

INVESTIGATING SCHOOL COUNSELORS' PERCEIVED ROLE AND SELF-EFFICACY IN MANAGING MULTIPARTY STUDENT CONFLICT

By

SUMMER YACCO

A DISSERTATION PRESENTED TO THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT
OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA

2010

© 2010 Summer Yacco

To my mom, who has always believed in me

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I owe thanks to many people who offered me their support and guidance throughout my studies because it was with their encouragement that I was able to accomplish the completion of this work. First, I would like to thank my parents, who helped make my education possible. The emphasis they placed on my education was an invaluable gift. My father, who is not here with me now, helped me to hone my writing skills and fostered my interest in technology. I am thankful to my mother for always thinking of me and being a source of love and stability in my life.

Next, I would like to thank my doctoral committee for helping me to shape my thoughts and develop as a professional. I am grateful to have had Dr. Mary Ann Clark as my chair. She has been a role model and mentor to me. By including me in her work and encouraging me to participate in professional activities, she has enriched my doctoral studies. I would also like to thank Dr. Stephen Smith for supporting my interest in multiparty conflict and assisting me with the development of my multiparty conceptual framework. I am thankful to both Dr. Amatea and Dr. Dixon for preparing me to enter into academia by giving me their insight into the roles and responsibilities of faculty members.

I am indebted to William Goodman, for the perspective and wisdom he shared with me during my internship with him. His devotion to students and the school counseling profession are qualities that I admire and hope to emulate. I would also like to thank Dr. Cindy Garvan, who was not a member of my committee, but generously offered her help with my methodology.

My experience as a graduate student would not have been the same without the people I have met in Gainesville. I am fortunate to have found a partner, Stephen

Bendfelt, who supports and encourages my dreams even when I question them. Finally, I am lucky to have friends, both old and new, who are there for me through my times of weakness and achievement. I am glad to have the memories we created together to take with me after I leave.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>page</u>
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	4
LIST OF TABLES.....	9
LIST OF FIGURES.....	10
DEFINITION OF TERMS	11
ABSTRACT	13
CHAPTER	
1 INTRODUCTION	14
Research Problem	14
Purpose of the Study	19
Significance of the Study	19
Rationale for the Methodology	20
Research Questions	21
Hypotheses.....	21
Summary	21
2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE	23
School Counselor Role	23
School Counseling History	23
ASCA National Model.....	24
Conflict Management	26
School Counselor Self-Efficacy.....	28
Concept of Self-Efficacy	28
Measures of Counselor Self-Efficacy	29
Adolescent Development	32
Theories of Conflict.....	33
Dual Concerns Theory	34
Social Interdependence Theory.....	36
Social Identity Theory	38
Conflict Resolution Education	40
Concepts and Skills	41
Program Formats	42
Training Methods and Application	45
School Climate	46
Adult Roles	47
Outcomes	48
Multiparty Conflict	54

Structure.....	54
Disputant Contributions	56
Process	59
Multiparty Conflict Resolution Outcomes	62
Multiparty Conflicts in Schools	62
Application of Theory to the Study	63
Summary	64
3 METHODOLOGY	67
Overview.....	67
Variables.....	67
Research Variables	68
Descriptive Variables.....	68
Population.....	69
Sampling Procedures.....	70
Data Collection	71
Design of the Study	72
Data Analysis.....	73
Instrumentation	74
Multiparty Conflict Management Self-Efficacy Scale	75
Validity and Reliability	76
Summary	77
4 RESULTS	82
Descriptive Statistics.....	82
Instrument Development Results.....	84
Data Analysis.....	85
Research Question One	85
Research Question Two	88
Research Question Three	88
Research Question Four	89
Research Question Five	91
Research Question Six.....	94
Summary	94
5 DISCUSSION	100
Overview of the Study and Discussion of Findings	100
Types of Multiparty Conflict Management Delivery	103
Theoretical Approach to Multiparty Conflict Management	104
Self-Efficacy in Multiparty Conflict Management	106
Limitations.....	112
Implications for Theory	113
Implications for Practice	114
Recommendations for Future Research	117

Conclusion	120
APPENDIX	
A PRE-NOTICE LETTER	122
B INVITATION LETTER	123
C INFORMED CONSENT FORM.....	124
D SURVEY OF SCHOOL COUNSELOR PERCEPTIONS OF STUDENT CONFLICT AND COUNSELOR ROLE	125
REFERENCES.....	135
BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH.....	146

LIST OF TABLES

<u>Table</u>		<u>page</u>
3-1	Relationship among research variables, research questions (R.Q.), and survey questions.....	78
3-2	Relationship of self-efficacy items and theory	80
4-1	Participant descriptive information.....	95
4-2	Self-efficacy item averages	96
4-3	Types of delivery used to manage multiparty student conflicts.....	98
4-4	Average use of theoretical approaches	99
4-5	Type of delivery and self-efficacy score ANOVA testing results.	99

LIST OF FIGURES

<u>Figure</u>	<u>page</u>
2-1 Framework for conceptualizing multiparty conflict.	66

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Arbitration	A form of conflict resolution in which an outside party makes the final decision for those involved in the conflict.
Cadre approach	A type of conflict resolution where a group of students is selected for peer mediation training.
Caucus	A private meeting in a mediation that includes some disputants and excludes others.
Coalition	A union between two or more disputants in a multiparty conflict.
Conflict resolution	The process by which interpersonal disputes are ended in a constructive manner.
Disputant	A party participating in a conflict who has a personal interest in the outcome.
Distributive approach	An approach taken by parties of a conflict that focuses on increasing personal gains and decreasing concessions to others.
Dyadic conflict	Conflict taking place between two individuals.
Individual counseling	A counselor approach in which the counselor meets privately with a single student.
Integrative approach	An approach taken by parties of a conflict to reach an agreement that incorporates the interests of all parties.
Large group counseling	A counselor approach in which the counselor works with more than eight students at one time.
Mediation	A form of conflict resolution in which an outside individual helps conflicting parties to resolve their problem.
Multiparty conflict	Conflict taking place between three or more individuals.
Multilateral conflict	A conflict that has three or more opposing positions that are taken by three or more individuals.
Negotiation	A form of conflict resolution in which parties involved in a conflict work towards solution without outside assistance.
Party	An individual who is personally invested in a conflict.

Peer mediation	A form of conflict resolution in which students are trained to help other students resolve their problems.
Relational aggression	A covert act of aggression used to manipulate or damage relationships.
Self-efficacy	A belief in one's ability to successfully complete a task.
Small group counseling	A counselor approach in which a counselor meets with two to eight students at one time.
Type of delivery	A selected mode of providing developmental school counseling services to students.
Whole school approach	An approach to conflict resolution where conflict resolution skills are taught to all students in a school.

Abstract of Dissertation Presented to the Graduate School
of the University of Florida in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

INVESTIGATING SCHOOL COUNSELORS' PERCEIVED ROLE AND SELF-EFFICACY IN MANAGING MULTIPARTY STUDENT CONFLICT

By

Summer Yacco

August 2010

Chair: Mary Ann Clark

Major: School Counseling and Guidance

The purpose of this study was to examine school counselors' perceived role and self-efficacy in managing multiparty student conflict. Literature on conflict resolution in the field of education has not addressed conflicts that take place among three or more students, or multiparty student conflict. Therefore, investigated in this study were middle school counselor's perceptions of the frequency of multiparty student conflict, types of delivery used, theoretical approach, and self-efficacy in managing multiparty student conflicts.

Participants included 357 members from the American School Counselor Association who were practicing middle school counselors. It was found that school counselors encounter multiparty student conflicts and have a high level of self-efficacy in managing these conflicts. ANOVA testing determined that counseling small groups, teaching conflict resolution skills to small groups, and teaching skills to large groups were types of delivery related to self-efficacy in managing multiparty conflicts. A Spearman correlation was calculated to find a significant relationship between self-efficacy in managing multiparty student conflict and the use of theoretical approaches.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Research Problem

Violence in schools threatens student safety as well as the learning environment. Five percent of students have missed school because their safety was threatened by another student (Heydenberk, Heydenberk, & Tzenova, 2006). In 2005, 14% of students in grades 9-12 reported fighting on school property (National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), 2007). That same year, about 6% of students ages 12-18 were afraid of being harmed or attacked at school (NCES, 2007). Harassment, bullying, and victimization can lead to poor academic performance, depression, and self-destructive behavior (Bortner, 2005). In addition to physical violence and overt aggression, covert behaviors such as gossiping, spreading rumors, and social isolation are threats to student safety and school climate. This type of covert behavior, called relational aggression, may not be easily observed, but can still harm social and psychological development (Gomes, 2007). Increased use of technology has led to the phenomenon of cyberbullying, which involves the use of electronic devices to inflict harm on victims. Cyberbullying has negative effects similar to traditional bullying, such as depression and lower self-esteem (Tokunaga, 2010). Educators look to conflict resolution programs to help address these issues.

Conflict resolution education (CRE) programs are a solution to issues in schools including interpersonal conflict, violence, and aggressive behavior. They are an alternative to negative disciplinary approaches to handling these problems. The practice of suspension has been questioned because it does not seem to deter students from fighting and it has negative consequences for students (Breunlin et al., 2002).

Suspensions may also be unfair because certain groups such as males and minority students receive a disproportionate number of out-of-school suspensions. Often school policies require teachers and administrators to manage conflicts using punishment, but this takes time and disrupts the school environment (Johnson & Johnson, 1995).

Conflict resolution education programs empower students, offering training and experiences that are helpful to students of all age groups, and adolescents in particular, in resolving their conflicts in a constructive way. Adolescents are at an age where they are mastering skills for handling conflict and can benefit from developing these skills further (DuRant, Barkin & Krowchuk, 2001). Smith and Daunic (2002) state that establishing emotional independence, socially responsible behavior, and values, are the core tasks during this age. CRE programs have been found to help students in conflict reach agreements, learn prosocial attitudes, apply skills to real life situations, reduce discipline referrals, and reduce fights (Carruthers & Sweeney, 1996; Heydenberk & Heydenberk, 2007; Roberts, Yeomans, & Ferro-Almeida, 2007).

Previous studies on conflict resolution in schools have explored many avenues for managing conflicts that occur between two students. Approaches used in schools generally fall within the broader categories of negotiation, mediation, and arbitration (Johnson & Johnson, 1995). Arbitration takes place when an adult makes a decision for students, but most approaches are aimed at empowering students to solve their own problems. Through conflict resolution training, students can learn to negotiate their own problems or can be trained to mediate problems between others. Ready to use scripts are available for negotiators and mediators to follow, making it easier for schools to implement these programs.

Educators may choose a conflict resolution program that aims to teach skills to a select number of students, called a cadre, or to all students in the school (Garrard & Lipsey, 2007; Johnson & Johnson, 1995; Smith & Daunic, 2002). Cadre programs teach a small group of students in conflict resolution and often train these students to mediate problems between others. When conflict resolution is taught to larger numbers of students, content may either be delivered through self-contained lesson plans or may be embedded in existing curriculum in other subject areas.

One area that has not been addressed in this literature is how to best approach conflicts among three or more students. Literature in the fields of law, international negotiations, and organizational disputes has identified the complexities of conflicts between three or more people, which are referred to as multiparty conflicts (Crump & Glendon, 2003). Researchers in these fields are beginning to lay groundwork for a new paradigm of multiparty conflict, while researchers of school conflict continue to focus on dyadic, or two party conflicts.

Complications that are not present in dyadic conflicts, such as coalitions between two or more parties, make the process of conflict resolution more complex (Susskind, Mnookin, Rozdeiczer, & Fuller, 2005). Studying the nature of multiparty conflicts can be used to inform the training of students and faculty who participate in conflict resolution. The nature of multiparty conflicts between students is different from international or organizational conflicts and needs further exploration before new approaches can be developed for use in schools.

Understanding multiparty conflict can help faculty members involved in implementing conflict resolution programs. CRE programs have been found to reduce

the number of conflicts referred to teachers and administrators, however these programs place other requirements on faculty (Smith, Daunic, Miller, & Robinson, 2002). For the first year of operation, 30% to 50% of the program coordinator's time may be spent developing the program (Carruthers & Sweeney, 1996). School faculty are involved in coordinating programs through scheduling time for conflict resolution activities, motivating mediators and disputing students to participate, training students, and evaluating program effectiveness (Bickmore, 2002).

In particular, school counselors play an important role in CRE programs because of their specialized expertise (Hovland & Peterson, 1996). Assisting students with learning personal and social skills is one of three domains in the national standards set forth in the American School Counseling Association's (ASCA) National Model (2005). Counselors also intervene in crisis situations, such as when student conflict has escalated or become violent. They may respond to student conflict with direct services such as individual or small group counseling. Whether dealing with students directly or through coordinating services, conflict is one of the concerns that counselors manage. Further research is needed to show how counselors spend their time on various conflict management related activities.

Given their position in managing conflict, the role of the counselor is central to conflict resolution in schools. School counselors are leaders in beginning system-wide change and do so by collaborating with other members of the school team (ASCA, 2005). Therefore they are in a position to promote CRE program use in schools. In order for school counselors to effectively manage conflict or create a CRE program, they need to identify other educators who are involved in addressing student conflicts.

Counselors' methods for managing student conflict may vary from one counselor to another because of differences in their training, type of school they work at, and the range of approaches offered in the literature. The types of conflicts they encounter may differ due to the ages of students, school location, student gender, or other variables (Carruthers & Sweeney, 1996). For example, students in urban schools reported being twice as afraid of attacks at school in 2005 compared to students in rural and suburban schools (NCES, 2007). While others have documented different types of conflicts encountered at schools, they did not explore conflicts that took place between three or more students (Johnson & Johnson, 1996; Schmitz, 1994).

Furthermore, counselors work within the context of institutions that have different ways of operating. Schools may have a structured program for training students in place or rely on punitive or crisis responses to deal with student conflict. Research has shown the effectiveness of CRE programs, such as the meta-analysis conducted by Burrell, Zirbel, and Allen (2003), but attention has not been given to which approaches are most widely used by school counselors across the United States. It has been estimated that CRE programs have increased over the past two decades, but the exact number of programs is unknown (Gerrard & Lipsey, 2007).

For counselors to confidently choose approaches for managing dyadic and multiparty student conflict, a greater understanding is needed of what conflicts counselors encounter in schools and what their perceived roles are in handling them. The current literature is insufficient in showing how approaches are being used in natural school settings and how counselors perceive these approaches to work. Additionally, it is unknown whether school counselors perceive their approaches to be

effective. School counselors' ability to successfully manage student conflict is mediated by their perceived self-efficacy, which are their beliefs in their ability to carry out a task (Bandura, 1965). To contribute to the conflict resolution literature in education, this study looked at how middle school counselors handle multiparty student conflict and considered counselor and school variables.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine school counselors' perceived role and self-efficacy in managing multiparty student conflict. This study aims to contribute to the awareness and knowledge of an unresearched area in the field of education. Currently, nothing exists in the literature about the nature of multiparty student conflicts, who manages these conflicts, or how the conflicts are approached. Since school counselors play a role in managing student conflicts and encouraging students' social development, they are also likely to be involved in managing multiparty student conflicts.

Significance of the Study

More needs to be known about school counselor perceptions and behaviors regarding multiparty conflicts in order to assess their need for support and training. This study seeks to reveal how prevalent multiparty student conflicts are in schools as perceived by school counselors, the degree school counselors are involved in managing these conflicts, which methods of delivery school counselors use to manage multiparty student conflicts, which theories inform school counselors in managing multiparty student conflicts, and the degree of self-efficacy they have in managing multiparty student conflicts. Background data about the school and the school counselor was collected to provide information about the school environments and participants involved in the study.

This study contributes to the field of education by bringing awareness to a new issue affecting school counselors and other educators. The results of the study provide a basis for future research that could take a number of different directions. The implications discussed in the fifth chapter may be used to develop specialized training or support for school counselors. A model for approaching multiparty conflicts could be developed to provide counselors and other educators with guidelines and best practices for managing these conflicts. School counselors may also need to be informed about conflict resolution theory and the unique structure of multiparty conflict.

CRE programs that currently address only dyadic student conflicts could be modified to include approaches for managing multiparty conflicts. Training and curriculum could be developed to teach students how to deal with personal conflicts involving three or more individuals. Given the importance of peer relationships and group memberships, students may need help when conflicts arise within their social circles or between separate peer groups. An understanding of how to handle multiparty conflicts gives students and educators greater control over these social issues.

Rationale for the Methodology

To elicit the perceptions and behaviors of middle school counselors at one point in time, a cross-sectional survey design was employed. Participants were selected from the American School Counselor Association (ASCA), which has over 21,000 members across the U.S. who are professional school counselors in various settings. ASCA offers members access to professional publications and online resources, as well as opportunities for professional development and peer networking. Thus, school counselors who choose to belong to ASCA show an interest in their professional development. Online survey research was selected as a method because the ASCA

member directory provides email addresses for middle school counselors. No other data bases are known that include contact information for middle school counselors across the country. Furthermore, online surveys are cost efficient and have a quick response rate (Dillman, 2007; Van Selm & Jankowski, 2006).

Research Questions

The following research questions are addressed in this study:

1. What is the degree of school counselor self-efficacy in managing multiparty conflict?
2. What percent of student conflicts that are encountered by school counselors are multiparty?
3. What types of delivery do school counselors use to manage multiparty conflicts?
4. What theoretical approaches inform school counselors in mediating multiparty conflicts?
5. What is the relationship between type of delivery and school counselor self-efficacy in managing multiparty conflict?
6. What is the relationship between theoretical approach to mediation and school counselor self-efficacy in managing multiparty conflict?

Hypotheses

Research questions one, two, three, and four are descriptive and did not test any hypotheses. The following null hypotheses correspond with the fifth, and sixth research questions:

5. There is no relationship between type of delivery and school counselor self-efficacy in managing multiparty conflict.
6. There is no relationship between theoretical approach to mediation and school counselor self-efficacy in managing multiparty conflict.

Summary

This chapter included an introduction to the issue of multiparty student conflicts and the need to understand how counselors perceive their role and self-efficacy in

managing these conflicts. The second chapter covers literature on school counselor roles, self efficacy theory, adolescent development, conflict resolution theories, conflict resolution education, and multiparty conflict. Following the literature review, the third chapter includes the methodology for the study. In the fourth chapter, data analysis procedures and results from the study are reported. Lastly, the fifth chapter provides a discussion of the results, implications, limitations, and directions for future research.

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this study was to examine school counselors' perceived role and self-efficacy in managing multiparty student conflict. In this chapter, literature is covered on the role of the school counselor, self-efficacy theory, adolescent development, theories of conflict resolution, conflict resolution education, multiparty conflict, and application of theory to the study.

School Counselor Role

In order to understand the role of the school counselor in managing conflicts, it is first necessary to see what the counselor's role is in the school. Literature in the field of school counseling refers to the ASCA National Model as a guide for how school counselors should function (Amatea & Clark, 2005; Dimmitt & Carey, 2007; Hernandez & Seem, 2004; Walsh, Barrett, & DePaul, 2007). Before the development of this model, school counselors served a variety of roles in schools. Over the years, paradigm shifts in the field have given rise to the ASCA National Model.

School Counseling History

In the early 1900s, vocational guidance in schools led to the introduction of the first school counselors (Gysbers, 2004). Throughout the following decades, the role of the school counselor has gone through a number of changes. As early as the 1920s, professionals began to question how counselors could make effective contributions. In 1952 the American School Counselor Association (ASCA) was established and school counseling was recognized as a distinct profession (Bauman et al., 2003). School counseling began to change conceptually in the 1970s away from a single person

providing services and towards a comprehensive, developmental program (Gysbers & Henderson, 2001). Comprehensive counseling programs include content, an organizational framework, and resources. In the 1980s and 1990s, school counselors began to realize that they needed to redefine themselves as valuable contributors to student achievement and success (Schwallie-Giddis, ter Maat, & Pak, 2003).

Accountability has become increasingly important in school counseling literature. Legislation like the No Child Left Behind Act has emphasized accountability for schools as a whole and for school counselors (Dollarhide & Lemberger, 2006). In response, ASCA sponsored the development of national standards for school counseling programs in 1997 (Dahir, 2001). The ASCA national standards were followed by the development of the ASCA National Model: A Framework for School Counseling Programs (ASCA, 2003). The model helps to standardize school counseling programs despite differences in schools and populations (Dimmitt & Carey, 2007).

ASCA National Model

The ASCA National Model provides a framework for the necessary components of a comprehensive counseling program and it describes the role of the school counselor in implementing the program (ASCA, 2005). The four elements of the model are foundation, delivery system, management system, and accountability. These elements help explain the philosophy behind the model and how it should be carried out.

The foundation of the ASCA National Model describes how school counseling programs should be guided by a mission and set of beliefs and assumptions (ASCA, 2005). The foundation also includes standards that counselors should help students work towards achieving. These standards are grouped into three domains: academic

development, career development, and personal/social development. School counselors are encouraged to focus on areas that fit with their school's mission and the needs of the students at their school.

The components of delivering a school counseling program include school guidance curriculum, individual student planning, responsive services, and system support (ASCA, 2005). To reach more students, school counselors are shifting from responding to individual crises to providing developmental services that all students benefit from and working systemically with other stakeholders such as teachers, nurses, and administrators (Walsh et al., 2007). Walsh, Barrett and DePaul's 2007 qualitative study examined the delivery component of newly hired urban school counselors' programs. They found that the school counselors' activities were spread evenly across the four components of a delivery system as outlined in the ASCA National Model.

The management system is responsible for how the school counseling program will operate. Counselors work with administrators and other stakeholders to decide how to implement the program. School counselors are recognized by the ASCA National Model as having skills that make them leaders, advocates, collaborators, and agents of change (ASCA, 2005). These qualities are cited as reasons for school counselors to be involved implementing programs in conflict resolution and improving school climate (Hovland, 1996; Hernandez & Seem, 2004).

The final element of the ASCA National Model is evaluation (ASCA, 2005). This component helps to address the problem of counselor accountability. If counselors are to be an integral part of school improvement, they must be able to demonstrate their impact on student achievement (Dahir & Stone, 2003). Counselors do this by using

data: disaggregating data to discover needs of students and collecting data to evaluate their programs and interventions. Such data may include student achievement data, achievement indicators, and perceptual data, such as information collected from surveys (Poynton, 2006). Taking these steps will also help counselors to show key stakeholders the worth of their activities and help them to define their roles in schools (Scarborough, 2005).

Conflict Management

Managing conflict and helping students to learn conflict resolution skills are activities that align with the foundation of the ASCA national model. These tasks are directly related to two of the three developmental domains in the foundation: personal and social development and academic development. Conflict resolution programs are aimed at helping students develop social skills such as communication, empathy, and perspective taking that will help them to resolve their conflicts (Casserino & Lane-Garon, 2006). Interpersonal skills such as these are related to the personal and social development of students. Problems associated with student conflict can also be harmful to academic development. A lack of social skills is one of the causes of problematic peer relationships, which can lead to problems in academic achievement (Poynton, Carlson, Hopper, & Carey, 2006). School violence is reflected in the school climate and can interfere with the learning process (Hernandez & Seem, 2004).

School counselors following the ASCA National Model may choose one or more methods of delivery to manage conflict. Guidance curriculum on conflict resolution may be delivered through small groups or classroom instruction. Responsive services include individual and small group counseling, crisis counseling, consultation, and peer facilitation, any of which might be used to deal with conflicts. Counselors may also use

a management approach by collaborating with others. Their skills as leaders, advocates, collaborators, and agents of change make them well suited for coordinating programs in conflict resolution and improving school climate (Hovland, 1996; Hernandez & Seem, 2004).

Literature on conflict resolution focuses primarily on the effectiveness of CRE programs and best practices for implementing a CRE program. However, not all schools have CRE programs in place, and school counselors may choose respond to student conflict using other approaches. Researchers have not yet looked at how counselors respond to student conflicts and which approaches they choose to employ. School counselors may play a role in managing conflict through the use of a conflict resolution program or through other delivery methods in addition to a program or in the absence of a program. The school counselor's role in managing conflict may be ambiguous, because professional school counselors are still struggling to clarify their roles in schools. While the ASCA National Model has helped to standardize the profession of school counseling, role ambiguity continues to be a problem for counselors due to a lack of clarity about their roles, objectives, and what is expected of them (Dimmitt & Carey, 2007; Lambie & Williamson, 2004). Another issue for school counselors in defining their roles is that others may be in charge of assigning their duties (Scarborough, 2005). To help clarify the role of school counselors in conflict management, more information is needed about the prevalence of student conflicts, how school counselors are involved in the process, and the effectiveness of their practices.

While exploring the role of the school counselor, it is necessary to take into account the diversity that is present among schools across the country. The ASCA National Model is flexible because differences exist between different schools and populations of students. Students at elementary, middle, and high schools have different developmental needs that counselors must take into consideration (Aluedo et al., 2007). Thus, the role of the school counselor varies from one organization to another to fit the developmental needs of students. Counselors at the middle school level have to consider the growth and transitions that take place during early adolescence (Scales, 2005).

School Counselor Self-Efficacy

This study sought to identify school counselors' perceived self-efficacy in managing multiparty student conflicts. By rating the degree of their perceived self-efficacy, school counselors indicated how successful they are at managing multiparty conflicts. Self-efficacy literature and existing scales of self-efficacy served as a guide for developing a scale for measuring school counselor self-efficacy in multiparty conflict management.

Concept of Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is the belief in one's own ability to successfully accomplish a task (Bandura, 1997). High self-efficacy has positive impacts on cognition, motivation, and emotion. Those who are confident in their abilities are likely to set and commit to high goals. Since self-efficacy is closely related to performance, it is of interest to understand what factors influence the self-efficacy of school counselors. Scales have been developed to measure the vocational self-efficacy of individuals including

professional counselors (e.g. Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005; Larson, Suzuki, Gillespie, Potenza, Bechtel, & Toulouse, 1992).

Perceived self-efficacy, is a key concept in social cognitive theory (Bandura, 2001). Through self-reflection, people judge their ability to control their environment and the results of their actions. The belief that control is possible increases the likelihood that a person will take action (Bandura, 1997). A person high in self-efficacy is likely to be more committed and motivated to reach challenging goals. Self-efficacy also impacts how people manage stress, threats, and negative thoughts. Those with high self-efficacy believe that they will have a positive outcome which makes them more persistent and better able to cope when faced with barriers. Furthermore, school counselor self-efficacy may have an impact on students receiving counseling services. Bodenhorn, Wolfe, and Airen (2010) found that school counselors with higher self-efficacy were more likely to be aware of achievement gap data and implement the ASCA National Model than those with lower self-efficacy.

Measures of Counselor Self-Efficacy

Larson and Daniels (1998) define counseling self-efficacy (CSE), as “one's beliefs or judgments about her or his capabilities to effectively counsel a client in the near future” (p. 180). The Counseling Self-Estimate Inventory (COSE) measures five factors of CSE and was developed for use with counseling trainees (Larson et al., 1992). The instrument was developed and validated over the course of several studies. The internal reliability for the COSE was $\alpha = .93$ and the test-retest reliability over a three week period was $r = .74$. High CSE, as measured by the COSE, was found to be correlated with higher self concept, more effective problem solving, and lower state and trait anxiety. The COSE scores were not significantly correlated with defensiveness or

faking. Level of training, counseling experience, and semesters of training all had significant effect on COSE scores, but theoretical orientation did not.

The first self-efficacy scale constructed for school counselors was the Counselor Self-Efficacy Scale (CSS) (Sutton & Fall, 1995). The 33 item scale was adapted from a teacher self-efficacy scale by replacing the term teacher with school counselor where appropriate, eliminating irrelevant items, and adding additional items. A draft of the scale was reviewed by 10 school counselors before making final changes, but no further steps were taken to test for validity or reliability. A factor analysis revealed underlying factors within the scale, including efficacy expectancy, individual counseling role expectancy, and outcome expectancy.

Sutton and Fall (1995) collected data from school counselors using the CSS and found a relationship between counselor self-efficacy and school climate. School climate was composed of colleague support, which had the strongest significant relationship with self-efficacy, and principal support, which was also significantly related to self-efficacy. Another finding of the study was that school counselors had higher expectations for outcomes of their services that were within the role of the school counselor compared to unrelated services.

Citing the need for a valid and reliable instrument for measuring school counselor self-efficacy, Bodenhorn and Skaggs (2005) constructed and validated the School Counselor Self-Efficacy Scale (SCSE) for use in the school counseling profession at all levels of schooling. The SCSE was developed to align with the ASCA national standards for school counseling. A broad range of school counselor functions are included in the SCSE, unlike the CSE which considers only counseling clients. The

scale is considered appropriate for different school settings because the focus of self-efficacy and comprehensive counseling programs are results, not specific strategies (Aluede et al., 2007; Bodenhorn and Skaggs, 2005).

The SCSE was developed in four studies that involved continual revision (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005). After being reviewed by experts, the scale was rewritten and mailed to attendees of the American School Counselor Association conference in 2000. An item analysis was conducted, yielding a reliability of $\alpha = .95$. An analysis of variance revealed that group differences were not significant for school setting or race, but were significant for gender, experience, and training. Females reported higher self-efficacy than males, school counselors with three or more years of experience had higher self-efficacy than those with less experience, and individuals who had received training in the ASCA National Model reported higher self-efficacy than those without training. The scale was then revised and sent to master's students in counseling programs along with four other scales to test for construct validity. School counselor self-efficacy was positively correlated with another self-efficacy estimate and negatively correlated with state-trait anxiety. There was no significant correlation between school counselor self-efficacy and social desirability or self-concept. School counselor and master's student responses were combined for factor analysis and data on validity and reliability were collected (Bodenhorn & Skaggs).

As Albert Bandura (2006) asserted in his guide for creating self-efficacy scales, beliefs about self-efficacy are specific to an area of functioning. A self-efficacy scale should target only factors that impact performance in a particular domain, which is why a universal measure for self-efficacy does not exist. A scale should accurately

encompass the construct which it measures and differentiate between similar constructs. For example, the School Counselor Multicultural Self-Efficacy Scale (SCMES) was developed to measure school counselor's self-efficacy in multicultural counseling skills (Holcomb-McCoy, Harris, Hines, and Johnston, 2008). The SCSE addresses cultural competence less broadly and as one of many factors, while the SCMES focuses exclusively on multicultural counseling skills. Therefore, in order to measure the perceived self-efficacy of school counselors in managing multiparty student conflict, a scale must be used that accurately reflects domain of multiparty student conflict.

Adolescent Development

Students in middle schools are entering a time of significant psychological growth and physical change and they are in need of support that will help them through their transition into maturity. The need for intimate friendships and stable relationships is of particular importance to adolescents, yet maintaining them can be challenging (Daunic, Smith, Robinson, Miller, & Landry, 2000; Zimmer-Gembeck, Geiger, & Crick, 2005). Young adolescents receive less adult supervision, are in a larger social environment, and many are victimized by their peers (Erath & Bierman, 2008). Although negative interactions can be harmful, positive peer relationships can be a protective factor in middle school adjustment and academic success.

Group memberships are a vital aspect of adolescent relationships. Peer groups give adolescents a sense of belonging and serve as models for socially acceptable behavior (Akos, Hamm, Mack, & Dunaway, 2007). Given the importance of peer relationships and group memberships, students may need help when conflicts arise within their social circles or between separate peer groups. According to Scales (2005),

students of middle school age are advanced in some ways while still immature in others, due to varying individual rates of development and most will need adult assistance to develop self-control and social skills. Middle school-aged students are also vulnerable to low self-esteem issues and may perceive themselves as having fewer assets, such as school engagement, achievement motivation, interpersonal competence, and bonding to school (Scales, 2005; Wigfield, Lutz, & Wagner, 2005). Incidences of bullying are highest during the middle school years and fighting is more prominent than in elementary school. Noakes and Rinaldi (2006) compared peer conflict between 4th grade and 8th grade students and found that adolescents engage in conflict more frequently than younger students. The clear need for young adolescents to develop conflict resolution skills and nurture positive relationships is the reason for selecting middle school counselors as participants in this study.

Theories of Conflict

Many theories have been used to explain conflict and conflict resolution in education, but a dominant theory has not been identified in the literature (Sweeney & Carruthers, 1996). Studies on conflict resolution often fail to connect findings to theoretical frameworks from conflict resolution literature (Johnson, Johnson, Dudley, Ward, & Magnuson, 1995). Sweeney and Carruthers suggest that any theory of human behavior can provide insight into conflict resolution because conflict is a part of interpersonal relations. Three theories are relevant to this research, two that inform school conflict resolution programs, and one that is relevant to the social context of conflict. In school programs, students are taught constructive approaches for dealing with conflict, such as cooperative problem solving (Bickmore, 2002; Roberts, Yeomans, Ferro-Almeida, 2007; Uline, Tschanen-Moran, & Perez, 2003). Although not all

researchers tie their conflict resolution approaches to theory, the problem solving and cooperative approaches are rooted in dual concerns theory and social interdependence theory (Roberts et al.). Social identity theory was also selected because it takes into account that disputants may be members of different social groups. This theory may be useful for conceptualizing aspects of multiparty conflict that dual concerns theory and interdependence theory do not address.

Dual concerns theory is often used to explain conflicts on the level of the individual disputant (Sweeney & Carruthers, 1996). While this theory is commonly used, it does not take into account the interpersonal nature of conflict. Two theories that explain conflict in terms of relationships are social interdependence theory and social identity theory. Social interdependence theory explains how relationships within a group affect conflict (Johnson & Johnson, 1996). Social identity theory can be used to explain how membership in a group affects conflicts between groups as well as within groups (Smith & Tyler, 1997).

Dual Concerns Theory

Traditionally, CRE programs emphasize training students how to select a positive approach for resolving a conflict (Roberts et al., 2007). To explain individual approaches to conflict, Blake and Morton (1970) constructed a conflict grid, a model that serves as the basis for dual concerns theory. The model is based on the assumption that individuals have two motivations in a conflict, concern for production of results, or meeting one's needs, and concern for people, or the interests of others (Blake & Morton, 1970; Davis, Capobianco, & Kraus, 2004; Holt & DeVore, 2005; Rhodes & Carnevale, 1999). Each of the two motivations lies on a continuum of low to high in strength, and each continuum serves as an axis on the grid. The interaction of these

two motivations results in five conflict styles that Blake and Mouton describe but do not name. Holt and DeVore call these styles forcing, smoothing, withdrawing compromising, and problem solving, although others use different terms.

Conflict styles. The logic behind this model is that people will behave in ways that will enable them to accomplish what is important to them (Holt & Devore, 2005). A high concern for production, when combined with little concern for others, results in a forcing approach to conflict. Someone who has a low interest in production but who is highly concerned with people will use a smoothing approach by sacrificing their needs to preserve the relationship. Withdrawing, or avoiding conflict, occurs when neither the relationship nor the outcome is important to the disputant. Compromising occurs when there is a mid-range concern for both dimensions, but the individual is also willing to make production and relationship sacrifices. This theory proposes that the most desirable approach is problem solving, in which the individual is highly motivated in both aspects (Blake & Mouton, 1970; Holt & Devore, 2005). The goal of a problem solving, collaborative approach is to meet the needs of both students, which is believed to result in a productive outcome (Uline et al., 2003).

In a study by Johnson, Johnson, Dudley, and Mitchell (1997), conflict resolution training led students who started out choosing withdrawing and forcing to choose problem solving approaches after they were trained. In ratings of management styles, forcing has been rated as ineffective while problem solving, called initiating negotiation by Johnson et al. (1997), has been rated as effective. The problem solving approach is also consistent with the overall goal of improving school climate and creating an environment that values cooperation.

Measurement. Dual concerns theory recognizes the importance of social relationships, but is focused on the attributes of the individual rather than the social system. An individual's style can be tested using instruments such as the Thomas-Kilmann Instrument, the Negotiating Styles Profile, and Rahim's Organizational Conflict Inventory (Davis et al., 2004). These instruments measure individuals on five dimensions based on the dual concerns model. Shell (2001) suggested that styles reflect social influence and that variance found by the Thomas-Kilmann Instrument is often a result of the participant's effort to select socially desirable traits instead of their own. This shows that individuals are not only internally motivated, but that they are also externally motivated by others.

Social influence. The conflict approaches selected by individuals may also be influenced by the gender and cultures to which they belong. Holt and Devore (2005) found females across cultures to use compromising styles more than males. Another finding was that individuals from collectivist cultures prefer compromising and withdrawing more often than those from individualistic cultures. Even a person's position within a group may play a role in how he or she views conflict. Conflict style seems to be connected to the amount of power one holds in an organization. Individuals in positions of power were found to use approaches that were more concerned with production than with relationships, while those in subordinate positions paid more attention to relationships (Holt & Devore, 2005).

Social Interdependence Theory

Social interdependence theory was conceived by Morton Deutsch, who has extensively studied cooperation and competition (Deutsch, 1949; Johnson & Johnson, 2003). Social interdependence theory explains conflict as a natural occurrence in social

relationships that can be structured in either a positive or negative way, influencing outcomes (Roseth, Johnson, & Johnson, 2008). Interdependence refers to the relationship between the goals of different individuals (Johnson & Johnson, 2005). When students perceive that their chances of success are dependent on the success of others, those students are positively interdependent (Abrami, 1994; Johnson & Johnson, 2005). Students are negatively interdependent if their success requires others to fail. Neutral interdependence occurs when student success is perceived as independent of the success of others. It is also possible for individuals to be positively interdependent on some goals or an aspect of a goal and negatively interdependent on others (Deutsch, 1949).

Positive interdependence. Positive interdependence leads to a pattern of behavior that includes cooperation, helping, and trust, while negative interdependence causes competitive behavior such as intimidation, coercion, and deception (Deutsch, 1993; Johnson, 2003; Roseth et al., 2008; Uline et al., 2003). In cooperative conflict resolution, disputants have a mutual goal of resolving a conflict and work together to reach an agreement. Having a common goal creates positive interdependence between disputants (Johnson, 2003; Uline, et al.). As a result, disputants are more likely to work together and trust one another. In this mindset, disputants are more willing to listen to one another and respect each other, creating a setting in which conflicts can be resolved constructively. Conflict resolution is best facilitated by an environment of cooperative learning, which means that cooperation is integrated into the school and classroom environments (Johnson and Johnson, 2004; Roberts et al., 2007; Sari, Sari & Otunc, 2008).

In some literature on conflict resolution, the cooperative approach to conflict resolution is called integrative (Thompson, Peterson, & Brodt, 1996). In an integrative approach, disputants are able to expand the possible amount of assets through open discussion and creative problem solving. The integrative approach helps disputants to discover a common goal that is mutually beneficial and therefore creates positive interdependence. Integrative conflict resolution is comparable to the problem solving approach described in dual concerns theory, because the needs of both disputants are taken into consideration in both approaches.

Negative interdependence. If disputants perceive that their goals are incompatible, then they are negatively interdependent (Johnson, 2003). Negative interdependence results in competition instead of cooperation. In competitive conflict resolution, the disputants perceive that their outcomes are negatively interdependent: in order for one person to win, the other must lose (Roseth et al., 2008). Competitive behavior, often referred to as distributive, can be compared to dividing up a fixed amount of resources, such as dividing a pie (Thompson, Peterson, & Brodt, 1996). In CRE, the distributive approach is generally discouraged, and the integrative approach is preferred because the objective is for students to work together cooperatively.

Social Identity Theory

Conflict occurs within a social context; disputants are seen as both individuals and as members of groups. Social identity theory holds that identity is made up of individual identity and social identity (Crocker & Luhtanen, 1990; Hornsey & Hogg, 2000). While individual identity consists of beliefs about one's personal attributes, social identity is constituted of beliefs about one's membership in one or more groups. In social identity theory, conflict is explained as a power and status struggle between

individuals or groups (Coser, 1957; Tajfel, 1982). Being a member of a commanding group or having high rank in a group contributes to an individual's positive social identity, or collective self-esteem. Individuals seek to be members of groups that will contribute to their social identity positively, and will either leave a group that is unsatisfactory, learn to justify and accept the group, or try to change the situation (Tajfel, 1974).

Group strain. Individuals who hold status or power within a group wish to keep the group structure and their position the same (Coser, 1957). Tension is created between individuals when those without status or power attempt to acquire these assets. Similarly, when a group is viewed as having status or power, members of that group attempt to keep those assets while other groups try to increase their share. Conflict is viewed as necessary for systems to change and develop, which is in accordance with traditional school approaches. Strain is present in all groups, but flexibility prevents explosive conflict that threatens the system. Flexible systems allow conflict to be expressed openly, and new patterns of behavior emerge that reduce frustration. A rigid system might be completely broken down by diverging groups. Group politics are even present in groups of children, who organize themselves around conflict when it occurs (Maynard, 1985). The organization of the group may change as the conflict changes.

Identity salience. In the struggle to improve social identity, group members differentiate themselves from those outside of the group, the out-group. Group members can improve their collective self image positively through friendly competition, symbolism, and celebration of the group. If one perceives that social identity is

threatened, then a more negative approach is usually taken. Individuals protect their identities by stereotyping and discriminating against the out-group. This interferes with negotiation when one's social identity is salient, because it lessens one's ability to listen and empathize with the out-group (Smyth, 2002). When a person's individual identity is more salient than his or her group identity, the group becomes less important.

Importance of social identity theory. Social identity theory suggests that relationships with others influence decision making and behavior. It also indicates that the outcomes of conflict resolution impact students' social groups and identity. Kramer, Pommerenke, and Newton (1993) argue that because disputants are often members of the same groups including families, cliques, and organizations, negotiation can only be fully understood if the influences of interpersonal relationships are considered.

Social identity theory helps to explain the tension between individuals and groups, and provides a framework for conceptualizing conflict. In multiparty conflicts, it is possible for coalitions of two or more disputants to team up against other disputants. Members of these coalitions may form group identities and discriminate against other group members (Polzer, Mannix, & Neale, 1998). Swaab, Postmes, Van Beest, and Spears (2007) found that increasing shared identity between all the disputants involved in a multiparty conflict led to more integrative rather than distributive negotiations.

Conflict Resolution Education

Conflict resolution can be defined as a process in which conflicts are resolved constructively, resulting in improved relationships rather than destructively, resulting in damaged relationships (Sweeney & Carruthers, 1996). This broad definition includes many different approaches and spans different types of conflicts, including organizational and international conflict. This research is focused on conflict resolution

education (CRE), which takes place in a school setting to address conflicts between students. The focus of CRE is teaching skills and attitudes to students that they can apply to resolving their conflicts in order to create a positive learning environment (Casserino & Lane-Garon, 2006; Hydenberk & Hydenberk, 2007; Johnson & Johnson, 2004; Roberts et al., 2007). This overview of CRE covers concepts and skills, program formats, school climate, and outcomes.

Concepts and Skills

Johnson and Johnson (1995), who have written extensively about CRE, identify three formats of CRE. Programs may include one or all of these methods as solutions to conflict. The first way is directly teaching students conflict resolution skills so that they are able to negotiate their own solutions. Negotiation is a process where two people in a dispute, called disputants, work through their issues together without outside help. Students are taught that conflicts can lead to growth and creativity if they are approached in a positive way. The goal is for students to reach a mutually satisfying solution, also called an integrative or win-win solution (Johnson & Johnson, 1995; Smith & Daunic, 2002).

The second way is teaching students to mediate the conflicts of other students (Garrard & Lipsey, 2007; Johnson & Johnson, 1995). In peer mediation, mediators are taught procedures to help disputants who may not have any training to listen to each other, problem solve, and agree to a win-win solution. Mediators do not give advice or pass judgment; instead they allow disputants to reach their own decisions (Bickmore, 2002). Mediators put their learned skills into practice by intervening in actual conflicts and are a resource for other students. In addition to helping others with conflict, mediators serve as role models by demonstrating pro-social behaviors (Lane &

McWhirter, 1992). Planning for mediation is extensive because faculty must decide who will be trained, convince disputants to seek mediation, find time for mediation to take place, and provide continuing support for mediators.

The third way to handle conflict is through teacher arbitration, where disputants tell an adult their sides of the story and the adult acts as a judge. Johnson and Johnson (1995) recommend that this approach only be offered to students after they have tried the first two methods so that adult time is not sacrificed and because disputants are more likely to stick by solutions they come up with on their own. While arbitration is a well recognized form of dispute resolution in other fields (e.g. Klein & Klein, 2008), most literature in CRE does not mention arbitration as an option. Instead, CRE literature focuses on students taking responsibility by learning to negotiate and mediate.

Skill building is an integral part of these programs because without them, good intentions and other factors are not enough for positive change (Heydenberk, Heydenberk, and Tzenova, 2006). In one training program, students learned affective vocabulary, emotional awareness, self regulation, empathy, and conflict resolution (Heydenberk et al., 2006). Increasing empathy is a common goal of conflict resolution training. Bullies, according to Heydenberk and others (2006), are high in self-esteem but lack empathy. Cassinero and Lane-Garon (2006) paired students with mentors of a different cultural background to help students take the perspectives of others, which lead to gains in empathy for all student participants.

Program Formats

Conflict resolution programs in schools differ in how training is offered to students. The programs are usually categorized by how participants are selected for training (Garrard & Lipsey, 2007; Johnson & Johnson, 1995; Smith & Daunic, 2002).

Either conflict resolution is embedded in curriculum that is taught to a class or entire school of students, or a cadre of students is selected for training. DuRant, Barkin, and Krowchuk (2001) did a study on the former by incorporating conflict resolution and violence prevention into a health education class curriculum. They were able to train students while keeping the classroom setting intact. In addition, this approach allowed for all students to be included in training.

Incorporating conflict resolution into the regular academic curriculum avoids increasing teacher workload and can help sustain the program (Stevahn, Johnson, Johnson, Green, & Laginski, 1997). Stevahn and others (1997) used conflict resolution in Canadian English classes to help students understand a novel and conflict resolution skills simultaneously. This integrated coursework helped students perform better academically in recalling and interpreting the novel than students who studied the novel alone. A factor unaccounted for was that students in the control group did not participate in group learning, which may be the cause of the differences. Still, in the experimental group, 85 percent of students showed mastery of the negotiation procedure.

The Teaching Students To Be Peacemakers (TSP) Program is another example of a total student body approach (Johnson & Johnson, 2004). The TSP program includes a 12 year curriculum for students from Elementary to High school that builds upon previous training each year. Training is ongoing so that negotiation and mediation procedures and techniques become second nature for students to use. Students first learn to understand the nature of conflict and different conflict styles. Then, a six step sequence for negotiation and a four step sequence for mediation are taught.

In Johnson and Johnson's (2004) TSP program, negotiation requires disputants to take turns describing their goals, feelings, and reasoning. They also take turns listening to one another and summarizing what they have heard. The next steps involve problem solving and agreeing to a solution. In mediation, mediators help disputants cool down emotionally and commit to the process. The mediator then proceeds to help the disputants go through the steps of negotiation. Most programs include similar procedures to those in TSP. Nix and Hale (2007) include making introductions and setting ground rules as a common way to begin mediation. Similarly, the Center for Conflict Resolution (CCR) includes establishing confidentiality and agreement to participate as a first step (Bickmore, 2002).

Selecting students for a cadre allows schools to implement the program with fewer resources (Bickmore, 2002). Cassinero and Lane-Garon (2006) used a selection process for their cadre program that welcomed self, peer, teacher, and parent nominations. Student nominees were evaluated based on written essays, grade point average, and involvement in extracurricular activities. Peer mediators who were chosen to participate in a study by Smith, Daunic, Miller, and Robinson (2002) were more positive about school before training took place and were thought to be successful students with good communication skills.

Although it is intuitive to choose students who possess skills that might make them good mediators, peer mediators should be more representative of the student population to help build trust with potential disputants (Day-Vines & Day-Hirston, 1996; Smith & Daunic, 2002). Students with a high incidence of conflict might also be good candidates for training because of the benefits of learning conflict resolution skills.

Cassinerio and Lane-Garon (2006) made exceptions in their selection of mediators for special cases who might particularly benefit from the training, although no criteria was given for how the researchers identified such students. Day-Vines and Day-Hairston assert that students from underrepresented populations should be recruited through personal invitations and encouragement from trusted teachers, administrators, and parents.

Training Methods and Application

Common methods for teaching students conflict resolution skills are role plays, activities, discussion, and instruction. Bandura's concepts of modeling and observational learning provide the basis for some of these approaches (Bandura, 1965; Harris, 2005). Student mentors from a university served as models for peer mediators in Casserino and Lane-Garon's (2006) study mentioned earlier, and Harris (2005) found that disputants made gains in conflict resolution skills, knowledge, and attitude as a result of the modeling and reinforcing done by mediators. In the study by DuRant and others (2001), role play exercises that served as practice were video-taped and the tapes were used for discussion and to give feedback to participants. Their program for conflict resolution and violence prevention has its basis in social cognitive theory and is both didactic and cognitive. By practicing perspective taking in role plays, students' propensity to consider the thoughts and feelings of others increases (Casserino & Lane-Garon).

After mediators are trained, they are often recognized with certificates or identifying clothing which may contribute to the prestige and satisfaction of mediators. In a study of elementary students by Lane and McWhirter (1992), students were formally recognized at an assembly and given uniforms to wear on the playground. In

cadre programs and total school programs, students take turns serving as mediators. Appointed mediators may be visible to students, but do not have the authority to force mediation or solutions upon other students. Disputants may voluntarily choose peer mediation to help end a dispute or as an alternative to disciplinary action (Bickmore, 2001). In elementary schools, peer mediators may be assigned to monitor the playground and attempt to intervene in conflicts (Cunningham et al., 1998).

To ensure that student mediators adhere to conflict resolution models, trainers provide continuing support and may hand out printed reference sheets with mediation procedures. Nix and Hale (2007) assert that strict adherence to a script is undesirable when it leads the mediator to take greater control of the process. Suggesting possible outcomes or strategies, for example, may limit the disputants' problem solving.

School Climate

Teaching conflict resolution skills and offering peer mediation is part of an overall effort to improve the climate of the school (Roberts et al. 2007). To complete the effort, a school-wide cooperative learning environment is desirable. Competitive learning environments are not conducive to teaching students how to manage conflicts constructively (Johnson & Johnson, 1995). In cooperative learning, students have shared goals, work together, and help each other learn. Johnson and Johnson (1995) name three levels, classroom, school, and district, where cooperation should occur. They posit that students should work together, as should teachers and schools.

Uline, Tschanne-Moran, & Perez (2003) also stress shared goals and interdependence as important to team functioning. Cultural norms inform members of an organization whether conflict, diversity of opinion, and other behaviors are acceptable (Uline et al.). Uline and others found that teachers preferred working in

isolation to working with their peers and risking conflict. If teachers and other school community members are uncomfortable with conflict, they are not creating room for different points of view which allows constructive conflicts to occur. The most successful environments are those that support both cooperative work and diversity of thought. Cassinero and Lane-Garon (2006) started a mediation program at a school with low ratings of school climate. Improving the climate by reducing destructive conflicts was one of the goals of administration at the school. A year after implementation, more students rated the school climate favorably, and peer mediators had more favorable ratings than other students.

Adult Roles

Faculty members are asked to schedule time for mediation to occur, motivate mediators and disputants to participate, and coach mediators (Bickmore, 2002). Faculty involvement is also needed to train mediators, evaluate program effectiveness, and promote cooperation. It is emphasized that the adult role is to train and support students, and scarce attention is paid to the adult as a mediator or arbitrator. Bickmore (2002) found that adult monitoring of mediation detracts from confidentiality and may cause a loss of student confidence, trust in adults, and interest in mediation. An alternative to adult trainers is to have youth who graduate from participating schools serve as trainers for peer mediators.

For special programs to be a success, the support and effort of faculty must be earned. Not all faculty members are willing or able to contribute to school change in the same capacity. Some faculty members may be reluctant to divert from traditional discipline procedures for handling conflict (Matloff & Smith, 1999). It may also be uncomfortable for faculty to relinquish control to students. Cunningham et al. (1998)

found that teachers were unskilled in detecting playground conflicts, which may limit their ability to evaluate program effectiveness.

Program plans usually include training for involved teachers so that they have the skills that they will pass onto students. As the demand for conflict resolution programs grows, so does the need for faculty training in the area. Beginning teachers see conflict resolution as one of the most significant areas in their education (Leighfield & Trube, 2005). Leighfield and Trube surveyed students in Ohio teacher education programs to identify how conflict management education is addressed. Forty-nine percent of respondents agreed to some degree that their teacher education programs prepared them for conflict management. Before educators can teach students these skills, they must receive conflict management education themselves.

Only one of the conflict resolution programs reviewed included a partnership between school and family. The Alternative to Suspension for Violent Behavior (ASVB) program is a violence prevention program that teaches conflict resolution skills to students and parents (Bruenlin et al., 2002). Students can reduce their suspensions by participating in the program at a nearby facility and families are invited by the school principal to join in the training. Students who participated in the program had a reduced rate of detention and none were expelled. Resources from the family institute were critical to including families in the training; however, few schools may be able to offer the same level of support.

Outcomes

Literature on conflict resolution programs has been criticized for being mostly descriptive and not showing efficacy (Cunningham et al., 1998; Johnson et al., 1997; Smith et al., 2002). Garrard and Lipsey (2007) point out that studies on conflict

resolution are weak due to “a shortage of well-controlled research designs, low generalizability, poor outcome measures, and indistinct boundaries for what constitutes a CRE program,” (p. 12). Cantrell (2007) notes that research on peer mediation is often conducted with small subgroups and volunteers. More research is needed that is based on empirical evidence rather than anecdotal evidence, evaluates long term outcomes, examines diverse populations, and is tied to theory (Stevahn, Munger, & Kealy, 2005)

Current authors cite these shortcomings as a need for their research on the effectiveness of conflict resolution programs. According to Burrell, Zirbel, and Allen (2003), programs are measured on four categories of outcomes: behavioral indicators, participant perceptions, personality factors, and mediation outcomes. Mediation outcomes refer to the number of conflicts successfully mediated. Multiple methods for data collection are used to provide a clearer picture of program effectiveness. For example, interviews can provide more information about how children make decisions on how to handle conflict than observations alone (Peterson & Peterson, 1990).

A study by Harris (2005), explored whether disputants participating in peer mediation learned skills for resolving conflicts. Social cognitive theories suggest that the modeling of behaviors by peer mediators facilitates observational learning on the part of the disputants, (Harris). Data was collected from participants at three schools using ten new and altered instruments from the Comprehensive Peer Mediation Evaluation Project. The instruments included surveys, interview schedules, an observation form, and a summary report form. In addition, data were collected from administrative records. Harris found that disputants made positive changes in conflict resolution knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors. Disputants resolved 90 percent of their

conflicts and their discipline referrals were reduced 60 percent after mediation took place.

A meta-analytic review by Burrell et al. (2003) found that research strongly supports the effectiveness of peer-mediation programs. Students are able to learn skills that help others reach win-win solutions and are highly satisfied with the programs. School records indicated a 68 percent decrease in behavioral problems, which was greater than what participants perceived the change to be. The implications of the review are that best practices should be established and that mediation should be furthered in schools and in the community. Another meta-analysis was conducted by Garrard and Lipsey in 2007 on the affects of conflict resolution programs on antisocial behaviors. They found that participants in conflict resolution programs made significant improvements in problem behaviors. Larger effects were found for older students and smaller effect sizes were found for children under the age of 10.

Studies using pretest-posttest designs. Several studies have used pretest-posttest designs. DuRant and colleagues (2001) used a quasi-experimental pretest-posttest control group design to evaluate a conflict resolution and violence prevention curriculum. Although the participants were not randomly assigned, the control group and experimental group were not significantly different on any demographic characteristic. The measure used was a five item scale assessing frequency of fighting and weapon carrying, given two weeks prior to the start of the intervention and again two weeks after it ended. The control group increased its use of violence and intention to use violence while violent acts decreased for the experimental group.

Roberts, White, and Yeomans (2004) evaluated the program, Project WIN (Working out Integrated Negotiations), aimed at teaching negotiation to students and transforming the social climate. Students participate in teambuilding classroom activities and discussions in order to change the climate from competitive to cooperative. According to social interdependence theory, cooperative attitudes will lead to liking, trust, calmness, and reduced hostility that are conducive to problem solving. Fifth grade participants took the Cooperative Attitudes Toward Classmates and Toward Conflict Questionnaire as a pre and posttest. The treatment group made greater gains in cooperative attitude, specifically in terms of liking and teamwork, but there was no increase in trust. Eighty-five percent of students in the treatment group were found to achieve a mastery of the subject as measured by a quiz on integrative negotiation skills. However, the authors note that more research is needed on whether students apply their skills and knowledge to natural settings.

Cantrell's 2007 study evaluates how school violence is affected by the Peace Pal elementary school peer mediation program longitudinally. Data was collected from pre and post-training questionnaires given to peer mediators, as well as from mediation contracts, and school records. Over a five year period after the implementation of the Peace Pal program, out-of-school suspensions were reduced.

Heydenberk and others (2006) used a pretest-posttest comparison group design in their study. Classrooms were kept intact to keep students in their natural setting. Students were not randomly assigned and the control group did not receive training. Bullying behaviors were reduced while problem solving and students' sense of safety increased. The comparison group design controls for maturation, history, testing, and

instrumentation. A drawback of comparing groups of mediators against non-mediators is that of not providing treatment for the control group, in this case mediation training. Smith and colleagues (2002) used a delayed treatment design, avoiding this issue. Unlike most other studies, their assignment of students to be mediators was random.

Researchers studying conflict resolution programs often collect data about participants and use self reports to learn about the perspectives and decision making processes of students. Smith and others (2002) argued that programs also need to be tested for social validity to show that disputants are willing to participate in peer mediation. They measured the effectiveness of their program by surveying students' and teachers' attitudes of school climate as well as examining school records of discipline referrals. Harris (2005) studied participants from three schools using ten new and altered instruments from the Comprehensive Peer Mediation Evaluation Project. These instruments were pilot tested multiple times to increase construct validity. The instruments included surveys, interview schedules, an observation form, and a summary report form. In addition, data were collected from administrative records. The study shows that disputants made positive changes in conflict resolution knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors. An implication may be that peer mediation could be offered to disputants as a learning opportunity.

In a study of conflict resolution in inner-city elementary schools, Bickmore (2002) gathered qualitative data from 28 schools and quantitative data from 18 schools. The study taught cadres of third to fifth grade students peer mediation based on the Elementary School Initiative of the Center for Conflict Resolution (CCR) in Cleveland, Ohio. After one year of the program, student's attitudes, as measured by the Student

Attitudes About Conflict (SAAC) survey, improved in inclination to solve problems peacefully and to participate in school. Boys' scores were the most improved at the completion of the program. In addition to surveys, interviews, and observations, Bickmore used academic indicators to support conflict resolution programs. For schools participating in the CCR program study, pass rates on the Ohio Proficiency tests increased significantly more than the district average in the subjects of citizenship and reading achievement (Bickmore, 2002). Qualitative data indicated that school climate was most improved in schools that fully implemented the program.

CRE limitations. Some findings have provided insight to limitations of conflict resolution programs. In programs where mediators act as monitors, presence of mediators may be responsible for change in behavior. As a result of peer mediators present on an elementary school playground, observers saw a reduction in physical aggression of at least 51 percent on the playground. Cunningham et al. (1998) saw that the number of mediators monitoring the playground contributed to the positive outcomes. With fewer mediators present, aggressive behavior returned to baseline levels. For the program to work, a strong force of mediators is needed. Unlike Johnson and other's (1997) study, McFarland & Culp's (1992) study of student conflict styles did not show conflict resolution training to have an impact. Conflict resolution programs teach the belief that problem solving is the most useful approach for resolving conflicts.

Measurement of conflict styles. To assess the impact of conflict resolution training on conflict styles, McFarland & Culp (1992) selected the Organizational Conflict Communication Instrument (OCCI). The OCCI defines three conflict styles that are similar to forcing, avoiding, and problem solving styles described in dual concerns

theory. No significant difference was found in the use of problem solving conflict styles between trained students and untrained students. A gender difference was shown in problem solving with females utilizing the style more than males.

Another instrument used to measure conflict styles is CONFLICTALK, which differentiates between types of messages students use to express themselves on the subject of conflict (Kimsey & Fuller, 2003; Laca, Alzate, Sanchez, Verdugo, & Guzman, 2006). CONFLICTALK defines only three styles including problem-solving, self-focus, and other-focus (Kimsey & Fuller, 2003). Self-focus is a forcing type style and other-focus is a combination of the avoiding and smoothing styles.

Multiparty Conflict

Conflicts with more than two students are absent from the conflict resolution literature in the field of education. In other fields, such as law, international negotiations, and organizational disputes, these conflicts are called multiparty conflicts (Crump & Glendon, 2003). The literature base on multiparty conflict is limited and only a handful of authors have begun to describe the complex process of resolving conflicts between more than two people. As shown in Figure 2-1, however, the existing literature does serve as the basis to form a framework for conceptualizing multiparty conflict. The conceptual framework shows how two elements, structure of the conflict and disputant characteristics, influence the CR process, which then leads to either an integrative or distributive outcome of a multiparty conflict.

Structure

The term structure is used to describe how a conflict is composed, and depends on the number of participants and sides taken in the conflict. Crump and Glendon (2003) define the term “party” as a person able to make and communicate decisions in

a negotiation or mediation. A mediator does not qualify as a party because mediators are neutral and do not have the power to make decisions.

Number of parties and sides. Three or more parties must be involved for a conflict to be considered multiparty. Multiparty conflicts can also differ in the number of sides, or positions, that are taken by the disputants. A multiparty conflict is bilateral if there are more than three parties, but only two sides of a conflict are presented. An example of a bilateral multiparty conflict is when two people take one side and one person takes another side in a dispute. A multiparty conflict becomes multilateral when there are three or more sides to the dispute. Three people each arguing their own side to a conflict would be considered a multilateral conflict. Multilateral conflicts are always multiparty, but multiparty conflicts can either be bilateral or multilateral.

Coalitions. When two or more parties cooperate to increase their mutual outcomes without considering the outcomes for the group as a whole, a coalition is formed (Crump & Glendon, 2003; Polzer et al., 1998). Coalitions may be stable, or they may have non-cooperative relations if they disagree on some issues (Crump & Glendon, 2003). While dyadic conflicts are always balanced with one disputant on each side of the conflict, multiparty conflicts can be asymmetrical (Beersma & De Dreu, 2002). Asymmetry occurs in negotiations where a majority is formed against a minority of group members. Beersma and De Dreu set up a study where symmetry was manipulated in a multiparty negotiation. They found that asymmetrical task structure was associated with distributive negotiating behaviors, lower joint outcomes, and less positive group climate.

Polzer, Mannix, and Neale assigned interests to participants in their 1998 study and found that negotiators formed coalitions to increase their outcomes. Although minority parties were included in the final agreement to increase the total resources for the whole group, coalition members did not sacrifice personal gains to increase group gains. Overall, minority members received fewer resources. Coalitions were found to be relatively stable and coalition members were more unified in their demands. Coalitions are likely to benefit members who belong to the coalition at the cost of those who are excluded. Parties may be members of different coalitions within the same conflict as it suits their interests (Susskind, Mnookin, Rozdeiczer, & Fuller, 2005).

Disputant Contributions

The various ways that disputants influence the process and the outcome of a conflict can be defined as disputant contributions. The dynamic process of a conflict is impacted both by disputants' individual beliefs and experiences as well as their relationships and interactions with each other. The contributions made by disputants are relationships, power, entitlement cues, and motivation. These four contributions have been found to affect whether or not disputants take an integrative or a distributive approach to resolving conflict (e.g. Kim, 1999; Polzer et al., 1998; Ten Velden, Beersma, & De Dreu, 2007; Thompson, Peterson, & Brodt, 1996).

Relationships. Relationships include the concepts of shared identity, shared cognition, and friendship, and are related to the formation of coalitions. As shown in Figure 2-1, positive and negative relationships between the involved parties are likely to play a part in how coalitions are formed, and the coalitions are likely to affect the relationships as well. Peer relationships and group memberships are a noteworthy

concern for adolescents because of their need for intimacy and peer approval (Akos et al., 2007).

Shared cognition refers to knowledge, mental models, and understanding that members of a group have in common (Swaab et al. 2007). Shared cognitions arise from interactions and experiences that group members have related to a task. Social identity theory maintains that group members identify with and are influenced by group standards. Group members distinguish between the ingroup and outgroup, leading to stereotyping. Identification with a group can encourage cooperative, prosocial behavior. Swaab and others (2007) manipulated shared cognition and shared identity in a series of three studies by giving participants varying types of opportunities for interaction before completing negotiations. They used questionnaires with scales for shared identity and shared cognition to test their manipulations. The researchers found that shared cognition and shared identity are related and that they both positively influence integrative negotiation.

Thompson, Peterson, and Brodt (1996) compared negotiations taking place between teams that were made up of strangers and teams consisting of friends. The researchers found results that contradicted their hypothesis that teams of friends would have an advantage because friendship is related to trust and cohesion. Teams that were made up of strangers were better judges of their opponents' interests and came up with more integrative solutions than teams of friends. A possible explanation is that teams of friends could be more concerned with agreeing with each other than exploring integrative solutions.

Power. The amount of power individuals have is related to the value they add to possible coalitions and how dependent others are on them (Polzer et al., 1998). Power can also be defined as the ability to gain outcomes at the expense of others (Sell, Lovaglia, Mannix, Samuelson, & Wilson, 2004). As shown in Figure 2-1, power plays a role in how coalitions are formed and can give parties leverage in a negotiation. Parties with low power may form coalitions to increase their power in negotiating with a more powerful opponent (Caplow, 1956). Kim (1999) found that excluding low power parties from the negotiation process led to less integrative outcomes.

Entitlement cues. Power is also related to entitlement cues, which inform individuals about how resources should be fairly distributed (Polzer et al., 1998). Power, the contribution of that each party is able to make to the group's outcomes, is often used as an entitlement cue. Individuals prefer resources to be distributed in ways that benefit them. Parties with low power are likely to prefer equal distributions while higher power parties are likely to demand a larger share for those who make greater contributions. Polzer, Mannix, & Neale (1998) found that entitlement cues played a role in how parties were able to negotiate for greater resources. When the entitlement cues were in favor of low power parties, they were able to increase their outcomes.

Motivation. It is obvious that disputants are interested in protecting their own interests, but researchers have also examined how disputants act in the interest of the group as a whole (Gillespie, Brett, & Weingart, 2000; Ten Velden, Beersma, & De Dreu, 2007). Prosocially motivated disputants have an interest in increasing group outcomes. Proself, or egotistically motivated disputants are interested in increasing individual outcomes. Ten Velden, Beersma, & De Dreu found that when negotiators were

prosocially motivated rather than proselv motivated, they were more likely to problem solve and find an integrative solution. Beersma, & De Dreu (2002) manipulated disputant motivation by promising rewards for either the highest group outcomes or the highest individual outcomes. They found that in asymmetrical conflicts when unanimous agreement was needed for a solution, egotistically motivated disputants engaged in more distributive behaviors and fewer integrative behaviors.

Gillespie and others (2000) examined a stable form of motivation they termed Social Value Orientation. They found that negotiators with individualistic motivation were less satisfied with their outcomes than negotiators who were prosocial. Motivational orientation was manipulated by instructing negotiators that their goals were either to focus only on their own outcomes or to try to maximize both individual and group outcomes. However, this was not found to have a significant impact on satisfaction.

Process

The complexity of multiparty conflicts requires a different process of conflict resolution than is used with dyadic conflicts. Susskind and others (2005) recommend creating a checklist of decisions needing to be made about the process when preparing for a multiparty conflict. Some approaches used in mediating or negotiating dyadic conflicts may also be used in resolving multiparty conflicts, but decision rule, mediator style, and meeting structure are different in multiparty conflicts.

Decision rule. Decision rules determine how an agreement will be decided between parties. Decision rule is not an issue in dyadic conflicts because the rule is always that both parties must agree to a solution (Beersma & De Dreu, 2002). In multiparty conflicts, an agreement can be decided by unanimity rule, when all parties agree, or by majority rule, when most parties agree. When negotiations are

asymmetrical, with an unequal number of parties agreeing on issues, majority rule gives more power to coalitions (Ten Velden et al., 2007). On the other hand, unanimity rule gives minority members veto power, or the ability to block an agreement. Either one of these decision rules creates the risk of one or more parties preventing an integrative agreement from being reached.

Mediator style and number of mediators. When mediators become involved in handling multiparty conflicts, they must consider who they will work with, what style they will use, and how they will structure meetings with the disputants (Crocker, Hampton, & Aall, 2001; Kim, 1997; Louis, 1999). Mediators may choose to work with one or more co-mediators in handling a multiparty mediation. A school counselor for example, often collaborates with others such as administrators, teachers, and other counselors. When more than one mediator is involved, common understanding of the conflict and a common sense of a solution is needed to prevent confusion of the parties (Crocker et al.). Multiple mediators can encounter communication problems while handing off the stage from one mediator to another. Having multiple mediators also expends greater resources, which may be wasteful. Mediators working together have the additional task of sticking to a common script and developing common objectives. They should also define what role each will play in the process (Louis).

Louis' (1999) *Challenges in Multiparty Environmental Mediation* shows how three different mediation styles can fit the complex process of multiparty mediation with attention given to environmental issues. The doubt and dissonance style challenges each party's thinking to motivate the party and make room for new options. Using the interest-based option generation style, the mediator acts as a facilitator and aims to help

parties discuss interests, intentions, options, and possible outcomes. The hypothesis generation and testing style begins with the negotiators coming up with their versions of the fairest possible outcome. The mediator asks questions and actively listens to make hypotheses successively closer to the best possible solution, incorporating the interests of both parties. When co-mediators are used, they should agree to which style to use.

Meeting structure. Mediators have a choice to meet with disputants at the same time, in joint meetings, or in separate meetings called caucuses. A joint session allows all parties to be heard and participate in discussion, which can facilitate a mutual agreement. Caucuses are useful when parties want to meet privately without other individuals present, or when a mediator finds it difficult to manage the parties because of heightened emotions or the number of parties present. A potential drawback of caucuses is that they have been found to increase competitiveness and result in less inclusive outcomes than joint sessions (Kim, 1997).

Mediators may choose to caucus with parties prior to the mediation to gather information and make decisions about the mediation process (Max, 1999). This includes deciding who will represent each side and if they will be unified as a group or stand as individuals. An added complication of multiparty mediations is that parties on the same side may have various interests and goals. The mediator must consider how a group goal relates to each individual's goals. It may be necessary to work with each person separately to reach everyone's goals.

Caucuses that take place during mediations or negotiations can either be symmetrical or asymmetrical (Kim, 1997). Symmetrical caucusing gives each party a

chance to meet with each of the other parties, while asymmetrical caucusing occurs when only some parties are given the chance to meet privately to the exclusion of others. Kim (1997) investigated how caucusing can affect the outcomes in multilateral negotiations. The results suggest all parties should be included in meetings so that all of their resources can be explored and more integrative outcomes can be reached. The inclusion of parties with low power was found to be especially important in increasing integrative outcomes. The findings also implicate that negotiators who are excluded from early negotiation can still improve their outcomes by breaking into the discussion.

Multiparty Conflict Resolution Outcomes

The ultimate goal of CR is to reach an integrative outcome that is mutually beneficial and positive for all parties as opposed to a distributive and perhaps negative result. For adolescents, a positive outcome might mean increased ability to understand different points of view, find creative solutions, and improve friendships (Scott, 2008). A negative outcome, on the other hand, could result in the loss of friendship, social isolation, or detachment from school.

Multiparty Conflicts in Schools

Although there are current benefits for administrators, teachers, and students who establish and participate in dyadic conflict CR programs, most do not consider how multiparty disputes can be successfully resolved. To a limited extent, studies about multiparty conflicts from professions other than education may help to inform future research, however, the structure, disputant contributions, and process of conflicts among middle school students may be markedly disparate from other populations studied. Applying adult population multiparty conflict research findings to a school setting is challenging because it has limited generalizability to middle school students.

Unlike what would take place in a middle school, the studies are generally based on researcher-constructed scenarios acted out by adult volunteers (e.g. Beersma & De Dreu, 2002; Kim, 1999; Polzer et al., 1998; Ten Velden et al., 2007). Given what is currently known about multiparty conflicts, implications for educators may be drawn if the unique characteristics of middle school students are considered.

For application in a middle school setting, multiparty CR research is needed that captures the structure, disputant contributions, and process that leads to successful outcomes of naturally occurring conflicts among middle school students. Student disputes that arise from gossiping, excluding friends from activities, verbal harassment, teasing, or arguing over failed responsibility for completing a group assignment in class are examples that reflect the school setting and situations in which students are involved. Middle school students may be influenced and motivated by factors that are specific to their age and situation.

Application of Theory to the Study

Dual concerns theory, social interdependence theory, and social identity theory provide a theoretical framework for understanding student conflict and the process of conflict resolution. Dual concerns theory focuses on individual student approaches to conflict resolution, while social interdependence theory emphasizes cooperative relationships, and social identity theory considers the influence of group memberships. Theories of conflict indicate that some approaches to conflict resolution are more effective than others, which may also be true of school counselor approaches for managing multiparty student conflicts.

The fourth research question investigates the degree to which school counselors' approaches for mediating multiparty conflicts are informed by theory. Participants were

asked to rate how likely they are to use approaches based in each of the three theories of conflict. Their responses show which theories they are informed by and how frequently they approach multiparty conflicts in a way that aligns with each of the three theories of conflict.

In addition to theories of conflict, another theory informing this research is self-efficacy theory. A main variable of interest in this study is school counselor perceived self-efficacy because of the impact self-efficacy has on behavior. Self-efficacy theory suggests that school counselors' motivation and persistence in managing multiparty conflicts is impacted by their beliefs about their ability to succeed. The behaviors that are involved in managing a multiparty conflict successfully are rooted in the three theories of conflict resolution as well as the framework for conceptualizing multiparty conflict.

Summary

Managing student conflicts is in alignment with the counselor's role in improving student social, personal, and academic development. Defining the counselor's role in managing student conflict is part of the task of clarifying the role of the school counselor. To clarify their role in conflict management, information is needed about how counselors act as leaders, collaborators, advocates, and change agents to help students resolve conflicts and improve the school climate. School counselors' perceived self-efficacy is also of importance because it has an impact on their motivation, persistence, and ability to carry out these functions.

Students in middle school have a developmental need to maintain positive peer relationships, which is why conflict resolution skills are important to this age group (Daunic et al., 2000; Zimmer-Gembeck et al., 2005). CRE programs are often used in

schools to manage student conflict, but vary in design and content. CRE may involve training the entire school or a cadre of selected students. The role of the counselor in implementing a conflict resolution program may vary depending on the school and program used. These programs are rooted in dual concerns theory and social interdependence theory, which promote the use of cooperative or problem solving approaches to conflict resolution.

Literature in the field of education focuses solely on dyadic conflicts, ignoring the possibility of multiparty conflicts between students. Social identity theory suggests that social groups play a role in conflicts. Researchers in the fields of law, international negotiations, and organizational disputes have begun to define the issues and processes unique to multiparty conflict (Crump & Glendon, 2003). However, the applicability of this literature to student conflicts is limited. Much of the research on multiparty conflict uses researcher constructed scenarios and volunteers who have no prior relationships with each other (Beersma & De Dreu, 2002; Gillespie et al., 2000; Swaab et al. 2007). Students and the school environment have their own unique characteristics that are different from the populations studied by multiparty researchers. Further research is needed to understand how multiparty conflicts are handled in schools as well as how school counselors perceive their role and self-efficacy in managing these conflicts. The following chapter describes the methodology of the current study.

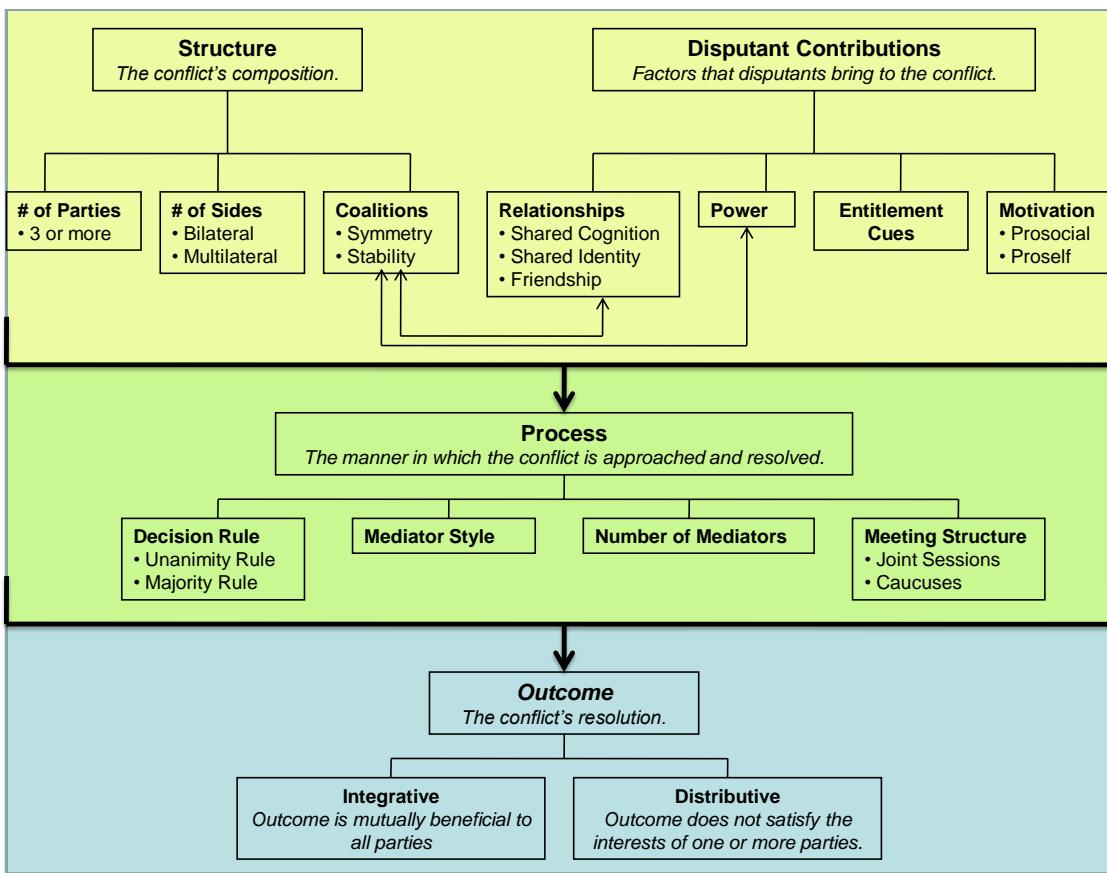


Figure 2-1. Framework for conceptualizing multiparty conflict.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

Overview

The purpose of this study was to examine school counselors' perceived role and self-efficacy in managing multiparty student conflict. Additionally, this study examined the prevalence of multiparty conflicts in middle schools, how school counselors manage multiparty student conflicts and whether their approaches are informed by theory. The study aims to provide an understanding of how middle school counselors are involved in managing multiparty student conflicts and whether or not they believe they are efficacious in this role. Variables, population, sampling procedures, data collection, design of the study, data analysis, and instrumentation are presented in this chapter.

Variables

The variables of interest can be grouped into research variables and descriptive variables (see Table 3-1). The research variables included school counselor self-efficacy, percent of multiparty conflict, type of delivery, and theoretical approach. The descriptive variables provided further insight into school counselors' perceptions of multiparty conflicts in various school settings, but were not part of the posed research questions. The descriptive variables included those that describe the school counselor and those that describe the school. The variables describing the school counselor were gender, ethnicity, years of school counseling experience, years of employment at school of employment, education, and training in conflict resolution. The variables describing the school were location, size, student-to-counselor ratio, percent of low-income

students, frequency of student conflict, gender composition of the disputants, and school support in managing multiparty student conflicts.

Research Variables

The research variables were used to test the research hypotheses. The research variables included school counselor self-efficacy, percent of multiparty conflicts, type of delivery, and theoretical approach.

School counselors' perceptions of self-efficacy indicated whether or not they believed they were able to successfully manage multiparty student conflicts. The degree of perceived self-efficacy in managing multiparty student conflicts was measured by self-reported responses on the Multiparty Conflict Management Self-Efficacy Scale (MCMSS) that was embedded within the survey. Percent of multiparty conflict was defined as the percent of all student conflicts brought to a school counselor's attention that are multiparty. Type of delivery was defined as the method of providing multiparty conflict services to students and include the following types: mediation, arbitration, individual counseling, small group counseling, training peer mediators, collaborating with others, teaching conflict resolution skills to large groups, other types of delivery, and none of the above. Theoretical approach was defined as the degree of likelihood that a school counselor uses an approach to mediation informed by one of three theories: social interdependence theory, dual concerns theory, and social identity theory.

Descriptive Variables

The descriptive variables provided insight into the background of the participants and their school environments. Gender was defined as either male or female as self-reported by respondents. Ethnicity was defined as African American (not of Hispanic

origin), Asian or Pacific Islander, Hispanic, Native American, White, not of Hispanic origin, Multi-ethnic, or Other as reported by respondents. School counseling experience was defined as the number of years reported by the respondents. Education was defined as the highest level of education in school counseling received and was self-reported by respondents as master's degree in school counseling, specialist's degree in school counseling, doctorate in school counseling, or no degree in school counseling. Training in conflict resolution was defined by respondents' self report as college coursework, seminar or workshop, certificate program, or other.

School location was defined as urban, suburban, or rural as self-reported by respondents. School size was defined by the total number of students enrolled at the school, as respondents reported. Student-to-counselor ratio was determined by dividing the number of students enrolled at the school, by the number of counselors working at the school. Percent of low-income students was defined as the percentage of students eligible for free and reduced lunch as reported by the respondents. Frequency of conflict was reported as the degree of frequency to which student conflicts were brought to the attention of school counselors. Gender composition of the disputants was defined as the percentages of multiparty conflicts that took place among all males, all females, and a mix of males and females. School support was reported by respondents as the degree to which school counselors, peer mediators/facilitators, teachers, and administrators were involved in managing student conflicts.

Population

The population of interest was middle school counselors belonging to the American School Counseling Association (ASCA). ASCA members include school counselors from across the United States who practice at different levels of schooling in

addition to professionals in related settings, such as community agencies, state governments, and universities. Members of ASCA receive access to professional publications and online resources, as well as opportunities for professional development and peer networking. By belonging to ASCA, members show a concern for staying informed and connecting with other professionals.

Sampling Procedures

Participants were sampled from the American School Counselor Association (ASCA) Directory. ASCA members include school counselors from all parts of the United States who practice at different levels of schooling. The ASCA member directory was used as a sampling frame. Only members who were identified as working in a middle school setting and who had listed email addresses were selected, because the survey was distributed online. In order to collect accurate data about the frequency of multiparty conflicts in schools, school counselors were excluded if they had been employed at a school for less than one year as indicated by self-report on the survey. This additional criterion ensured that participants had adequate experience with their school's climate and population.

As of December 7, 2009, the total number of members listed in the ASCA member directory was 22,348. Only members who had email addresses listed under the category of Midde/Junior High work setting were included in the sample. As of December 7, 2009, the number of members listed under the Middle/Junior High work setting category was 2,120. Out of this group of members 1,878 had listed email addresses. After sending out invitations to the list, some mail was automatically returned due to errors with the email addresses. In addition, responses were received from school counselors who were not practicing at the middle school level, disqualifying

them for inclusion in the study. After removing invalid and unqualified email addresses, the resultant sample was 1,723. The necessary sample size (N_s) for ensuring a 95% confidence interval, assuming the maximum population heterogeneity of a 50/50 split, is calculated using the following formula: $N_s = \frac{(N_p)(p)(1-p)}{(N_p - 1)\left(\frac{B}{C}\right)^2 + (p)(1-p)}$ (Dillman, 2007). After

substituting, $N_s = \frac{(1723)(.5)(1-.5)}{(1723-1)\left(\frac{.05}{1.96}\right)^2 + (.5)(1-.5)} = 315$.

A total of 386 responses were received, resulting in a 22% response rate. Of those responses, 357 met all of the criteria for inclusion in the study. Online surveys generally have a lower response rate than traditional mail surveys (Granello & Wheaton, 2004). Two similar studies that used online surveys to access school counselors who were members of ASCA had response rates of 17% (Leibach, 2008) and 44% (Steen, Bauman, & Smith, 2007).

Data Collection

A pre-notice letter was emailed to respondents three days before sending the invitation to participate in the research study (see Appendix A). Pre-notice letters do not require any action to be taken by the recipient and serve to build their interest and anticipation (Dillman, 2007). The invitation letter was sent to the selected school counselors by email, informing them of the nature and purpose of the study (see Appendix B). The letter also invited them to participate in the study by following a link to an online survey. A third email was sent reminding sample members about the study 14 days after the invitation letter was sent. A final reminder that also thanked respondents for their participation was emailed 14 days after the previous letter.

Dillman recommends making multiple contacts with participants to maximize the response to a survey, sending reminders in two to four week increments.

Once participants chose to access the online survey, they first viewed a brief welcome screen. The purpose of a welcome screen, according to Dillman (2007) is to inform the respondent that they have reached the correct website and to instruct them on how to proceed. In order to proceed, respondents entered a password listed in their email. Without requiring a password to be entered, researchers run the risk of including respondents who are not part of the desired sample (Dillman, 2007; Van Selm & Jankowski, 2006). After the welcome screen, participants viewed a statement of informed consent and were required to give their informed consent before proceeding to the survey (see Appendix C). Participants who did not give their consent were redirected to the end of the survey.

Design of the Study

The method used in this study was a cross-sectional survey design. With this design, data is collected from participants at one point in time (Creswell, 2008). It is appropriate to use a cross-sectional survey design for collecting data about attitudes, beliefs, opinions, or practices. The instrument used was a researcher-designed online survey. Online surveys allow respondents to respond anonymously and eliminate interviewer bias (Van Selm & Jankowski, 2006). Using an online survey saved resources and allowed for a larger number of participants to be contacted for inclusion in the study. In addition to being cost efficient, online surveys also save time (Granello & Wheaton, 2004). The response time is minimal and because respondents enter their own data and results are received instantaneously. In addition, online surveys allow the

researcher greater control over the formatting. The researcher can specify that the respondent choose only one answer or skip to another section automatically.

In this study, the survey was used to collect data about the beliefs and practices of middle school counselors. Members of ASCA who were categorized as middle school counselors were surveyed on their school setting, personal background, degree of involvement in managing multiparty conflicts, how they approach multiparty conflict, and the degree of self-efficacy they perceive to have in managing these conflicts.

Data Analysis

For each research question, a specific approach was taken to analyze and interpret the data. The research questions are listed below, followed by the data analysis approach that was taken.

1. What is the degree of school counselor self-efficacy in managing multiparty conflict?

For the first research question, the degree of school counselor self-efficacy in managing multiparty conflict was estimated by computing a 95% confidence interval for the average score on the self-efficacy scale for managing multiparty conflicts. A 95% confidence interval is a range of values that has a 95% probability of containing the population parameter (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007).

2. What percent of student conflicts that are encountered by school counselors are multiparty?

For the second research question, the percent of multiparty student conflicts encountered by school counselors was estimated by computing a 95% confidence interval.

3. What types of delivery do school counselors use to manage multiparty conflicts?

For the third research question, the degree to which school counselors use each type of delivery in managing multiparty conflict was estimated by computing 95% confidence intervals for the average score for each type of delivery.

4. What theoretical approaches inform school counselors in mediating multiparty conflicts?

For the fourth research question, the degree to which school counselors are likely to use an approach based in each theory was estimated by computing 95% confidence intervals for the average score for each theory.

5. What is the relationship between type of delivery and school counselor self-efficacy in managing multiparty conflict?

For the fifth research question, to investigate the relationship of categorical variable type of delivery and school counselor self-efficacy, ANOVA testing was conducted to determine if the average self-efficacy is the same across groups. Analysis of variance is used when there are three or more groups, to determine if there is more variance between groups or within groups (Gall et al.).

6. What is the relationship between theoretical approach to mediation and school counselor self-efficacy in managing multiparty conflict?

For the sixth question, Spearman correlation testing was used to investigate the relationship between school counselor self-efficacy and each theoretical approach.

Instrumentation

Past research has not looked at the overall approaches school counselors use to manage conflict. In addition, researchers have not yet examined school counselor approaches for handling multiparty conflicts. For the purposes of this study, it was necessary to create a new instrument to measure the variables of interest. The survey includes questions about the school setting, school counselor background, school

counselor perspectives, and school counselor behaviors related to multiparty conflicts.

Table 3-1 shows how the survey questions connect to the variables of interest.

The survey is composed of four sections: school demographics, school counselor background and practices, the Multiparty Conflict Management Self-Efficacy Scale (MCMSS), and an open-ended question section (see Appendix D). The school demographics section was used to collect data about the frequency of multiparty conflict and descriptive variables concerning the school setting. The school counselor background and practices section includes questions about the type of delivery and theoretical approach to mediation as well as descriptive variables about the school counselors. The MCMSS requires counselors to rate their ability to perform tasks involved in multiparty conflict management. The open-ended question section includes one question that allows school counselors to write in suggestions for improvement in counselor education to better prepare school counselors for multiparty student conflict management. The open ended question gives respondents the opportunity to make additional comments, but the results were not analyzed for the current study.

Multiparty Conflict Management Self-Efficacy Scale

Self-efficacy was measured by the Multiparty Conflict Management Self-Efficacy Scale (MCMSS), which was included as part of the survey. The scale consists of 21 items ranging from 0 to 10, where 0 represents a task that school counselors cannot do at all and 10 represents a task that school counselors are highly certain they can do. Although self-efficacy scales have been constructed for counselors and school counselors (i.e. Bodenhorn & Skaggs; Holcomb-McCoy et al., 2008; Larson et al., 1992), self-efficacy scales are limited to use in the domain for which they were created

(Bandura, 2006). Thus, a new scale was developed to accurately reflect the construct of multiparty conflict.

The self-efficacy scale was developed following Bandura's (2006) *Guidelines for Constructing Self-Efficacy Scales*. The instructions and items are phrased in terms of what counselors believe they "can do," to reflect their current ability rather than what they believe they have the potential to do in the future, as recommended by Bandura. Each item is rated on a 0-10 point scale to ensure a high level of sensitivity and reliability (Bandura).

Validity and Reliability

Four experts were asked to review the questionnaire and examine the reliability and validity of each question. These experts included a counselor educator, author of conflict resolution research, a survey methodologist, and a district supervisor of counseling and guidance. The experts were asked to determine how well the items reflect the concepts measured in order to provide evidence of validity from test content (Gall et al., 2008). The next step in instrument development was to administer the survey to a middle school counselor and conduct a cognitive interview to gather information about the clarity of the items and directions.

Lastly, a pilot test was administered to 11 middle school counselors to test for evidence of construct validity and to detect any problems with the administration procedures. Middle school counselors from a local school district were contacted by email and sent a link to the online survey. After two weeks, respondents were emailed an invitation to retake the survey in order to examine test-retest reliability of the MCMSS. The scores from each administration were correlated to show stability from one administration to another over a period of time (Creswell, 2008). Cronbach's Alpha

was calculated to determine the internal reliability of the MCMSS. At the end of the post-test, the school counselors were asked to answer questions about the survey's items, instructions, overall clarity, and appearance. Participants did not report any problems with the directions or concepts and no changes were made to either the format or the content of the survey.

Summary

In this chapter, relevant variables, population, sampling procedures, data collection, and design of the study were presented. In addition, the approaches for data analysis and the instrumentation were described. The fourth chapter will include a report of the findings of the study. A discussion of the findings, implications, limitations, and recommendations for future research will follow in the fifth chapter.

Table 3-1. Relationship among research variables, research questions (R.Q.), and survey questions

Variable Type	Variable	R.Q.	Survey Question
Constant	Profession	N/A	Are you a middle school counselor practicing in Florida?
Research	Self-efficacy in managing multiparty conflict	1, 5, 6	All items in the self-efficacy scale.
	Percent of multiparty conflicts	2	Out of all the student conflicts occurring at your school, what percent of conflicts occur among 3 or more students?
	Type of delivery	3,5	Which types of delivery do you use to manage conflicts among three or more students?
	Theoretical approach to mediation	4,6	For the following questions, you will be asked how likely you are to take a specific action when you, as a school counselor, mediate a conflict between three or more students.
Descriptive	Location		What is the metropolitan status of your school's location?
	Size	N/A	What is the student enrollment at your school?
	Student-to-counselor ratio	N/A	What is the student enrollment at your school?
	Percent of low-income students	N/A	How many counselors work at your school?
	Frequency of conflict	N/A	What percentage of students are on free or reduced lunch?
	Gender composition	N/A	How frequently are student conflicts brought to your attention in an average month?
	School support		Out of the conflicts you encounter involving three or more students, what percent take place among: all males, all females, and a mix of males and females?
			To what degree are (school counselors, teachers, administrators, peer facilitators) involved in managing student conflicts at your school?
	Gender	N/A	What is your gender?
	Ethnicity	N/A	What is your ethnic background?
	Years of school counseling experience	N/A	How many years of experience have you had as a school counselor, not including the current school year?
	Education	N/A	What is the highest degree you have earned in the field of school counseling?

Table 3-1. Continued

	Training in conflict resolution	N/A	What training have you had in conflict resolution?
Open Ended	N/A	N/A	How might counselor education be changed to better prepare school counselors to handle conflicts among three or more students?

Table 3-2. Relationship of self-efficacy items and theory

Self-Efficacy Item	Theory
Help students use a problem solving approach when in a multiparty conflict (a conflict involving three or more students).	Dual Concerns Theory
Get students who are involved in multiparty conflicts to use a conflict resolution approach that does not sacrifice relationships for personal gain.	Dual Concerns Theory
Get students who are involved in multiparty conflicts to use an approach that does not sacrifice important needs in order to appease others.	Dual Concerns Theory
Help three or more students involved in conflict build positive beliefs about their position within their social network.	Social Identity Theory
Help three or more students involved in conflict to build positive beliefs about their group memberships.	Social Identity Theory
Help students in a multiparty conflict to reduce their biases towards students belonging to different, outside social groups.	Social Identity Theory
Help students build trust while resolving a multiparty conflict.	Social Interdependence Theory
Help students involved in a multiparty conflict avoid coercion, intimidation, and deception.	Social Interdependence Theory
Help three or more students work together cooperatively to resolve a conflict.	Social Interdependence Theory
Get students who are involved in a multiparty conflict to consider the needs of others in addition to their own needs.	Dual Concerns Theory
Get students who are in a multiparty conflict to think about their relationships with other disputants instead of just their own needs.	Dual Concerns Theory
Get every student who is involved in a multiparty conflict to work towards a common goal.	Social Interdependence Theory
Get every student who is involved in a multiparty conflict to reach an agreement.	Multiparty Framework
Get every student who is involved in a multiparty conflict to reach an agreement that meets the needs of every disputant.	Dual Concerns Theory, Multiparty Framework
Work cooperatively with other adults to manage multiparty student conflicts.	Multiparty Conflict Framework
Manage an imbalance of power during a multiparty conflict, when one or more students is at a disadvantage.	Multiparty Conflict Framework

Table 3-2. Continued

Maintain control over the process of managing a multiparty conflict.	Multiparty Conflict Framework
Decide whether a multiparty conflict should end when the majority of disputants agree or when all agree.	Multiparty Conflict Framework
Decide which students to meet with when there is a conflict involving three or more students.	Multiparty Conflict Framework
Meet privately with individual disputants when there are three or more disputants.	Multiparty Conflict Framework
Meet with all disputants together at one time when there are three or more disputants.	Multiparty Conflict Framework

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to examine school counselors' perceptions of their role and self-efficacy in managing multiparty student conflict. Middle school counselors belonging to the American School Counselor Association (ASCA) were invited to complete an online survey at one point in time, which is a cross-sectional survey design. Participants provided information about their background, school setting, involvement and approach to managing multiparty student conflict, and self-efficacy in managing multiparty student conflict. Data analysis and results from the study are presented in this chapter.

Descriptive Statistics

The current study solicited participation from middle school counselors belonging to ASCA who had valid email addresses listed under the Middle/Junior High category of the member directory. After removing invalid email addresses and email addresses of members stating they were not currently practicing school counselors, 1,723 were invited to participate in the study. A pre-notice letter and a series of three invitations were sent out, leading to a total of 386 responses. The resulting response rate was 22%. Responses were only included in the study for participants indicating they were practicing middle school counselors who were employed at their current school for at least one year. After excluding individuals not meeting the criteria for inclusion, the resulting sample was 357. Frequencies were computed for the following descriptive data: gender, ethnicity, degree earned in school counseling, and training in conflict resolution. This information is presented in Table 4-1.

The sample was comprised of 297 (83.2%) females and 57 (15%) males. The ethnic backgrounds of the participants included 299 (82.8%) White, 28 (15%) African American, 12 (3.4%) Hispanic, 7 (2%) Asian or Pacific Islander, 5 (1.4%) multi-ethnic, 3 (.8%) Native American, and 3 (.8%) other. The average years of experience of school counselors was 9.21 years ($SD = 7.26$). Forty two percent of counselors had 1 to 5 years of experience, 23.6% had 6 to 10 years of experience, and 34.6% had more than 10 years of experience. The average years of employment at participants' current schools was 7.25 years ($SD = 7.11$). Fifty six percent of participants had 1 to 5 years of employment at their current schools, 22.1% had 6 to 10 years, and 22.1% had over 10 years of experience. The participants had varying degrees in school counseling, including 316 (88.5%) with master's degrees, 25 (7%) with specialist's degrees, 6 (1.7%) with doctorates, and 10 (2.8%) individuals with no degree in school counseling. While 36 (10.1%) participants indicated they had not had any formal training in conflict resolution, 266 (74.5%) had taken a seminar or workshop on conflict resolution, 224 (62.7%) had college coursework in conflict resolution, 43 (12%) have completed a certificate program in conflict resolution, and 29 (8.1%) had other training not listed in the options.

The locations in which participants worked included 139 (38.9%) schools in suburban locations, 115 (32.2%) schools in rural locations, and 103 (28.9%) schools in urban locations. An average of 45% of the students in the schools were on free or reduced lunch ($SD = 68.01$). There was an average of 728.82 students enrolled at each school ($SD = 681.59$) with an average of 2.10 counselors ($SD = 1.04$) working in each

school. The student-to-counselor ratio ranged from 90-to-1 to 3,100-to-1 and there was an average of 363.11 students per counselor ($SD = 198.235$).

Participants were asked how frequency conflict was brought to their attention on a scale of 1 (very low frequency) to 10 (very high frequency). School counselors reported that student conflicts were brought to their attention at an average frequency of 7.57 out of 10 ($SD = 2.156$), indicating that school counselors are often made aware of student conflicts. The student conflicts encountered by participants were described on average as 56% ($SD = 22.75\%$) dyadic and 43% multiparty ($SD = 22.54\%$). The gender composition of multiparty student conflicts was an average of 65% ($SD = 22.49\%$) all female conflicts, 20% ($SD = 15.91\%$) all male conflicts, and 13% ($SD = 15.25\%$) conflicts between a mixture of females and males.

School counselors reported their degree of involvement in managing student conflicts as an average of 8.06 ($SD = 1.81$) on a scale of ranging from 1 (very infrequent involvement) to 10 (very frequent involvement), meaning very frequent involvement. Administrators were perceived as the most involved ($M = 8.21$, $SD = 1.825$) followed by school counselors ($M = 8.06$, $SD = 1.81$), teachers ($M = 5.82$, $SD = 2.036$), and peer facilitators ($M = 2.31$, $SD = 2.06$). On average, administrators were perceived to be slightly more involved than were school counselors.

Instrument Development Results

A pilot test was conducted with 11 middle school counselors to evaluate the administration procedures and reliability of the survey. During pilot testing, participating school counselors were asked to answer questions about the survey's items, instructions, overall clarity, and appearance. The appearance of the survey was rated by participants as an average of 9.18 on a scale of 1 (very poor) to 10 (very good).

Participants scored the overall clarity of the directions an average of 9.27 on a scale of 1 (very unclear) to 10 (very clear). Clarity of the concepts was rated by participants as an average of 8.67 of 1 (very unclear) to 10 (very clear). Since no problems were reported during pilot testing, the survey instrument and procedures remained the same for the primary study.

Pilot testing included a pre-test and a post-test to examine the internal reliability of the Multiparty Conflict Management Self-Efficacy Scale (MCMSS). The post-test was completed by participants between two weeks and four weeks after completing the pre-test. Scores for the MCMSS were created by summing across all of the items in the MCMSS and dividing by the number of items to calculate a mean score for each person. Test-retest reliability was calculated using a Pearson correlation. The results indicated that the test-retest correlation was $r = .874$. To determine internal reliability for the MCMSS, Cronbach's Alpha was calculated based on the results from the 357 participants in the primary study. Cronbach's Alpha for the MCMSS was computed at .961, indicating high internal reliability.

Data Analysis

For each research question, a specific approach was taken to analyze and interpret the data. The research questions are listed below, followed by the data analysis approach that was taken and the results of the analysis.

Research Question One

The first research question posed by the study was as follows: "What is the degree of school counselor self-efficacy in managing multiparty conflict?"

For the first research question, the degree of school counselor self-efficacy in managing multiparty conflict was estimated by computing a 95% confidence interval for

the average score on the MCMSS. The MCMSS includes 21 items, each ranging from 0, which represents a task that school counselors cannot do at all, to 10, which indicates tasks that school counselors are highly certain they can do.

The average total self-efficacy score for the MCMSS was 8.182 ($SD = 1.144$), which indicates that middle school counselors have a relatively high level of self-efficacy for managing multiparty student conflicts. The 95% confidence interval ranged from a low of 8.062 to a high of 8.301. Confidence intervals and average scores for each item on the MCMSS can be found in Table 4-2. The three items with the lowest average scores and the three items with the three lowest average scores are reported below.

Participants had the highest level of confidence on the ability to meet privately with individual disputants when there are three or more disputants ($M = 9.07$, $SD = 1.117$). Interestingly, 166 (46.5%) participants rated their self-efficacy as a 10 for this item and only 4 (1.1%) respondents reported a 5, the lowest reported response for the item.

School counselors rated themselves second highest on the ability to decide which students to meet with when there is a conflict involving three or more disputants, with an average score of 8.86 ($SD = 1.22$). A total of 143 (40.1%) participants rated their self-efficacy as a 10 for this item and only 4 (1.1%) respondents reported a 5 or lower. The lowest reported score on this item was 3.

The item on the MCMSS with the third highest average score of 8.68 ($SD = 1.306$) measured self-efficacy for the ability to work cooperatively with other adults to manage multiparty student conflicts. For this item, 113 (31.7%) school counselors

reported a self-efficacy of 10. There were 7 respondents who rated their self-efficacy as a 5 or lower, with 2 being the lowest reported score.

The item with the third to lowest average self-efficacy score was the ability to help students build trust while resolving a multiparty conflict. The average score for this item was 7.75 ($SD = 1.564$). A total of 49 (13.7%) participants recorded a 10, while 39 (10.9%) participants reported a score of 5 or lower. The lowest reported score for this item was 2.

School counselors scored second lowest on average ($M = 7.71$, $SD = 1.685$) on the ability to help three or more students involved in conflict to build positive beliefs about their group memberships. A total of 57 (16%) participants reported a 10 for the item and 34 (9.5%) participants reported a 5 or lower, with 2 being the lowest score reported.

The item on the MCMSS with the lowest average score of 7.28 ($SD = 1.786$) measured self-efficacy for the ability to get every student involved in a multiparty conflict to reach an agreement that meets the needs of every disputant. Only 34 (9.5%) of participants rated their self-efficacy as a 10 for this item, while 57 (16%) rated their self-efficacy as a 5 or lower, with 1 being the lowest score reported.

Only two responses of 0, representing a task that cannot be done at all, were reported. One was reported for the ability to get students who are involved in multiparty conflicts to use a conflict resolution approach that does not sacrifice relationships for personal gain. The second was reported for the ability to meet with all disputants together at one time when there are three or more disputants

Research Question Two

The second research question posed by the study was as follows: “What percent of student conflicts that are encountered by school counselors are multiparty?”

To address the second research question, the percent of multiparty student conflicts encountered by school counselors was estimated by computing a 95% confidence interval. The average percent of multiparty student conflicts that were encountered by school counselors was 42.71% ($SD = 22.538$). The confidence interval was between a low of 40.37% and a high of 45.06%. Although a majority of student conflicts occur between two students ($M = 56.35$, $SD = 22.753$), over one third of student conflicts involve three or more students.

Research Question Three

The third research question posed by the study was as follows: “What types of delivery do school counselors use to manage multiparty conflicts?”

For the third research question, confidence intervals were computed for the average score for each type of delivery in managing multiparty conflict to estimate the degree to which school counselors use each type of delivery. The degree to which each type of delivery was measured on a scale ranging from 1 (very unlikely) to 10 (very likely). The frequency for each type of delivery, the percent of respondents who use each type of delivery, and the confidence intervals for each type of delivery are reported in Table 4-3.

The most widely used form of delivery was mediation, which 328 (91.9%) of respondents reportedly employ. The confidence interval for mediation ranged from a lower limit of .89 to an upper limit of .95. Individual counseling, which was the second most commonly used form of delivery, was selected by 312 (88.2%) of respondents.

The confidence interval for individual counseling is a range of .85 to .92. Small group counseling was used by 272 (76.2%) of participants, with a confidence interval ranging from .72 to .81. Collaborating with others was reported to be a form of delivery for 265 respondents (74%). The lower limit of the confidence interval was .70 and the upper limit was .79. Teaching conflict resolution skills to small groups was used by 205 (57.4%) of respondents as a form of delivery. The confidence interval for this delivery form ranged from .52 to .63. Teaching conflict resolution skills to large groups was used by 123 (34.5%) participants. The lower limit of the confidence interval was .30 and the upper limit was .39. Arbitration, where an adult makes the final decision, was the least preferred form of delivery out of the types listed by name, as it was selected by 92 (25.8%) participants. The lower limit of the confidence interval for arbitration was .21 and the upper limit was .3. The number of participants indicating that they use a form of delivery other than the listed options was 25 (7%). The lower limit of the confidence interval for other forms of delivery was .04 and the upper limit was .1. Only one participant reported not using any forms of delivery, indicating no involvement in managing multiparty student conflicts in any way. No confident interval was calculated for this group since only one participant was included.

Research Question Four

The fourth research question posed by the study was as follows: "What theoretical approaches inform school counselors in mediating multiparty conflicts?"

For the fourth research question, the degree to which school counselors are likely to use an approach based in each theory was estimated by computing 95% confidence intervals for the average score for each theory. For each theory of conflict resolution, a description of the theoretical approach was presented along with an

example of how the approach might be applied to a multiparty student conflict.

Participants rated the likelihood of using each approach on a scale from 1 (very unlikely) to 10 (very likely). The average scores, standard deviations, and confidence intervals for each theoretical approach are reported in Table 4-4.

An approach based on dual concerns theory was described as encouraging students to balance their own needs while considering the needs of others. The likelihood of using an approach based on dual concerns theory was an average of 8.90 ($SD = 1.658$), with a confidence interval of 8.73 to 9.07. A likelihood of 10 was reported by 167 (46.8%) participants for using a dual concerns based approach and only 17 (4.8%) participants believed the likelihood be 5 or below.

Taking an approach based on social identity theory was described as trying to reduce negative beliefs that students have about others belonging to a different social group. The likelihood of using an approach based on social identity theory was an average of 8.60 ($SD = 1.812$), with a confidence interval of 8.41 to 8.79. The number of participants who reported a likelihood of 10 for using an approach based on social identity theory was 151 (42.3%), while the number of participants who reported a likelihood of 5 or lower was 28 (7.8%).

An approach based on social interdependence theory was described as helping students work cooperatively toward a common goal. The likelihood of using an approach based on social interdependence theory was an average of 8.49 ($SD = 1.860$), with a confidence interval of 8.30 to 8.69. A total of 134 (37.5%) participants rated their likelihood of using an approach based on social interdependence theory as a 10, while only 27 (7.6%) respondents reported a likelihood of 5 or lower.

Based on the findings, the theoretical based approach most likely to be used by school counselors was dual concerns theory, followed by approaches based in social identity theory and social interdependence theory. The results also indicate that middle school counselors have a relatively high likelihood of employing approaches based in these theories when approaching multiparty student conflicts.

Research Question Five

The fifth research question posed by the study was as follows: “What is the relationship between type of delivery and school counselor self-efficacy in managing multiparty conflict?”

For the fifth research question, to investigate the relationship of categorical variable type of delivery and school counselor self-efficacy, ANOVA testing was conducted to determine if the average self-efficacy was the same across groups. For each type of delivery, a Levene Statistic was calculated to determine homogeneity of variance, which is an assumption of ANOVA testing. The homogeneity of variances for each type of delivery was at an acceptable level to complete ANOVA testing. The findings from the test of homogeneity of variances, ANOVA testing, and the average self-efficacy scores for each type of delivery are reported in Table 4-5.

Collaborating with others. Based on ANOVA testing, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected for collaborating with others ($F (1, 355) = .439, p = .508$). The average self-efficacy score for respondents who collaborate with others was 8.205 ($SD = 1.183$) and 8.113 ($SD = 1.0279$) for respondents who do not. This indicates that school counselors who collaborate with others to address multiparty conflict and those who do not collaborate show no significant difference in self-efficacy in multiparty conflict management.

Teaching small groups. For the teaching conflict resolution skills to small groups type of delivery, the null hypothesis was rejected, based on significant findings ($F (1, 355) = 3.862$, $p = .05$). The average self-efficacy scores for teaching conflict resolution skills to small groups and not using this form of delivery were 8.284 ($SD = 1.099$) and 8.044 ($SD = 1.192$) respectively. This finding indicates that school counselors who teach conflict resolution skills to small groups have significantly higher self-efficacy in multiparty conflict management than those who do not.

Teaching large groups. The null hypothesis was also rejected for teaching conflict resolution skills to large groups, due to the significant result ($F (1, 355) = 18.884$, $p = .0$). The average self-efficacy scores for teaching conflict resolution skills to large groups and not using this form of delivery were 8.536 ($SD = .887$) and 7.995 ($SD = 1.22$) respectively. The result of ANOVA testing shows that school counselors who teach conflict resolution skills to large groups have significantly higher self-efficacy in multiparty conflict management than those who do not.

Mediation. The null hypothesis for mediation was not rejected, as the finding was not significant ($F (1, 355) = .101$, $p = .750$). The average self-efficacy scores for using and not using mediation were 8.187 ($SD = 1.156$) and 8.117 ($SD = 1.024$) respectively. This finding indicates that self-efficacy in multiparty conflict management is not significantly different for school counselors who use mediation and those who do not.

Arbitration. The null hypothesis was not rejected for arbitration, where the adult makes the final decision, since the result was not significant ($F (1, 355) = .186$, $p = .667$). The average self-efficacy scores for individuals using and not using arbitration

were 8.137 ($SD = 1.242$) and 8.197 ($SD = 1.111$) respectively. This finding indicates that self-efficacy in multiparty conflict management is not significantly different for school counselors who use arbitration and those who do not.

Individual Counseling. For individual counseling, the null hypothesis was not rejected, as the result was not significant ($F (1, 355) = 2.230, p = .136$). The average self-efficacy scores for using and not using individual counseling were 8.215 ($SD = 1.147$) and 7.934 ($SD = 1.106$) respectively. This indicates that school counselors who use individual counseling to address multiparty student conflict and those who do not use individual counseling show no significant difference in self-efficacy in multiparty conflict management.

Small group counseling. The null hypothesis was rejected for small group counseling, given the significant result of ANOVA testing ($F (1, 355) = 3.892, p = .049$). The average self-efficacy score for using and not using small group counseling were 8.248 ($SD = 1.135$) and 7.969 ($SD = 1.157$) respectively. This finding shows that school counselors who use small group counseling to address multiparty conflict have significantly higher self-efficacy in multiparty conflict management than those who do not.

Other types of delivery. For types of delivery other than those previously listed, the null hypothesis was not rejected because the result was not significant ($F (1, 355) = 1.856, p = .174$). The average self-efficacy scores for respondents using and not using other delivery types were 8.482 ($SD = .938$) and 8.159 ($SD = 1.157$) respectively. This result indicates that self-efficacy in multiparty conflict management is not significantly different for school counselors who use other types of delivery and those who do not.

No delivery type. Since only one respondent selected no delivery type, ANOVA testing was not conducted for that group.

Research Question Six

The sixth research question posed by the study was as follows: “What is the relationship between theoretical approach to mediation and school counselor self-efficacy in managing multiparty conflict?”

For the sixth question, Spearman correlation testing was used to investigate the relationship between school counselor self-efficacy and three theory based approaches, including social interdependence theory ($r = .457$), dual concerns theory ($r = .472$), and social identity theory ($r = .415$). These results suggest that use of each theory based approach is significantly related to self-efficacy in managing multiparty student conflict at the .01 level. School counselors who perceived themselves as likely to use theoretical approaches to multiparty conflict resolution had significantly higher self-efficacy in multiparty conflict management than those who did not. Thus the null hypothesis was rejected.

Summary

In this chapter, the results of the study were presented. Descriptive statistics and data analyses including confidence intervals, ANOVA testing, and Spearman correlation testing were explained. Also included were results from the pilot testing phase of the survey development and reliability data for the Multiparty Conflict Management Self-Efficacy Scale. In the final chapter, discussion of the results, implications, limitations, and recommendations will be presented.

Table 4-1. Participant descriptive information

Variable	Response	n	Percent
Gender	Female	297	83.2%
	Male	57	15%
Ethnicity	African American	28	7.8%
	Asian or Pacific Islander	7	2%
	Hispanic	12	3.4%
	Native American	3	.8%
	White	299	83.8%
	Multi-ethnic	5	1.4%
Degree in school counseling	Other	3	.8%
	Master's Degree	316	88.5%
	Specialist Degree	25	7%
	Doctorate	6	1.7%
	No Degree in school counseling	10	2.8%
Training in conflict resolution	College coursework	224	62.7%
	Seminar or workshop	266	74.5%
	Certificate program	43	12%
	No training in conflict resolution	36	10.1%

Table 4-2. Self-efficacy item averages

Item	Mean	Std. Dev.	Confidence Int. Lower	Confidence Int. Upper
Help students use a problem solving approach when in a multiparty conflict (a conflict involving three or more students).	8.62	1.422	8.48	8.77
Get students who are involved in multiparty conflicts to use a conflict resolution approach that does not sacrifice relationships for personal gain.	8.07	1.675	7.90	8.24
Get students who are involved in multiparty conflicts to use an approach that does not sacrifice important needs in order to appease others.	7.99	1.473	7.83	8.14
Help three or more students involved in conflict build positive beliefs about their position within their social network.	7.71	1.685	7.54	7.89
Help three or more students involved in conflict to build positive beliefs about their group memberships.	7.76	1.633	7.59	7.93
Help students in a multiparty conflict to reduce their biases towards students belonging to social groups (i.e. friendship, cultural, community) different from their own.	7.68	1.609	7.51	7.85
Help students build trust while resolving a multiparty conflict.	7.75	1.564	7.59	7.92
Help students involved in a multiparty conflict avoid coercion, intimidation, and deception.	7.96	1.574	7.79	8.12
Help three or more students work together cooperatively to resolve a conflict.	8.67	1.373	8.53	8.81
Get students involved in a multiparty conflict to consider the needs of others in addition to their own needs.	8.34	1.442	8.19	8.49
Get students in a multiparty conflict to think about their relationships with the other disputants instead of just their own needs.	8.19	1.514	8.04	8.35
Get every student involved in a multiparty conflict to work towards a common goal.	7.94	1.610	7.77	8.11
Get every student involved in a multiparty conflict to reach an agreement.	7.84	1.708	7.66	8.02
Get every student involved in a multiparty conflict to reach an agreement that meets the needs of every disputant.	7.28	1.786	7.09	7.47
Work cooperatively with other adults to manage multiparty student conflicts.	8.68	1.306	8.55	8.82
Manage an imbalance of power during a multiparty conflict, when one or more students is at a disadvantage.	8.04	1.557	7.87	8.20

Table 4-2. Continued

Maintain control over the process of managing a multiparty conflict.	8.59	1.326	8.46	8.73
Decide whether a multiparty conflict should end when the majority of disputants agree or when all agree.	8.39	1.477	8.23	8.54
Decide which students to meet with when there is a conflict involving three or more disputants.	8.86	1.220	8.74	8.99
Meet privately with individual disputants when there are three or more disputants.	9.07	1.117	8.95	9.18
Meet with all disputants together at one time when there are three or more disputants.	8.38	1.794	8.19	8.57

Table 4-3. Types of delivery used to manage multiparty student conflicts

Type of Delivery	n	%	Confidence Int.	
			Lower	Upper
Collaborating with others	265	74.2%	70%	79%
Teaching Conflict Resolution Skills to Small Groups	205	57.4%	52%	63%
Teaching Conflict Resolution Skills to Large Groups	123	34.5%	30%	39%
Mediation	328	91.9%	89%	95%
Arbitration (Adult makes final decision)	92	25.8%	21%	30%
Individual Counseling	315	88.2%	85%	92%
Small Group Counseling	272	76.2%	72%	81%
Other	25	7%	4%	10%
None of the above (You are not involved in managing conflicts among three or more students)	1	<1%		

Table 4-4. Average use of theoretical approaches

Theoretical Approach	Mean	Std. Dev.	Confidence Intervals	
			Lower	Upper
Social interdependence theory	8.49	1.860	8.30	8.69
Dual concerns theory	8.90	1.658	8.73	9.07
Social identity theory	8.60	1.812	8.41	8.79

Table 4-5. Type of delivery and self-efficacy score ANOVA testing results

Type of Delivery	Homogeneity of Variances	df	F	p-value	Response	Mean self-efficacy	Std. Dev.
Collaborating with others	2.174	1, 355	.439	.508	Yes	8.205	1.183
					No	8.113	1.028
Teaching conflict resolution skills to small groups	.315	1, 355	3.862	.05	Yes	8.284	1.099
					No	8.044	1.192
Teaching conflict resolution skills to large groups	8.783	1, 355	18.884	.0	Yes	8.536	.887
					No	7.995	1.22
Mediation	.607	1, 355	.101	.750	Yes	8.187	1.156
					No	8.117	1.024
Arbitration	1.172	1, 355	.186	.667	Yes	8.137	1.242
					No	8.197	1.111
Individual counseling	.151	1, 355	2.23	.136	Yes	8.215	1.147
					No	7.934	1.106
Small group counseling	.116	1, 355	3.892	.049	Yes	8.248	1.135
					No	7.969	1.157
Other	.383	1, 355	1.856	.174	Yes	8.482	.938
					No	8.159	1.157

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION

Physical violence, overt aggression, and covert aggression can be damaging to student academic performance and social well being. Conflict resolution education provides a constructive solution for approaching student conflicts, but does not include the issue of multiparty student conflicts. School counselors, who are directly involved in supporting students' personal, social, and academic development, offer an important perspective on the management of multiparty student conflict in middle schools. Thus, the purpose of this study was to examine school counselors' perceived role and self-efficacy in managing multiparty student conflict. Presented in this chapter are the discussion of findings, implications, limitations, and recommendations for future research.

Overview of the Study and Discussion of Findings

An online survey was used to collect participant perspectives of their background, school setting, their involvement and approach to managing multiparty student conflict, and their self-efficacy in managing multiparty student conflict. Data was collected from a sample of 357 middle school counselors drawn from the Middle/Junior High work category under the American School Counselor Association (ASCA) member directory.

Participants in the study were predominately White (82.8%) and female (83.2%). The participants were similar in background to participants in a national study of school counselors belonging to ASCA by Bodenhorn, Wolfe, and Airen (2010) who were 89% European American and 85% female. The gender and ethnicity of participating school counselors were also similar to teacher backgrounds at the national level. During the

2007-2008 school year, teachers were 83.5% White and 75.6% female (NCES).

However this finding shows a disparity between the diversity of the participating school counselors and the national averages for student gender and ethnicity. According to the National Center for Education Statistics, or NCES (2009a), during the 2007-2008 school year, 59.3% of students were White and 49.8% female.

The average years of experience of participants was 9.21 and the average years employment at their current schools was 7.25. The majority of participants (97.2%) had earned at least a master's degree in school counseling. Most school counselors had received some form of training in conflict resolution, with only 10.1% indicating that they had no formal training in conflict resolution.

Participants were employed at schools that were located in suburban (38.9%), rural (32.2%), and urban (28.9%) settings. They indicated that 45% of students were receiving free or reduced lunch, which reflects the national average (43%) of eligible students (NCES, 2009b). The average student-to-counselor ratio at participants' schools of employment was 363-to-1. This ratio is higher than the ASCA recommended guidelines of 250-to-1, but lower than the 2007-2008 national average of 460-to-1 (ASCA, n.d.).

Frequency of Multiparty Conflict

School counselors reported that student conflicts were brought to their attention at relatively high frequency with a mean frequency of 7.57 on a scale of 1 (very low frequency) to 10 (very high frequency). Participants described student conflicts as 56% dyadic and 43% multiparty. School counselors reported a high degree of involvement in managing student conflicts with a mean rating of 8.06 on a scale of ranging from 1 (very

infrequent involvement) to 10 (very frequent involvement). Administrators were perceived as the most involved ($M = 8.21$) followed by school counselors ($M = 8.06$), teachers ($M = 5.82$), and peer facilitators ($M = 2.31$). Thus administrators were perceived to be slightly more involved than were school counselors, followed by teachers, and finally, peer facilitators who were the least involved. The findings indicate that middle school counselors are very likely to encounter student conflicts, and are involved in managing both dyadic as well as multiparty student conflicts.

Interestingly, the majority of multiparty student conflicts were composed of all females (65%), followed by all male (20%), and a combination of both genders (13%). Noakes and Rinaldi's (2006) study of 4th and 8th grade students found there to be no significant gender difference in frequency of conflict, but did not address the issue of multiparty conflict. Perhaps the gender disparity in multiparty conflict in this study is due to differences in male and female relationships at the middle school level, the way each gender approaches conflict, and/or differences in their willingness to seek help for conflicts with their peers. It is possible that male students are less likely to report multiparty conflicts to an adult at school. Williams and Cornell (2006) found that student willingness to seek help for bullying and for threats of violence declined during the middle school years, and was lower for boys than for girls. Further, some studies investigating gender differences in help seeking suggest that boys are more likely to associate help seeking with personal weakness (Eiser, Havermans & Eiser, 1995; Steinfeld, Steinfeld, & Speight, 2009). Noakes and Rinaldi found female conflicts to be over relational issues while conflicts between males were over status and dominance. Since a large majority of the school counselor participants in the study were female,

their gender may have affected how often male or female multiparty conflicts were brought to their attention.

Types of Multiparty Conflict Management Delivery

School counseling services, as described in the ASCA National Model (2005), fall into different types of delivery including school guidance curriculum, individual student planning, responsive services, and system support. The guidance curriculum refers to lessons that aid students in reaching developmentally appropriate competencies and includes teaching skills to small groups and large groups. The second type, individual planning, involves helping individual students set and work toward personal goals. Responsive services are appropriate for attending to students' immediate needs through counseling, consultation, referral, peer mediation, and information giving. Finally, systems support consists of activities that help maintain and enhance the counseling program, including administration, collaboration, and consultation.

In this study, school counselors reported using several types of conflict management delivery of services. It was determined that mediation, used by 91.9% of respondents, is the most common type of delivery employed by school counselors to manage multiparty student conflicts, followed by individual counseling (88.2%), and small group counseling (76.2%). It is interesting to note that all three types of delivery that school counselors are most inclined to use to manage multiparty conflicts are responsive services.

However, many school counselors use other forms of delivery in addition to these responsive types. Collaborating with others, which was used by 74% of participants, falls under the category of system support. Collaboration among administrators, school counselors, and teachers, who were all found to be involved in managing student

conflict, may increase educators' ability to manage multiparty conflicts and reach more students. Teaching conflict resolution skills to small groups and large groups, which fall under guidance curriculum, were used by 57.4% and 34.5% of school counselors respectively. These findings suggest that more school counselors target select students for training than instruct large groups, which may include integrating skills into the curriculum for a class or the whole school.

Arbitration, another responsive service, was used by only 25.8% of participants. Additional forms of delivery that were not listed were used by 7% of respondents. Overall, the vast majority of school counselors participating in this study provide at least one service that is related to managing multiparty student conflict; only one respondent reported using no types of delivery to address multiparty student conflict.

Theoretical Approach to Multiparty Conflict Management

School counselors were asked to rate the likelihood of using theory based approaches to mediate multiparty student conflicts. Participants scored each theory on a scale of 1 (very unlikely) to 10 (very likely) for each theoretical approach. School counselors had the highest likelihood of using an approach based on dual concerns theory ($M = 8.90$). Nearly half (46.8%) of participants indicated a likelihood of 10, meaning they are very likely to mediate a multiparty conflict using an approach based on dual concerns theory. This approach was described as encouraging students to balance their own needs while considering the needs of others. Dual concerns theory proposes that individuals who are highly concerned about meeting their own needs, and highly concerned about the interests of other disputants, approach conflict the most effectively, using problem solving (Blake & Mouton, 1970; Holt & Devore, 2005).

Participants reported a likelihood of 8.60 for using an approach based on social identity theory, which was described as trying to reduce negative beliefs that students have about others belonging to a different social group. From the social identity perspective, individuals who perceive a threat to the status of their social groups are likely to protect their social identity by discriminating against individuals belonging to other social groups (Hornsey & Hogg, 2000). Bias against individuals belonging to outside social groups interferes with the ability to listen and empathize with them (Smyth, 2002). A total of 42% of participants reported a likelihood of 10 for using an approach based on social identity theory, which indicates a very high likelihood of mediating a conflict using this approach for this group.

The likelihood of participants using an approach based on social interdependence theory was 8.49. A score of 10, meaning very high likelihood, was reported by 37.5% of participants for using an approach based on social interdependence theory. This approach was described in the survey as helping students work cooperatively toward a common goal. Social interdependence theory proposes that disputants who are positively interdependent share a mutual goal and work together to resolve a conflict. Positive interdependence leads to a pattern of behavior that includes cooperation, helping, and trust, while negative interdependence causes competitive behavior such as intimidation, coercion, and deception (Deutsch, 1993; Johnson, 2003; Roseth et al., 2008; Uline et al., 2003).

Based on the findings, the theoretical based approach most likely to be used by school counselors was dual concerns theory, followed by social identity theory and social interdependence theory. Middle school counselors were found to have a

relatively high likelihood of employing one or more of these theoretical approaches when mediating multiparty student conflicts.

Self-Efficacy in Multiparty Conflict Management

School counselor self-efficacy for managing multiparty student conflicts was measured by the Multiparty Conflict Management Self-Efficacy Scale (MCMSS), which consisted of 21 Likert scale items. Each item ranged from a 0 (Cannot do at all) to 10 (Highly certain can do). The average self-efficacy score on the MCMSS was found to be 8.182, which indicates that school counselors have relatively high self-efficacy for managing multiparty conflicts. Since 89.9% of participants reported receiving training in conflict resolution, training may partially account for their high self-efficacy. Another possible contributing factor was the gender and level of experience of the participants in the study, who were mostly female and had an average of 9.21 years of experience. Bodenhorst and Skaggs (2005) found that females and school counselors with three or more years of experience had higher self-efficacy in school counseling than males and those with less experience.

Given the relevance of multiparty conflict management to the personal and social domains of the ASCA National Model (2005) and the high ratings of self-efficacy on the MCMSS, it is highly likely that school counselors perceive managing multiparty conflicts as relevant to their role as a school counselor. Studies have shown that school counselors have a higher level of self-efficacy for tasks that are related to the role of the school counselor than for unrelated tasks (Baggerly & Osborn, 2006; Sutton & Fall, 1995).

The 21 items on the MCMSS each addressed a separate aspect of managing multiparty student conflicts. Each item was based on dual concerns theory, social

interdependence theory, social identity theory, or the framework for conceptualizing multiparty student conflicts. The relationship between the items and theory can be seen in Table 3-2. School counselors reported high self-efficacy on average for every item, but some abilities were rated higher than others. To provide further insight into school counselor self-efficacy in multiparty conflict management, the three highest scoring items and three lowest scoring items are examined in further detail.

High scoring items. The individual item with the highest self-efficacy score ($M = 9.07$) described the ability to meet privately with individual disputants when there are three or more disputants. The average self-efficacy score for meeting with all disputants in a multiparty conflict together was slightly lower, at 8.38. It may be that including multiple students in the conflict resolution process makes the situation more complex, or difficult to manage. One of the advantages of a joint session, is that all parties are able to participate and listen to each other. This strategy can facilitate the reaching of a mutual agreement among parties, whereas caucuses, or meetings that do not include all involved parties, have been found to have the opposite effect of increasing competitiveness, resulting in less integrative outcomes (Kim, 1997). However, in cases where disputant emotions are heightened or safety is in question, caucuses are a safe alternative (Welton, Pruitt, & McGillicuddy, 1988). School counselors may also choose to meet privately with students in order to gather information and make decisions about the mediation process.

On average, school counselors rated their self-efficacy as second highest ($M = 8.86$) on the ability to decide which students to meet with when there is a conflict involving three or more disputants. To decide which disputants to meet with, school

counselors must have an awareness of which students have a personal interest in the outcome and which can be excluded. Being able to identify which students need to be involved in mediation is an important step, since excluded disputants are left out of the discussion and therefore the creation of a solution that meets their needs.

The item on the MCMSS with the third highest average score ($M = 8.68$) measured the ability to work cooperatively with other adults to manage multiparty student conflicts. The complex nature of multiparty student conflict may require separate meetings with individual or small groups of students that may be carried out by more than one adult. Literature on multiparty conflict resolution suggests that successfully co-mediating a multiparty conflict requires co-mediators to develop a common understanding of the problem and solution to avoid confusion (Crocker, Hampton, & Aall, 2001). Based on the findings of this study, school counselors perceive themselves to be efficacious in collaborating with other adults in multiparty conflict management. Collaboration with other faculty allows school counselors to help a greater number of students than working alone and is a form of delivery for guidance services recommended by the ASCA National Model (2005). Administrators may be ideal partners for school counselors managing multiparty student conflicts since administrators were perceived to have the highest involvement in the management of student conflicts. Other partners may include other school counselors as well as teachers, who were also found to be involved in managing student conflict.

Lowest scoring items. School counselor self-efficacy was third lowest ($M = 7.75$) for the item describing the ability to help students build trust while resolving a multiparty conflict. Deutsch (1993) suggests that one of the functions of mediators or

third party facilitators is to reduce mistrust and hostility between parties. According to social interdependence theory, disputants who are positively interdependent are more likely to display helping behaviors and trust because they view their goals to be compatible with the goals of other disputants. While the average school counselor self-efficacy rating on the ability to build trust between students was fairly high, 10.9% respondents reported self-efficacy level of 5 or below.

Participant responses indicated that their self-efficacy was second lowest on average ($M = 7.71$) for the ability to help three or more students involved in conflict to build positive beliefs about their group memberships. According to social identity theory, identity is made up of both an individual component and a social component that is based on beliefs about one's group memberships (Crocker & Luhtanen, 1990; Hornsey & Hogg, 2000). When an individual's social identity is threatened, they may respond with prejudice and negatively stereotype individuals from groups outside of their own (Hornsey & Hogg). A total of 9.5% of participants reported having a self-efficacy score of 5 or lower on a scale of 0 to 10, indicating that a small minority of school counselors believe with only moderate certainty or are uncertain that they can help students build positive beliefs about their group memberships.

The item on the MCMSS with the lowest average score of 7.28 measured self-efficacy for the ability to get every student involved in a multiparty conflict to reach an agreement that meets the needs of every disputant. The primary goal of conflict resolution is for students to reach a mutually satisfying solution, also called an integrative or win-win solution (Johnson & Johnson, 1995; Smith & Daunic, 2002). In multiparty conflicts, there are more individual needs to consider, which may make

reaching an integrative solution more difficult. A number of school counselors (16%) rated their self-efficacy as a 5 or lower, meaning they are moderately certain or uncertain that they can assist students in reaching an integrative solution. However school counselors on average had a relatively high level of self-efficacy for performing this task, which reflected their overall high self-efficacy in managing multiparty student conflicts.

Relationship between self-efficacy and other variables. This study looked at the relationship between self-efficacy in multiparty conflict management and other variables including types of delivery and theoretical approach. School counselors were asked which of the following types of delivery they use to provide multiparty conflict management: mediation, arbitration, individual counseling, small group counseling, training peer mediators, collaborating with others, teaching conflict resolution skills to large groups, other types of delivery, and none of the above.

The types of delivery significantly related to self-efficacy in managing multiparty conflict were counseling small groups of students, teaching skills to small groups of students, and teaching skills to large groups of students. Counseling small groups of students was the third most frequently used type of delivery, used by 76.2% of participants. Teaching conflict resolution skills to large groups and teaching skills to small groups were used by 57.4% and 34.5% of school counselors correspondingly. While teaching skills to small groups and large groups are both related to higher levels of self-efficacy, they are only the fifth and sixth ranked types of delivery in terms of frequency of use. Teaching students conflict resolution skills is a form of developmental guidance, which is preventative in nature and reaches more students than reactive

types of delivery. The guidelines in the ASCA National Model (2005) recommend that middle school counselors devote 25% to 35% of their time to delivering the guidance curriculum. Geltner and Clark (2005) point out that school counselors may not be comfortable with classroom management techniques, which may account for the low frequency of teaching skills to large groups. No differences in self-efficacy were found between individuals who use or do not use other delivery types.

The findings signify that school counselors who teach skills to small or large groups or use small group counseling have higher self-efficacy in managing multiparty student conflict than individuals who do not. It may be that the practice of working with groups of students leads to a greater understanding of group dynamics and confidence in managing multiparty conflict. Perhaps school counselors who have lower self-efficacy in managing multiparty student conflicts feel less comfortable working with groups of students.

Spearman correlation testing showed a significant relationship between self-efficacy in managing multiparty conflict and three theoretical approaches used by school counselors to mediate multiparty student conflicts. Relationships were found between self-efficacy and dual concerns theory ($r = .472$), social interdependence theory ($r = .457$), and social identity theory ($r = .415$). School counselors who perceived themselves as likely to use theoretical approaches to multiparty conflict resolution had significantly higher self-efficacy in multiparty conflict management than those who did not. The likelihood of school counselors using an approach based on theory was found to be relatively high for each theory, which may account for the high level of self-efficacy school counselors reported in managing multiparty student conflict. Using an approach

based in theory is positively correlated with degree of self efficacy in managing multiparty conflict for school counselors in this study. Although participants were not asked to demonstrate knowledge or understanding of the theories, they did perceive themselves as using approaches that are grounded in theory. The findings suggest that it is important for school counselors to operate from a theoretical framework when managing multiparty student conflicts.

Limitations

A limitation of using a cross-sectional design is that the data does not reflect changes that may occur in the population over time (Gall et al., 2007). The generalizability of this study is limited due to the sampling procedures used to select participants. Only members of ASCA with valid email addresses listed in the member directory were asked to take the survey, which resulted in a non-probability sample (Van Selm & Jankowski, 2006). Middle school counselors who are not members of ASCA may have differing views from counselors who are a part of the professional organization. Furthermore, the response rate for online surveys is often lower than that of mail surveys (Granello & Wheaton, 2004).

Since the data in this study was collected by self-report, the responses could have a self-reporting bias. School counselors completed the survey voluntarily, which could have biased the results to reflect the perceptions of counselors most willing and interested in completing the survey. They may have also responded in a way that they believed to be socially desirable. The accuracy of the data depended on the perceptions of those surveyed, and each person had their own way of interpreting the questions and measuring their own behaviors and beliefs. These biases could have

threatened internal validity and the ability to find a strong relationship between variables.

Implications for Theory

School counselors were asked to indicate the likelihood of using theoretical approaches to mediation based on dual concerns theory, social identity theory, and social interdependence theory. The results of the study show that school counselors are likely to use an approach based in one or more theories of conflict when mediating multiparty student conflicts. Furthermore, using theory based approaches was found to be significantly related to self-efficacy in managing multiparty conflicts.

Although multiparty conflicts are structurally different from dyadic conflicts, theories of conflict resolution are still applicable. The goals of the mediation are the same for both types of conflict, which means that mediators can use their understanding of conflict to facilitate an integrative solution for either dyadic or multiparty conflicts. School counselors who mediate multiparty student conflicts may want to consider encouraging students to consider the needs of other disputants in addition to their own needs, as suggested by dual concerns theory. They may also encourage disputants to work cooperatively towards the common goals of resolution, as recommended by social interdependence theory. Finally, school counselors can help students lower their biases towards individuals belonging to different social groups, an implied suggestion of social identity theory. While social identity theory is not mentioned in most conflict resolution education literature, it was found to be relevant to multiparty student conflicts. School counselors may use a combined theoretical approach by considering how individual students approach conflicts, how they cooperate, and how their perceptions of group memberships.

Though school counselors were asked to rate their likelihood of using approaches based in theories of conflict resolution, their understanding and knowledge of these theories were not explored. School counselors who use approaches based in theory may or may not be operating from a theoretical framework. The findings suggest that it may be beneficial for school counselors to consider theories of conflict when selecting approaches for mediation.

Implications for Practice

School counselors showed a high level of involvement in managing student conflicts, which include both dyadic (56%) and multiparty (43%) conflicts. The finding suggests that multiparty student conflicts are an issue in middle schools that school counselors are partially responsible for managing. School counselors should partner with Administrators to address this issue, since administrators were perceived to be the most involved in managing student conflicts. Specifically, principals can be an important source of support and school counselors should include them in creating a conflict resolution component in their developmental counseling program. Principals are key decision makers in schools and have been found to have different views of what roles school counselors should fulfill (Amatea & Clark, 2005; Chata & Loesch, 2007; Clemens, Milsom, & Cashwell, 2009). By working closely with principals, school counselors can develop a program that aligns with principal expectations as well as professional standards for school counselors. Partnerships may also be formed with teachers, who were perceived to be moderately involved in managing student conflicts. Given their training in conflict resolution and their high self-efficacy in managing multiparty student conflicts, school counselors may help educate other faculty members

about the nature of multiparty conflicts and theoretical approaches for mediating multiparty conflicts.

School counselors can also integrate conflict resolution training into their developmental guidance curriculum. Teaching small and large groups of students skills in conflict management were two forms of delivery found to be significantly related to self-efficacy in managing multiparty conflict. By empowering students to constructively resolve their conflicts, school counselors can reduce the number of student conflicts requiring adult intervention. Skills for understanding the process of resolving conflict include teaching a problem solving approach to negotiation and encouraging cooperation among students, which are strategies based on dual concerns theory and social interdependence theory respectively. Conflict resolution education also includes teaching social skills such as communication, empathy, and perspective taking (Casserino & Lane-Garon, 2006). Students may also benefit from learning how to build a positive social identity and discover common group memberships with others because multiparty conflicts take place within rich social contexts. Teaching conflict resolution skills to small groups and teaching skills to large groups ranked fifth and sixth in the frequency of types of delivery used. Perhaps more school counselors should integrate these skills into their guidance curriculum. Those who are uncomfortable with classroom management can learn useful techniques from teachers, such as how to set rules and use humor to improve the atmosphere (Geltner & Clark, 2005). School counselors can gain support for delivering their guidance curriculum by discussing with the school principal how it fits with the principal's objectives and plan for the school.

Most school counselors reported using mediation to manage multiparty student conflicts, but mediation was not related to self-efficacy in managing multiparty student conflict. However, school counselors who reported using a theory based approach for mediating multiparty student conflicts had higher self-efficacy than those who did not. Thus, school counselors should seek to gain an understanding of theory and operate from a theoretical framework when mediating student conflicts.

Peer mediators were reported to have the least involvement in managing student conflicts and it may be inappropriate to have them independently manage multiparty student conflicts. Peer mediators are trained in the process of mediating dyadic conflicts including a basic script or set of steps. Peer mediators may have difficulty with the dynamic and complex structure of multiparty conflicts. Another limitation of peer mediators is their limited neutrality. In a study of dyadic mediations, student mediators sometimes deviated from their script and had lapses in their neutrality when trying to gain control of the process (Nix & Hale, 2007). A multiparty conflict may be more difficult to control because of additional disputants, possible coalitions, and other variables which may further detract from peer mediator neutrality. Perhaps a more appropriate role for peer mediators who have been trained in mediating dyadic conflicts is to assist school counselors in teaching other students skills in managing multiparty conflicts. For example, peer mediators could lead or participate in a role play of a multiparty student conflict.

School counselors felt most confident about their ability to meet with students involved in multiparty conflicts individually, but individual counseling as a type of delivery was not significantly related to self-efficacy in managing multiparty student

conflicts. Alternatively, school counselors who counseled small groups of students had higher self-efficacy than those who did not. These findings suggest that small group counseling may be the most effective way to respond to a multiparty student conflict in most cases. Small group counseling allows all involved disputants to be present in a joint session. Joint sessions give disputants an opportunity to listen, empathize, and contribute to the creation of a solution. Meeting individually with students can be used to gather information and may be necessary in emotionally heightened situations.

The ability that was found to be the greatest area of weakness for participants on average was helping all students in a multiparty conflict reach a mutually beneficial agreement. The primary goal of conflict resolution is to reach an agreement that meets the needs of all involved parties. With multiparty conflict, there are more individual needs to consider. If a mutual agreement cannot be reached, school counselors need to consider how the conflict will be resolved. One solution that students sometimes reach is to avoid each other, which may lead to improved social relationships but can still prevent aggressive behavior from continuing (Smith, Daunic, Miller, & Robinson, 2002).

Recommendations for Future Research

The current study found that multiparty student conflicts are an issue in middle schools and that school counselors apply a variety of approaches to manage these conflicts. This knowledge could be expanded by examining the occurrence of multiparty student conflict at the elementary and high school levels. Research could also be conducted to investigate the perceptions and practices of administrators and teachers, who were also found to be involved in managing multiparty student conflicts. Additional research needs to be conducted to gather information about the nature of multiparty

student conflicts and how they differ from dyadic conflicts. Observational data and student perceptions would provide greater understanding of the structure, disputant contributions, and process of multiparty student conflicts. This information could be used to improve the framework for multiparty conflict (Figure 2-1) to better fit student conflicts.

Although gender was not a research variable in the current study, an interesting finding was that the majority of multiparty student conflicts take place among all females. The gender composition of multiparty student conflicts could be further investigated to explain the gender disparity. Possible factors to consider are male and female relationships, approaches for conflict resolution, and likelihood of reporting multiparty conflicts to an adult. It would be interesting to know whether multiparty conflicts are self-referred or adult referred to school counselors, because it may be that males are less likely to refer their conflicts to an adult.

School counselors reported teaching student skills in conflict resolution, but the survey did not ask what skills were taught or whether students were able to apply what they learned. It would be useful to know which skills are the most useful for students in resolving multiparty student conflicts. Students may also benefit from learning skills that are specific to managing conflicts that take place among a group.

The goal of conflict resolution is to reach an integrative agreement that meets the needs of all disputants. School counselor self-efficacy for the ability to facilitate such an agreement was relatively high, but still lower than other tasks related to multiparty conflict management. An important follow-up to this finding would be to research the outcomes of multiparty student conflicts and determine how often an integrative

agreement is reached. A longitudinal design study could track disputants in multiparty conflicts to see if solutions are successful long term.

Conflict resolution programs are meant to reduce negative impacts from poorly managed student conflicts. When students approach conflict aggressively, the result can be physical, psychological, or social harm. Aggression can also take the form of cyberbullying, where bullies use technology as a means to attack their victims. Cyberbullying has similar negative effects on victims as traditional bullying, including depression and lower self-esteem (Tokunaga, 2010). It is not known whether multiparty conflict is more or less likely than dyadic conflict to result in aggression. It is also unknown whether multiparty conflicts typically take place among friends belonging to the same social group or students belonging to different social groups. Gang disputes, which are a form of multiparty conflict, may differ from other forms of student conflict as well.

Since school counselors were shown to be involved in managing multiparty student conflict, it would be beneficial to learn more about how school counselors are trained in managing student conflicts. Future research could explore how conflict resolution is addressed in counselor education programs as well as workshops and continuing education. It would be essential to look at the theories of conflict presented in these programs, since theoretical approach was related to higher self-efficacy in managing multiparty student conflict. Through further investigation of student multiparty conflicts, school counselor training, and school counselor practices, recommendations for school counselor best practices and counselor education could be developed.

In the current study, school counselors were found to apply approaches based in theories of conflict, however it is unknown whether participants operate from a theoretical framework. Future research could investigate school counselors' knowledge and understanding of theory and how their knowledge informs their approaches to mediation. A comparison of the effectiveness of each theory based approach could also be conducted, which could be used to improve school counselor training and practices.

The MCMSS was developed for this study to measure school counselor self-efficacy in managing multiparty student conflict. Additional testing of the instrument could be done to ensure validity and reliability. Testing could also be done with other educators, such as administrators or teachers, to determine whether the scale could be used with these populations. Since administrators and teachers were perceived to be involved with managing multiparty student conflicts, it is important to know how confident they are in this role.

Conclusion

The results of the study showed that multiparty student conflict is an issue that middle school counselors are involved in managing. Therefore it is worthwhile for school counselors to learn more about multiparty student conflicts and best practices for multiparty student conflict management. Administrators were perceived to be the most involved in the management of student conflicts, making them ideal partners for school counselors in managing multiparty student conflicts. School counselors were found to have high self-efficacy in managing multiparty student conflicts, possibly due to their experience and training. This finding shows that school counselors are well equipped to

manage multiparty student conflicts and may be able to provide training for other faculty members.

Higher levels of self-efficacy were related to using an approach to mediation based in theory. This implies that school counselors should have an understanding of conflict resolution theories and apply them to the management of multiparty student conflict. The types of delivery for managing multiparty student conflict that were related to high self-efficacy were counseling small groups of students, teaching conflict resolution skills to small groups, and teaching skills to large groups. Small group counseling allows school counselors to meet with all of the disputants involved in a multiparty conflict together in a joint session, which is facilitative of reaching a mutually beneficial agreement. Teaching conflict resolution skills to small groups and large groups helps students to constructively approach conflicts, including multiparty, on their own. The results of the study can also be used by counselor educators, who can apply this information to teach future school counselors how to manage multiparty student conflicts.

APPENDIX A
PRE-NOTICE LETTER

Dear School Counselor,

I am a doctoral student at the University of Florida, and am conducting a study on the role of the school counselor in managing student conflicts. A few days from now you will receive an E-mail requesting your participation in research I am conducting for my dissertation.

I am writing in advance because many people like to know ahead of time when they will be contacted for surveys. You were selected to participate because you are a middle school counselor and a member of ASCA. Your survey invitation will include a hyperlink and password. You may click on the link or copy and paste it into your browser, then type in the password provided in the email when prompted. You will then be directed to the online survey.

Your participation is very important to the study and will contribute to understanding counselor perceptions about the management of student conflicts. Your responses are confidential and participation in the survey is voluntary.

If you have questions or comments regarding this study, please contact me or my faculty supervisor, Dr. Mary Ann Clark.

Thank you for your time and consideration. I appreciate it very much.

Sincerely,
Summer Yacco, Ed.S., NCC
Doctoral Candidate
Department of Counselor Education
University of Florida
(XXX) XXX-XXXX
XXXXX@ufl.edu

Mary Ann Clark, Ph.D., NCC
Associate Professor
Department of Counselor Education
University of Florida
(XXX) XXX-XXXX
XXXXX@coe.ufl.edu

APPENDIX B
INVITATION LETTER

Dear School Counselor,

You have been selected to participate in a survey of middle school counselors being conducted as part of my dissertation. The purpose of this study is to investigate the perceptions of middle school counselors. An understanding of how counselors perceive and manage student conflicts could facilitate the development of more effective intervention strategies for working with young adolescents.

Your participation in this survey is voluntary and you are free to skip any questions that you prefer not to answer. Your answers are completely confidential and will be released only as summaries in which no individual's answers can be identified. It will take approximately 10 minutes of your time.

Please access the survey by clicking on the following internet link and entering the password "counselor" when prompted:

http://qtrial.qualtrics.com/SE?SID=SV_8AOTRyjv03szVsM&SVID=Prod

After following the link, please type the password "counselor" to continue to the survey.

If you have questions or comments regarding this study, please contact me or my faculty supervisor, Dr. Mary Ann Clark. I greatly appreciate your time and effort. It is only with the help of practicing counselors like you that current practices can be improved.

Sincerely,
Summer Yacco, Ed.S., NCC
Doctoral Candidate
Department of Counselor Education
University of Florida
(XXX) XXX-XXXX
XXXXX@ufl.edu

Mary Ann Clark, Ph.D., NCC
Associate Professor
Department of Counselor Education
University of Florida
(XXX) XXX-XXXX
XXXXX@coe.ufl.edu

APPENDIX C INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Dear School Counselor:

I am a doctoral student at the University of Florida. For my dissertation I am conducting a survey, the purpose of which is to learn about how school counselors perceive their role and self-efficacy in managing conflicts involving three or more students. I am asking you to participate in this survey because you have been identified as a middle school counselor. Your views will help to develop an understanding of counselor perceptions and approaches to managing conflict.

Participants will be asked to complete a survey that should take approximately 10 minutes. If you agree to participate, you will not have to answer any question you do not wish to answer. Your identity will be kept confidential to the extent provided by law and your identity will not be revealed in the final manuscript.

There are no anticipated risks, compensation or other direct benefits to you as a participant in this survey. You are free to withdraw your consent to participate and may discontinue your participation in the interview at any time without consequence.

If you have any questions about this research protocol, please contact me at 352-505-8292 or my faculty supervisor, Dr. Mary Ann Clark at (352) 392-0731 ex. 295. Questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant rights may be directed to the IRB02 office, University of Florida, Box 112250, Gainesville, FL 32611; (352) 392-0433.

To give your consent, please check "I give my consent" below. With your consent, you give me permission to report your responses anonymously in the final manuscript to be submitted to my faculty supervisor as part of my course work.

Sincerely,

Summer Yacco

I have read the procedure described above for the Investigating School Counselors' Perceived Role and Self-Efficacy in Managing Multiparty Student Conflicts study and I voluntarily agree to participate in the survey.

Yes, I give my consent.

No, I do not consent.

APPENDIX D
SURVEY OF SCHOOL COUNSELOR PERCEPTIONS OF STUDENT CONFLICT AND
COUNSELOR ROLE

School Demographics

1. Are you a middle school counselor practicing in Florida?

Yes No

If Yes is checked, please continue with the rest of the survey.

If you checked No, you are now finished with the survey. Thank you for your time.

2. What is the metropolitan status of your school's location?

Urban (50,000 or more inhabitants in the area)

Suburban (At least 10,000 inhabitants and fewer than 50,000 inhabitants
in the area)

Rural (Fewer than 10,000 inhabitants in the area)

3. What is the approximate student enrollment at your school? (Fill in the blank)

The approximate number of students enrolled is _____.

4. How many school counselors work at your school? (Fill in the blank)

There are ____ counselors, including myself.

5. Approximately what percentage of students are on free or reduced lunch?
(Fill in the blank)

____% of students are on free or reduced lunch.

For the following questions, indicate the frequency that each item occurs at your school from 1 = Very Infrequent to 10 = Very Frequent.

6. How frequently are student conflicts brought to your attention in an average month?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Very Infrequent				Moderately Frequent					Very Frequent

7. To what degree are school counselors involved in managing student conflicts at your school?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Very Infrequent				Moderately Frequent					Very Frequent

8. To what degree are teachers involved in managing student conflicts at your school?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Very Infrequent				Moderately Frequent					Very Frequent

9. To what degree are administrators (i.e. principals, deans, assistant principals) involved in managing student conflicts at your school?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Very Infrequent				Moderately Frequent					Very Frequent

10. To what degree are peer facilitators/mediators involved in managing student conflicts at your school?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Very Infrequent				Moderately Frequent					Very Frequent

For each of the following questions, fill in the blanks.

11. Out of all the student conflicts brought to your attention, approximately what percent of conflicts occur: (Answers should add up to 100% of conflicts brought to your attention)

between just 2 students _____%

among 3 or more students _____%

12. Out of the conflicts brought to your attention involving *three or more* students, approximately what percent take place among: (Answers should add up to 100% of conflicts brought to your attention involving three or more students)

all females _____%

all males _____%

a mix of males and females _____%

Counselor Background

13. What is your gender?

_____ Male _____ Female

14. What is your ethnic background?

_____ African American, not of Hispanic origin

_____ Asian or Pacific Islander

_____ Hispanic

_____ Native American

_____ White, not of Hispanic origin

_____ Multi-ethnic

_____ Other

15. How many years of experience have you had as a practicing school counselor, not including the 2009-2010 school year?

years of experience

16. How many years have you been employed at your current school, not including the 2009-2010 school year?

years at current school

17. What is the highest degree you have earned in the field of school counseling?

Masters degree (M.A. or M.S.) in school counseling

Specialist in Education degree (Ed.S.) in school counseling

Doctorate of Philosophy (Ph.D.) in school counseling

No degree earned in school counseling

18. What training have you had in conflict resolution? (Check all that apply)

College coursework Seminar or workshop

Certificate program No formal training

Other (Please specify) _____

19. Which types of delivery do you use to manage conflicts among three or more students?

(Check all that apply)

- Collaborating with others
- Teaching Conflict Resolution Skills to Small Groups
- Teaching Conflict Resolution Skills to Large Groups
- Mediation
- Arbitration (Adult makes final decision)
- Individual Counseling
- Small Group Counseling
- Other (Please specify) _____
- None of the above (You are not involved in managing conflicts among three or more students)

Directions: For the following questions, you will be asked how likely you are to take a specific action when you, as a school counselor, mediate a conflict between three or more students. Examples will be given to help clarify each question. After reading the question and example, indicate how likely you are to take each action from Very Unlikely to Very Likely.

20. When you mediate a student conflict involving three or more students, how likely are you to help them work cooperatively toward a common goal?

Example: If three students were arguing because each one wants to be a group leader for a class project, how likely is it that you would help them to work cooperatively toward a common goal so that they can all help the group be successful on the assignment?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Very Unlikely				Moderately Likely					Very Likely

21. When you mediate a student conflict involving three or more students, how likely are you to encourage them to balance their own needs while considering the needs of others when working toward a solution?

Example: If four students are in a conflict over who is to blame for starting a rumor, how likely are you to help them think about each others feelings instead of just their own point of view?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Very Unlikely				Moderately Likely					Very Likely

22. When you mediate a student conflict involving three or more students, how likely are you to try to reduce negative beliefs that students have about others belonging to a different social group?

Example: Two students from social group A are in a conflict with two students from social group B. Students from group A seem to have stereotypes about students belonging to group B and vice versa. How likely are you to help the students to learn more about each other and see that they are more similar than different?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Very Unlikely				Moderately Likely					Very Likely

Self-Efficacy Scale

The following items list activities related to resolving conflicts between students of *three or more*. These conflicts are defined as *Multiparty Conflicts*.

In the column labeled Confidence, rate how confident you are that you can do them as of now, regardless of whether you have performed the task before. Rate your degree of confidence by recording a number from 0 to 10 using the scale given below:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Cannot do at all				Moderately certain can do					Highly certain can do

Confidence
(0-10)

1. Help students use a problem solving approach when in a multiparty conflict (a conflict involving three or more students). _____
2. Get students who are involved in multiparty conflicts to use a conflict resolution approach that does not sacrifice relationships for personal gain. _____
3. Get students who are involved in multiparty conflicts to use an approach that does not sacrifice important needs in order to appease others. _____
4. Help three or more students involved in conflict build positive beliefs about their position within their social network. _____
5. Help three or more students involved in conflict to build positive beliefs about their group memberships. _____
6. Help students in a multiparty conflict to reduce their biases towards students belonging to social groups (i.e. friendship, cultural, community) different from their own. _____
7. Help students build trust with one another while resolving a multiparty conflict. _____
8. Help students involved in a multiparty conflict avoid coercion, intimidation, and deception. _____
9. Help three or more students work together cooperatively to resolve a conflict. _____

Confidence
(0-10)

10. Get students who are involved in a multiparty conflict to consider the needs of others in addition to their own needs. _____
11. Get students who are in a multiparty conflict to think about their relationships with other disputants instead of just their own needs. _____
12. Get every student who is involved in a multiparty conflict to work towards a common goal. _____
13. Get every student who is involved in a multiparty conflict to reach an agreement. _____
14. Get every student who is involved in a multiparty conflict to reach an agreement that meets the needs of every disputant. _____
15. Work cooperatively with other adults to manage multiparty student conflicts. _____
16. Manage an imbalance of power during a multiparty conflict, when one or more students is at a disadvantage. _____
17. Maintain control over the process of managing a multiparty conflict. _____
18. Decide whether a multiparty conflict should end when the majority of disputants agree or when all agree. _____
19. Decide which students to meet with when there is a conflict involving three or more students. _____
20. Meet privately with individual disputants when there are three or more disputants. _____
21. Meet with all disputants together at one time when there are three or more disputants. _____

Open-ended Question

How might counselor education and/or in-service training be changed to better prepare school counselors to handle conflicts among three or more students? (Write in the space below)

REFERENCES

- Abrami, P. C., & Chambers, B. (1994). Positive social interdependence and classroom climate. *Genetic, Social & General Psychology Monographs*, 120(3), 329-347.
- Akos, P., Hamm, J. V., Mack, S. G., & Dunaway, M. (2007). Utilizing the developmental influence of peers in middle school groups. *The Journal for Specialists in Group Work*, 32(1), 51-60.
- Aluede, O., Imonikhe, J., & Afen-Akpaida, J. (2007). Towards a conceptual basis for understanding developmental guidance and counselling model. *Education*, 128(2), 189-201.
- Amatea, E. S., & Clark, M. A. (2005). Changing schools, changing counselors: A qualitative study of school administrators' conceptions of the school counselor role. *Professional School Counseling*, 9(1), 16-27.
- American School Counselor Association. (2003). *The American School Counselor Association national model: A framework for school counseling programs*. Alexandria, VA: Author.
- American School Counselor Association. (2005). *The ASCA national model: A framework for school counseling programs* (2nd ed.). Alexandria, VA: Author.
- American School Counselor Association. (n.d.). Student-to-counselor ratios. Retrieved March 25, 2010, from <http://www.schoolcounselor.org/content.asp?pl=328&sl=460&contentid=460>
- Baggerly, J., Osborn, D. (2006). School counselors' career satisfaction and commitment: Correlates and predictors. *Professional School Counseling*, 9(3), 197-205.
- Bandura, A. (1997). Self-efficacy. *Harvard Mental Health Letter*, 13(9), 4-7.
- Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52(1), 1-26.
- Bandura, A. (2006). Guide for constructing self-efficacy scales. In F. Pajares & T. Urdan (Eds.), *Self-Efficacy Beliefs of Adolescents*. Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.
- Bauman, S., Siegel, J., Falco, L., Szymanski, G., Davis, A., & Seabolt, K. (2003). Trends in school counseling journals: The first fifty years. *Professional School Counseling*, 7(2), 79-90.

- Beersma, B., & De Dreu, C. K. W. (2002). Integrative and distributive negotiation in small groups: Effects of task structure, decision rule, and social motive. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 87(2), 227-252.
- Bodenhorn, N., & Skaggs, G. (2005). Development of the school counselor self-efficacy scale. *Measurement & Evaluation in Counseling & Development*, 38(1), 14-28.
- Bodenhorn, N., Wolfe, E. W., & Airen, O. E. (2010). School counselor program choice and self-efficacy: Relationship to achievement gap and equity. *Professional School Counseling*, 13(3), 165-174.
- Bickmore, K. (2001). Student conflict resolution, power "sharing" in schools, and citizenship education. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 31(2), 137-163.
- Bickmore, K. (2002). Good training is not enough: Research on peer mediation program implementation. *Social Alternatives*, 21(1), 33-39.
- Blake, R. R., & Mouton, J. S. (1970). The fifth achievement. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, Vol. 6(4), 413-426.
- Bortner, L. (2005). Resolving conflicts, providing skills. *ASCA School Counselor*. Retrieved January 25, 2008, from <http://www.schoolcounselor.org/article.asp?article=760&paper=91&cat=137>
- Breunlin, D. C., Bryant-Edwards, T. L., Hetherington, J. S., & Cimmarusti, R. A. (2002). Conflict resolution training as an alternative to suspension for violent behavior. *Journal of Educational Research*, 95(6), 349-357.
- Burrell, N. A., Zirbel, C. S., & Allen, M. (2003). Evaluating peer mediation outcomes in educational settings: A meta-analytic review. *Conflict Resolution Quarterly*, 21(1), 7-26.
- Cantrell, R., Parks-Savage, A., & Rehfuss, M. (2007). Reducing levels of elementary school violence with peer mediation. *Professional School Counseling*, 10(5), 475-481.
- Caplow, T. (1956). A theory of coalitions in the triad. *American Sociological Review*, 21(4), 489-493.
- Carruthers, W. L., & Sweeney, B. (1996). Conflict resolution: An examination of the research literature and a model for program evaluation. *School Counselor*, 44(1), 14.
- Cassinero, C., & Lane-Garon, P. S. (2006). Changing school climate one mediator at a time: Year-one analysis of a school-based mediation program. *Conflict Resolution Quarterly*, 23(4), 447-460.

- Chata, C. C., Loesch, L. C. (2007). Future school principals' views of the roles of professional school counselors. *Professional School Counseling*, 11(1), 35-41.
- Coser, L. A. (1957). Social conflict and the theory of social change. *The British Journal of Sociology*, 8(3), 197-207.
- Clemens, E. V., Milsom, A., Cashwell, C. S. (2009). Using leader-member exchange theory to examine principal-school counselor relationships, school counselors' roles, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions, *Professional School Counseling*, 13(2), 75-85.
- Creswell, J. W. (2008). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson Education Inc.
- Crocker, C. A., Hampton, F. O., & Aall P. (2001). A crowded stage: Liabilities and benefits of multiparty mediation. *International Studies Perspectives*, 2, 51-67.
- Crocker, J., & Luhtanen, R. (1990). Collective self-esteem and ingroup bias. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 58(1), 60-67.
- Crump, L., & Glendon, A. I. (2003). Towards a paradigm of multiparty negotiation. *International Negotiation*, 8, 197-234.
- Cunningham, C. E., Cunningham, L. J., Martorelli, V., Tran, A., Young, J., & Zacharias, R. (1998). The effects of primary division, student-mediated conflict resolution programs on playground aggression. *Journal of Child Psychology & Psychiatry & Allied Disciplines*, 39(5), 653-663.
- Dahir, C. A. (2001). The national standards for school counseling programs: Development and implementation. *Professional School Counseling*, 4(5), 320-328.
- Dahir, C. A., & Stone, C. B. (2003). Accountability: A M.E.A.S.U.R.E of the impact school counselors have on student achievement. *Professional School Counseling*, 6(3), 214-222.
- Daunic, A. P., Smith, S. W., Robinson, T. R., Miller, M. D., & Landry, K. L. (2000). School-wide conflict resolution and peer mediation programs: Experiences in three middle schools. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 36(2), 94-100.
- Davis, M. H., Capobianco, S., & Kraus, L. A. (2004). Measuring conflict-related behaviors: Reliability and validity evidence regarding the conflict dynamics profile. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 64(4), 707-731.

- Day-Vines, N. L., & Day-Hairston, B. O. (1996). Conflict resolution: The value of diversity in the recruitment, selection, and training of peer mediators. *School Counselor*, 43(5), 392-411.
- Deutsch, M. (1949). A theory of co-operation and competition. *Human Relations*, 2(2), 129-152.
- Deutsch, M. (1993). Educating for a peaceful world. *American Psychologist*, 48(5), 510-517.
- Dillman, D. A. (2007). *Mail and internet surveys: The tailored design method* (2nd ed.). Hoboken, New Jersey; John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Dimmitt, C., & Carey, J. (2007). Using the ASCA national model to facilitate school transitions. *Professional School Counseling*, 10(3), 227-232.
- Dollarhide, C. T., & Lemberger, M. E. (2006). "No child left behind": Implications for school counselors. *Professional School Counseling*, 9(4), 295-304.
- DuRant, R. H., Barkin, S., & Krowchuk, D. P. (2001). Evaluation of a peaceful conflict resolution and violence prevention curriculum for sixth-grade students. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 28(5), 386-393.
- Eiser, C., Havermans, T. & Eiser, J.R. (1995). The emergence during adolescence of gender differences in symptom reporting. *Journal of Adolescence*, 18, 307-312.
- Erath, S. A., Flanagan, K. S., & Bierman, K. L. (2008). Early adolescent school adjustment: Associations with friendship and peer victimization. *Social Development*, 17(4), 853-870.
- Gall, M. D., Gall, J. P., & Borg, W. R. (2007). *Educational research: An introduction* (8th ed.). Boston: Pearson Education Inc.
- Garrard, W. M., & Lipsey, M. W. (2007). Conflict resolution education and antisocial behavior in U.S. schools: A meta-analysis. *Conflict Resolution Quarterly*, 25(1), 9-38.
- Geltner, J. A., Clark, M. A. (2005). Engaging students in classroom guidance: Management strategies for middle school counselors. *Professional School Counseling*, 9(2), 164-166.
- Gillespie, J. J., Brett, J. M., & Weingart L. R. (2000). Interdependence, social motives, and outcome satisfaction in multiparty negotiation. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 30, 779-797.

- Gomes, M. M. (2007). A concept analysis of relational aggression. *Journal of Psychiatric & Mental Health Nursing*, 14(5), 510-515.
- Granello, D. H., & Wheaton, J. E. (2004). Online data collection: Strategies for research. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 82(4), 387-393.
- Gysbers, N. C. (2004). Comprehensive guidance and counseling programs: The evolution of accountability. *Professional School Counseling*, 8(1), 1-14.
- Gysbers, N. C., & Henderson, P. (2001). Comprehensive guidance and counseling programs: A rich history and a bright future. *Professional School Counseling*, 4(4), 246-257.
- Harris, R. D. (2005). Unlocking the learning potential in peer mediation: An evaluation of peer mediator modeling and disputant learning. *Conflict Resolution Quarterly*, 23(2), 141-164.
- Hernandez, T. J., & Seem, S. R. (2004). A safe school climate: A systemic approach and the school counselor. *Professional School Counseling*, 7(4), 256-262.
- Heydenberk, R. A., & Heydenberk, W. R. (2007). The conflict resolution connection: Increasing school attachment in cooperative classroom communities. *Reclaiming Children & Youth*, 16(3), 18-22.
- Heydenberk, R. A., Heydenberk, W. R., & Tzenova, V. (2006). Conflict resolution and bully prevention: Skills for school success. *Conflict Resolution Quarterly*, 24(1), 55-69.
- Holcomb-McCoy, C., Harris, P., Hines, E. M., & Johnston, G. (2008). School counselors' multicultural self-efficacy: A preliminary investigation. *Professional School Counseling*, 11(3), 166-178.
- Holt, J. L., & DeVore, C. J. (2005). Culture, gender, organizational role, and styles of conflict resolution: A meta-analysis. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 29(2), 165-196.
- Hornsey, M. J., & Hogg, M. A. (2000). Assimilation and diversity: An integrative model of subgroup relations. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 4(2), 143-156.
- Hovland, J., & Peterson, T. (1996). School counselors as conflict resolution consultants: Practicing what we teach. *School Counselor*, 44(1), 71-80.
- Johnson, D. W. (2003). Social interdependence: Interrelationships among theory, research, and practice. *American Psychologist*, 58(11), 934-945.

- Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1995). *Reducing school violence through conflict resolution*. Alexandria, Virginia: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1996). Conflict resolution and peer mediation programs in elementary and secondary schools: A review of the research. *Review of Educational Research*, 66(4), 459-506.
- Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (2004). Implementing the "teaching students to be peacemakers program". *Theory Into Practice*, 43(1), 68-79.
- Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (2005). New developments in social interdependence theory. *Genetic, Social & General Psychology Monographs*, 131(4), 285-358.
- Johnson, D. W., Johnson, R., Dudley, B., & Mitchell, J. (1997). The impact of conflict resolution training on middle school students. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 137(1), 11-21.
- Johnson, D. W., Johnson, R., Dudley, B., Ward, M., & Magnuson, D. (1995). The impact of peer mediation training on the management of school and home conflicts. *American Educational Research Journal*, 32(4), 829-844.
- Kim, P. H. (1997). Strategic timing in group negotiations: The implication of forced entry and forced exit for negotiators with unequal power. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 71(3), 263-286.
- Kimsey, W. D., & Fuller, R. M. (2003). CONFLICTALK: An instrument for measuring youth and adolescent conflict management message styles. *Conflict Resolution Quarterly*, 21(1), 69-78.
- Klein, C. A., & Klein, A. B. (2008). Alternative Dispute Resolution Part 3: Arbitration. *Nurse Practitioner*, 33(5), 11-11.
- Kramer, R. M., Pommerenke, P., & Newton, E. (1993). The social context of negotiation: Effects of social identity and interpersonal accountability on negotiator decision making. *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 37(4), 633-654.
- Lambie, G. W., & Williamson, L. L. (2004). The challenge to change from guidance counseling to professional school counseling: A historical proposition. *Professional School Counseling*, 8(2), 124-131.
- Lane, P. S., & McWhirter, J. J. (1992). A peer mediation model: Conflict resolution for elementary and middle school children. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling*, 27(1), 15-23.

- Larson, L. M., & Daniels, J. A. (1998). Review of the Counseling Self-Efficacy Literature. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 26(2), 179-218.
- Larson, L. M., Suzuki, L. A., Gillespie, K. N., Potenza, M. T., Bechtel, M. A., & Toulouse, A. L. (1992). Development and validation of the counseling self-estimate inventory. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 39(1), 105-121.
- Leibach, T. (2008). *Elementary school counselors' attitudes about interventions related to counseling children retained in grade*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Florida, Gainesville.
- Leighfield, K., & Trube, M. B. (2005). Teacher education programs in Ohio and conflict management: Do they walk the walk? *Conflict Resolution Quarterly*, 22(3), 409-413.
- Louis, D. E. (1999). Challenges in multiparty environmental mediation. *Journal of the National Association of Administrative Law Judges*, 19(1), 77-108.
- Matloff, G., & Smith, S. W. (1999). Responding to a schoolwide conflict resolution-peer mediation program: Case study of a middle school faculty. *Mediation Quarterly*, 17(2), 125-141.
- Max, R. A. (1999). Multiparty mediation. *American Journal of Trial Advocacy*, 22(2), 269-290.
- Maynard, D. W. (1985). On the functions of social conflict among children. *American Sociological Review*, 50(2), 207-223.
- McFarland, W. P., & Culp, W. H. (1992). Interpersonal skill training for effective conflict resolution. *School Counselor*, 39(4), 304-310.
- National Center for Education Statistics. (2007, December). Indicators for school crime and safety: 2007. Retrieved January 25, 2008, from <http://nces.ed.gov/programs/crimeindicators/crimeindicators2007/index.asp>
- National Center for Education Statistics. (2009a, June). Characteristics of public, private, and bureau of Indian education elementary and secondary schools in the United States:Results from the 2007-08 schools and staffing survey. Retrieved March 31, 2010, from <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2009/2009324.pdf>
- National Center for Education Statistics. (2009b, October). Numbers and types of public elementary and secondary schools from the common core of data: School year 2007–08. Retrieved March 25, 2010, from http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2010/2010305/tables/table_07.asp

- Nix, C. L., & Hale, C. (2007). Conflict within the structure of peer mediation: An examination of controlled confrontations in an at-risk school. *Conflict Resolution Quarterly*, 24(3), 327-348.
- Noakes, M. A., & Rinaldi, C. M. (2006). Age and gender differences in peer conflict. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 35(6), 881-890.
- Partin, R. L. (1993). School counselors' time: Where does it go? *School Counselor*, 40(4), 274-282.
- Peterson, C. C., & Peterson, J. L. (1990). Fight or flight: Factors influencing children's and adults' decisions to avoid or confront conflict. *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 151(4), 461-471.
- Polzer, J. T., Mannix, E. A., & Neale, M. A. (1998). Interest alignment and coalitions in multiparty negotiation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41(1), 42-54.
- Poynton, T. A., & Carey, J. C. (2006). An integrative model of data-based decision making for school counseling. *Professional School Counseling*, 10(2), 121-130.
- Poynton, T. A., Carlson, M. W., Hopper, J. A., & Carey, J. C. (2006). Evaluation of an innovative approach to improving middle school students' academic achievement. *Professional School Counseling*, 9(3), 190-196.
- Rhoades, J. A., & Carnevale, P. J. (1999). The behavioral context of strategic choice in negotiation: A test of the dual concern model. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 29(9), 1777-1802.
- Roberts, L., White, G., & Yeomans, P. (2004). Theory development and evaluation of project WIN: A violence reduction program for early adolescents. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 24(4), 460-483.
- Roberts, L., Yeomans, P., & Ferro-Almeida, S. (2007). Project WIN evaluation shows decreased violence and improved conflict resolution skills for middle school students. *Research in Middle Level Education Online*, 30(8), 1-14.
- Roseth, C. J., Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (2008). Promoting early adolescents' achievement and peer relationships: The effects of cooperative, competitive, and individualistic goal structures. *Psychological Bulletin*, 134(2), 223-246.
- Sari, M., Sari, S., & Otunc, M. S. (2008). An investigation of devotion to democratic values and conflict resolution abilities: A case of elementary school students. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice*, 8(1), 183-192.
- Scales, P. C. (2005). Developmental assets and the middle school counselor. *Professional School Counseling*, 9(2), 104-111.

- Scarborough, J. L. (2005). The school counselor activity rating scale: An instrument for gathering process data. *Professional School Counseling*, 8(3), 274-283.
- Schmitz, R. (1994). Teaching students to manage their conflicts. *Social Work in Education*, 16(2), 125-128.
- Schwallie-Giddis, P., ter Maat, M., & Pak, M. (2003). Initiating leadership by introducing and implementing the ASCA national model. *Professional School Counseling*, 6(3), 170-174.
- Scott, W. (2008). Communication strategies in early adolescent conflict: An attributional approach. *Conflict Resolution Quarterly*, 25(3), 375-400.
- Sell, J., Lovaglia, M. J., Mannix, E. A., Samuelson, C. D., & Wilson, R. K. (2004). Investigating conflict, power, and status within and among groups. *Small Group Research*, 35, 44-72.
- Shell, G. R. (2001). Bargaining styles and negotiation: The thomas-kilmann conflict mode instrument in negotiation training. *Negotiation Journal*, 17(2), 155-174.
- Smith, H. J., & Tyler, T. R. (1997). Choosing the right pond: The impact of group membership on self-esteem and group-oriented behavior. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 33(2), 146-171.
- Smith, S. W., & Daunic, A. P. (2002). Using conflict resolution and peer mediation to support positive behavior In B. Algozzine & P. Kay (Eds.), *Preventing problem behaviors: A handbook of successful prevention strategies* (pp. 142-161). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Smith, S. W., Daunic, A. P., Miller, M. D., & Robinson, T. R. (2002). Conflict resolution and peer mediation in middle schools: Extending the process and outcome knowledge base. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 142(5), 567-586.
- Smyth, L. F. (2002). Identity-based conflicts: A systemic approach. *Negotiation Journal*, 18(2), 147-161.
- Steen, S., Bauman, S., & Smith, J. (2007). Professional school counselors and the practice of group work. *Professional School Counseling*, 11(2), 72-80.
- Steinfeld, J.A., Steinfiel, M.C., & Speight, Q. L. (2009). Gender role conflict and stigma towards help seeking among college football players. *Psychology of men and masculinity*, 10, 261-272.
- Stevahn, L., Johnson, D. W., Johnson, R. T., Green, K., & Laginski, A. M. (1997). Effects on high school students of conflict resolution training integrated into English literature. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 137(3), 302-315.

- Stevahn, L., Munger, L., & Kealey, K. (2005). Conflict resolution in a french immersion elementary school. *Journal of Educational Research*, 99(1), 3-18.
- Susskind, L., Mnookin, R., Rozdeiczer, L., & Fuller B. (2005). What we have learned about teaching multiparty negotiation. *Negotiation Journal*, 21(3), 395-408.
- Sutton, J. M., & Fall, M. (1995). The relationship of school climate factors to counselor self-efficacy. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 73, 331–336.
- Swaab, R., Postmes, T., Van Beest, I., Spears, R. (2007). Shared cognition as a product of, and precursor to, shared identity in negotiations. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 33, 187-199.
- Sweeney, B., & Carruthers, W. L. (1996). Conflict resolution: History, philosophy, theory, and educational applications. *School Counselor*, 43(5), 326-345.
- Tajfel, H. (1982). Social psychology of intergroup relations. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 33, 1-39.
- Tajfel, H., Billig, M. G., Bundy, R. P., & Flament, C. (1971). Social categorization and intergroup behaviour. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 1(2), 149-178.
- Ten Velden, F. S., Beersma, B., & De Dreu, C. K. W. (2007). Majority and minority influence in group negotiation: The moderating effects of social motivation and decision rules. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(1), 259-268.
- Thompson, L., Peterson, E., Brodt, S. E. (1996). Team negotiation: An examination of integrative and distributive bargaining. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 70(1), 66-78.
- Thompson, L., Peterson, E., & Brodt, S. E. (1996). Team negotiation: An examination of integrative and distributive bargaining. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 70(1), 66-78.
- Tokunaga, R. S. (2010). Following you home from school: A critical review and synthesis of research on cyberbullying victimization. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 26(3), 277-287.
- Uline, C. L., Tschannen-Moran, M., & Perez, L. (2003). Constructive conflict: How controversy can contribute to school improvement. *Teachers College Record*, 105(5), 782-816.
- Van Selme, M., & Jankowski, N. W. (2006). Conducting online surveys. *Quality & Quantity*, 40(3), 435-456.

- Walsh, M. E., Barrett, J. G., & DePaul, J. (2007). Day-to-day activities of school counselors: Alignment with new directions in the field and the ASCA national model. *Professional School Counseling*, 10(4), 370-378.
- Welton, G. L., Pruitt, D. G., & McGillicuddy, N. B. (1988). The role of caucusing in community mediation. *The Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 32(1), 181-202.
- Wigfield, A., Lutz, S. L., & Wagner, A. L. (2005). Early adolescents' development across the middle school years: Implications for school counselors. *Professional School Counseling*, 9(2), 112-119.
- Williams, F., & Cornell, D. (2006). Student willingness to seek help for threats of violence in middle school. *Journal of school violence*, 5, 35-49.
- Zimmer-Gembeck, M. J., Geiger, T. C., & Crick, N. R. (2005). Relational and physical aggression, prosocial behavior, and peer relations: Gender moderation and bidirectional associations. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 25(4), 421-452.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Summer Yacco was born in 1982 and raised in Burbank, California. She majored in psychology and graduated with her bachelor's degree from California State University, Northridge in 2004. The same year, Summer moved to Florida to begin her graduate studies in school counseling as an Alumni Fellow at the University of Florida. As a graduate student, she gained school counseling experience at the elementary, middle, and high school levels in Alachua County schools. Summer conducted her doctoral internship as an intern to the Supervisor of Guidance and Student Services in Alachua County. Her graduate assistant work included teaching undergraduate level courses and participating in scholarly research. Summer received her Master of Arts and Specialist degrees in 2006 and continued her education at the University of Florida pursuing a doctorate in counselor education. Upon graduation, Summer is beginning her career as a counselor educator in a university position.