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ENHANCING SOCIAL COMPETENCE IN A MULTICULTURAL CLASSROOM

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ENHANCING SOCIAL COMPETENCE IN A MULTICULTURAL
CLASSROOM

BY
SANDRA LYNN GAINER

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships of students in an urban, multicultural seventh grade classroom. Additionally, a social competence program designed specifically for the sample was implemented and evaluated. Interpersonal relationships among peers and teachers, interpersonal problem solving skills, participant's classroom behavior, and self-concept were measured at pre- and post-intervention. In addition, demographic information (e.g., socioeconomic status, race, ethnicity) was obtained. It was hypothesized that as a result of participating in the social competence program: (1) participant's knowledge of interpersonal problem solving techniques would increase; (2) ability to generate behavioral steps necessary for solving interpersonal problems would increase among participants; (3) participants would report improved peer and teacher interpersonal relations; (4) teachers would report fewer peer conflicts; and (5) participants would report improved perceived self concept. Dependent t-tests were conducted to test differences between all pre- and post-intervention measures. The results of the study supported hypotheses (1) (i.e., It was predicted that students would increase their knowledge of interpersonal problem solving techniques) and (2) (i.e., It was predicted that ability to generate behavioral steps necessary for solving interpersonal problems would increase among students). However, for the hypotheses (3) (i.e., It was predicted that students would report improved peer and teacher interpersonal relations), (4) (i.e., It was predicted that teachers would report fewer peer conflicts), and (5) (i.e., It was predicted that students would report improved perceived self

concept), only the Assessment of Interpersonal Relations (Female Peers subscale) and the male teacher ratings of perceived student behavior revealed significant differences after intervention. The results of this study highlight the need for research that uses developmentally-appropriate, multimodal and culturally sensitive techniques to enhance social competence in students. School psychologists and teachers should work collaboratively to design and implement social competence programs specific to the needs of individual classrooms.

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Enhancing Social Competence in a Multicultural Classroom

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The quality of an adolescent's interpersonal relationships has been purported to be a significant factor contributing to the psychosocial adjustment of the adolescent (Bracken, 1993). Adolescents engaged in poor interpersonal relationships have been identified at considerable risk for dropping out of school and for being psychopathological (Panella & Henggeler, 1986); learning disabled (Dishion, 1990); socially isolated (Wanlass & Prinz, 1982) and delinquent (Roff & Wirt, 1984). In addition, adolescents with problematic interpersonal relationships have been reported as being aggressive (Dodge, Coie, & Brakke, 1982; Hartup, 1979) and involved in criminal activity (Parker & Asher, 1987).

Since 1970, researchers have been exploring the utility of social skills training in effecting desirable behavior changes in the classroom setting. A current trend in social skills training with adolescents is the growing use of social problem-solving training (Hansen, MacMillan, & Shawchuck, 1990; Kazdin, Esveldt-Dawson, French, & Unis, 1987; Tisdelle & St. Lawrence, 1988). Impetus for this approach has come from the view that social problem solving is a salient cognitive construct having a significant relationship to some aspect of social competence.

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the peer relationships of students in an urban seventh grade classroom and to implement and evaluate a social competence program designed specifically for the population. It was hypothesized that as a result of participating in the social competence program: (1) students' knowledge of interpersonal problem solving techniques would increase; (2) ability to

generate behavioral steps necessary for solving interpersonal problems would increase among students; (3) students would report improved peer and teacher interpersonal relations; (4) teachers would report fewer peer conflicts; and (5) students would report improved perceived self concept.

REVIEW OF THE RELEVANT LITERATURE

Within the psychology literature, there have been numerous studies examining the peer relations of European American, middle-class, preschool and elementary school populations (Mehaffey & Sandberg, 1992; Mannarino, Christy, Durlak, & Magnussen, 1982; Kirschenbaum, 1979, Gresham & Nagle, 1980; Wheeler & Ladd, 1982; Bigelow, 1977; Christopher, Hansen, & MacMillan, 1991). However, urban adolescents "...have frequently been delineated as a group at high risk for psychosocial difficulties" (Panella & Henggeler, 1986, p. 3). Therefore, there exists a vital need to investigate peer relations of urban adolescents. In particular, systematic examination of urban adolescents' interpersonal relationships with peers needs to be conducted. The present study investigated the peer relations in a school setting of urban adolescents of various ethnic backgrounds including African-American, Cape Verdean, Latino, and European American.

Adolescent Peer Relations

Peer relationships may be particularly influential during adolescence when much time is devoted to interactions with similar-age peers. The peer relations of ethnic minority adolescents are complex and laden with social, familial, and academic ramifications. The following is a description of the peer interactions of African-American, Latino, and Cape Verdean adolescents.

In 1950, the University of Michigan indicated that home, school, church, peers and television, respectively, reflected the most influential factors on African-American adolescents. Forty years later, the Motivational Educational Entertainment group reported that peers, rap, television, home, school and church, respectively, are the most influential factors on African-American adolescents (Kunjufu, 1988).

According to Lyons (1991), the primary reasons for school disputes in the middle and early high school years are: (1) the declining importance of family, church, and alternative role models in the lives of youth and (2) the cultural gap that exists between teachers and students. Lyons (1991) explains:

Many teachers have been in the system for a long time and come from the middle class. Controversy develops because the students display values, life-styles, language, and demeanors that are inimical to those of the teaching staff. On the other hand, many instructors are unable to adapt their teaching styles to the learning styles of students and unable to tolerate the student's behaviors (p. 127).

In his book entitled, To Be Popular or Smart: The Black Peer Group, Kunjufu (1988) identified negative peer pressure against academic achievement as an internal factor leading to disputes among African-American adolescents. He conceded that because many African-American adolescents associate success within the school setting with "acting white," they prefer to be popular and "cool," which they feel symbolize Blackness. In essence, the cultural orientation of these adolescents defines "...academic success as the prerogative of White Americans" (Fordham & Ogbu, 1986, p.177). Fordham (1982) conducted

a study in which 1,886 predominately low-income African-American adolescents attending high school in Washington, D.C. defined the term "acting white" as:

(1) speaking standard English; (2) listening to white music and white radio stations; (3) going to the opera or ballet; (4) spending a lot of time in the library studying; (5) working hard to get good grades in school; (6) getting good grades in school; (7) going to the Smithsonian; (8) going to a Rolling Stone concert at the Capital Center; (9) doing volunteer work; (10) going camping, hiking, or mountain climbing; (11) having cocktails or a cocktail party; (12) going to a symphony orchestra concert; (13) having a party with no music; (14) listening to classical music; (15) being on time; (16) reading and writing poetry; and (17) putting on "airs" (p. 186).

In their analyses, Fordham and Ogbu (1986) found these attitudes to contribute to conflicts and disputes among African-American students and European American students and African-American students and teachers, as well as among African-American students themselves.

According to Fordham and Ogbu (1986), although many low-achieving African-American students are capable of academic success, ambivalence, differential treatment from teachers, perception of the opportunity structure (the notion a job ceiling exists for ethnic minorities), and social pressures discourage them from persevering in their schoolwork. Consequently, these students, "...perhaps unconsciously, [discourage their peers] from emulating White people in academic striving" (p. 177).

Contrary to social competence literature which concedes that high achieving students positively interact with and are well-liked and accepted by their peers (Green, Forehand, Beck, & Vosk, 1980), high-achieving African-American students are not popular among their peers (Steinberg, Dornbusch, & Brown, 1992). Instead, high achieving African-American adolescents are persecuted, ridiculed and/or isolated by their lower achieving peers. Students who are teased actively cope by "...becoming an athlete, acting like a clown, not studying in public places, being independent, [being] a good fighter, tutoring bullies, and becoming raceless." (Kunjufu, 1988, p. 35). African-American students are forced to choose between performing well academically and being popular among their peers. Some of these students choose to limit their contact with other African-American students and primarily associate with students from other ethnic groups (Liederman, Landsman, & Clark, 1990). Peer relations of African-American adolescents make them susceptible to adjustment problems throughout their lives.

Steinberg, Dornbusch, and Brown (1992) investigated the parenting practices, familial values about education, and beliefs about the occupational rewards of academic success by administering a 30-page questionnaire to approximately 15,000 Asian-American, African-American, European American, and Latino adolescents. They found that Latino and African-American adolescents share similar attitudes and beliefs about the opportunity structure (the notion a job ceiling exists for ethnic minorities) in America. Specifically, these adolescents believe that regardless of the education level they attain, they will face a job ceiling (Mickelson, 1990). This belief discourages them from putting forth effort and persevering in school even though they and their parents value

education. Surprisingly, Latino and African-American adolescents optimistically endorse the sentiment that they can succeed without doing well academically (Steinberg, Dornbusch, & Brown, 1992). Conflicts and disputes ultimately arise between low-achieving and high-achieving Latino adolescents, as they do among low-achieving and high-achieving African-American adolescents. Unfortunately, both Latino adolescents and African-American adolescents suffer from a lack of support for academics in their peer groups.

Steinberg, Dornbusch, and Brown (1992) found that Latino adolescents are more strongly influenced by parents than by peers in terms of academics. Specifically, authoritarian cultural values of interdependence (as opposed to competition) and obedience implicit in Latino families may not be conducive to the requirements for success in school. For instance, the structure of most schools promote competition. Competition is not typically valued in Latino culture. Latino adolescents who choose to reject family traditions, customs, and values may experience a great deal of stress.

Latino adolescents are also taught to value family over individuals (e.g., peers) (Gibbs, Huang, & Associates, 1989). For example, a Puerto Rican female who plans to pursue a career after graduating from high school instead of marrying and raising a family may be viewed by her parents as "...less caring of them, more selfish, and reflecting a preference for peers over family" (Inclan, 1985, p.257).

A dearth of information exists about the peer relations of Cape Verdean Americans. The information that does exist focuses on this group's ethnic and racial identification. Although Cape Verdean Americans self-identify as either Portuguese (i.e., White), African (i.e.,

Black), or Creole and mixed (African, European, Moorish, and Jewish), other people tend to label them Black due to their biological characteristics (e.g., skin color) and social class. Thus, Cape Verdean Americans may suffer the same social and political injustices and burdens experienced by all ethnic minorities in the United States (Halter, 1993).

Although older Cape Verdean Americans practice traditional Cape Verdean customs, many Cape Verdean youth choose to self identify as African-American and participate in African-American cultural practices (e.g., music, dance, style of dressing). As with other youth, Cape Verdean American children and adolescents are at-risk for adjustment problems associated with poor interpersonal relationships. But, their biracial status may increase their risk. Not only are biracial individuals subjected to racism and discrimination because of their ethnicity, they are also forced by society to identify with one ethnicity (e.g., employment applications tend not to list "Biracial" as a category of the item "what is your ethnicity/race."

Theoretical Underpinnings of Social Competence

Although no unified theory of social competence currently exists, several theories present an applicable framework with underlining principles that may be used to promote social competence in a classroom setting. These include Bandura's social learning theory, the social information processing model (Rubin & Krasnor, 1986; Dodge, 1986; Crick & Dodge, 1994), Shelley Taylor's theory of cognitive adaptation, and the Fordham and Ogbu's (1986) theory of racelessness. Additionally, social construction theory (Vygotsky, 1978; Bearison, 1982; Berger & Luckmann, 1966; Rogoff, 1990) offers a perspective of social

competency that is extremely relevant for multicultural classrooms. An overview of each theory follows.

Social Learning Theory. Bandura was concerned with the acquisition (i.e., learning social behavior) and performance of behavior. It was his premise that children and adolescents use the cognitive processes of attention and retention to learn skills and behaviors. Cognitive processes, though, are not used in isolation. Bandura argued that environmental influences are mediated by cognitive processes. Therefore, social learning theory gives consideration to the role of environmental influences in determining behavior.

According to Bandura (1977, 1989), children punish other children who participate in socially unacceptable behaviors by rejecting, teasing, bullying, and or ostracizing them. Culturally-appropriate behaviors are rewarded or reinforced through acceptance of the compliant individual. From this perspective, social competence is dependent on the ideology of the person judging the behaviors and skills of another person. Teachers, for example, value high academic achievement and therefore are likely to perceive high-achieving students as socially competent. Some low-achieving African-American students, on the other hand, may view high-achieving African-American students as socially incompetent because of the connotations they associate with academic success and the counter-cultural behaviors many high-achieving African-American students display.

The foundation of social learning theory corroborates the social construction perspective in terms of suggesting that children learn about their social worlds and how to behave in those environments through observations. Specifically, Bandura focused on the ways that children

learn from their peers. Children make direct and indirect observations of their peers in action (Bandura & Walters, 1963).

Social Construction Perspective. Researchers such as Vygotsky (1978), Bearison (1982), Berger and Luckmann (1966), and Rogoff (1990) have devised a social construction framework of how children achieve competence. According to the social construction perspective, knowledge, values, and behaviors are learned from various social interactions with other people, namely adults and peers. Throughout their development, children contrive methods for applying cognitions and behaviors they encounter in their interpersonal interactions with family, peers, teachers, and people in their community. Each new encounter is restructured and evaluated. Ultimately, viewing the cognitions and behaviors repeatedly, in various individuals, across settings, and across situations leads to internalization (Rogoff, 1990).

Conflicts occur when a child's worldview differs from those of the individuals he or she has contact with. Consequently, the resolution of these conflicts require higher forms of reasoning such as being assertive (Bearison, 1982). The following example illustrates this point. While shopping at the mall, a child witnesses his friend steal an item. He confronts the friend and tells him that they can't shop together if he will continue to steal. The child is displaying assertiveness by making his friend aware of the fact that he is not willing to compromise his values and beliefs in order to maintain the friendship. Interpersonal conflicts provide people with opportunities to express their opinions, consider alternative perspectives, problem-solve, and compromise (Nastasi & DeZolt, 1994).

Through this co-constructive process, children learn the knowledge, values, and behavioral standards of their culture (Rogoff, 1990). Rogoff's (1990) research is focused on the apprenticeship-like method by which patterns of learning and teaching are passed on from one generation to another in different cultures.

Social Information Processing Model. In an attempt to explain the role social cognition plays in peer relations, Rubin and Krasnor (1986) have proposed a social information processing model of social competence. Basically, the premise of this model is the manner in which children interpret and process occurrences in their social environment influences their behavioral response to the situation. Thus, competent behavior depends on how environmental occurrences are processed. According to Rubin and Krasnor (1986), when children encounter interpersonal conflicts, their thinking follows a sequential pattern with specific stages. These stages involve:

(a) the selection of a social goal; (b) consideration of the social environment; (c) accession and selection of strategies given consideration of features (a) and (b); (d) strategy production; (e) strategy outcome; and (f) strategy sequencing following an initial social problem solving failure (p. 16).

Dodge (1986) has formulated a similar social-cognitive model of social information processing to explain aggression in children. Consistent with the theory of Rubin and Krasnor (1986), Dodge speculated that socially competent children complete sequential mental steps in the processing of information. This model consists of five stages, namely, (a) encoding social cues in the environment; (b) mentally representing and interpreting these cues; (c) generating behavioral responses to the cues; (d)

evaluating the consequences of the responses and choosing the best response; (e) acting out the chosen response and monitoring its effects (Dodge, 1986).

Crick and Dodge (1994) reformulated this model to the following six nonlinear stages: "... (a) encoding of external and internal cues; (b) interpretation and mental representation of those cues; (c) clarification or selection of a goal; (d) response access or construction; (e) response decision; and (f) behavioral enactment" (p.76).

In general, the social information processing model of social competence acknowledges the unique characteristics (i.e., biological capabilities and memories of past experiences) individuals bring to a situation. This explains why individuals may make incongruent interpretations about and respond differently to the same situation.

Theory of Cognitive Adaptation. Although the majority of Taylor's (1983) research is focused on the coping mechanisms of cancer patients, aspects of her theory of cognitive adaptation are pertinent to the social cognition processes of adjustment. Specifically, Taylor posited when people encounter a threatening event, they participate in three thematic intrapsychic actions to facilitate readjustment to the experience: (a) a search for meaning in the experience, (b) an attempt to gain mastery over the event itself and their life, in general, and (c) an effort to enhance their self-esteem despite the occurrence of the event (Taylor, 1983).

The theme of searching for meaning involves determining what actually happened, what caused the event to happen, and what impact the event had. The theme of mastery refers to ascertaining what can be done to manage the event as it happens and how to prevent a similar event from occurring again. The third theme of self-enhancement

involves using self-enhancing evaluations to increase the self-esteem that was lost as a result of experiencing the event (Taylor, 1983). Individuals facing stressful events use illusions to view those events in a more favorable light than is actually merited. Illusions are normal cognitive functions that help individuals deal with and bounce back from difficult and painful situations. Moreover, illusions "...simultaneously protect and prompt constructive thought and action" (p. 1171). Cognitive adaptation theory views individuals as self-protective and adaptable and functional when facing difficult circumstances (Taylor, 1983).

An implication of cognitive processing presented in the theory of cognitive adaptation is cognitions should not be investigated in isolation. Instead, the illusions, themes, and multiple cognitions utilized in an effort to understand and adapt to a problematic event should be investigated simultaneously. Taylor's research corroborates the social competence literature in terms of identifying self-esteem and internal locus of control as salient cognitive constructs affiliated with adjustment. In their study examining the impact of optimism, self-esteem, locus of control, and desire for control on psychological adjustment to college, on health, on motivation, and on academic performance, Aspinwall and Taylor (1992) argue that self-esteem, locus of control, and desire for control are mediated by motivation and active coping strategies (e.g., taking steps to solve a problem). Furthermore, they state that optimism is also associated with adjustment. Results of their study indicate that active coping strategies yield better adjustment than avoidant coping (e.g., wishing the problem would go away).

Taylor's (1983) theory is useful in explaining how high-achieving African-American adolescents who are persecuted, ridiculed and/or

isolated by their lower-achieving peers tend to participate in active coping strategies. That is, they do things in effort to reduce the stress of being bullied by their peers. These active coping strategies allow high-achieving African-American adolescents to befriend or defend themselves against their peers and maintain their high scholastic achievement, concurrently.

Consistent with Taylor's (1983) theory of cognitive adaption, Fordham and Ogbu's (1986) theory of racelessness, is relevant in explaining peer relations among African-American students. This theory offers additional insight into the attitudes and beliefs held by ethnic minority students that determine their academic progress, peer and teacher relations, and ultimately, their psychological adjustment.

Theory of Racelessness. Fordham and Ogbu's (1986) theory of racelessness conjectures that high-achieving African-American adolescents achieve their success by adopting behaviors, values, and attitudes of European American culture that distance them from their own culture. Furthermore, Fordham and Ogbu presume that racelessness attitudes and behaviors are unique characteristics of academically successful African-Americans. Racelessness behaviors include modulation of speech and behaviors in an effort to attain the approval of teachers and higher status peers, avoiding affiliation with low-achieving African-American students, hiding abilities from peers, and agreeing with negative stereotypes of African-Americans (Fordham & Ogbu, 1986).

Arroyo and Zigler (1995) conducted a study in which urban high and low-achieving African-American and European American adolescents were administered measures of depression, anxiety, social group evaluation, and racelessness. The results of this study are

inconsistent with Fordham and Ogbu's viewpoint that the adoption of a raceless persona is unique to high-achieving African-American students. Conversely, Arroyo and Zigler (1995) found that high-achieving European American adolescents also report higher levels of racelessness than low-achieving European American adolescents.

Their study did show that African-American adolescents who reported high racelessness scores also reported higher scores of introjective depression (e.g., fear of losing the approval of others). This was not the case for European American adolescents. "Thus, it appears that the behaviors associated with racelessness are predictive of African-American students' psychological states, but not those of European Americans (p. 911)." Fordham and Ogbu's (1986) view that African-American adolescents with a raceless persona experience many interpersonal conflicts coincides with the research of Kunjufu (1988).

Social Skills Training Interventions

A common training intervention for social competence studies involving adolescent participants is self-control training. Self-control training procedures aid participants in learning to self-monitor, self-record, and/or to self-reinforce behavior (Gresham & Lemanek, 1983). In these studies, participants are taught self-instruction and self-evaluation procedures. Researchers have used verbal mediation procedures as punishment contingencies for inappropriate social behavior or as an instructional strategy.

Relaxation training is another self-control procedure used in social skills training interventions. This method is typically used with aggressive students and has been shown to reduce rates of aggressive behavior in classrooms (Gresham & Lemanek, 1983). Relaxation

training consists of teaching participants to relax by taking deep breathes, pulling their limbs close to their bodies, and resting their heads on their desks.

A combination of modeling (e.g., using videotapes and films to illustrate target behaviors), coaching (e.g., direct verbal instructions and discussions of specific rules or steps), behavior rehearsal, and positive reinforcement has also been applied to adolescents (Gresham & Lemanek, 1983). According to Jones, Sheridan, and Binns (1993), the multimethod approach to social competency training is better than using one method in isolation. Using a combination of techniques maximizes treatment effectiveness (Jones, Sheridan, & Binns, 1993).

According to Nastasi and DeZolt (1994), the majority of students (up to 90%) participating in classroom-based social competency programs acquire the target skills taught. In fact, programs aimed at enhancing social competence through teaching a target skill (i.e., skill-based programs) are more successful than programs solely focused on affective education or knowledge acquisition. Furthermore, social competency programs which allow students to actively participate, as opposed to being lectured to have been shown to be the most effective (Nastasi & DeZolt, 1994).

Social Cognition

Within developmental psychology literature as well as cognitive-behavioral literature, the view that affective skills and cognitive skills are interrelated is prevalent. Elias, Branden-Muller, and Sayette (1991) consider affect and cognition as practically one and the same. Pancer and Weinstein (1987) also acknowledge a relationship between these two domains. They identified the ability to predict the emotional impact of

events, the ability to deduce a person's feelings, and the ability to understand that individuals may express totally different emotional reactions in response to the same event as the affective skills that are directly related to cognitive skills. The results of a study conducted by Branden-Muller, Elias, Gara, and Schnieider (1992) coincide with the findings of Pancer and Weinstein (1987). They also found a relationship between affective skills and cognitive skills.

These domains complement each other in terms of when they are developmentally acquired. Early adolescents can demonstrate affective skills such as naming alternative ways of handling an interpersonal problem, being sensitive to the emotions of others, and being socially compliant (Nastasi & DeZolt, 1994). In addition, children age 10 to 13 recognize that they have the ability to fake, cause, and manipulate feelings (Nannis, 1988). They are also capable of demonstrating successful perspective-taking at this age (Cowan, 1978). Means-end thinking and alternative solution thinking are cognitive skills that early adolescents are developmentally able to demonstrate (Nastasi & DeZolt, 1994). In general, affective skills and cognitive skills allow individuals to control their social world by enabling them to anticipate the emotions and behavior of others, monitor their own emotions and behavior, and regulate social interactions.

Social-cognitive skills and cognitive skills are related to affective skills but not to each other (Branden-Muller, Elias, Gara, & Schnieider, 1992). In other words, social-cognitive skills and cognitive skills are not interrelated. Therefore, a student should not be expected to gain interpersonal problem solving skills from general education instruction.

Specialized social-cognitive skills training is necessary in order for students to learn interpersonal problem solving techniques.

Along these lines, Branden-Muller, Elias, Gara, and Schnieider (1992) emphasize that it should not be assumed that students who have highly developed affective skills are automatically able to successfully solve interpersonal problems. For example, a child may infer the feelings of his peer but may not be able to resolve a conflict with this peer in a constructive manner. The implication for teachers, school psychologists, and other mental health professionals is to teach social-cognitive skills incorporating affective skills and/or interpersonal problem solving skills in an effort to enhance interpersonal problem solving skills in students.

Turiel (1983) identified social cognition as a significant dimension of relationships between affect and cognition. Social cognition has been defined as "how children conceptualize other people and how they come to understand the thoughts, emotions, intentions, and viewpoints of others" (Shantz, 1975, p. 258). In other words, social cognition is an individual's understanding of interpersonal relations and social behavior. According to Katz (1987), social-cognitive competence is necessary for children's healthy prosocial development, as well as cognitive and emotional development.

Social skills literature focused on adolescents identifies self-esteem, internal locus of control, social perspective taking, and interpersonal or social problem solving as the most salient cognitive constructs having a specific relationship to social competence (Peterson & Leigh, 1990). Of these constructs, social problem solving is becoming an increasingly popular classroom-based intervention since it is practical, easily implemented, applicable to groups, efficient, and can be

targeted to specific behaviors (Christopher, Nangle, & Hansen, 1993; Sarason & Sarason, 1981).

In a study involving emotionally disturbed adolescent participants, Plienis, Hansen, Ford, Smith, Stark, and Kelly (1987) employed a social skills intervention using social problem solving skills and conversational skills. Improvements were made in unstructured conversations with unfamiliar adolescents; interactions during informal class parties; responses to social problem scenarios; teacher ratings of adjustment; and self-esteem, depression, and loneliness scores on self-report measures.

Tisdelle and St. Lawrence (1988) note there is a momentous need for more studies like the study mentioned above to be conducted in order to assess the ability of social problem solving programs to mediate behavior. Future social problem solving research should focus on generating effective methods for maintaining appropriate interactions and resolving interpersonal conflicts (Christopher, Nangle, & Hansen, 1993).

Social competence is an interpersonal phenomenon that "... can be viewed as a composite of adolescents' adaptive behavior and social skills" (Johnson, Jason, & Betts, 1990, p. 140). Being evaluative in nature, the term social competence refers to judgments a person makes about how adequately another person completes interpersonal tasks. Socially competent adolescents are often more capable of:

- (a) being sensitive to interpersonal problem situations, (b) generating alternative solutions, (c) planning for the attainment of interpersonal goals, (d) weighing consequences in terms of

their effectiveness and social acceptability, and (e) perceiving cause-and-effect relations in interpersonal events (Shure, 1981, p. 101).

These components represent the goals of social problem solving procedures (D'Zurilla & Goldfried, 1971). Elias, Beier, and Gara (1989) found additional skills to be essential to effective interpersonal problem solving. These skills include planning the behavioral steps of a course of action, and overcoming obstacles to a successful resolution.

According to Peterson and Leigh (1990), "...the major components of social competence consists of (a) internal or cognitive resources, (b) a balance between sociability and individuality, and (c) social skills in reference to peers" (p. 100). Internal or cognitive resources refer to social skills that help adolescents develop and maintain healthy interpersonal relationships (Peterson & Leigh, 1990). Social problem solving is an internal or cognitive resource (Peterson & Leigh, 1990). A balance between sociability (i.e., togetherness) and individuality (i.e., autonomy) describes an adolescent's ability to integrate with others and simultaneously act independently (Grotevant & Cooper, 1986). The social skills of adolescents in reference to peers component refers to the use of interpersonal resources and behaviors demonstrated by adolescents within a peer group (Dodge, Petit, McClaskey, & Brown, 1986).

Self-Concept

The term self-concept refers to the way in which an individual perceives and evaluates self-functioning in various dimensions of life (e.g., social competence, academic competence, physical appearance). Most researchers use the terms self-concept, self-esteem, and self-image

interchangeably to reflect feelings and beliefs an individual has about him or herself. According to Powell (1983), self-concept determines behavior. Generally, children and adolescents with high self-concept perform well academically, as well as in interpersonal relations (Huebner, 1995). In contrast, those with low self-concept tend to be self-conscious and withdrawn. In addition, individuals with diminished self-concept are likely to have difficulty in accepting others which may lead to interpersonal conflicts (Huebner, 1995).

Extant empirical research has demonstrated that the development of good peer relationships is an important predictor of later adjustment (Kelley, 1990). Parker and Asher, (1987) postulate that "...if peers contribute substantially to the socialization of social competence, it follows that adolescents with interpersonal relationship difficulties might be more vulnerable to later life problems" (p. 358). Hence, classroom-based programs devoted to improving adolescent interpersonal social skills may lead to successful later adjustment (Sarason & Sarason, 1981).

The focus of the present study was on designing, implementing and evaluating a classroom-based program to enhance adolescent social competency using the social cognitive construct of social problem solving. The social competency program was based on an interpersonal problem-solving curriculum outlined in School Interventions for Children of Alcoholics (Nastasi & DeZolt, 1994) and components adapted from a health series titled Into Adolescence (Post, 1991; Middleton, 1990, Zevin, 1989; Fox, 1990).

Hypotheses

In the present study it was hypothesized that social competency programs improve peer relations, social problem solving, and self-concept. Specifically, it was predicted that:

- 1) students would increase their knowledge of interpersonal problem solving techniques;
- 2) ability to generate behavioral steps necessary for solving interpersonal problems would increase among students;
- 3) students would report improved peer and teacher interpersonal relations;
- 4) teachers would report fewer peer conflicts; and
- 5) students would report improved perceived self concept.

Method

Participants

Participants consisted of urban adolescents enrolled in a small parochial school in the Northeast. The primary investigator (African-American) was asked by the principal of the parochial school to design, implement and evaluate a classroom-based social competence program during the '95-'96 school year. Fourteen adolescents, female (N=5) and male (N=9) participated, with data collected from twelve of the fourteen participants (two males did not provide data due to illness and absenteeism). The group ranged in age from 12 (58.3%) to 13 (41.7%) years. The racial make-up of the participants included African-Americans (N=5), Latinos (N=4), Cape Verdeans (N=3), and European Americans (N=2). Participants ranged from lower to middle socioeconomic status.

Twelve participants completed the measures, and all 14 participants completed the social competency program as a curriculum requirement. Therefore, completed data were available for 12 participants {i.e., African-Americans (N=4), Latinos (N=4), Cape Verdeans (N=2), and European Americans (N=2)}.

Exactly, 33.3% of the sample is of African-American descent, 33.3% are Latino {i.e., Dominican (N=3) and Puerto Rican (N=1)}, 16.7% identify themselves as Cape Verdean, and 16.7% identified themselves European American. Approximately, 58.3% of the sample was male and 41.7% female. The majority of the participants were firstborn children (66.7%) who live in an urban community (91.7%) with both parents (66.7%). The occupations of the mothers' of the participants include nurse, telephone operator, teacher, photographer, factory worker, secretary, jewelry designer, and professor. Father's occupations consist of postal clerk, truck driver, factory worker, janitor, professor, security officer, and construction worker. Seventy-five percent of the participants were Catholic. The majority of the participants were bilingual (66.7%) and able to speak Spanish, Portuguese, or Creole and English.

Instruments

Assessment of Interpersonal Relations. The Assessment of Interpersonal Relations (AIR) (Bracken, 1993) is a self-report measure consisting of 105 items designed to assess children's levels of interpersonal adjustment in relationships with parents, peers, and teachers. The AIR uses five subscales: Mother, Father, Male Peers, Female Peers, and Teachers to measure the raters' perceptions about the quality of their social, family, and academic interpersonal relations. For the current study, only the Male Peers, Female Peers, and Teacher

subscales were administered. Responses to statements regarding multifaceted interpersonal relations were rated based on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from Strongly Agree (1) to Strongly Disagree (4). The AIR evidences total test reliability coefficient alphas ranging from .93 to .96. Therefore, it is a highly reliable measure. A test-retest (2 week interval) study found stability coefficients for the five subscales to be: Mother, .97; Father, .95; Male Peers, .96; Female Peers, .94; and Teachers, .97, indicating high test-retest reliability (Bracken, 1993). (See Appendix B to view the measure).

Multidimensional Self Concept Scale. The Multidimensional Self Concept Scale (MSCS) (Bracken, 1992) is a 150-item self-report scale which measures children's self concepts within and across six domains: Social, Competence, Affect, Academic, Family, and Physical. In addition, a Total score may be derived. For the current study, only the Social, Competence and Academic subscales were administered. A 4-point Likert-type scale was used to rate responses to the items. The MSCS has been reported to have high reliability with alphas for the six subscales ranging from .87 to .97. In one study, test-retest reliability (4 week interval) was found to be .90 for the total subscale and .73 to .81 for the subscales (See Appendix C to view the measure).

Interpersonal Problem Solving Procedure. The Interpersonal Problem Solving Procedure (IPSP) is a 32-item measure which was employed as an index of cognitive functioning. The IPSP requires the subject to systematically think through problems using 7 problem-solving steps listed in School Interventions for Children of Alcoholics (Nastasi & DeZolt, 1994). In this study, teachers of the participants were asked to describe typically-occurring conflicts in the classroom to secure face

validity for the measure. Based on teacher replies, 4 vignettes were created and listed on a worksheet. The vignettes were designed to deal with situations that are particularly relevant for this population.

Participants were instructed to answer, in written form, the 7 problem-solving questions that follow each vignette. The 7 problem-solving questions were: (1) How do you think the characters feel? How would you feel? (2) What is the problem? How do you know this is a problem? (3) List all the things that can be done to solve this problem (solutions) (4) What are the consequences of each solution? (5) What is the "best" solution? (6) How well do you think this solution would work? (7) How would you know if the solution is working? By answering these questions, the participants were supplying the behavioral steps necessary for effective problem-solving. The primary researcher and a trained coder rated the IPSP worksheets. A list of appropriate responses for the problem-solving questions was prepared for the rater. This was used by the rater to secure an adequate level of reliability for the ratings. The inter-rater reliability was .97 (See Appendix D to view the measure).

Consumer Satisfaction Scale. The Consumer Satisfaction Scale (Jackson, Jackson, & Monroe, 1983) is a 25-item rating scale designed to assess how a student's behavior is regarded by parents, teachers or consultants. For the current study, this scale was used as a teacher rating. The items pertain to constructive conflict resolution, impulse control, and assertiveness displayed at school. Responses were rated using a 7-point Likert-type scale. Internal consistency for the measure was calculated to be .86. (See Appendix E to view the measure).

Evaluation Form. The Evaluation Form is a 4-item outcome measure. The items on the measure include What was the purpose of

the activity (i.e., lesson)?; What did you learn about yourself?; What did you learn about others?; and What have you learned from this activity that will help you in similar situations? Items were not rated but were analyzed in order to determine if each lesson's objectives were achieved. Lesson objectives were considered achieved when participant's responses on the Evaluation Form were related to the subject matter and content of each lesson. (See Appendix F to view the measure).

Procedure

Several initial consultation meetings took place including the participant's homeroom teacher (male) and classroom teacher (female), the principal, and the primary researcher. The purpose of the meetings was to gather information about the nature of the conflicts present in the identified classroom, generate applicable vignettes for the Interpersonal Problem Solving Procedure (IPSP), and schedule days and times for data collection and the social competence program.

During the initial consultation meetings, the classroom teacher expressed some skepticism about the students ability to cooperate with each other while participating in the activities of each lesson. Specifically, she identified one student (female) whom she felt would be the instigator of disruption in the classroom during the lessons. Previous to the start of data collection, this student received several warnings about her noncompliant behavior and her parents were notified about her disruptive behavior. This student was expelled from school during the pretest phase the study.

The study consisted of three phases: pretest, two weeks of intervention, and posttest. The pre-test was conducted one week prior to

the first session (lesson) of the intervention. The posttest took place one week after the last session of the intervention. Before and immediately after training, participants were administered a packet containing measures of peer relations, problem solving, and self-perceptions of social competence. All items and directions for each measure were read to participants. Basic demographic information also was gathered. Immediately before the first administration of the questionnaire, the primary investigator (African-American) explained that the questionnaire was designed to gather information describing the peer relationships of the classroom. Teacher ratings of peer interactions were also collected before and after training.

Participants were instructed to self-generate an individual identifier that was written on all measures. Specifically, the primary investigator instructed each participant to list the first initial of: their mother, their favorite color, their father, and their favorite month, respectively. The resulting 4-digits served as a code for each participant. All measures were hand scored. Training consisted of 4 weekly 2-hour sessions covering the lesson objectives.

Activities of the training included creating a classroom chart of things the students like (e.g., What I like to do at school; What I like to do with my friends; Foods I like; etc.), writing Dear Abby letters about conflicts they have encountered, describing qualities they look for in a friend, defining specific feelings, writing journal entries about conflicts, and creating rap songs chronicling conflicts.

Specifically, during Lesson One of the program, the participants made a class chart illustrating things they like, made pie charts describing what they are good at, and worked in triads to create menus

describing what they are good at, and worked in triads to create menus for a hypothetical classroom meal. During Lesson Two, participants listed characteristics they look for in a friend and they wrote anonymous Dear Abby letters asking for advice about how to handle problems and conflicts with their friends. The entire class discussed the Dear Abby letters and gave advice. For Lesson Three, participants defined an extensive list of emotions, role-played nonverbal expressions of feelings, and created a Book of Feelings illustrating what they do when they feel a particular feeling. Finally, during Lesson Four, participants discussed the definition of conflicts, discussed nonviolent alternatives to conflicts, read a scenario describing a conflict and chose the "best" solution to the conflict, and wrote journal entries describing the steps they used to solve a conflict they were recently involved in. At the end of each lesson, participants completed an evaluation sheet (see Appendix F) in order to describe what they learned about themselves and others from the lesson, what the purpose of the lesson was, and how they felt the lesson would help them in the future. After training, a follow-up assessment was conducted. The following page is a listing of lesson objectives and actual lesson plans for each lesson, respectively.

Lesson One Objectives

1. Provide opportunities to develop healthy self-concept.
 2. Provide opportunities to identify common and unique characteristics within the group.
 3. Enhance sense of competence.
-

Lesson Two Objectives

1. Promote an understanding of the role of prosocial behavior in developing and maintaining friendships.
 2. Promote an understanding of the behaviors that facilitate and interfere with establishing and maintaining relationships.
 3. Provide opportunities to apply and evaluate relationship skills.
-

Lesson Three Objectives

1. Facilitate recognition and expression of feelings.
 2. Provide models of affective expression.
 3. Provide opportunities to illustrate various expressions of emotions.
-

Lesson Four Objectives

1. Facilitate understanding of effective conflict resolution.
2. Foster an understanding of peaceful functioning of a diverse community.
3. Provide opportunities for application and evaluation of conflict resolution strategies.
4. Provide models of effective conflict resolution.
5. Describe nonviolent alternatives to conflicts.

Results

Initially, it was anticipated that the participants would be predominately African-American and a dual analysis would be conducted (i.e., First, all participants would be analyzed. Next, only African-American participants would be analyzed). Due to the actual racial make-up of the participants (e.g., African-Americans (N=4); Latinos (N=4); Cape Verdeans (N=2); and European Americans (N=2), the dual analysis was not possible.

Predictions 1 and 2 were examined qualitatively using the Interpersonal Problem Solving Procedure (IPSP). Prediction 3 was tested using the Assessment of Interpersonal Relations (AIR). The Consumer Satisfaction Scale tested Prediction 4. Prediction 5 was tested using the Multidimensional Self Concept Scale (MSCS). A dependent t test was conducted on pre- and post intervention measures (i.e., Assessment of Interpersonal Relations, Consumer Satisfaction Scale, and Multidimensional Self Concept Scale) using one-tailed tests and a .05 level of significance.

ANALYSIS OF PREDICTIONS ONE AND TWO

The pretest and posttest vignettes about interpersonal problem solving were analyzed for increases in interpersonal problem solving techniques, increases in ability to generate behavioral steps for interpersonal problem solving, and themes related to interpersonal problem solving. Two male and two female transcripts from the classroom (approximately 25%) were also coded by a trained coder who was blind to the hypotheses of the study. Inter-coder agreement index of .97 was established using Cohen's kappa.

The "Possible Solutions" and "Best Solution" items on the Interpersonal Problem Solving Procedure (IPSP) were analyzed. Specifically, the nature of the pre and post solutions (i.e., negative and violent or positive and peaceful) were investigated, as well as, the changes in the number of "Possible Solutions" from pre to post (i.e., increase or decrease). The pre and post responses to the "Possible Solutions" item basically were the same. In other words, participants' pretest responses tended to be the same as their posttest responses. Occasionally, there was an increase or decrease in the number of responses emitted from pretest to post test. For example, in response to vignette #2, a participant's pretest response increased from one response at pretest (i.e., "Monica could buy Lisa another necklace") to two responses at posttest (i.e., "Monica could buy Lisa another necklace" and "Monica could look for the necklace").

The majority of the posttest responses of the "Best Solution" item were positive in nature. Nonviolent, peaceful solutions such as "talk it over," "apologize," "tell an adult," "solve it together," "walk away," "resolve the problem," "think before doing," "tell the teacher," "forgive" tended to be suggested. Examples of the negative responses include "fight," "hit him," "jump her," "punch him," "slap him," "get seven weeks of detention," "tell the teacher 'no'," and "get revenge."

Although most of the responses remained the same from pretest to posttest, some of the responses changed positively from pretest to posttest. For instance, in response to vignette # 4, a participant's pretest response was "The teacher should split up the two girls" and the participant's posttest response was "The girls should stop talking." Additionally, some of the responses changed negatively from pretest to

posttest. For example, at pretest, a participant responded "ignore him" and at posttest, the participant responded "hit him."

ANALYSIS OF PREDICTION THREE

Assessment of Interpersonal Relations

Table 1

Means (M), Standard Deviations (SD), and Ranges (R) on Pre and Post Measures of Interpersonal Relations

Measure	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>Range</u>
Interpersonal Relations (Male Peers)			
Pretest	90.91	11.51	35-140
Posttest	91.33	12.70	35-140
Interpersonal Relations (Female Peers)			
Pretest	85.25	11.75	35-140
Posttest	89.41	15.89	35-140
Interpersonal Relations (Teacher)			
Pretest	84.66	15.15	35-140
Posttest	83.33	9.53	35-140

The comparison of pre and post-test scores on the Assessment of Interpersonal Relations scale failed to reveal significant differences in students' perceived interpersonal relations among their male peers, $t(11) = 0.117$, $p > .05$; female peers, $t(11) = -1.930$, $p < .05$; and teachers, $t(11) = 1.204$, $p > .05$. See Table 1.

ANALYSIS OF PREDICTION FIVE

Multidimensional Self-Concept Scale

Table 2

Means (M), Standard Deviations (SD), and Ranges (R) on Pre and Post Measures of Self-Concept

Measure	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>Range</u>
Self-Concept (Social)			
Pretest	60.91	6.90	25-100
Posttest	60.58	4.52	25-100
Self-Concept (Competence)			
Pretest	63.25	4.63	25-100
Posttest	63.58	3.75	25-100
Self-Concept (Academic)			
Pretest	64.58	5.08	25-100
Posttest	63.00	3.46	25-100

The comparison of pre and post-test scores on the Multidimensional Self-Concept Scale failed to reveal significant differences in students' perceived social self-concept, $t(11) = 0.200$, $p > .05$; competence self-concept, $t(11) = 0.455$, $p > .05$; and academic self-concept, $t(11) = -0.632$, $p > .05$. See Table 2.

ANALYSIS OF PREDICTION FOUR

Consumer Satisfaction Scale

A comparison of the male teacher to the female teacher responses was made on teacher ratings (Consumer Satisfaction Scale) of student behavior. It was expected that both teachers would report fewer perceived conflicts among students, at posttest.

Table 3 displays the means, standard deviations, and ranges for both the pre and post tests of teacher ratings. Comparisons of pre and post-test scores on teacher ratings (Consumer Satisfaction Scale) were made by means of dependent groups t tests.

Table 3

Means (M), Standard Deviations (SD), and Ranges (R) on Male Teacher and Female Teacher Ratings for Consumer Satisfaction Scale

Source	Student Behavior Rating		
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>Range</u>
Pretest			
Male Teacher	134.00	20.54	25-175
Female Teacher	128.41	23.56	25-175
Posttest			
Male Teacher	143.75	19.69	25-175
Female Teacher	135.33	26.18	25-175

The comparison of pre and post-test scores on the Consumer Satisfaction Scale failed to reveal significant changes in students' behavior as perceived by their female teacher, $t(11) = -1.779$, $p > .05$. Significant changes in male teacher perception of student behavior was revealed, $t(11) = -2.546$, $p < .05$; indicating higher satisfaction at posttest. See Table 3.

An evaluation form was administered to each participant at the conclusion each lesson. Questions on the evaluation form include What was the purpose of the activity (i.e., lesson)?; What did you learn about yourself?; What did you learn about others?; and What have you learned from this activity that will help you in similar situations?

The participants were able to accurately identify the purpose of each activity. For example, at the conclusion of Lesson One, responses

to What was the purpose of the activity? were "To get to know each other," "So that we learned more about each other and what we do best," "To see how similar we are to each other," and "To learn more about ourselves." These responses were consistent with the objectives of Lesson One. Participants had no difficulty recognizing the purpose of each of the four lessons.

Interesting responses were given for the question "What did you learn about yourself?" For instance, in response to Lesson One, participants wrote, "I am a very odd person," "That I have a lot in common with everyone else in my class and we get along when we do things like this," "That I don't really have a lot in common with my classmates," and "I am more cultured than I thought." Lesson Two responses included "That I have to work on my friendship and trusting other people and listening to them and being a better friend," "I learned that I could be a better friend," "I learned how to empathize," and "That I am a very good person." For Lesson Three, participants responded "I have a lot of emotions in my life," "I am a good person," "That I am very sensitive," and "What emotions are and how they effect me." Response to Lesson Four included "I can stop a fight before it starts" and "That I should try to talk things out instead of fighting." The responses of the students indicated that they were able to reflect on their behavior during each lesson.

The question, What did you learn about others?, generated the following responses "I learned that other people in my class agree with me in some things (Lesson One)," "That people like trust in a friendship (Lesson Two)," "Everyone gets mad and deals with it in different ways, (Lesson Three)," and "How some people resolve conflicts (Lesson Four)."

The question, What have you learned from this activity that will help you in similar situations? produced responses such as "I could talk to people about things they like (Lesson One)," "I can be friendlier in society (Lesson Two)," "That I should become a better person (Lesson Three)," and "If anyone wants to fight with me walk away (Lesson Four)."

Although, occasionally, participants wrote "I don't know" in response to a question on the evaluation form, there were no blank responses. Based on the evaluation form responses, the primary investigator presumed that the lesson objectives were achieved because the participants were able to accurately identify the purpose of each lesson. In addition, the things that participants' learned about themselves and other was relevant to each lesson's subject matter.

Discussion

The purpose of this investigation was to examine the relations among urban, multicultural adolescents in a seventh grade classroom. In order to evaluate the predictions that students would increase their knowledge of interpersonal problem solving techniques and increase in their ability to generate behavioral steps necessary for interpersonal problems, pre and post responses to the Interpersonal Problem Solving Procedure (IPSP) were reviewed. In general, on the Interpersonal Problem Solving Procedure (IPSP), participant's were able to correctly identify the feelings of the characters in the vignettes and personalize those feelings by suggesting they would feel the same way as the characters. Also, the participants were able to correctly identify the problem and accurately evaluate the effectiveness of the solutions they generated. According to the social construction perspective (Vygotsky,

1978; Bearison, 1982; Berger & Luckmann, 1966; Rogoff, 1990), the ability to communicate ideas, consider alternative perspectives, and compromise are prerequisites of learning and socializing. The ability to perform these skills well may lead to improved interpersonal relationships.

In order to test the predictions that, at post-intervention, students would report improved peer and teacher interpersonal relations and improved perceived self-concept, and teachers would report fewer peer conflicts, dependent t-tests were conducted. All of the dependent t-tests were nonsignificant except for the Assessment of Interpersonal Relations (female peers) dependent t-test and the male teacher rating dependent t-test. Focusing on the social construction perspective (Vygotsky, 1978; Bearison, 1982; Berger & Luckmann, 1966; Rogoff, 1990), the results of the study may indicate that the students were identified as being conflictual because they were not able to effectively communicate with each other or their teachers. In other words, they were not performing well at communicating ideas, considering alternative perspectives, and compromising. The results indicate that in general, the students felt their interpersonal relationships were lacking. Small sample size may be another reason for the mainly nonsignificant results. Another possible reason was that the participants may have perceived their relationship among male peers and teachers to be negative based on what they learned about the nature of positive relationships during the social competence program. Furthermore, the content of the program may have influenced the participant's perceived self-concept in terms of making them realize that their academic and social competence level is not as high as they would like them to be. Perhaps the reason for the mainly

nonsignificant results is related to the order of the activities and the length of the program. Specifically, the lessons dealt with self-concept, prosocial behavior, expression of feelings, and conflict resolution, respectively. The order of the sequence of lessons required participants to reflect on who they are as individuals, practice skill associated with building and maintaining friendships, identify emotions, and identify and practice skills necessary for peaceful functioning in a classroom setting, respectively. Not only do these concepts and strategies take time to develop; they also require much practice. Perhaps the duration of the social competency program was not long enough for the participants to show improvement in all of the skills addressed by the lessons.

Although academic achievement was not measured in an effort to distinguish between high and low academic achievers, classroom observations were conducted to identify student behavioral characteristics correlated with high and low academic achievers. The characteristics identified by Kunjufu (1988) and Fordham and Ogbu (1986) as behaviors of students who are "acting white" were observed. For example, some students appeared to modulate their speech for teachers. It was also observed that some students clowned around during classroom activities and some students isolated themselves from other students in the class. These may be coping mechanisms for those students.

The classroom teacher (female) witnessed much of the participant's behavior during each lesson. In fact, she was present during most of the data collection). While in the classroom during data collection, the female teacher observed student behavior and graded papers. Occasionally, the classroom teacher nodded her head and

smiled in approval of the content of the lessons. In addition, she verbally praised the content and delivery of each lesson by remarking "That was a fine lesson," "Great job," "I'm impressed," and "They (the participants) seemed to have enjoyed the lesson" to the primary investigator. The female teacher seemed to be especially moved by the Lesson One as evidenced by her comment to the primary investigator: "Wow, that was really a good lesson. You were well prepared and the kids loved it! They really are a great group of students." The skepticism she displayed during the initial consultation meetings concerning the students ability to cooperate with each other while participating in the activities of each lesson seemed to have diminished by the end of Lesson One.

Consistent with her approval of the content of Lesson One in particular, the classroom teacher hung the classroom chart of likes created by the participants on the bulletin board. The chart remained hanging for approximately two weeks.

The homeroom teacher (male) was rarely present in the classroom during data collection. During the early stage of data collection, he asked the primary investigator if he needed to be present during each lesson. The primary investigator advised him to use his discretion and informed him that his presence was not necessary. This was suggested because each lesson was designed to run sufficiently without the aid of the teachers. In other words, the lessons were created to be implemented solely by the primary investigator.

At the start of the data collection, the homeroom teacher reviewed the activities for each of the four lessons. He commented that the lessons were well organized and well planned. At the conclusion of data collection, the male teacher informed the primary investigator that he

heard positive remarks and feedback via participants of the program. He also said he was impressed by the lesson plans he viewed. The principal, who observed the data collection briefly by entering the classroom unannounced and observing for minutes at a time, corroborated the sentiment of the homeroom teacher.

Limitations of the Study

Several methodological shortcomings of this study are worth noting. First, the small sample size and low power may have led to the mostly nonsignificant results. Second, it is difficult to decipher the relative contributions of individual treatment components in this study since various treatment combinations (e.g., coaching, verbal mediation, behavior rehearsal, modeling, and class discussion) were used. Third, the present sample consisted of African-American, Latino, Cape Verdean, and European American young adolescents from lower to middle-class families. It will be unclear if the results of this study will generalize to different samples from different ethnic or social class backgrounds. Fourth, the self-report nature of the data has inherent limitations. Many social-cognitive strategies operate at a covert level and thus cannot be observed. Therefore, researchers are to some extent dependent on self-report. Guaranteeing anonymity may have decreased tendencies to distort self-reports (Ptacek, Smith & Dodge, 1994). Fifth, The Teacher subscale of the Assessment of Interpersonal Relations measure asks respondents to report perceptions of their relations with their teacher. The participants have two teachers (1 male, 1 female). Therefore, it was unclear which teacher each participant was reporting on. Sixth, peer mediation was not used in the social competence program of this study. Research has demonstrated the utility of peer

mediation in the acquisition of social skills. Peer mediated interventions facilitate generalization of treatment effects. Thus, a peer mediated approach may have been beneficial for the present study. Seventh, this study failed to assess generalization effects (across settings, across time, and across subjects). According to the psychology literature, social skills that do not generalize lack functional or adaptive value (Gresham & Lemanek, 1983). Finally, the length of the social competence program was moderate in duration. A longer program may have led to significant results because participants would have had enough time to demonstrate improvement.

Despite these limitations, this investigation supports the utility of social competence training within an interpersonal problem solving framework in improving the social competence of adolescents at high risk for the development of psychosocial and behavioral problems.

Implications for School Psychologists

For school psychologists, there are practical implications of the present study. Efforts which attempt to systematically enhance social competence are extremely important for all students. School psychologists should work collaboratively with teachers to design and implement social competence programs specific to the needs of individual classrooms. These programs should be linked to extant school curricula, involve students and teachers in development, and in implementation. For example in this study, the teachers consulted with the principal investigator by identifying the skills their students could benefit from individually and as a group. The teachers were also able to recommend strategies that might help the students develop social

competency skills. The feedback from the teachers was instrumental in the design and implementation of the social competency program.

It is especially important for school psychologists to recognize and acknowledge the cultural differences in attitudes about academic achievement present among students. Knowledge of students' attitudes and perceptions about learning may help school psychologists understand why some students are not motivated to, or are discouraged from becoming, high achievers. Moreover, this knowledge will aid school psychologists in developing applicable social competence programs focused on resolving conflicts that may occur between low and high achieving students.

Interventions should not be aimed at criticizing ethnic minority students for their beliefs about academic achievement. Rather, the focus should be on informing students that academic pursuit is not synonymous with having a White cultural frame of reference. In general, the findings of the present study reaffirm the notion that school psychologists should generate ways to enhance social competence in students.

Research Recommendations

The results of the present study suggest directions for future research. Social competence programs based solely on research with European American samples may provide models of successful ways to enhance social competence that do not fit well with the ethnic minority adolescents. Therefore, not only is it important for researchers to conduct studies with ethnic minority samples but these researchers should be sensitive to cultural differences in attitudes, values, and experiences of ethnic minorities. The present study underscores the

importance of the need for future research in the area of social competence specific to ethnic minority groups. Future research should use culturally and developmentally-appropriate, multimodal techniques to enhance social competence in students. There is also a need for the development of appropriate measures for use with diverse populations.

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Appendix A

Personal Data Form

Code: _____ Date: __/__/__

1. Circle your gender: F=Female M=Male
2. Write in your current age: _____
3. Circle your racial group:
0=African-American (Black)
1=Latino American
2=Cape Verdean
3=Asian American (South East Asian, Chinese, Japanese, Korean)
4=Native American (American Indian)
5=Caucasian (White)
6=Other (Specify) _____
4. Write your Mother's Occupation: _____
5. Mother's Education:
0=No high school 1=Some high school
2=Completed high school 3=Some college
4=Completed college 5=Some graduate school
6=Masters degree or more education
6. Write your Father's Occupation: _____
7. Father's Education:
0=No high school 1=Some high school
2=Completed high school 3=Some college
4=Completed college 5=Some graduate school
6=Masters degree or more education
8. Parent's total household income:
0=Less than \$10,000 1=10,001-15,000
2=15,001-20,000 3=20,001-30,000
4=30,001-40,000 5=40,001-50,000
6=50,001-60,000 7=60,001-70,000
8=70,001-80,000 9=Above 80,001
9. You live with:
1=Mother
2=Father
3=Mother and Father
4=Grandparent(s)
5=Step-parent(s)
6=Other _____
10. Your grade point average:
1=D+ to C- 4=B+ to A
2=C to C+ 5=A to A+
3=B- to B
11. Your position in your family:
1=Firstborn/oldest
2=2nd born
3=3rd born or higher
(e.g., 4th, 5th)
4=Last born/youngest
5=Other _____

12. The community you live in is:
1=Rural (e.g., small town, countryside)
2=Urban (e.g., big city, inner-city)
3=Suburban (e.g., near a city)
13. Your religion is:
1=Baptist
2=Catholic
3=Moslem
4=Protestant
5=Jewish
6=Atheist (I.e., don't believe God exists)
7=Agnostic (i.e., not sure if God exists)
8=Other (specify)_____
14. If your family immigrated to the United States from another country, please specify the country they came from and the approximate year of immigration:
name of country_____ year of immigration_____
15. Are you bilingual? (i.e., Can you fluently speak a language other than English?)
1=Yes
(specify language:_____)
2=No
16. How many extracurricular (e.g., sports, PA announcer, year book club) school activities are you currently participating in:
1=0
2=1 (specify: _____)
3=2 (specify: _____)
4=3 (specify: _____)
17. Parent's Address:

Appendix B

Assessment of Interpersonal Relations (AIR) (Bracken, 1993)

Code: _____ Date: ____/____/____ Age: ____/____/____

Please rate the following statements according to how well they apply to each of your parents, your male and female peers, and your teachers. Please rate each statement according to how you honestly feel. There are no right or wrong answers, so be sure you are honest with yourself as you rate each statement.

Each statement should be rated as:

Strongly Agree (SA) Agree (A) Disagree (D) Strongly Disagree (SD)

PEERS SCALES

	MALE PEERS	FEMALE PEERS
1. I am really understood by my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
2. I like to spend time with my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
3. If I was bothered by a friend's behavior, I would tell my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
4. I am treated fairly by my...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
5. I feel I am being used by my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
6. When I buy things, I value the opinion of my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
7. If I was worried about a friend doing drugs, I would talk with my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
8. When I am lonely, I seek the company of my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
9. I feel trust and stability in my relationship with my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
10. My relationship is stressful with my...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
11. I am depended upon heavily by my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
12. I can express my true feelings when I am with my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD

Strongly Agree
(SA)

Agree
(A)

Disagree
(D)

Strongly Disagree
(SD)

PEERS SCALES

	MALE PEERS	FEMALE PEERS
13. My happiness is affected by my...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
14. It is important to me that I am accepted by my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
15. It is difficult to be myself when I am around my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
16. My personal values are like those of my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
17. When I am feeling good, I like to be around my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
18. I feel comfortable around my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
19. If I had questions about sex, I would ask my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
20. It is not easy to be honest with my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
21. I am accepted totally by my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
22. I am motivated to do my best by my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
23. I am influenced most by my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
24. When I am in trouble, I talk to my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
25. I argue a lot with my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
26. I am really cared about by my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
27. I enjoy talking with my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
28. I respect my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
29. When I have concerns about my future, I talk to my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
30. I am criticized most by my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
31. I want to be like my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD

Strongly Agree (SA)	Agree (A)	Disagree (D)	Strongly Disagree (SD)
------------------------	--------------	-----------------	---------------------------

PEERS SCALES

	MALE PEERS	FEMALE PEERS
32. I feel bad when things are not going well for my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
33. I trust the motives of my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
34. I feel I can tell secrets to my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
35. I frequently am disappointed by my ...	SA A D SD	SA A D SD
Total Raw Scores		

Strongly Agree
(SA)

Agree
(A)

Disagree
(D)

Strongly Disagree
(SD)

TEACHERS SCALE

TEACHER

1. I am really understood by my ...	SA	A	D	SD
2. I like to spend time with my ...	SA	A	D	SD
3. If I was bothered by a friend's behavior, I would tell my ...	SA	A	D	SD
4. I am treated fairly by my...	SA	A	D	SD
5. I feel I am being used by my ...	SA	A	D	SD
6. When I buy things, I value the opinion of my ...	SA	A	D	SD
7. If I was worried about a friend doing drugs, I would talk with my ...	SA	A	D	SD
8. When I am lonely, I seek the company of my ...	SA	A	D	SD
9. I feel trust and stability in my relationship with my ...	SA	A	D	SD
10. My relationship is stressful with my.. .	SA	A	D	SD
11. I am depended upon heavily by my ...	SA	A	D	SD
12. I can express my true feelings when I am with my ...	SA	A	D	SD
13. My happiness is affected by my...	SA	A	D	SD
14. It is important to me that I am accepted by my ...	SA	A	D	SD
15. It is difficult to be myself when I am around my ...	SA	A	D	SD
-

Strongly Agree
(SA)

Agree
(A)

Disagree
(D)

Strongly Disagree
(SD)

TEACHERS SCALE

TEACHER

16. My personal values are like
those of my ...

SA A D SD

17. When I am feeling good, I like to
be around my ...

SA A D SD

18. I feel comfortable around my ...

SA A D SD

19. If I had questions about sex, I
would ask my ...

SA A D SD

20. It is not easy to be honest
with my ...

SA A D SD

21. I am accepted totally by my ...

SA A D SD

22. I am motivated to do my best
by my ...

SA A D SD

23. I am influenced most by my ...

SA A D SD

24. When I am in trouble, I talk to my ...

SA A D SD

25. I argue a lot with my ...

SA A D SD

26. I am really cared about by my ...

SA A D SD

27. I enjoy talking with my ...

SA A D SD

28. I respect my ...

SA A D SD

29. When I have concerns about my
future, I talk to my ...

SA A D SD

30. I am criticized most by my ...

SA A D SD

31. I want to be like my ...

SA A D SD

32. I feel bad when things are not
going well for my ...

SA A D SD

Strongly Agree
(SA)

Agree
(A)

Disagree
(D)

Strongly Disagree
(SD)

TEACHERS SCALE

TEACHER

33. I trust the motives of my ... SA A D SD

34. I feel I can tell secrets to my ... SA A D SD

35. I frequently am disappointed by
my ... SA A D SD

Total Raw Score

Appendix C

Multidimensional Self Concept Scale (MSCS) (Bracken, 1992)

Code: _____ Date: ____/____/____ Age: ____/____/____

Please rate the following statements according to how well the statement applies to you. There are no right or wrong answers, but it is important that you rate each statement according to how you honestly feel. Be sure to be honest with yourself as you consider the statement you are rating. To mark your answer, simply circle the letters that correspond with your feelings toward the statement.

Each statement should be rated as:

Strongly Agree (SA)	Agree (A)	Disagree (D)	Strongly Disagree (SD)
-------------------------------	---------------------	------------------------	----------------------------------

S SCALE

	SCORE
1. I am usually a lot of fun to be with	SA A D SD
2. People do not seem interested in talking with me	SA A D SD
3. I am too shy	SA A D SD
4. Most people like me	SA A D SD
5. People avoid me	SA A D SD
6. A lot of people make fun of me	SA A D SD
7. I am not accepted by people I know	SA A D SD
8. Most people think I am interesting	SA A D SD
9. I People enjoy being with me	SA A D SD
10. Most of the time I feel ignored	SA A D SD
11. I feel desired by members of the opposite sex	SA A D SD
12. No one seems to laugh at my jokes	SA A D SD
13. Most people appreciate me just the way I am	SA A D SD

Strongly Agree
(SA)

Agree
(A)

Disagree
(D)

Strongly Disagree
(SD)

S SCALE

SCORE

14. I often feel like I am left out of things	SA	A	D	SD
---	----	---	---	----

15. People tell lies about me	SA	A	D	SD
-------------------------------	----	---	---	----

16. I have a lot of friends	SA	A	D	SD
-----------------------------	----	---	---	----

17. I spend a lot of time feeling lonely	SA	A	D	SD
--	----	---	---	----

18. I am never sure how to act when I am with people I don't know well	SA	A	D	SD
---	----	---	---	----

19. People tell me their secrets	SA	A	D	SD
----------------------------------	----	---	---	----

20. People pick on me	SA	A	D	SD
-----------------------	----	---	---	----

21. People do not seem to notice me	SA	A	D	SD
-------------------------------------	----	---	---	----

22. I get a lot of phone calls from friends	SA	A	D	SD
---	----	---	---	----

23. Many people have a low opinion of me	SA	A	D	SD
--	----	---	---	----

24. I let people bully me too much	SA	A	D	SD
------------------------------------	----	---	---	----

25. People have to get to know me before they like me	SA	A	D	SD
--	----	---	---	----

S Scale Total Raw Score

Strongly Agree
(SA)

Agree
(A)

Disagree
(D)

Strongly Disagree
(SD)

C SCALE

SCORE

1. I am honest	SA	A	D	SD
2. Too often I say the wrong thing	SA	A	D	SD
3. I am too lazy	SA	A	D	SD
4. I have a good sense of humor	SA	A	D	SD
5. I am basically a weak person	SA	A	D	SD
6. I feel that most people respect me	SA	A	D	SD
7. I am not very good at speaking my mind	SA	A	D	SD
8. I am assertive when I need to be	SA	A	D	SD
9. I am unlucky	SA	A	D	SD
10. I am very self confident	SA	A	D	SD
11. I don't seem to have any control over my life	SA	A	D	SD
12. I frequently put off doing important things until it is too late	SA	A	D	SD
13. I give people good reason to trust me	SA	A	D	SD

Strongly Agree
(SA)

Agree
(A)

Disagree
(D)

Strongly Disagree
(SD)

C SCALE

SCORE

14. I am not as good as I should be	SA	A	D	SD
-------------------------------------	----	---	---	----

15. I don't keep quiet when I should	SA	A	D	SD
--------------------------------------	----	---	---	----

16. I am successful at most things	SA	A	D	SD
------------------------------------	----	---	---	----

17. I handle my person business responsibly	SA	A	D	SD
---	----	---	---	----

18. I lack common sense	SA	A	D	SD
-------------------------	----	---	---	----

19. I always seem to be in trouble	SA	A	D	SD
------------------------------------	----	---	---	----

20. I can do most things pretty well	SA	A	D	SD
--------------------------------------	----	---	---	----

21. I am not very smart	SA	A	D	SD
-------------------------	----	---	---	----

22. I am a coward in many ways	SA	A	D	SD
--------------------------------	----	---	---	----

23. Others believe that I will make something of myself	SA	A	D	SD
--	----	---	---	----

24. Too often I do dumb things without thinking	SA	A	D	SD
--	----	---	---	----

25. I waste money foolishly	SA	A	D	SD
-----------------------------	----	---	---	----

C Scale Total Raw Score

Strongly Agree
(SA)

Agree
(A)

Disagree
(D)

Strongly Disagree
(SD)

AC SCALE

SCORE

1. Classmates usually like my ideas	SA	A	D	SD
2. I frequently feel unprepared for class	SA	A	D	SD
3. I am good at mathematics	SA	A	D	SD
4. Learning is difficult for me	SA	A	D	SD
5. I usually do well on tests	SA	A	D	SD
6. I am proud of my school work	SA	A	D	SD
7. I can spell better than most people my age	SA	A	D	SD
8. I read as well as most people my age	SA	A	D	SD
9. I don't think very quickly	SA	A	D	SD
10. I work harder than most of my classmates	SA	A	D	SD
11. I don't understand much of what I read	SA	A	D	SD
12. I learn fairly easily	SA	A	D	SD
13. I never seem to have good ideas	SA	A	D	SD

Strongly Agree
(SA)

Agree
(A)

Disagree
(D)

Strongly Disagree
(SD)

AC SCALE

SCORE

14. My teachers like my classroom behavior	SA	A	D	SD
--	----	---	---	----

15. I often feel dumb	SA	A	D	SD
-----------------------	----	---	---	----

16. Most of my teachers seem to like me	SA	A	D	SD
---	----	---	---	----

17. I have poor study habits	SA	A	D	SD
------------------------------	----	---	---	----

18. Science is easy for me	SA	A	D	SD
----------------------------	----	---	---	----

19. I am uncomfortable in school	SA	A	D	SD
----------------------------------	----	---	---	----

20. I usually work very hard	SA	A	D	SD
------------------------------	----	---	---	----

21. Most people would rather work with me than someone else	SA	A	D	SD
--	----	---	---	----

22. My teachers have a low opinion of me	SA	A	D	SD
--	----	---	---	----

23. Most subjects are pretty easy for me	SA	A	D	SD
--	----	---	---	----

24. I am not very creative	SA	A	D	SD
----------------------------	----	---	---	----

25. I usually feel good about my written work	SA	A	D	SD
---	----	---	---	----

AC Scale Total Raw Score

Appendix D

Interpersonal Problem Solving Procedure (IPSP)

Code: _____

Date: ____/____/____

Age: ____/____/____

Vignette #1: One day George was standing around with some other kids when one of the kids said something real nasty to George. He got so mad he decided to get even with the other boy.

1) How do you think the characters feel? How would you feel?

2) What is the problem? How do you know this is a problem?

3) List all the things that can be done to solve this problem (solutions).

4) What are the consequences of each solution?

5) What is the "best" solution?

6) How well do you think this solution would work?

7) How would you know if the solution is working?

Interpersonal Problem Solving Procedure (IPSP)

Vignette #2: Lisa let her friend Monica borrow her favorite necklace. The next day, Monica lost the necklace.

1) How do you think the characters feel? How would you feel?

2) What is the problem? How do you know this is a problem?

3) List all the things that can be done to solve this problem (solutions).

4) What are the consequences of each solution?

5) What is the "best" solution?

6) How well do you think this solution would work?

7) How would you know if the solution is working?

Interpersonal Problem Solving Procedure (IPSP)

Vignette #3: Mike's teacher told him to pick up a sheet of paper off the floor. Mike didn't drop the paper on the floor so he didn't want to pick it up.

- 1) How do you think the characters feel? How would you feel?
- 2) What is the problem? How do you know this is a problem?
- 3) List all the things that can be done to solve this problem (solutions).
- 4) What are the consequences of each solution?
- 5) What is the "best" solution?
- 6) How well do you think this solution would work?
- 7) How would you know if the solution is working?

Interpersonal Problem Solving Procedure (IPSP)

Vignette #4: Vonda and John were talking while their teacher was reading a story to the class. Maria couldn't hear the story being read because of the talking.

- 1) How do you think the characters feel? How would you feel?
- 2) What is the problem? How do you know this is a problem?
- 3) List all the things that can be done to solve this problem (solutions).
- 4) What are the consequences of each solution?
- 5) What is the "best" solution?
- 6) How well do you think this solution would work?
- 7) How would you know if the solution is working?

Appendix E

Consumer Satisfaction Scale (Jackson, Jackson, & Monroe, 1983)

Student's Code: _____

Date: _____

Please indicate your satisfaction with the extent to which the child shows, or does not show, each behavior. Please circle only one number per item that best describes your opinion.

For example, a child who does not throw things might be rated as follows on this sample item.

A. Throwing items. That is, the child forcefully sends objects at another person or object.

1 2 3 4 5 6 **7**

Please circle only one number per item.

1. Verbal abuse. For example, child uses words or laughter to hurt or frighten others.

Completely dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Slightly dissatisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Slightly satisfied	Satisfied	Completely satisfied
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. Doing what is asked. That is, child obeys without delaying or complaining.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. Listening well. For example, child can accurately repeat what was told.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. Engaging in conversations. For example, child starts conversations with others or maintains conversations by actively participating.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. Eye contact. That is, child looks right at the other person during a conversation.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. Friendliness. For example, child smiles and shows concern for others by asking about them.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. Kindness and respect. That is, child treats others in a compassionate, respectful manner.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. Problem solving. That is, child sees alternatives in problem situations.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. Accepting responsibility. That is, child accepts consequences of his/her actions without blaming others or making excuses.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10. Sincerity and openness. That is, child is frank and able to express feelings.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11. Compromising. For example, child weighs his/her own needs <i>and</i> those of the other person to find a solution acceptable to both.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12. Accepting criticism. That is, child listens to others' opinions and uses constructive criticism.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13. Complaining. That is, child whines, argues, or protests.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14. Self-confidence. That is, child feels self-assured and seems to like himself/herself.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15. Assertiveness. For example, child stands up for his/her rights by expressing his/her needs.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16. Dishonesty. That is, child lies, cheats, or exaggerates.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17. Reacting violently. For example, child becomes aggressive at small provocations.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18. Physical abuse. That is, child physically hurts people or things.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

19. Positiveness. That is, child shows appreciation and gives compliments.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20. Accepting compliments. For example, child receives compliments without becoming nervous, embarrassed, or arrogant.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
21. Sense of humor. That is, child is witty or seems to enjoy joking with others.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
22. Bossiness and self-centeredness. That is, child seems to think only of himself/herself and tells others what to do.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
23. Demanding. For example, child is insistent about getting help or attention from others.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
24. Giving up easily. That is, child avoids new tasks or responsibilities.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
25. Cooperation. That is, child works with others to reach a goal.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Please add any comments regarding particular areas.

Appendix F

Evaluation Sheet

Code: _____

Date: ____/____/____

1. What was the purpose of the activity?
2. What did you learn about yourself?
3. What did you learn about others?
4. What have you learned from this activity that will help you in similar situations?

Appendix G

Lesson One

Subject: Self-concept

Time: 1 hour and 45 minutes

Objective:

1. Provide opportunities to develop healthy self-concept.
2. Provide opportunities to identify common and unique characteristics within the group.
3. Enhance sense of competence.

Procedure: 1. Students construct class chart with categories of preferences as column headings and students' names as row headings. Students can generate alternative preference categories. Students record their individual preferences for each category on paper; and use these recordings to construct the class chart. Students individually write about and facilitator guides discussion of the common and unique preferences of class members. Discussion might include the reciprocal nature of individual and group identity; that is, the role of individual preferences in formation of groups and the influence of group membership on individual preferences (e.g., learning, recreational, cliques, political, gangs, religious, cultural, ethnic, racial), particularly as it relates to students' experiences.

2. Using the categories, students in small groups (3 to 4 members) develop plans for accommodating all the preferences within the context of a given activity. For example, students plan a hypothetical meal for the class taking into consideration all of the food preferences listed in the chart.

3. Students divide a "pie" that depicts the parts of the self. The sections of the pie should be proportional to their perceptions of their competencies (i.e., what do you do best, next best..., least best; with proportion of the pie corresponding to relative amount of each skill). Link the concept of proportions of the self to the mathematical construct of proportion. Guide discussion of individual depictions, noting common and unique characteristics, and encouraging students to recognize and appreciate the commonalities and differences within the group. To facilitate social feedback, encourage students to identify other competencies they have noticed in peers.

Materials: Poster board, markers, ruler, paper, pens, Who Are We? transparency, "pie" sheets.

Lesson Two

Subject: Building and Maintaining Relationships

Time: 1 hour and 50 minutes

Objective: 1. Promote an understanding of the role of prosocial behavior in developing and maintaining

friendships.

2. Promote an understanding of the behaviors that facilitate and interfere with establishing and maintaining relationships.
3. Provide opportunities to apply and evaluate relationship skills.

Procedure: 1. Inform students they will work individually and then in small groups to invent a recipe for creating good friendships. Recipe ingredients will be the attributes or characteristics that they feel are important in a good friend. Assign students to cooperative learning groups of 4 members. Instruct groups to assign members the following roles: facilitator, recorder, timekeeper, reporter. Distribute the Recipe for a Good Friend worksheet to each student along with an extra copy to each recorder. Instruct students to take 5 minutes to individually fill out the section titled Ingredients. Explain that in this section they are to identify the characteristics (ingredients) they feel are important for creating good friendships. Direct them to use nouns such as trust and humor to identify their ingredients. Point out that the most important ingredient should have the greatest weight. After 5 minutes, direct students to share their recipe with other members in the group and form consensus regarding at least 3 important ingredients for all friendships. The recorder should record these agreed on items on the extra worksheet. Have each small group reporter state their 3 important ingredients to the whole class. List them on the chalkboard under the headings Ingredients. Have the students check to see which, if any, of the ingredients are the same for all the groups. Post the group Recipe for a Good Friend worksheets in the classroom.

2. Have students brainstorm steps (behaviors) for maintaining friendships and list them on the chalkboard. Provide examples, if necessary: Always listen carefully to what the other person is saying, Express your needs. Be open and vulnerable, Be trustworthy, Call a friend at home who is not feeling well, Give a friend a special surprise on his or her birthday. As a group, have students identify behaviors that facilitate and hinder friendship formation and maintenance. State that in order to have and keep a good friend one needs to: Be a good friend, Like oneself, Know how to express feelings, Accept others, just as they are, Recognize the strengths and skills of others. Encourage students to consider various types of relationships including those with the same-a and cross-gender peers and adults (teachers). Instruct students to now take a personal inventory and see if they themselves possess the

ingredients they look for in a good friend. Then instruct them to finish the two sentences listed on the bottom of the Recipe for a Good Friend worksheet.

3. Have students write "Dear Abby" letters about friendship problems they are having. These can be shared with other students, who can suggest answers without naming the letter writer. Have students role play situations depicted in the letters; when possible, have students videotape the roleplays. Structure this activity as a cooperative learning experience, with emphasis on interdependence, mutual construction of ideas, conflict resolution, and individual accountability. Following this activity, discuss the collaborative process with focus on evaluation of group problem solving, conflict resolution, and prosocial skills.

Materials: Recipe for a Good Friend worksheet, pencil, video equipment (camera, VCR, monitor), Group Process Self-Evaluation Rating Scale, chalk.

Lesson Three

Subject: Recognizing Feelings in Self and Others

Time: 1 hour and 50 minutes

Objective:

1. Facilitate recognition and expression of feelings.
2. Provide models of affective expression.
3. Provide opportunities to illustrate various expressions of emotions.

Procedure: 1. Facilitate class discussion of the depictions of feelings, with focus on (a) verbal and nonverbal expression and (b) multiple ways to express the same feeling. In small groups, students generate feelings vocabulary lists using the Defining Emotions worksheet. Facilitate integration of these lists into a class list, insuring that a broad range of feelings is included. Throughout the activity, facilitate the students' interactions, including decision-making, problem solving, and conflict resolution. Following the activity, guide group discussions of (a) the importance of the contribution of each member, (b) the importance of working toward a mutual goal, and (c) ways students worked together effectively; using examples that arose during the activity. Have students complete the Group Process Self-Evaluation Rating Scale.

2. Introduce the feelings thermometer depicted in Figure 4.3 (adapted from Urbain, 1982), using anger as an example. The feelings thermometer provides a way for individuals to rate intensity of feelings. Discuss association with red, white, and blue (R-W-B) anger styles, as described by Urbain: (a) red (hostile) anger, "blow up, lose your temper"; (b) white (passive) anger, "don't say or do anything"; and (c) blue (assertive) anger, "keep your cool but say something to let the person know you are angry." Have students generate examples of these and their own styles for expressing anger.

3. Have students write journals entries about a time when they were angry (using questions from the first column in the Journal Format for Applying Interpersonal Problem Solving sheet). Guide discussion of journal entries, with focus on (a) the different ways they expressed anger, (b) situations in which they felt angry, and (c) their evaluation of the outcomes.

4. Discuss the use of the feelings thermometer to rate intensity of a variety of feelings (e.g., happy, scared). Have students record in their journal entries experiences with different feelings, using the vocabulary list, thermometer, and questions on the Journal Format for Applying Interpersonal Problem Solving sheet as guides.

5. Tell students everyone reacts a little differently to situations. Because we are all unique, the things that cause one person to feel an emotion will not necessarily cause another person to feel the same emotion. We enjoy different things, and we are distributed by different things. The next

activity will allow each of us to express our individuality. Show the class the Sample Emotions Booklet. Pass out blank paper for students to use to make their own booklets. On the board, list the various emotions they can use for the booklets. Give the students these directions: Look at each emotion and think of a situation that might cause someone to feel that emotion; Write down a caption that describes the situation. The situation you describe can be fictional, but should be a situation that someone your age might experience; Think about and write down how that emotion might be expressed, Illustrate the situation. Stick figures will work fine; Cut, paste and staple all the pages so you have a little book; and Make a title page including your code and the date.

Materials: Journal entry forms, Sample Emotions Booklet, Journal Format for Applying Interpersonal Problem Solving sheet, pencils, paper, markers, crayons, Defining Emotions sheet, Fig. 4.3.

Lesson Four

Subject: Resolving Conflicts in a Nonviolent Manner

Time: 1 hour and 50 minutes

Objective:

1. Facilitate understanding of effective conflict resolution.
2. Foster an understanding of peaceful functioning of a diverse community.
3. Provide opportunities for application and evaluation of conflict resolution strategies.
4. Provide models of effective conflict resolution.
5. Describe nonviolent alternatives to conflicts.

Procedure: 1. Students tell the story of the three little pigs. Read to the class the book, The true story of the 3 little pigs. Discuss the story, using the suggested sequence in Table 3.5, with emphasis on identifying the characters' feelings, the conflict from the multiple perspectives, and how the conflict was resolved. Help the students to consider how the various characters would evaluate the resolution. Encourage students to discuss similar experiences.

2. Students in small groups write and illustrate a newspaper article for either the Pigs Daily News or the Wolves Herald, with a different ending depicting a peaceful resolution. Guide sharing of the stories with focus on (a) diversity of perspectives in their depictions of the incident, and (b) evaluation of the conflict resolution strategies. Throughout the activity, guide students' interactions, including decision-making, problem solving, and conflict resolution. Following the activity, guide discussion of (a) the importance of the contribution of each member, (b) the importance of working toward a mutual goal, and (c) ways to work together effectively to resolve conflicts, using examples from the activity (use Tables 3.3 & 3.4 as guides).

3. To promote generalization, students describe in journal entries academic or social situations in which they had interpersonal conflicts, using the Journal Format for Applying Interpersonal Problem Solving sheet. Facilitate discussion and role playing of the journal entries with focus on feelings, definition of the conflict, and strategies for actual and alternative outcomes. Regular use of journals facilitates self-monitoring and reflection on effectiveness of conflict resolution. Group discussion of journal entries can facilitate perspective taking and provide opportunities for social feedback.

4. Facilitate discussion of conflict resolution with focus on feelings, definition of conflict, strategies and outcome (use Tables 3.2 & 3.3 as guides). Explain that conflict resolution refers to the process of settling disagreements. Successful conflict resolution can provide nonviolent solutions to conflicts. Fighting and name calling are two ways to handle disagreements, but probably are not the best. Discuss the drawbacks to fighting and name calling (i.e., get hurt, get suspended from school, hurt

someone else badly, get killed or kill someone, get a bad reputation, make an enemy, ruin clothes, get embarrassed, parents get mad at you). Ask students for examples of some other ways they handle conflict. List their responses on the board.

5. Show students the Conflict Resolution transparency. Tell students that avoiding conflict, defusing conflict (reducing tension) and negotiation are three ways to resolve conflict without fighting and name calling. Avoiding conflict can mean walking away from a fight, not acting in a way that will provoke someone (e.g., not name calling), or apologizing if you've annoyed someone. Using delaying tactics or humor can diffuse conflict. Negotiation means attempting to find a way to compromise about the issues in the conflict. Ask students to look at the responses they listed on the board. Do any of the responses use the techniques?

6. Distribute the Choices worksheet. Have students read the situation aloud or individually. Then read and discuss the endings. Point out that each ending depicts a different way to resolve the conflict. Suggest that Ending 1 depicts one way to avoid conflict. Ending 2 depicts using a delaying tactic to defuse conflict. Ending 3 depicts the use of humor to defuse conflict. Ending 4 depicts negotiation. Discuss the different ways of resolving conflicts. Ask students which endings seem most effective.

7. Divide the class into small groups. Distribute the Conflicts worksheet. Tell students to work with their groups to create scenarios that illustrate two to four of the possible conflicts listed. For each scenario they choose, they should create at least three possible solutions, showing what might happen with different styles of conflict resolution. Emphasize that all solution should avoid violence. Ask groups to choose a representative to read one of their completed scenarios and its solutions to the class. If time permits, encourage each group to role play one of its scenarios and various solutions.

Materials: Conflict Resolution transparency, Choices worksheet, Conflicts worksheet, chalk, journal entry forms, pencils.

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