas, "Evaluative, potency and activity" (p. 38). Measures relating to attitude are represented by the evaluative factor.

Reliability of evaluative scales, as recorded by Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum (1958), used a test-retest format with 135 subjects and ranged from .87 to .93. These same authors further established test-retest reliability correlating data from 40 items across 100 subjects and resulting in a coefficient of .85 (Osgood et al, 1958, p.127). Jenkins, Russel and Suci (1958) obtained a correlation coefficient of .97 for a test-retest reliability study completed specifically to provide normative data regarding semantic differential scales. Concurrent validity for evaluative scales was authenticated through comparison with two other scales: Thurstone and Suttman. Correlation coefficients ranged from .74 to .91. Face validity was also supported in studies by Suci (1952) and Mundak (1969). Cross cultural studies (Kumata & Schramm, 1956; Tanaka, Oyama & Osgood, 1963), developmental studies (Di Vesta, 1966; Ervin & Foster, 1960), studies in experimental psychology (Baxter, 1962; Johnson, Thomson & Frincke, 1960), studies in social psychology (Brinton, 1961; Snider, 1962) and studies in personality and clinical psychology (Endler, 1961; Osgood & Suria, 1954) were included in a sourcebook edited by Snider and Osgood (1969).

The Semantic Differential Scales constructed for this study are found in Appendix H.

D. Sociogram

This measure was utilized to determine students identified by classmates as potential student helpers.

Jennings (1959) defined sociometric technique as,

"The use of appropriate sociometric tests to reveal groups structure and to identify subdivisions of the group and various types of group solutions, for example, leaders, isolates rival factions and so on" (p. 11).

It's inherent value as a measurement procedure lies in its ability to offer a picture of interaction in relation to important criteria of group life. It is the dynamic interaction which is focused upon, not individuals living in a vacuum. Furthermore, choices made by students seem based on the choosers' need to secure emotional support and specific helpfulness the chosen individual is expected to provide (Jennings, 1959). While these choices explore one collective at a time, and are focused on one criterion, the chooser may satisfy other criteria not made available to the investigator. The benefits of having group selections which distinguish individuals by more choices of them then becomes evident (Jennings, 1950).

Test-retest reliability of sociometric techniques in three different studies was reported in Jennings (1950). These studies included one by Jennings (1950) involving delinquent adolescent females, another involving youngsters in a summer camp (Newsletter, Feldstein & Newcomb, 1938), and a third with college group discussion members (Zeleny,

1939). All produced reliability coefficients ranging from .93 to .96. This high reliability was credited to the slowness with which the individuals change in their choice of one another. (Jennings, 1950).

Validity of sociometric technique can best be supported by actual review of behavior data and case studies. Jennings (1950) stated,

"A sociometric test is valid in the sense that the behavior which it was intended to elicit actually appeared without falsification of responses on the part of the subjects" (p.27).

To this end, Jennings (1959) alluded to the intercultural validity of this technique in work done in France, Sweden, Belgium, West Germany, Japan, Turkey and Canada (Preface, p.VIII).

Predictive validity was not established between age or intelligence in Jennings' (1950) study of delinquent adolescent girls.

Construction of the question followed guidelines as suggested by Jennings (1959) which emphasized:

- a. the case of a specific situation,
- b. the linking of chosen persons with the situation using one statement,
- c. the avoidance of words such as "best" and "friend",
- d. the use of choice slips,
- e. the choice of situation which will matter to the students.

The format of question asked was also a modification of that used by Kern and Kirby (1971). Reliability on a test-retest basis for their instrument was reported as a .77 correlation score. Validity was demonstrated by Gnagey (1960) who found that students chosen as powerful members in the class did in fact wield the most influence (Kern & Kirby, 1971).

A decision to ask students to identify only their top or number one choice for class leader was based on two factors. At the time of the data collection, it was believed by the researcher that only one male and/or female from each participating class was being nominated. As well, it was believed that a large number of classes were participating and that data collection and analysis would be considerably simplified by a reduction in the number of nominations. The actual number of classes and nominees were unknown to the researcher until arrival at each school (In actual fact, a fifth school scheduled to take part in training cancelled at the last minute). McCann (1975) also used the single nomination approach.

The directions used to obtain class sociograms are found in Appendix I.

E. Mock Conflict Management

This approach was structured to obtain measures of specific micro-counseling skills as well as learned procedural steps peer counselors were expected to comprehend and use after training.

Four students in upper elementary grades and from a neutral school not involved in the Conflict Management Program were trained to present either of two common conflict situations (see Appendix J for complete derivation). These students were unaware of the exact nature of the study and were reimbursed for their efforts. During pre-testing, two of the four confederates presented one of the mock conflicts to a peer counselor trainee. This interaction was audio taped. During post-testing the alternate conflict was presented by the other two combatants and this was also audio recorded. The confederates were placed on a rotating schedule which forced each to play both roles in both conflicts and with all other confederates at one time or another. As well, the order of interviews was maintained between pre and post-testing to help off set the practice effect as confederates became more experienced at role-playing.

Support for choice of this technique came from research done by Carkhuff (1969). Carkhuff (1969) outlined work by researchers who similarly cast trainees in a helper role and taped interactions for analysis (Anthony & Carkhuff, 1969; Carkhuff & Banks, 1969; Carkhuff & Berenson, 1968; Carkhuff & Griffin, 1969; Greenberg, 1968; Holder, 1968; Kratochvil, 1969). Carkhuff (1969) also provided support for scales which were used in this study. The three scales selected, "Empathic Understanding in Interpersonal Processes", "The Communication of Respect in Interpersonal

Processes", and "Personally Relevant Concreteness or Specificity of Expression in Interpersonal Processes" were:

Validated in extensive process and outcome research on counseling and psychotherapy (summarized in Truax & Carkhuff, 1967) and in part from an earlier version that has been similarly validated (summarized in Carkhuff, 1968; Carkhuff & Berenson, 1967). In addition, similar measures of similar constructs have received support in the literature of counseling and psychotherapy and education (Carkhuff, 1969, p.319).

The individual scales used as well as learned procedural steps measured are located in Appendix K.

F. Treatment of the Data

Research regarding the use of peer counselors or helpers at the pre-adolescent level remained scarce. Three studies (Kern & Kirby, 1971; McCann, 1975; Rapp et al., 1978) used upper elementary students as peer helpers, two of these with students working under the direct supervision of the school counselor, and the third with helpers providing tutoring and new student orientation. No studies were located which used students to assist in the resolution of conflicts between other peers.

Length of training and selection procedures for adolescent and post-adolescent peer counseling programs indicated a wide variety of beliefs among researchers.

Hypotheses regarding the selection and training procedures appropriate for elementary peer counselors engaged in conflict resolution must remain speculative and

make directional predications for these hypotheses difficult. Therefore null hypotheses were stated regarding the effect on measures used.

G. Hypothesis Being Tested

Hypothesis I: No significant difference exists between trainees' pre and post-test scores of self esteem as determined by the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale.

Hypothesis II: No significant difference exists between trainees' pre and post-test scores of self esteem as determined by the Semantic Differential Scales.

Hypothesis III: No significant difference exists between trainees' pre and post-test scores of learned procedures.

Hypothesis IV: No significant difference exists between trainees' pre and post-test scores of empathy as measured by the Empathic Understanding in Interpersonal Relations Scale.

Hypothesis V: No significant difference exists between trainees' pre and post-test scores of respect for client as measured by the Communication of Respect in Interpersonal Scale.

Hypothesis VI: No significant difference exists between trainees' pre and post-test scores of concreteness of expression as measured by Personally Relevant Concreteness or Specificity of Expression in

Interpersonal Processes Scale.

H. Statistical Procedures

The following statistical procedures were utilized in order to analyze the data collected from the study:

1. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation in order to determine the degree of relation between the six pre-test and three post-test dependent variables.
2. Analysis of variance with repeated measurements to test the significance of the differences between the means of the pre and post-test measures.

V. RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

A. Overview

Statistical results of the data were compiled in this chapter. Originally, 25 fifth and sixth grade students were selected to participate in the study. However, one student was unavailable for post-testing (on holidays) which reduced the sample to 24. As well, measures requiring audio taping resulted in loss of data for an additional four students due to equipment failure (inaudible recordings).

Three questions were asked of this study:

1. Were selection procedures identifying the desired target population of classroom leaders?
2. Were training procedures effective in teaching micro-counseling skills and specific procedures?
3. Were trainees self concepts being altered as a result of training?

B. Selection Procedure

Thirteen classrooms provided sociometric information which was reported in figures 1 to 13.

Class sociograms identified trainees as the most frequently nominated male or female in 9 of 13 classes. In four classes where both male and female trainees were nominated, two of these classes had chosen the trainees as the most frequently nominated students.

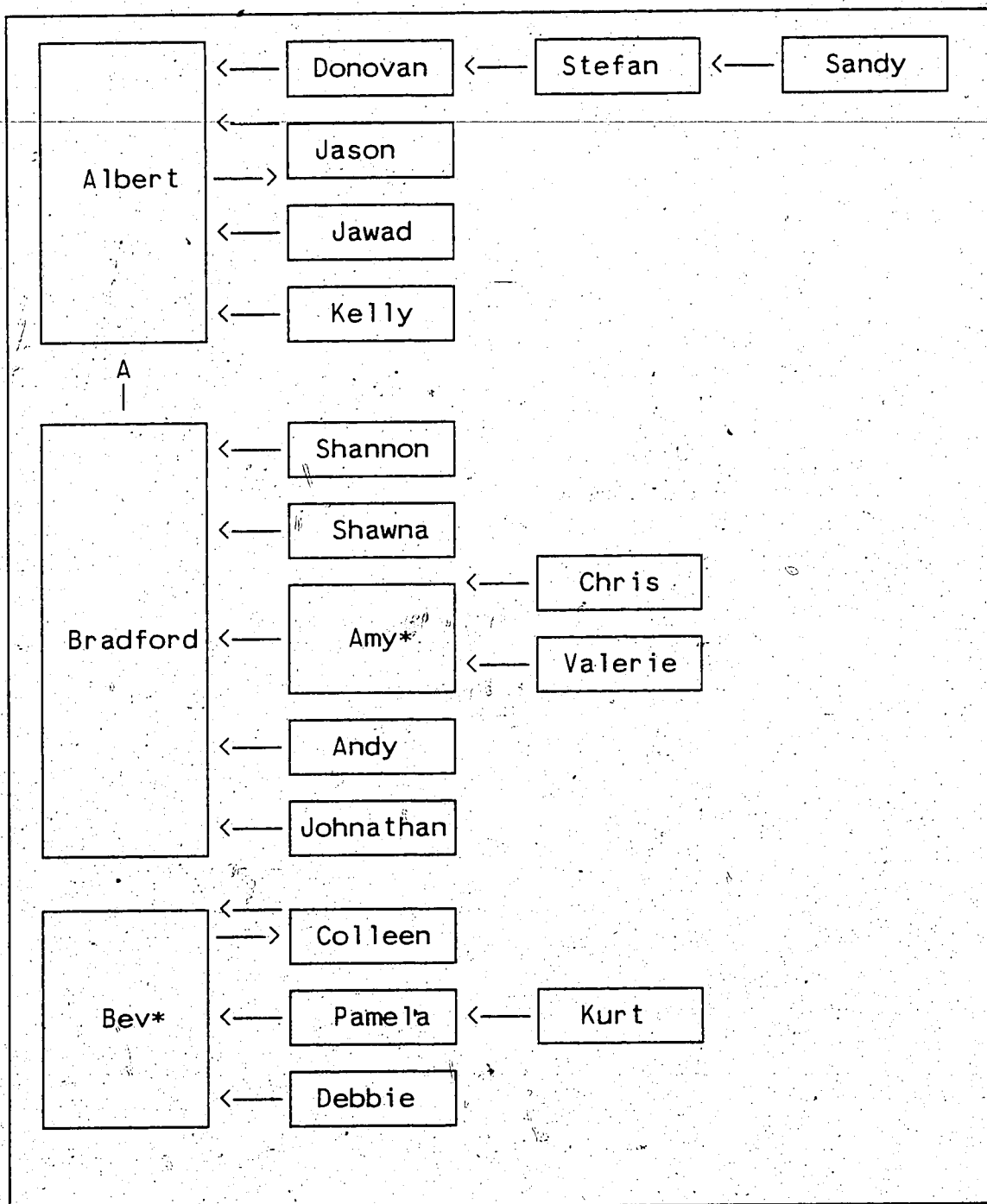


Figure 1. Class sociogram for Callingwood Elementary School
 Conflict Management trainees are denoted by an *.

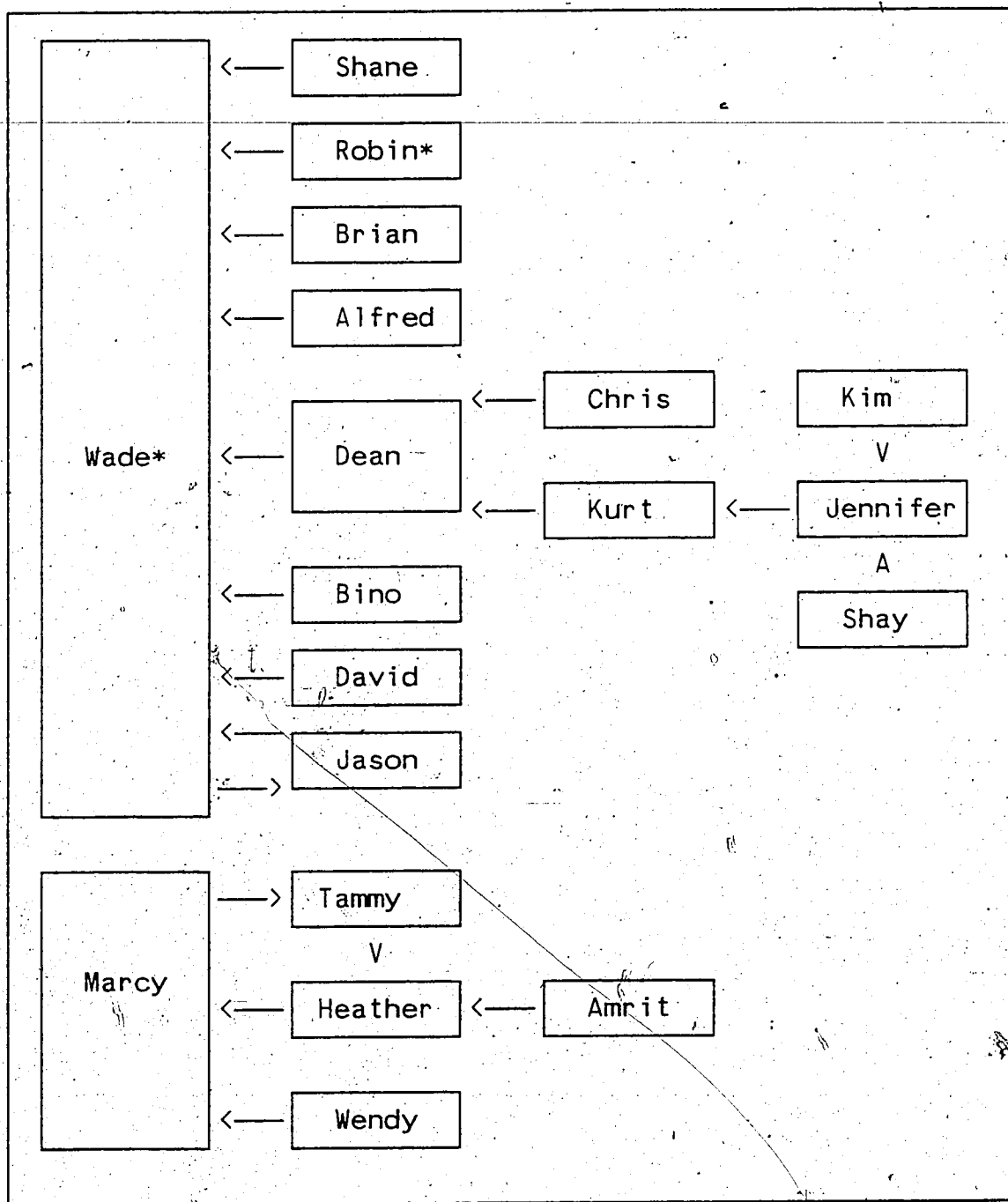


Figure 2. Class sociogram for Callingwood Elementary School
Conflict Management trainees are denoted by an *.

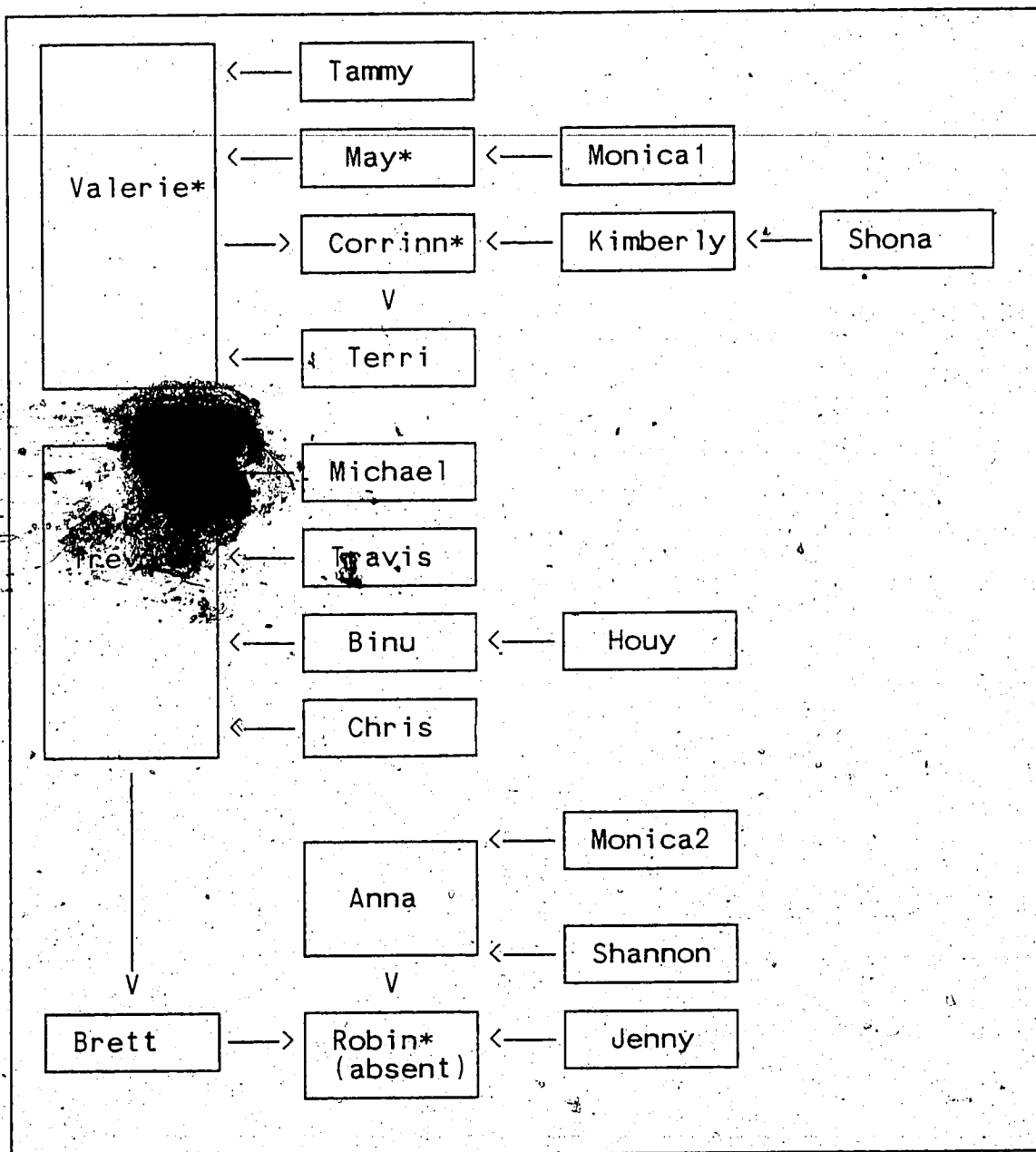


Figure 3. Class sociogram for Callingwood Elementary School
Conflict Management trainees are denoted by an *.

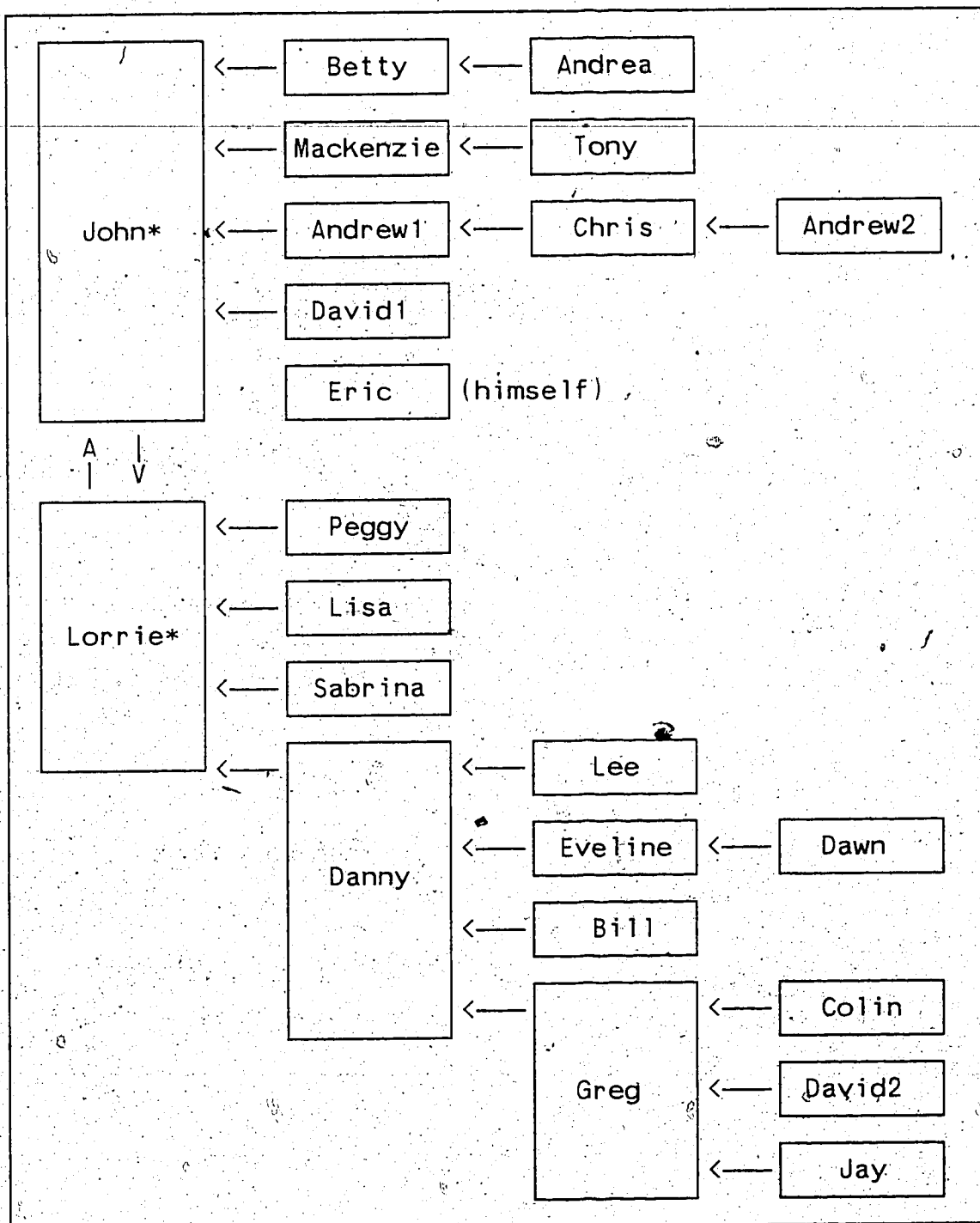


Figure 4. Class sociogram for Capilano Elementary School.
Conflict Management trainees are denoted by an *.

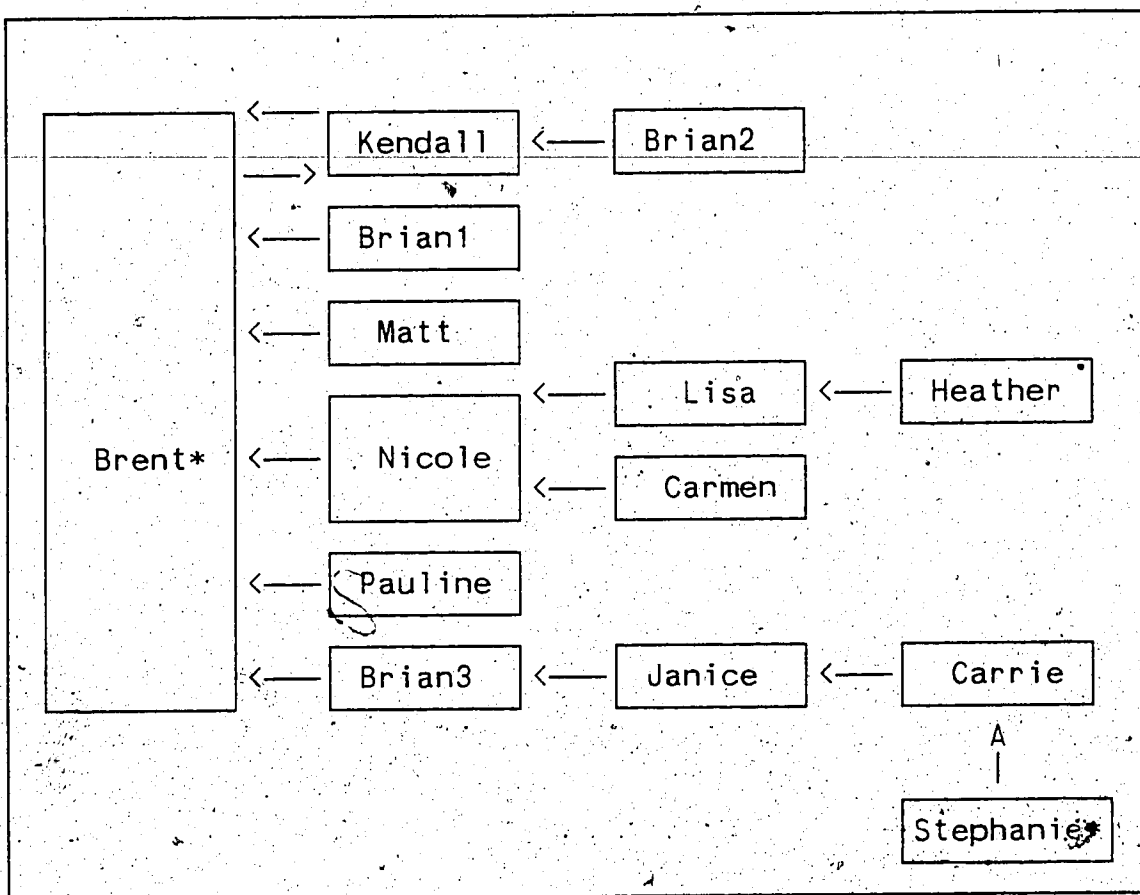


Figure 5. Class sociogram for Capilano Elementary School.
Conflict Management trainees are denoted by an *.

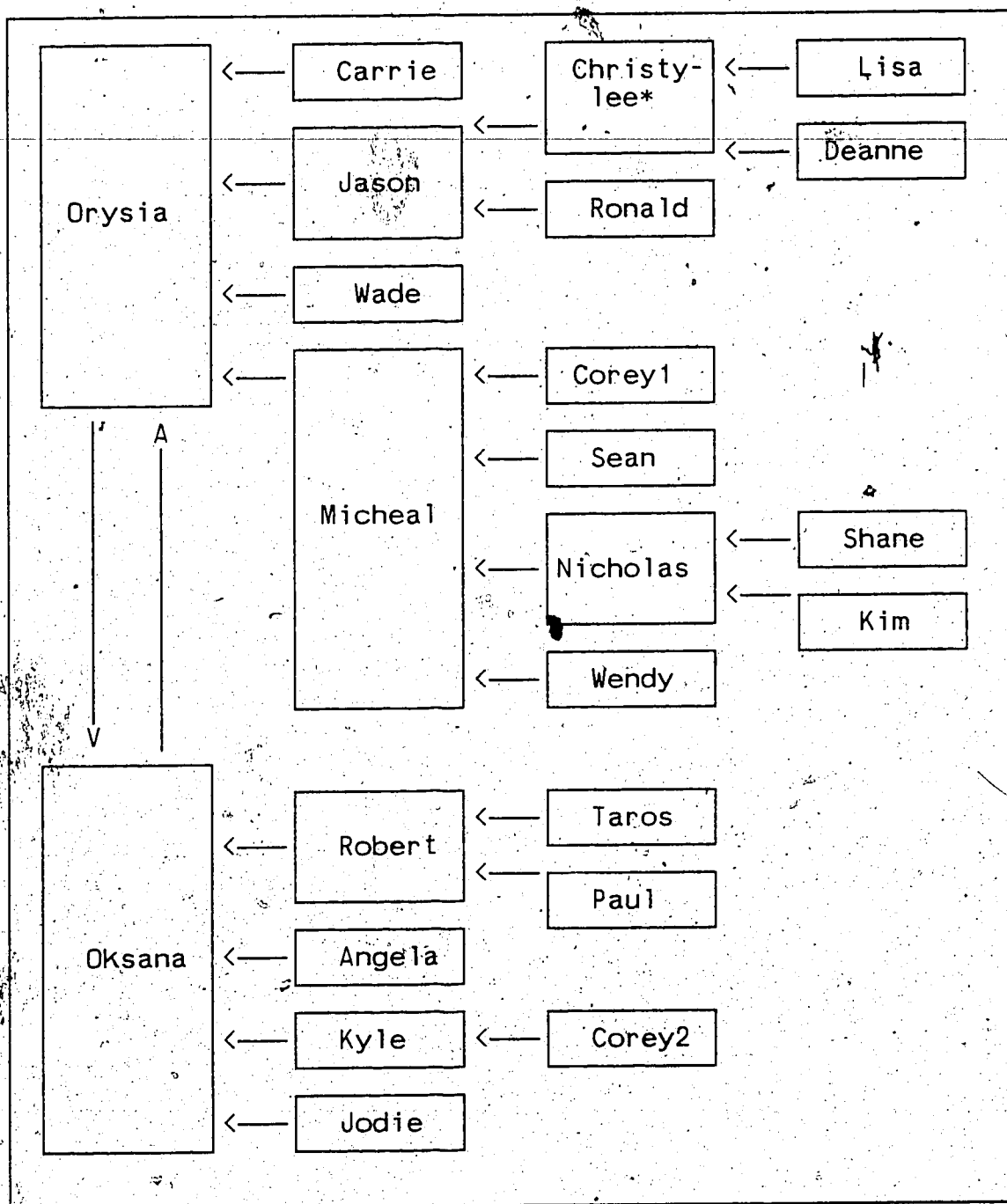


Figure 6. Class sociogram for Delwood Elementary School.
 Conflict Management trainees are denoted by an *.

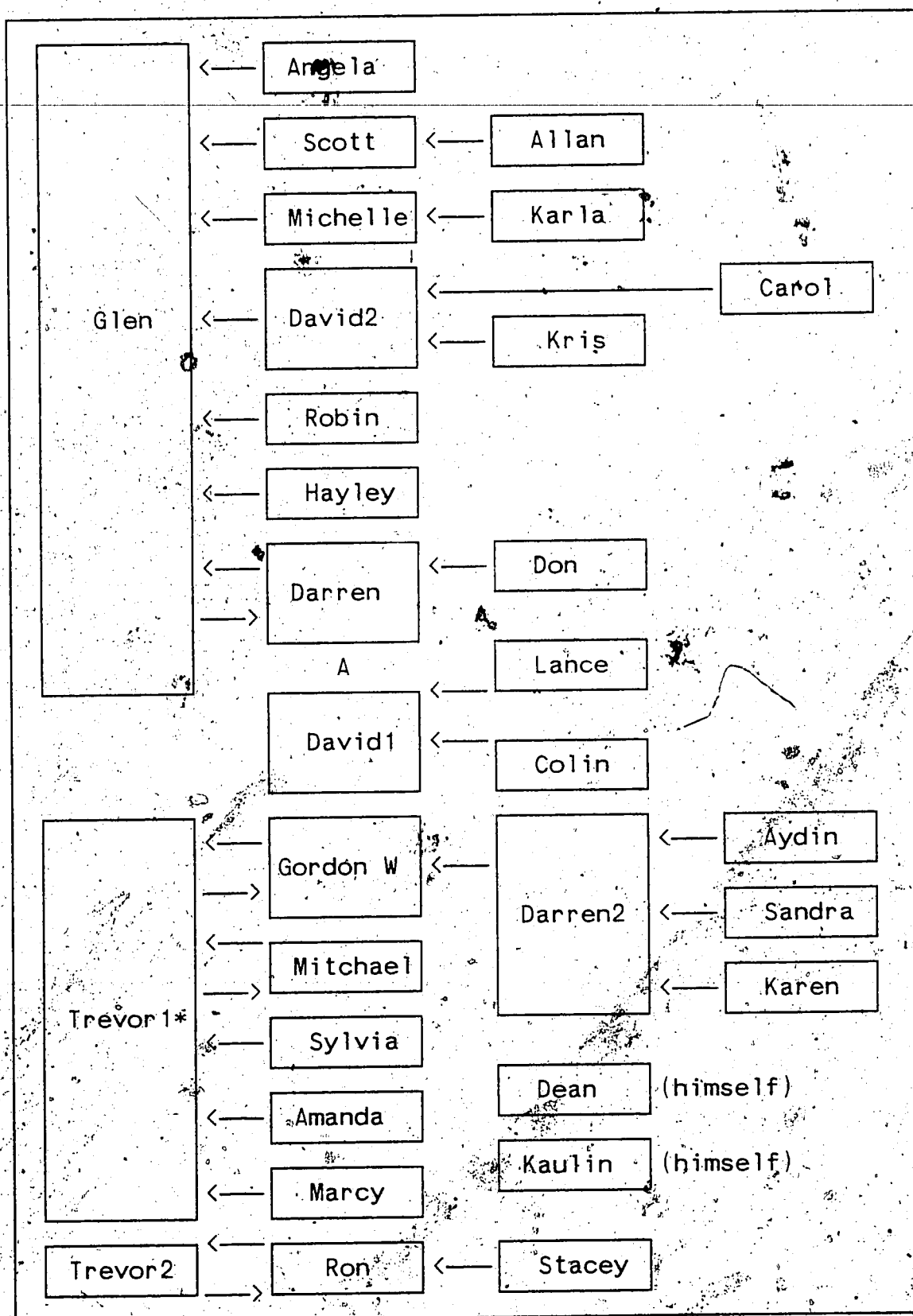


Figure 7. Class sociogram for Delwood Elementary School.
Conflict Management trainees are denoted by an *.

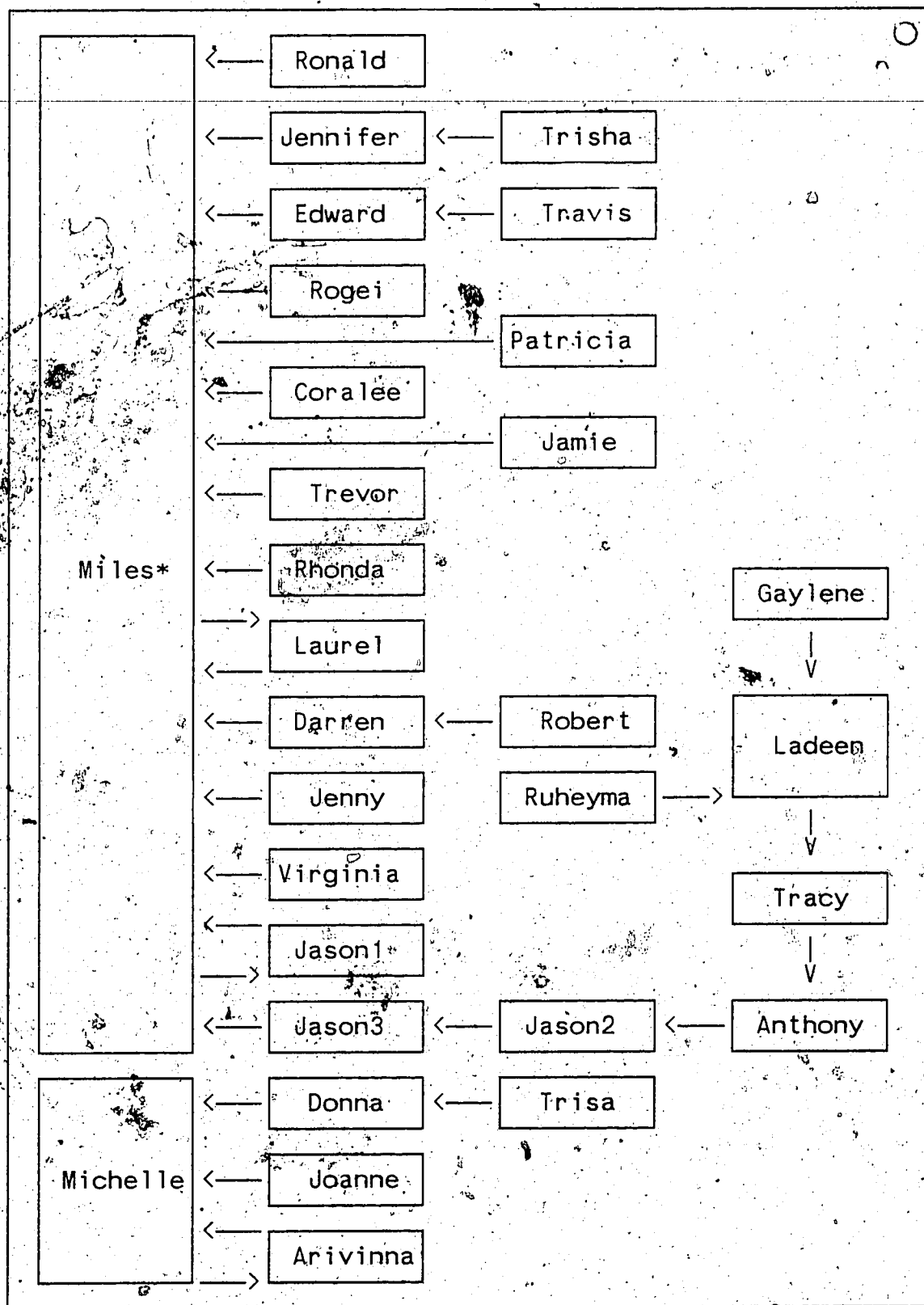


Figure 8. Class sociogram for Delwood Elementary School.
Conflict Management trainees are denoted by an *.

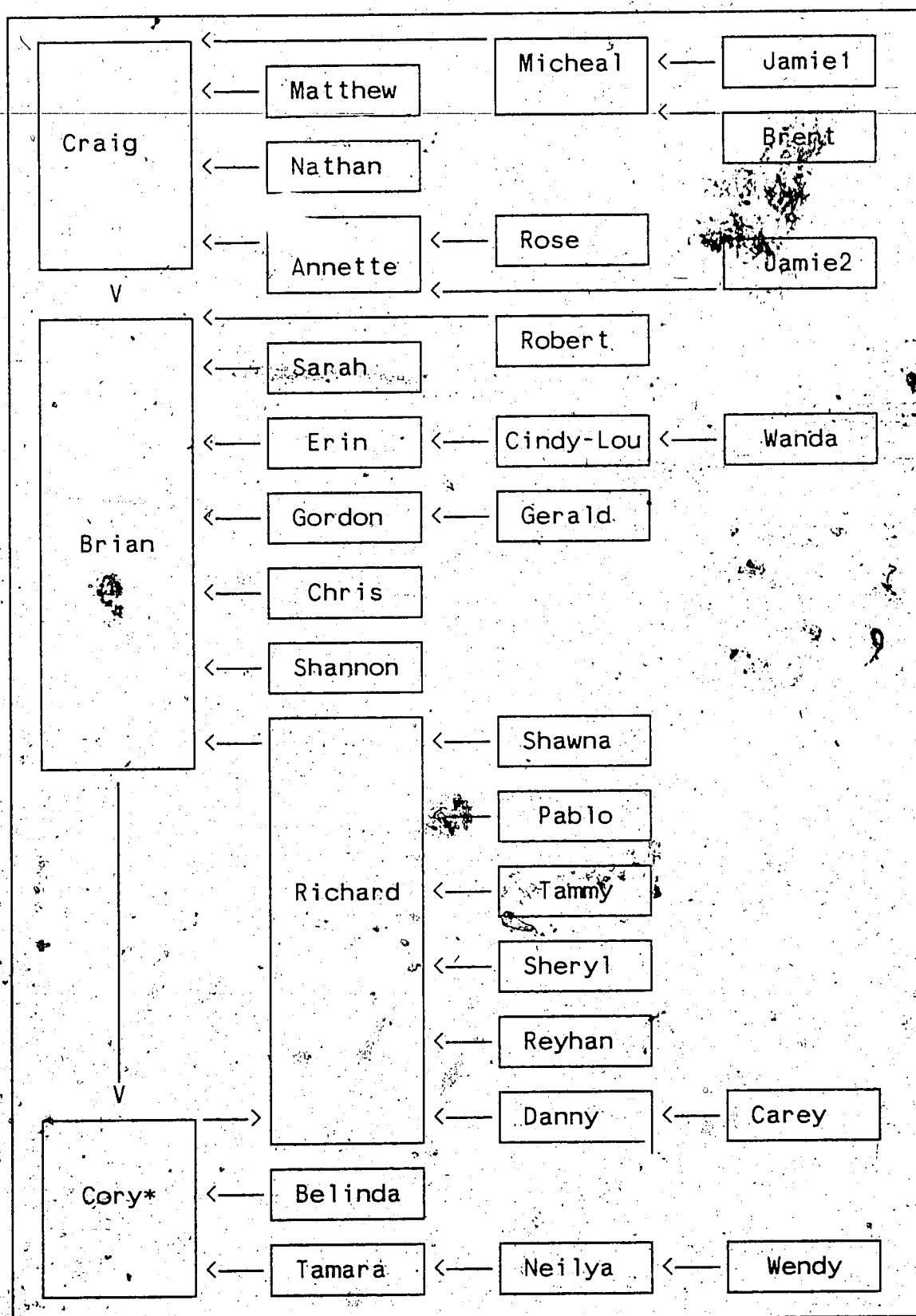


Figure 9. Class sociogram for Delwood Elementary School.
Conflict Management trainees are denoted by an *.

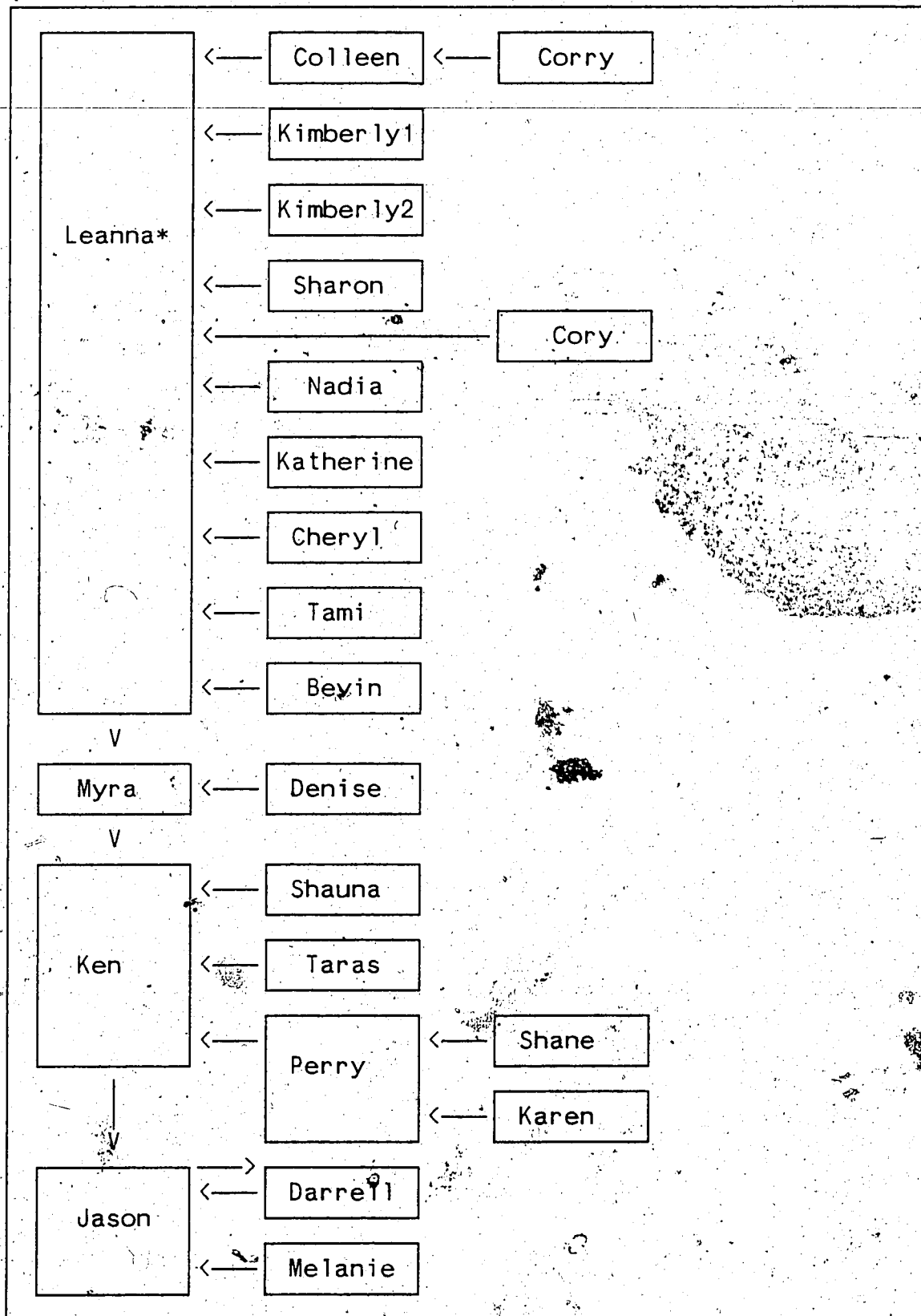


Figure 10. Class sociogram for Delwood Elementary School.
 Conflict Management trainees are denoted by an *

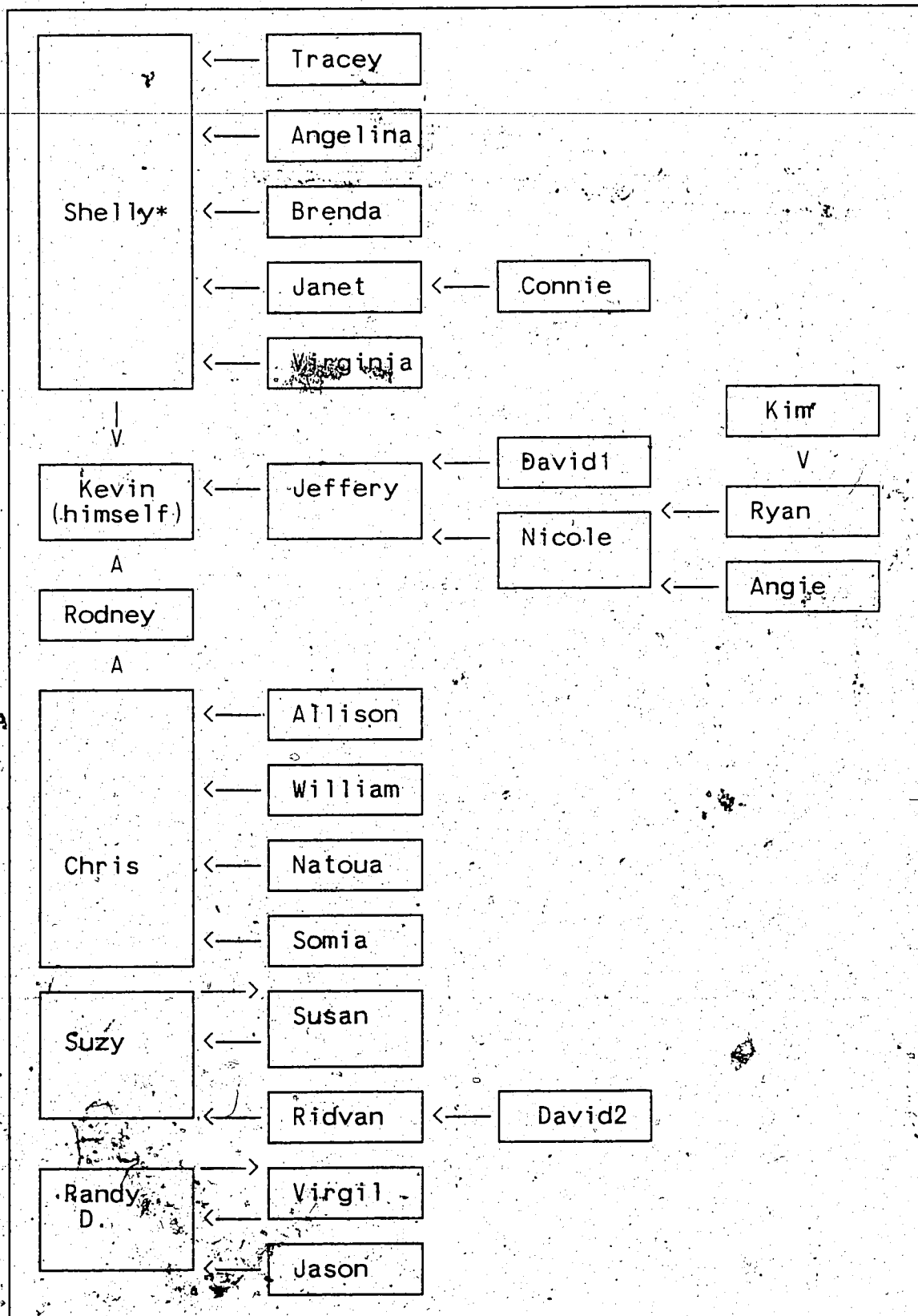


Figure 11. Class sociogram for Delwood Elementary School.
Conflict Management trainees are denoted by an *

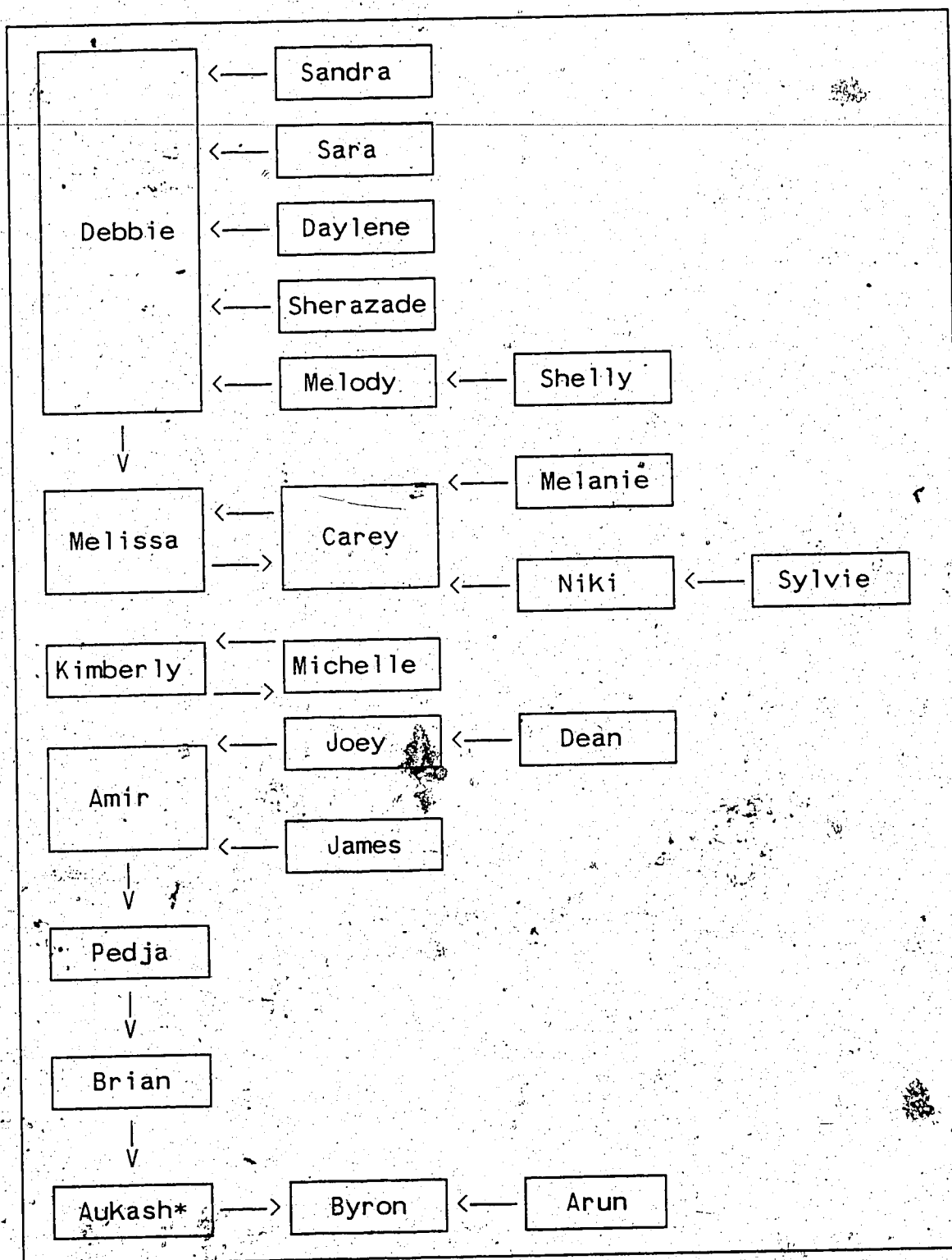


Figure 12. Class sociogram for Keheewin Elementary School.
Conflict Management trainees are denoted by an *

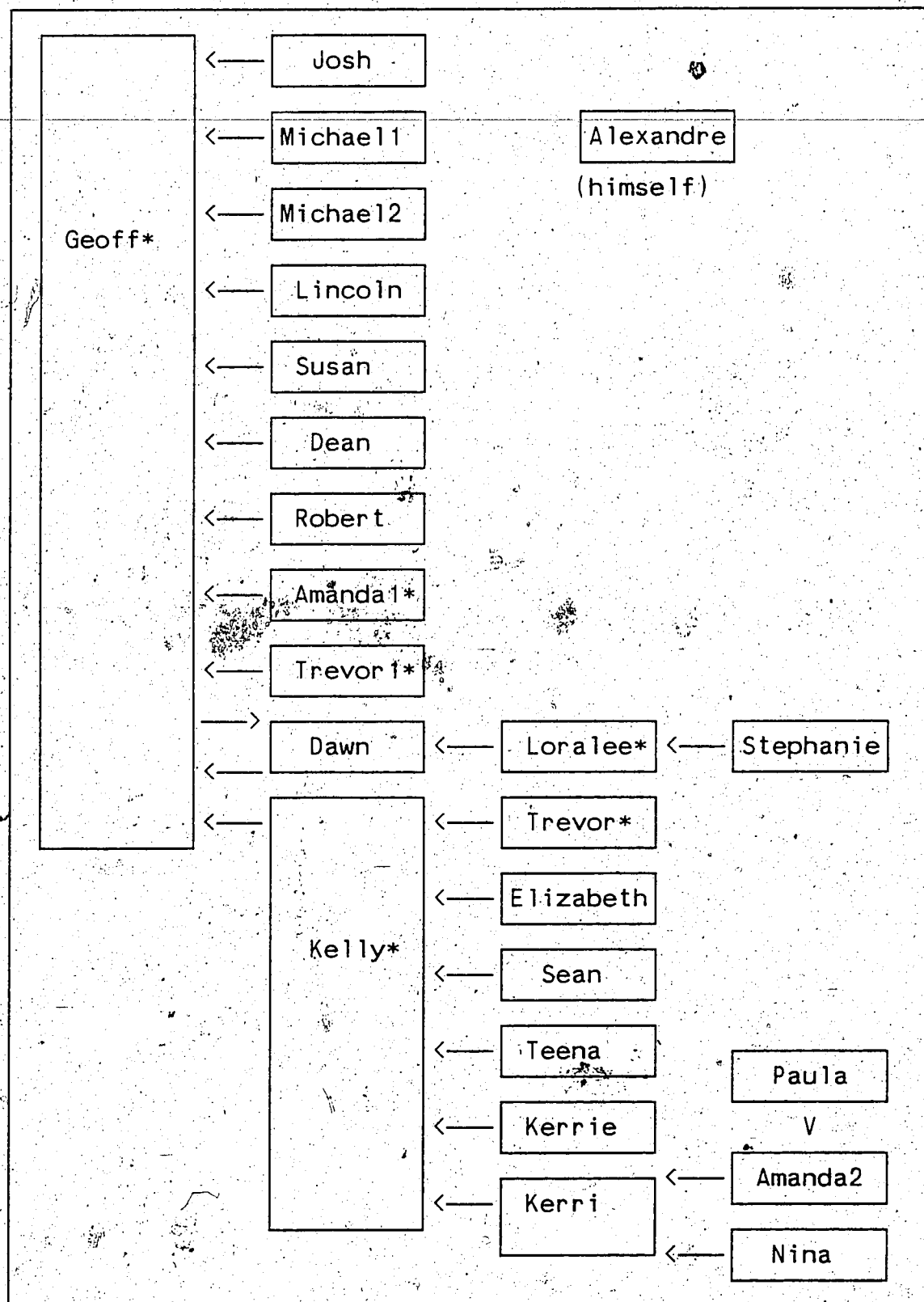


Figure 13. Class sociogram for Keheewin Elementary School.
Conflict Management trainees are denoted by an *

Conclusions

The results from class sociograms generally provided support for trainee selection procedures. Callingwood

Elementary chose five of the top seven nominees (as indicated by the sociogram), Capilano Elementary three of four, Delwood Elementary three of six, and Keheewin Elementary three of eight.

C. Training Procedures

Four independent measures were used to examine the effectiveness of training procedures. All measures were applied to trainees in a pre and post-test format. Measures used included:

- a. Empathic Understanding in Interpersonal Process: A Scale for Measurement
- b. The Communication of Respect in Interpersonal Processes: A Scale for Measurement
- c. Personally Relevant Concreteness or Specificity of Expression in Interpersonal Processes: A Scale for Measurement
- d. Learned Procedure Checklist

Score Reliability

Results obtained by the author for these scales were verified by an independent rater currently enrolled in the Doctoral Program of Educational Psychology at the University of Alberta. The rater was provided with three audio tapes

and written scripts of the tapes and asked to score the student helper according to specific test criteria (see Appendix L for pre and post-test examples). An agreement rate of 67% was obtained for the third measure noted above. All other measures indicated agreement rates of 94% or better. These measures are located Appendix K.

Analysis of Variance

Results of one way analysis of variance with repeated measures were shown for each measure in tables 1 through 4 respectively.

Results of the analysis of variance with pre and post-test measures of trainee empathy and communication of respect indicated that a significant difference ($p < .05$) existed between the pre and post-test measures of the variables. For these scales a P value of .025 with an F ratio of 5.942 was obtained in both cases. Similarly, the pre and post-test measures of the variables, concreteness of expression and learned procedures, using analysis of variance results, indicated a significant difference for $p < .01$. Concreteness of Expression Scale scores yielded a P value of .002 with an F ratio of 12.175. Learned Procedures scores resulted in a P value of .001 and an F ratio of 94.950.

Table 1

A. Cell Values for Empathy Scale Scores

Test	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Pre-test	20	2.100	0.641
Post-test	20	2.550	0.605

B. Summary of Analysis of Variance of Empathy Scores

Variable	Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F Ratio	P
Empathy	Trials	2.025	1	2.025	5.942	.025*
	Error	6.475	19	0.341		

*p<.05

Table 2

A. Cell Values for Communication of Respect Scale Scores

Test	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Pre-test	20	2.250	0.786
Post-test	20	2.700	0.571

B. Summary of Analysis of Variance of Communication of Respect Scores

Variable	Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F Ratio	P
Communication of Respect	Trial	2.025	1	2.025	5.942	.025*
	Error	6.475	19	0.341		

* $p < .05$

Table 3

A. Cell Values for Concreteness of Expression Scale Scores

Test	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Pre-test	20	2.450	0.605
Post-test	20	3.300	0.865

B. Summary of Analysis of Variance of Concreteness of Expression Scores

Variable	Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F Ratio	P
Concreteness of Expression	Trial Error	7.225 11.275	1 19	7.225 0.593	12.175	.002*

* $p < .01$

Table 4

A. Cell Values for Learned Procedures Scores

Test	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Pre-test	20	2.100	0.968
Post-test	20	7.450	2.438

B. Summary of Analysis of Variance of
Learned Procedures Scores

Variable	Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F Ratio	P
Learned Procedures	Trial Error	286.225 57.275	1 19	286.225 3.014	94.950	.001*

* $p < .01$

Pearson Correlation Coefficients

The Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated to determine the degree of relationship between the dependent variables. Results were presented in table 5.

Significant relationships were evidenced between all four measures at the .05 level of confidence and ranged from .6551 to .8227. Pearson correlation coefficients for learned procedures with others measures was significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Conclusions

To test the null hypothesis, a one way analysis for repeated measures was performed on the data collected for the Empathic Understanding in Interpersonal Processes Scale, Communication of Respect in Interpersonal Processes Scale, and Personally Relevant Concreteness or Specificity of Expression in Interpersonal Processes Scale. Analysis of the data indicated that there were significant differences in pre-post test scores for all three measures. Pearson correlation coefficients also indicated a positive significant relationship between all three measures. Results therefore supported rejection of the null hypothesis for trainee micro-counseling skills.

A one way analysis of variance with repeated measures that was performed on data obtained from pre-post scores also indicated significant difference among the pre-post scores, which provided support for rejection of the null

Table 5

Pearson Correlation Coefficients
Training Effectiveness Measures

Tests	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
A	1.000	.122 (p = .304)	.6790 (p = .000)**	-.0575 (p = .405)	.4210 (p = .032)*	.0380 (p = .437)	.5771 (p = .004)**	.0371 (p = .438)
B		1.000	.2490 (p = .145)	.6551 (p = .001)**	.0072 (p = .488)*	.7751 (p = .000)**	.0809 (p = .367)	.8227 (p = .000)**
C			1.000	.2925 (p = .105)	.3043 (p = .096)	.1161 (p = .313)	.5186 (p = .040)**	.3500 (p = .065)
D				1.000	.3504 (p = .065)	.5116 (p = .011)*	.1523 (p = .261)	.7066 (p = .000)**
E					1.000	-.0705 (p = .384)	.2787 (p = .117)	-.0375 (p = .438)
F						1.000	-.0377 (p = .437)	.8315 (p = .000)**
G							1.000	.1806 (p = .223)
H								1.000

- A. Empathy Pre-test
B. Empathy Post-test
C. Respect Pre-test
D. Respect Post-test
E. Concreteness Pre-test
F. Concreteness Post-test
G. Learned Procedures Pre-test
H. Learned Procedures Post-test

1. Number in parentheses indicate the probabilities
coefficient

* p < .05

** p < .01

hypothesis for this measure. A positive significant relation as determined by Pearson correlation coefficients was noted between scores for the Learned Procedures Checklist and the previously mentioned micro-counseling skills measurement scales.

Helper Self Concept

Two independent measures were utilized to determine the effects of the training program on trainee self concept. The Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale and Semantic Differential Scales were administered using a pre and post-test format for both. These measures are located in Appendices G and H.

Analysis of Variance

Tables 6 and 7 represented results of performed one way analysis of variance with repeated measures. Results for both measures illustrated no significant differences between the pre and post-test means.

Pearson Correlation Coefficients

Calculations of Pearson correlation coefficients were completed to determine the degree of relationship between the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale and Semantic Differential Scales. Findings were presented in table 8. Significance at the .01 level of confidence was evidenced between both measures of self concept.

Table 6.

A. Cell Values for Piers-Harris Self Concept Scores

Test	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Pre-test	24	66.167	11.586
Post-test	24	69.542	10.782

B. Summary of Analysis of Variance of Piers-Harris Self Concept Scores

Variable	Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F Ratio	P
Self Concept	Trial Error	136.688 879.813	1 23	136.688 38.253	3.573	.071

Table 7

A. Cell Values for Semantic Differential Self Concept Scores

Test	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Pre-test	24	86.125	10.995
Post-test	24	87.833	11.454

B. Summary of Analysis of Variance of Semantic Differential Self Concept Scores

Variable	Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F Ratio	P
Self Concept	Trial	34.969	1	34.969	.562	.461
	Error	1430.500	23	62.239		

Table 8

Pearson correlation coefficients: Self Concept Scales

Tests:	Piers Pre	Piers Post ¹	Semantic Pre ¹	Semantic Post ¹
Piers Pre	1.000	.6964 (p=.000)**	.6032 (p=.001)**	.6421 (p=.000)**
Piers Post		1.000	.3621 (p=.041)*	.6306 (p=.000)**
Semantic Pre			1.000	.5066 (p=.006)**
Semantic Post				1.000

1. Numbers in parentheses indicate the probabilities
coefficient

* p<.05

** p<.01

Conclusions

In order to test the null hypotheses, a one way analysis of variance with repeated measures was performed on the data collected for the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and Semantic Differential Scales. The analysis did not indicate a significant difference in pre-post test scores for either measure. The null hypotheses for these measures were therefore accepted.

Pearson correlation coefficients indicated a positive significant relationship between the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale and Semantic Differential Scales. There was no relationship evidenced between these measures and others tested for this study.

VI. SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Peer Counseling Defined

For the purpose of this study, Buck's (1977) definition of peer counselors and counseling was adopted; "Students develop and utilize their leadership skills in a positive, helping, service-type relationship with their peers" (p. 362).

B. The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate student selection and training procedures used during a Conflict Management Training Program. Emphasis of the investigation was upon the following questions:

- a. Were trainee selections classroom leaders as viewed by their peers?
- b. Did actual training procedures meet their objectives?
- c. Did trainees' self concepts reflect a positive change as a result of participation in the training program?

C. The Sample

A total of 25 students in grades five and six from four Edmonton Public School elementary classes were involved in the study. Students were trainees chosen by their school to participate in the last Conflict Management Training Program

of the 1982-83 school year.

D. The Instruments

Several instruments were used in this study. To review the trainee selection processes a class sociogram from each class which contributed at least one trainee was collected. Effects of the training program upon the trainees general self concept were examined by use of the Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale and a set of Semantic Differential Scales. To explore the effects of Conflict Management training techniques upon student micro-counseling skills and procedures required of student helpers during actual peer counseling, three Carkhuff's scales (empathy, client respect and conversation specificity) and a Learned Procedures Checklist were administered.

E. The Methods

Class sociograms were obtained after selection of trainees by schools and prior to commencement of actual training. Students were asked to choose a "leader" based on a fantasy situation involving survival of the entire class.

Both self concept scales were administered to the trainees pre and post-treatment. Pre-testing was approximately one week prior to commencement of training and post-testing two weeks after completion.

Trainees were also placed in a helping role involving a "mock" conflict between two trained confederates. Pre and

post-test results as measured on Carkhuff's Scales and the Learned Procedures Checklist were obtained.

All testing occurred at the home school of the trainee.

F. The Findings

Class sociograms endorsed selection procedures used by schools in choosing trainees for Conflict Management training.

One way analysis of variance with repeated measures performed on pre-post data measuring specific micro-counseling skills (empathy, regard, specificity) and learned procedures offered clear support for training procedures. A strong positive correlation between instruments measuring micro-counseling skills as well as learned procedures was also evidenced.

Trainee self concept as measured by the Piers-Harris Self Concept Scale and Semantic Differential Scales did not indicate any meaningful change.

G. Discussion and Recommendations

As this was a descriptive study, involving a small sample size and no control group, interpretation of results and recommendations must be focused on the population involved and interpolations to other settings or groups should be made with caution.

Sociograms

Use of sociograms to examine trainee selection procedures clarified difficulties participating schools faced in choosing students. Many of the schools had adults participating in class decisions to a greater or lesser degree. It is suggested that because of this intrusion, the student nominees did not accurately reflect the actual student preferences. Group theory suggests that entry of a stranger into a group forces restructuring of that group. It therefore may have been more logical to have had classroom teachers interact with their classes to finalize nominations. If true classroom leaders are not included in the training, these students may use their skills to "sabotage" the program.

A further difficulty in the method used to gather data for the sociogram was noted. One of the classes had three trainees chosen from its members and another class had seven. In this study's sociogram, students were given the opportunity to select only one individual as their nomination for their class. Therefore, if one student received the vast majority of nominations, the second, third and fourth place nominees in the same class would have very few votes left to be distributed between them. Some trainees were in fact not chosen by any other peers, possibly because peers had simply "used up" their vote. Jennings (1959) suggested that students should be asked for their top three choices (ranked order) or allow them an unlimited number of

choices and have nomination points awarded accordingly. Schools using sociograms to select trainees would therefore be wise to provide students the opportunity to nominate more than one candidate and attempts should be made to limit the number of trainees actually selected from each class.

The format of the question asked to obtain class sociograms also requires careful consideration. While the question asked for this study was carefully masked to hide any obvious relationship between it and the Conflict Management Program, Jennings (1950) noted that:

Sociometric tests must hold reality value for the subjects to whom they were administered. The test-population must have confidence that their expressions will be used for the group functions for which they are given. (p. 28)

Finally the question of inclusion of minority group leaders, as suggested by Johnson et al. (1978), implies that adjustment of sociogram results may be necessary. Minority groups refers to those students who because of ethnic origin, or more typically, behavior and attitude towards school, are not representative of the majority view. The fact that these students are part of a minority means they are unlikely to be selected by the majority.

Future studies might explore the value of nominations being secured using a larger sample of the school population (such as all Division II students), or development of another approach to allow for multiple nominations within a single class.

Because of the relative "newness" of peer counseling at the elementary school level, and more specifically the Conflict Management Program, a comparison study of trainee selection approaches utilizing recruitment of volunteers as suggested by Hamburg and Varenhorst (1972), faculty nominations (Brown, 1965; Pyle & Snyder, 1971; Johnson et al., 1978) and empirical nominations (McCann, 1975; Raich, 1979) is justified.

Training Procedures

Strong support for the effectiveness of training procedures used was obtained through statistical analysis. However the use of these statistics must be tempered with the nonstatistical nature of this study. Several components of the training program remained vague and difficult to either control or measure. Between the two formal three-hour training sessions, each school provided informal training. Some schools practiced procedures through role-playing, some introduced the program to some of the classes, some actually operationalized the program and one did nothing. These variables and others such as what happened during the two weeks after the final training session (e.g. number of conflicts, further role-playing, amount of intervention by administrator) created difficulties in trying to ascertain which components resulted in the statistically significant results as measured by the Empathy, Respect, Specificity of Expression and Learned Procedures pre-post scores. Because

there were definite gains made in micro-counseling skills and learned procedures for this group, it would be of value to undertake a study involving a control group and controlled variables to isolate those components of the formal and/or informal training programs which resulted in these gains. This is of particular value considering the void currently in the literature regarding both elementary peer counseling programs and Conflict Management Programs. It is also important in terms of the very short formal training time involved. Hoffman and Warner (1976) in their review of some 85 articles, stated that most programs showed adequate growth in trainees after 20 to 40 hours of formal training (and the majority of these programs were at the senior high, college or adult level). This program would appear to have shown improvement in trainees after only six hours of formal training.

The efficiency of examining the effectiveness of training procedures as suggested by Carkhuff (1969), by placing trainees in helper roles was also evidenced. Video taping as compared to audio taping would have provided information regarding skill development in eye contact and body language which were not measurable in this study, but were emphasized in training.

Training procedures were effective in teaching skills to the student helpers. It would be of value to investigate the effectiveness of these skills in actual conflict management situations. This would seem necessary to support

the choice of skills being taught.

Studies by Kern and Kinby (1971), McCann (1975) and Raiche (1979) of elementary peer counseling programs utilized student helpers in roles under the direct supervision and presence of a trained school counselor. As the Conflict Management Program has student helpers working independently of trained personnel further emphasis is placed on the need to evaluate the programs overall effectiveness.

Conflict Management Programs exist at the junior and senior high level as well. A study to differentiate between training techniques which are effective with various age levels could be of value.

Helper Self Concept

No significant change in helper self concept as a result of the training program was evidenced. While several authors (Chamber, 1980; Fink et al., 1978; Hamburg & Varenhorst, 1972; Woudenberg & Payne, 1978) have reported that peer counseling programs were mutually beneficial to the helper and helpee the concept of self has remained difficult to measure. Anderson (1979) discussed some of these reasons why this difficulty has persisted:

Firstly, it is difficult to identify items that are sensitive in reflecting change in self-perception as it is reported by respondents, particularly if the child has limited cognitive development because of age. Secondly, it is not certain at what age or stage of cognitive development an individual is able to report information about self with some degree of accuracy and consistency. Thirdly, defensiveness

creates problems in research in that the impression some individuals hold of themselves may be unrealistic. Individuals with highly defensive behaviors who in a pre-test may report a healthy self concept may after a developmental program allow more realistic impressions into their awareness and thus in the post-test may report a lower self concept. Fourthly, children may assess their self concept in terms of socially approved responses thus responding on the scale according to what they think the researcher wishes to hear rather than how they really feel about themselves. (p. 90)

In this study some of the students scored near the maximum obtainable score on both self concept measures in the pre-test phase. this may have created a ceiling effect, as student scores had little or no room to increase in the post-test phase.

It would therefore be of value to identify characteristics of trainees using personality measures to help develop other measures of self concept and a more general trainee profile. A study to examine the characteristics of proven "successful" Conflict Management peer counselors is justified. Schools wishing to select future trainees would then have access to a profile of candidates who would likely benefit from the current training procedures.

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APPENDIX A

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT: A POSITIVE ALTERNATIVE TO DISCIPLINE

By: Mr. Doug Krenz, Assistant Principal, Bannerman

Elementary School

A process that started out as an experiment in three Edmonton Public Schools last year has spread to approximately 1/4 of the schools in the system, including Elementary, Jr. High, Senior High and Special Education schools.

The objectives of the program are:

1. To provide a positive alternative for discipline.
2. To reduce the amount of time teachers, administrators, and counselors spend on conflict.
3. To reduce tension between students.
4. To improve school climate.
5. To prove that students (even disruptive students) can handle sophisticated responsibility.
6. To provide an opportunity for power-orientated children to have a positive impact on the school.

The conflict management team is composed of students from the upper two grades in the school, at least two staff members, a parent, the school secretary and a co-ordinator of the program. The students are selected on the basis of their existing leadership ability by their peers. They are trained in communication and problem solving skills and given a very specific procedure to deal with interpersonal

conflict. These students usually prove to be very active power-orientated children in the school. A final

criterion in the selection process is that minority group students have a representative on the team.

Perhaps the most difficult concept to accept is that some students chosen will be discipline problems themselves, and while it is not an objective of the program to change their behavior what in fact usually happens is that their behavior does not change. To leave these students out however would be a grave mistake because they would sabotage and undermine the program and doom it to failure. By the same token being on the team should not be used as a lever for maintaining a certain academic standard. However team members are responsible for all work covered while they are out of class and if they themselves are in conflict they have the same options as other students. If team members are causing problems in school, they are subject to the same rules and consequences as other students.

Student facilitators work in pairs using a simple methodology.

1. The conflicting students are asked if they want to "work it out" with the principal or the conflict management team. (The matter of student choices is very important).
2. The conflicting students must say yes to 3 agreements:

- a. no name calling
 - b. no interruptions
 - c. talk only to the student facilitator
3. The facilitators listen to both sides of the story and then attempt to obtain an agreement from the rival partners that would keep them out of further difficulties.

The training takes place over 2 - 3 one half days at a location away from the school. The training sessions are spaced two weeks apart so that the program can be implemented after the first training session and problems can be solved at the ensuing sessions. Role play and interpersonal exercise are the main vehicle for developing the competency level to the degree necessary for the program to be a success. Both staff and students go through the training procedure which supplies an interesting contrast in the rate of learning in favor of the students. Expectations and responsibilities are clearly delineated to the team during training to ensure efficient operation of the program. Skills that are mastered during the training sessions include problem solving, listening, compromise, reflective listening, non-verbal communication, eye contact, empathy, body language, responsible behavior, record keeping, reporting procedures, explaining and clarifying, following a procedure and getting a commitment. The main advantage to this format is that when the training is

complete the program is ready to begin. There is very little effort involved in getting it going because

everything is covered in the training sessions. This has tremendous advantage for staffs because it greatly reduces all of the time, effort, motivation, and "what ifs" that normally accompany a new program.

The program is narrowly defined in that the team only deals with interpersonal conflict (verbal or physical) or rumors of same. The team does not break up fights, supervise the playground, hallways or classrooms, or work on personal, academic or social problems. In other words they are not an arm of the administration but function rather independently in the school being responsible to the students they help as well as their staff supervisor. After each dispute is settled a form is filled out indicating various statistical information but no names are put on the form. The team is ultimately accountable to the staff by reporting statistics of their work to the monthly staff meeting.

By far the majority of the work of the team is done by the student. The staff responsibilities consist of being an advocate, attending the training sessions, attending monthly meetings and writing letters of encouragement to the students.

That the student body sees the program as a positive alternative is clearly evidenced by the fact

that students when given a choice of seeing the team or the principal, always choose the team. Also the team is experiencing a lot of self referrals for help with conflicts.

That the team is effective is evidenced by the fact that there are few repeat referrals. Available research indicates that children are excellent solvers of other children problems and many students who would not listen to an adult do listen and are influenced by their leader peers. It is unlikely that a child will not follow through with his plan for behavior change if he has agreed to do so with someone he respects and admires.

The crux of the program's success lies in the school administration's willingness to trust the students. The administrators have to be committed to the idea that once student facilitators take a case the administration will not interfere. If it can't be handled by the student facilitators then the administration takes over.

It seems that a great deal of energy is spent in schools in power conflicts with students. This program capitalizes on the idea that it is futile to attempt to take power and control away from students who like to play this type of game. The only other alternative that has a positive impact on the school and students. Therefore administrators and teachers who like to have total control would find the program unworkable. Perhaps

it is more important to have harmony in schools as opposed to total control.

The team also requires a suitable work place to meet with the students they are attempting to help. An office, a classroom, storage closet, anywhere that can be reserved for their exclusive use is a necessary adjunct to the program.

At the elementary level, the team uses recess plus 10 minutes of class time for the conflict resolution process. At Jr. and Sr. High, team members are timetabled into the daily program and are given credits for working in the program.

When the program begins, members of the conflict management team visit each classroom to role play a situation and explain their program.

The outcomes are greatly reduced time spent on conflict type problems by administrators and counselors, a more viable option for settling of disputes, and a more harmonious atmosphere in school and on the playground.

The bottom line on conflict management is what have you got to lose? It is not a program that requires tremendous amounts of money, time, materials and equipment. The worst that can possibly happen is some staff and students trained in communication and problem solving skills which can't hurt anyone.

For further information contact D. Krenz at
Bannerman School or at home 476-9555.

APPENDIX B

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT WORKSHOP DAY ONE

1. Opening Remarks - Welcome
2. Slide Presentation of Conflict Management in an
Edmonton School
3. Communication Skills - Exercise
4. a) Staff - Conflict Management as an Alternative
b) Students - Communication Skills Exercise
 - Eye Contact
 - Reflective Listening
5. Procedures of Conflict Resolution:
 - Skills
 - Rules
 - Procedure
 - Demonstration

NUTRITION BREAK

1. Role Play #1
 - Follow-up
2. Responsibility Game
3. Role Play #2
4. Getting Started - Skit, etc.
5. Culminating Activity

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT WORKSHOP DAY TWO

1. Review - Questions
 2. Body Language - non verbal
 - Reflective Listening in 3's
 3. Skills in Process
-
4. Insincerity and how to deal with it

NUTRITION BREAK

1. Role play #3
 - Importance of Body Language
 - Eye Contact
 - Reflective Listening
 - Role of Observer
2. Tips for Success
3. Expectations and Responsibilities
4. Culminating Activity

APPENDIX C

CONFLICT RESOLUTION WORKSHOP

RESOURCE STAFF

Bob Dean

Jim Hancheruk

Doug Krenz

Hu Puffer

Ron Sailer

WHAT DO YOU NEED TO RUN THE PROGRAM?

1. Give up some power
 2. Trained students and staff advisor
 3. A place to work
-
4. Someone to oversee the program

BENEFITS OF THE PROGRAM

1. Reduced conflicts
2. Time
3. School climate

SKILLS OF THE CONFLICT RESOLUTION PROCESS

PROBLEM SOLVING

SKIT

COMPROMISE

SEATING ARRANGEMENTS

REFLECTIVE LISTENING

EXPLAINING AND CLARIFYING

EYE CONTACT

FOLLOWING A PROCEDURE

ACTING RESPONSIBLE

GETTING A COMMITMENT

RECORD KEEPING

REPORTING TO STAFF

SELLING THE PROGRAM

ASSERTIVE CONFLICT RESOLUTION

1. A positive alternative to discipline
 2. Take students who exhibit leadership skills and teach them compromise and communication skills
 3. Students solve conflicts in a maximum of 10 minutes
-
4. The focus of interaction is on problem solving
 5. Leaders' behavior and academic performance are not contingent upon being in the program
 6. Leaders have the same rights and privileges as other students in the school
 7. Best resolutions usually come from the combatants themselves
 8. The program is seen as receiving fair treatment from the student body
 9. A very definite procedure is adhered to
 10. Accountability through record keeping
 11. Parameters of operation
 12. Responsibilities of staff and parents
 - a. Be an advocate
 - b. Attend the workshop and meetings
 - c. Write letters of encouragement

EXPECTATIONS AND RESPONSIBILITIES

1. Use the procedure
 2. To work towards becoming a cohesive team
 3. To act responsible
 4. To use only 10 minutes of school time per contract
-
5. To keep their allotted space neat and clean
 6. To keep accurate and complete records
 7. To report periodically to staff
 8. Behavior
 9. School work
 10. Good example

TIPS FOR SUCCESSDON' T

1. give advice or tell students what to do.
 2. take sides.
 3. let them break agreements.
-
4. here & now get into the old stuff.
 5. look for fault, get hung up on right or wrong.
 6. change attitudes.
 7. put up with garbage.
 8. put down people you are helping.
 9. share information about conflicts - be confidential.

STEPS FOR STUDENT HELPERS

1. Ask students if they would like to talk about the conflict.
2. Give them a choice:
 - a. Go to office
 - b. Talk with student helper
3. If Students helpers, get their names down and leave them in office book.
4. At session:
 - a. agree to come here or go to office
 - b. review the 3 rules
 - c. who would like to begin first?
5. listen to one then the other
 - anything else to say?
 - what can we do about this?
 - do you both agree?
 - is this the end of the matter?
 - review again the agreement.

REMEMBER:

Anytime you don't listen, take them to the office.

APPENDIX D

INSINCERE COMMITMENTS

1. Tone of voice
 2. Sly smile
 3. Not being able to look you in the eye
-

CONFRONTING INSINCERITY

1. Your words say yes but your eyes say no.
2. I can't believe you as long as you have that smile on your face.
3. I'm not convinced it's going to work.
4. Look me in the eye and tell me.
5. Tell me without that smile on your face.

APPENDIX E

TEAM PROCEDURE

1. Say "Do you wish to see the team or the principal?".
2. Introduce yourself and state your job. - "We are here to help you come up with a solution for your conflict".
3. Say "Do you want our help?".
4. Three agreements:
 - a. No interruptions
 - b. No name calling
 - c. Talk only to team members
5. Ask both combatants if they agree
6. Ask who will start and give each person a chance to explain what happened
7. Say "What can you do to solve the problem?".
8. If they are unwilling to work out a solution walk out and report to your supervisor
9. Reflect back the solution
10. Ask both parties "Is it over?"

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT PROJECTPROJECT CASE FORM (SAMPLE)

Date: _____

Number of students involved in the Conflict: _____

Names of students: _____

1. What happened?_____
_____2. Where?

Classroom _____ Coming to School _____ Playground/_____

Leaving School _____ Class Line _____ Other _____

3. Case Referred By:

Principal _____ Vice Principal _____ Teacher _____

Teacher Aide _____ Self _____ Other _____

4. Brief Description ofCase: _____
_____5. Resolution:

Shake Hands (apologize) _____ Ignore each other _____

Unresolved _____ Other _____

6. Estimated Time Used:

Hours _____ Minutes _____

7. YourComments: _____

Signature of Students Counselors

Signature of Staff Advisor

(First letter to student helpers - SAMPLE)

BRIGHTVIEW ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

15425-106 Avenue, Edmonton

November 18, 1981

Dear _____ :

Welcome to our Student Assistance team. You are a very important part of this team and we look forward to working with you as your advisors. We liked the way you presented the skit and started out program on such a good serious tone. We ask you to continue to take this job seriously and train yourself to be ready for duty when needed.

Thank you for your help and please talk to one of us if you need help at any time.

Sincerely,

Mr. H. G. Puffer, Principal

Mr. J. S. Hancheruk,

Assistant Principal

(First Letter To Parents - SAMPLE)

BRIGHTVIEW ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

October 19, 1981

Dear _____:

The purpose of this letter is to describe a new and interesting project involving Brightview School and to ask your permission and support in having _____ participate.

It is proposed that Brightview School join one other Elementary School, two Junior High Schools and one Senior High School in a Student Assistance Project beginning this fall.

Students at all levels are constantly confronted with situations involving all aspects of conflict from the simplest arguments to more serious feuds and threats. In nearly every situation, these problems are dealt with by the teachers, counselors and administrators of the school. This is extremely time consuming and in many cases effective solutions could be arrived at by another third party, i.e. a Student Assistance Team.

In February 1981, educators from Sacramento California, spoke to teachers on the merits of Student Assistance Teams. This holds some exciting and practical possibilities for your schools and we have invited these educators to conduct a workshop at Victoria Composite High School students and a number of parents, counselors, teachers and administrators.

We are confident that upper Elementary students and parents will benefit from the experience and find it interesting. Please refer to the attached agenda for details of the workshop. A special effort will be made to make younger students comfortable and make the experience as enjoyable as possible.

I would appreciate your phone call (484-6631), or I will contact you at your earliest opportunity to discuss this in more detail and I will appreciate your cooperation in considering this matter.

I would be happy to provide transportation to and from the sessions at Victoria Composite High School for those people who require it.

Sincerely,

H. G. Puffer, Principal

(Second Letter To Parents - SAMPLE)

BRIGHTVIEW ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

15425-106 Avenue, Edmonton

November 18, 1981

Dear Parents:

We are happy to report that our Student Assistance team is now ready to start work. They will provide a service to fellow students and the school in helping individual students and groups of students in conflict, to solve their problems.

There are bound to be arguments, disagreements, name calling, rumours, threats and even fights between people when 250 boys and girls come together every day. The Student Assistance team will be very helpful in most cases of conflict. We will always be ready to give advice and assistance. It should be pointed out that this team is not expected to deal with any differences involving school rules. These will continue to be dealt with only by the teachers and administrators. Student Assistance are to act as facilitators only and under no circumstances are they expected to take sides in any situation.

We are grateful to you for allowing your child to become involved in the workshop and this important work. We would be happy to talk to you more about the Student Assistance Program at any time. Please do not hesitate to call 484-6631.

Sincerely,

H.G. Puffer, Principal

J.S. Hancheruk,

Assistant Principal

(SAMPLE)

BRIGHTVIEW SCHOOL
CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STUDENT HELPERS
PROGRAM SUMMARY

November 17 - February 24

No. of Cases	No. of Students	Type of Situation
		(Playground)
45	105	fighting, calling names, threat, left-out, argument, joke, hit by mistake, fight over some book, kicking, snowballing, throwing, rumours, punching.

Resolutions

shake hands	20
ignore	16
other	8
unresolved	1

Note

1. Thanks to all teachers who have helped make this process a success.
2. Conflict Management provides you alternatives for playground incidents:
 - 1) Deal with it on the spot your self

2) Offer choice to students involved

- office

- student helpers

3) Violation of school rules - Black Book

APPENDIX F

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT PROJECT

OUTLINE FOR CLASSROOM PRESENTATIONS

1. Introduce team members and name all of the other team members including the staff members. "The reason we like what we are doing, is that we will be helping students settle problems involving students. In a minute, we'll show you how we do this. We help when we want to; we have the right not to involve ourselves and you have the right to refuse our help. When we deal with a problem the administration stays out. It begins and ends with us, unless the people involved don't want a settlement -- then we say to one of the staff people, 'we couldn't handle it'."
2. Do a skit and facilitation
3. Question and answer period
4. Introduction and Agreements
 - a. Name
 - b. What is the Conflict Management?
5. Agreements
 - a. Do they both want facilitators?
 - b. Not to interrupt?
 - c. Talk only to the facilitator?

APPENDIX G

THE PIERS-HARRIS
CHILDREN'S SELF CONCEPT SCALE
(The way I feel about myself)

by
Ellen V. Piers, Ph.D.
and
Dale B. Harris, Ph.D.

Published by
Counselor Recordings and Tests
BOX 6184 ACKLEN STATION NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE 37212

THE WAY I FEEL ABOUT MYSELF

NAME _____

AGE _____ GIRL OR BOY _____

GRADE _____ SCHOOL _____

DATE _____

Here are a set of statements. Some of them are true of you and so you will circle the yes. Some are not true of you and so you will circle the no. Answer every question even if some are hard to decide, but do not circle both yes and no.

Remember, circle the yes if the statement if the statement is generally like you, or circle the no if the statement is generally no like you. There are no right and wrong answers. Only you can tell us how you feel about yourself, so we hope you will mark the way you really feel inside.

My classmates make fun of me	yes no
I am a happy person	yes no
It is hard for me to make friends	yes no
I am often sad	yes no
I am smart	yes no
I am shy	yes no
I get nervous when the teacher calls on me	yes no
My looks bother me	yes no
When I grow up, I will be an important person	yes no
I get worried when we have tests in school	yes no
I am unpopular	yes no
I am well behaved in school	yes no
It is usually my fault when something goes wrong	yes no
I cause trouble to my family	yes no
I am strong	yes no
I have good ideas	yes no

I am an important member of my family	yes no
I usually want my own way	yes no
I am good at making things with my hands	yes no
I give up easily	yes no
I am good in my school work	yes no
I do many bad things	yes no
I can draw well	yes no
I am good in music	yes no
I behave badly at home	yes no
I am slow in finishing my school work	yes no
I am an important member of my class	yes no
I am nervous	yes no
I have pretty eyes	yes no
I can give a good report in front of the class	yes no
In school I am a dreamer	yes no
I pick on my brother(s) and sister(s)	yes no
My friends like my ideas	yes no
I often get into trouble	yes no
I am obedient at home	yes no
I am lucky	yes no
I worry a lot	yes no
My parents expect too much from me	yes no
I like being the way I am	yes no
I feel left out of things	yes no
I have nice hair	yes no
I often volunteer in school	yes no
I wish I were different	yes no

I sleep well at night	yes no
I hate school	yes no
I am among the last to be chosen for games	yes no
I am sick a lot	yes no
I am often mean to other people	yes no
My classmates in school think I have good ideas	yes no
I am unhappy	yes no
I have many friends	yes no
I am cheerful	yes no
I am dumb about most things	yes no
I am good looking	yes no
I have lots of pep	yes no
I get into a lot of fights	yes no
I am popular with the boys	yes no
People pick on me	yes no
My family is disappointed in me	yes no
I have a pleasant face	yes no
When I try to make something, everything seems	
to go wrong	yes no
I am picked on at home	yes no
I am a leader in games and sports	yes no
I am clumsy	yes no
In games and sports, I watch instead of play	yes no
I forget what I learn	yes no
I am easy to get along with	yes no
I lose my temper easily	yes no
I am popular with the girls	yes no

I am a good reader	yes no
I would rather work alone than with a group	yes no
I like my brother(sister)	yes no
I have a good figure	yes no
I am often afraid	yes no
I am always dropping or breaking things	yes no
I can be trusted	yes no
I am different from other people	yes no
I think bad thoughts	yes no
I cry easily	yes no
I am a good person	yes no

Score: _____

APPENDIX H

Directions for Administering "Me" Test.

Pass out the test sheets with the "Practice" side up. Ask students to place their names (first and last) and the name of their school on the sheet. Make sure students are spread out so that confidentiality is assured.

SAY:

"This is a way for me to understand how you feel about yourself. You will see some words down the two sides of your paper. Each word on the left is paired with a word on the right; like Ill with Healthy and Hot with Cold. You have probably noticed that these pairs are also opposites. Between each pair of words are seven spaces. You are to put a check mark in the space that tells how you feel right now, regarding each pair. For example (demonstrate this), if you were feeling Very Ill right now, you would put a check mark in the spot closest to the word Ill. If you were feeling Very Healthy right now, you would put your check mark in the space closest to the word Healthy. If you were feeling neither Healthy or Ill, you would put a check mark in the middle blank like this.....Go ahead and fill in both pairs now."

YOU PUT A CHECK MARK IN THE SIXTH BLANK TOWARD HEALTHY AND THE THIRD BLANK TOWARDS HOT.

quite healthy but not very healthy. I am also feeling just

•

•

Name _____

School _____

Date _____

Me

III () () () () () () () Healthy

Hot () () () () () () () Cold

Me

Name _____

School _____

Date _____

- | | | | | | | | | |
|-----|-------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|--------------|
| 1. | Neat | () | () | () | () | () | () | Messy |
| 2. | Interesting | () | () | () | () | () | () | Boring |
| 3. | Dumb | () | () | () | () | () | () | Smart |
| 4. | Strong | () | () | () | () | () | () | Weak |
| 5. | Thoughtless | () | () | () | () | () | () | Thoughtful |
| 6. | Ugly | () | () | () | () | () | () | Beautiful |
| 7. | Successful | () | () | () | () | () | () | Unsuccessful |
| 8. | Clean | () | () | () | () | () | () | Dirty |
| 9. | Clumsy | () | () | () | () | () | () | Skillful |
| 10. | Kind | () | () | () | () | () | () | Mean |
| 11. | Positive | () | () | () | () | () | () | Negative |
| 12. | Foolish | () | () | () | () | () | () | Wise |
| 13. | Bad | () | () | () | () | () | () | Good |
| 14. | Careful | () | () | () | () | () | () | Careless |
| 15. | Timid | () | () | () | () | () | () | Brave |

APPENDIX I

(SAY)

"Hello, my name is _____. I am a clinical researcher with the University of Alberta doing a very special project. Your class(es) has been chosen from all of the classes in Edmonton to participate in this project."

(PASS OUT PAPER AND ASK STUDENTS TO PUT THEIR FULL NAME AND NAME OF THEIR SCHOOL ON IT CAREFULLY.)

"Listen carefully. I'm going to tell you a short story which is about all of you. Put your heads down on your desk. (Pause until students have their heads on their desks) Pretend that your class is on a very special field trip. You are flying in an airplane over the ocean. Suddenly, your plane develops engine trouble and you begin to lose altitude. Your pilot spots an island and heads towards it. You crash land in a forest on the island and all of the adults or grownups on board are killed. Only you and your classmates survived. As far as you know, there is no one else on the island. No one knows what to do. You must choose someone to be the leader. Think about who you would chose from your class, but do not say anything right now."

(PAUSE)

Now raise your head and write the person's name on the piece of paper I gave you. Remember not to say

anything.

APPENDIX J

(SAY)

"Hi, my name is Mr. Canniff and I am a researcher with the University of Alberta. In a minute, you are going to meet two students that have a problem. I want you to do your best to try and help them solve their problem any way you can."

(ENTER THE ROOM WHERE THE TWO STUDENT IN CONFLICT ARE.)

"The tape recorder is on so I can tell how things went."

(TURN ON THE TAPE RECORDER.)

"This is _____ who will help you."

"Walk out and say, 'I'll be back in a few minutes'."

Situation A.

One student given permission by teacher to take a ball outside at recess. On the playground a second student wants to play with the ball. The first student attempts to keep the ball for himself and feels he has the right to because the teacher gave him the ball. Second student tried to take the ball and then kicked it away the first chance he could. First student then fought or hit second student. A teacher or supervisor intervened and sent them both to see a student helper.

Situation B.

Student 1 has been made door monitor by his teacher. He is to watch for kids taking off their boots when they come in the door. Student 2 came in the door and started to go inside without removing his boots. Student 1 rudely told him to take his boots off or else and physically put a hand on student 2 stopping him. Student 2 got mad and swore at student 1. They began pushing and a teacher sent both to see a student helper.

APPENDIX K

Learned Procedures Checklist.

- | | |
|---|---|
| (1) Introduction | — |
| (2) Three agreements | — |
| (3) Listens to one side | — |
| (4) Reflects back | — |
| (5) Listens to other side | — |
| (6) Reflects back | — |
| (7) Asks one for solution | — |
| (8) Reflects back | — |
| (9) Asks second for solution | — |
| (10) Reflects back | — |
| (11) Concludes - Is it over or principal? | — |

SCALES FOR ASSESSMENT OF INTERPERSONAL FUNCTION

SCALE 1 : EMPATHIC UNDERSTANDING IN INTERPERSONAL PROCESS: A SCALE FOR MEASUREMENT.

Level 1

The verbal and behavioral expressions of the first person either do not attend to or detract significantly from the verbal and behavioral expressions of the second person(s) in that they communicate significantly less of the second person's feelings than the second person has communicated himself.

EXAMPLES: The first person communicates no awareness of even the most obvious, expressed surface feelings of the second person. The first person may be bored or uninterested or simply operating from a preconceived frame of reference which totally excludes that of the other person(s).

In summary, the first person does everything but express that he is listening, understanding, or being sensitive to even the feelings of the other person in such a way as to detract significantly from the communications of the second person.

Level 2

While the first person responds to the expressed feelings of the second person(s), he does so in such a way that he subtracts noticeable affect from the communications of the second person.

EXAMPLES: The first person may communicate some awareness of the second person, but these communications drain off a level of the affect and distort the level of meaning. The first person may communicate his own ideas of what may be going on, but these are congruent with the expressions of the second person.

In summary, the first person tends to respond to other than what the second person is expressing or indicating.

Level 3

The expressions of the first person in response to the expressed feelings of the second person(s) are essentially interchangeable with those of the second person in that they express essentially the same affect and meaning.

EXAMPLE: The first person responds with accurate understanding of the surface feelings of the

second person but may not respond to or may misinterpret the deeper feelings.

In summary, the first person is responding so as to neither subtract from nor add to the expressions of the second person; but he does not respond accurately to how that person really feels beneath the surface feelings. Level 3 constitutes the minimal level of facilitative interpersonal functioning.

Level 4

The responses of the first person add noticeably to the expressions of the second person(s) in such a way as to express feelings a level deeper than the second person was able to express himself.

EXAMPLE: The facilitator communicates his understanding of the expressions of the second person at a level deeper than they were expressed, and thus enables the second person to experience and/or express feelings he was unable to express previously.

In summary, the facilitator's responses add deeper feeling and meaning to the expressions of the second person.

Level 5

The first person's responses add significantly to the feeling and meaning of the expressions of the second person(s) in such a way as to (1) accurately express feelings levels below what the person himself was able to express or (2) in the event of on going deep self-exploration on the second person's part, to be fully with him in his deepest moments.

EXAMPLES: The facilitator responds with accuracy to all of the person's deeper as well as surface feelings. he is "together" with the second person or "tuned in" on his wave length. The facilitator and the other person might proceed together to explore previously unexplored areas of human existence.

In summary, the facilitator is responding with a full awareness of who the other person is and a comprehensive and accurate empathic understanding of his deepest feelings.

SCALE 2

~~THE COMMUNICATION OF RESPECT IN INTERPERSONAL PROCESSES;~~

A SCALE FOR MEASUREMENT

Level 1

The verbal and behavioral expressions of the first person communicate a clear lack of respect (or negative regard) for the second person(s).

EXAMPLE: The first person communicates to the second person that the second person's feelings and experiences are not worthy of consideration or that the second person is capable of acting constructively. The first person may become the sole focus of evaluation.

In summary, in many ways the first person communicates a total lack of respect for the feelings, experiences, and potentials of the second person.

Level 2

The first person responds to the second person in such a way as to communicate little respect for the feelings,

experiences, and potentials of the second person.

EXAMPLE: The first person may respond mechanically or passively or ignore many of the feelings of the second person.

In summary, in many ways the first person displays a lack of respect or concern for the second person's feelings, experiences, and potentials.

Level 3

The first person communicates a positive respect and concern for the second person's feelings, experiences, and potentials.

EXAMPLE: The first person communicates respect and concern for the second person's ability to express himself and to deal constructively with his life situation.

In summary, in many ways the first person communicates that who the second person is and what he does matter to the first person. Level 3 constitutes the minimal level of facilitative interpersonal functioning.

Level 4

The facilitator clearly communicates a very deep respect and concern for the second person.

EXAMPLE: The facilitator's responses enables the second person to feel free to be himself and to experience being valued as an individual.

In summary, the facilitator communicates a very deep caring for the feelings, experiences, and potentials of the second person.

Level 5

The facilitator communicates the very deepest respect for the second person's worth as a person and his potentials as a free individual.

EXAMPLE: The facilitator cares very deeply for the human potentials of the second person.

In summary, the facilitator is committed to the value of the other person as a human being.

SCALE 5

PERSONALLY RELEVANT CONCRETENESS OR SPECIFICITY

OF EXPRESSION IN INTERPERSONAL PROCESSES:

A SCALE FOR MEASUREMENT

Level 1

The first person leads or allows all discussion with the second person(s) to deal only with vague and anonymous generalities.

Example: The first person and the second person on strictly an abstract an highly intellectual level.

In summary, the first person makes no attempt to lead the discussion into the realm of personally relevant specific situations and feelings.

Level 2

The first person frequently leads or allows even discussions of material personally relevant to the second person(s) to be dealt with on a vague and abstract level.

Example: The first person and the second person may discuss the "real" feelings but they do so

at an abstract, intellectualized level.

In summary, the first person does not elicit discussion of most personally relevant feelings and experiences in specific and concrete terms.

Level 3

The first person at times enables the second person(s) to discuss personally relevant material in specific and concrete terminology.

Example: The first person will make it possible for the discussion with the second person(s) to center directly around most things that are personally important to the second person(s), although there will continue to be areas not dealt with concretely and areas in which the second person does not develop fully in specificity.

In summary, the first person sometimes guides the discussions into consideration of personally relevant specific and concrete instances, but these are not always fully developed. Level 3 constitutes the minimal level of facilitative functioning.

Level 4

The facilitator is frequently helpful in enabling the second person(s) to fully develop in concrete and specific terms almost all instances of concern.

Example: The facilitator is able on many occasions to guide the discussion to specific feelings and experiences of personally meaningful material.

In summary, the facilitator is very helpful in enabling the discussion to center around specific and concrete instances of most important and personally relevant feelings and experiences.

Level 5

The facilitator is always helpful in guiding the discussion, so that the second person(s) may discuss fluently, directly, and completely specific feelings and experiences.

Examples: The first person involves the second person in discussion of specific feelings, situations, and events, regardless of their emotional content.

In summary, the facilitator facilitates a direct

expression of all personally relevant feelings and experiences in concrete and specific terms.

APPENDIX L

Sample of Audio Tape Recording of a Pre-test Simulation

Student Helper: Ok, what's your guys' es problem?

(SH)

Jenny: K...like um...one recess I had permission to take

(J) a ball for recess only...

SH: Ummhmm...

J: And she asked me if she could play with me and I said
no so I kept on playing with it while she...like..

stand there and waited so...the next thing I dropped
it on the cement then she caught it then she kicked
it away.

Maria: Yaa but I asked her nicely. I said can...can I

(M) play with...can I play with the ball and she said
no.

SH: So why didn't you guys just share it or anything?

J: And I just wanted to play with it by myself..but
she...I she didn't accept that answer. So that's
why she kicked it away.

SH: Well... like...why didn't you play with it one recess
and you the other? Something like that.

M: Well the teacher say who got it first who can take
it out.

SH: ...Well...you should...well...how many balls were
there, just one?

M: Yup.

SH: Maybe..if you talked to your principal or your

teacher maybe they could get another one. So if there's more people they can all play.

J: But still they...even if you have another one if they got more, still people will be umm...asking for it.

SH: Well...(COUGH)...umm...lets see...so...like you guys each wanted to play alone...right? And say there was two balls...like say... you and you played with separate balls...ok, and then two other people played with another and another and so on...kind of take turns.

J: Well, like the people going to the teacher first for recess ask..so maybe some people won't have a chance to go up their first.

SH: Maybe you should go by like rows. One...one day this row gets the ball an they choose who ever wants it...who ever gets to play with it...or up and down...like one first person second and so on down the line.

J: Yaa but she still want to play with it even if it's wasn't her turn.

SH: The...the only thing I can say is there's alot more kids than her isn't there? Like what school is it?

J: McCauley.

SH: Well...ok...like say..you guy...one person goes to play with somebody else for that day right?...You go play tag or somein...and then another day somebody

else plays with it...

J: But on the same day we both wanted to play with that
ball!

SH: Well...(inaudible)...share it...

Sample of Audio Tape Recording of a Post-Test Simulation

STUDENT HELPER: Ok, hi, I'm going to help you find a

(SH) solution to your conflict. There
are three agreements; no name calling,
talk only, well talk only to me and
umm...

STUDENT: (Inaudible)

SH: Yaa. Ok, who wants to start?

KENNY: Like I had permission to take the ball out,
(K) right? And I was going outside to play and she
asks me if I...if she could play right?

SH: Umhmm...

K: Then I said no. Then the ball bounced to her and
she...and I said give it to me, and she didn't
and she kicked it away.

SH: So you were saying you had permission to take the
ball out to... and uhh...you were playing with it
and it rolled away?

K: Rolled to her.

SH: Oh well yaa...and umm..she, she got it and she
kicked it away.

MARIA: (Inaudible)...he said no.

(M)

K: She didn't have to kick the ball.

SH: So you asked him to see if you could play with
the ball, he said no.

M: Mmm, yaa.

SH: What can you do to solve the problem?

K: I could share but I don't want to.

SH: Ok, what could you do to solve the problem?

M: (Inaudible)...if I don't kick it away.

SH: You're saying, you'd...you would share it but you don't want to.

K: Yaa.

SH: why, why don't you want to?

K: Cause I don't want to!

SH: You're saying that you could stop kicking, kicking the ball away if he lets you play with it right?

M: Yah.

SH: Ahh...maybe you could umm...ask the principal to get you two separate balls?

K: Naa, he won't let us.

M: Each room only has one ball.

SH: How come you won't share it?

K: It's my ball!

SH: And you can't...be friends...(Inaudible)

K: She...(Inaudible)...she does rotten things.

SH: She does rotten things to you?

K: To everybody!

SH: Maybe if you stopped doing rotten things maybe he'd let you play with the ball.

M: Yaa.

SH: So...will you stop doing rotten things?

M: Yaa, I guess.

SH: If she stops will you let her play with the ball?

K: Nope!

SH: Why not?

K: Because how do I know she stopped, maybe she just did it on purpose.

SH: You're sure you don't like her?

K: Yup.

SH: Does she do rotten things to you?

K: Yup.

SH: Do you do things to her?

M: Yaa.

SH: How come?

K: (Inaudible)...don't want too!

SH: Maybe you guys can play one...with the ball...
and one of you ca play with...go with another
class and stay on separate sides of the field.