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The Psychodramatic Reenactment of a Dream

DONALD J. WOLK

ABSTRACT. In this article, the author describes his use of psychodrama as a vehicle to help individuals relate their dreams to current life situations. The author adapted Montague Ullman's Dream Appreciation method as the warm-up phase of psychodrama. This three-stage technique involves group members directly and personally in the dream as they share feelings and metaphors as if the dream were their own. A trust relationship and an empathic bond between protagonist and group members are almost immediately established. A report of an experience by one of the protagonists includes details about her experience of the total process and her integration of the process into her life situation. The author concludes that both professionals and students can profit from this combined method.

ONE APPROACH TO WORKING WITH DREAMS is through the medium of psychodrama. This is a psychotherapeutic method in which the dreamer, as protagonist, reenacts the dream, as if on the stage. Psychodrama is an experiential method involving cognitive, emotional, and behavioral processes. Dreams offer us a metaphorical view of inner feelings, beliefs, and values that directly or indirectly relate to current or potential life situations. By combining the primarily cognitive-emotional technique of Montague Ullman's Dream Appreciation method (Ullman & Zimmerman, 1979) with the action approach of psychodrama, therapists can identify and work with basic life dilemmas, seeking alternative, spontaneous ways to perceive and resolve them. The psychodramatic reenactment enables the dreamer to become emotionally and cognitively aware of the influence and power of the underlying motivating forces on everyday life situations. The play quickly becomes the thing wherein we catch the unconscious essence of our dream world.

At this point, I shall more fully elaborate on the method of psychodrama my colleague and I used in a workshop entitled "Psychodrama and Dreams."

The workshop, offered to a large singles organization, was attended by 26 participants. After giving a description of the workshop, I shall report in detail the experience of a woman who volunteered to be the protagonist.

Workshop Procedure

During the workshop, we followed a traditional, but somewhat modified, psychodrama procedure that included a warm-up phase, a middle or action phase (the actual psychodrama), and finally, an integration and closing phase. The warm-up consisted of three work stages adapted from Ullman's dream procedure. This dream technique helped the audience connect with the dreamer and the dream, and enabled each participant to develop an optimum level of trust. A description of the dream process and the second and third psychodrama phases follow.

At the beginning of the workshop, I briefly described the significance of dreams and the psychodramatic technique. My colleague Rita De Bruyne-Silberstein served as the director while I assumed the roles of dream guide and double. From the audience we selected participants from those who had indicated a desire to work on their dreams. After each volunteer gave a brief summary of his or her dream, the volunteer group selected, through consensual agreement and with the help of the dream guide, the dream for the psychodrama. The director then asked the dreamer to relate her dream in the first-person, present tense. Because every aspect of the dream may be of significance, we asked the group to record the dream. We explained that the tendency to forget or to choose selectively what one hears is always present. With dreams, however, the need is for the audience to react and to respond to the total dream as if it were their own. Therefore, accuracy is essential. The warm-up phase immediately followed, adapted from Ullman's three-stage dream procedure.

Stage 1: Clarification of Content and Feelings

After hearing the details of the dream, the group members asked the dreamer questions to clarify the content and the feelings in the dream. We instructed the group not to make interpretations at any time. The group's objective was to gather as much information as possible about any part of the content that was confusing, unclear, or ambiguous and to understand more clearly the dreamer's feelings as they related to each part of the dream. This process allowed the audience to identify with and respond to the dream in subsequent stages. The dreamer shared as much information as she was able or willing to do. Then the dreamer sat back in a silent, listening position while the group entered Stage 2.

Stage 2: Feelings and Metaphors

Group members were first asked to share their feelings about parts or all of the dream, as if the dream were their own. In this way, the group members became an integral part of the dynamic process, entering the dreamer's dream, but not directly imposing their views or interpretations onto the dreamer. (The dreamer had the option of accepting information not previously considered or to reject anything that seemed threatening or irrelevant.)

After the "feeling" phase, we asked the group to "work with the images [of the dream] as if they were your own . . . [to] look at them, not as literal statements, but as metaphorical ways of saying something about your lives" (Ullman & Zimmerman, p. 236). The participants shared reactions to the metaphoric and symbolic elements of the dream, as they related to members' lifestyles.

Stage 3: Dreamer Response

This stage began with the dreamer's responding to and briefly expanding on the group's feelings and metaphors to her dream. She became the final authority on the multiple possibilities of the dream, deciding what she was willing and ready to handle and work with at the time. An alliance between dreamer and group members began to evolve. The warm-up phase was now completed, with the dreamer and the group more emotionally and mentally connected. The action or psychodrama phase followed.

Action Phase

The director helped the dreamer (protagonist) select the part of the dream with which she wanted to work. (The total dream, if it is brief, or part of the dream may be chosen.) The director also helped the dreamer set the scene and choose dream characters and objects from the audience. She also assumed the role of primary guide, overseeing the entire proceedings. I served as codirector, occasionally offering spontaneous suggestions regarding directions to take in the dream's reenactment, and as the double for the protagonist. As the double, I served as "alter ego," standing directly behind the protagonist, silently empathizing with her, and periodically expressing what I thought the protagonist might be experiencing but not directly stating.

For several days following the enactment of the psychodrama, the dreamer, upon request, wrote an extended account of her experience, which I will present in detail to illustrate the usefulness of this process. Complying with the request to write about her experience helped the protagonist further understand, appreciate, and integrate the total experience.

The Volunteer's Dream

I am walking along a path that seems to be the walkway at the college I attend. It is a walkway that extends for at least a half mile. I am walking along this path . . . and I pass a group of people, women, I believe, who are congregated and engaged in some activity. It is some domestic type of activity like cooking or pottery making. It is very enticing, both the activity and the people. They are people I think I know and I like them. As drawn to them as I am, I decline their offer to join them and feel compelled to continue. I walk a little farther and I encounter another group, also all women, I believe. They, too, are engaged in some activity. They invite me to join them. I am tempted, but again I decline. I have this feeling that I should continue, so I do. I again continue on the path and soon run into my boyfriend R. I am surprised to see him there. It was not a place where we had ever been together, and yet, I somehow feel that I had declined the invitations to join the other groups because I felt I would meet him. It wasn't that I knew I would meet him, it was just a vague feeling within me that I had to continue. I meet up with him and we start going on together. I am happy to see him, and I have no hesitation within me that I want to be with him. Soon after we start walking, this image appears out of nowhere. It is the image of a book, suspended somehow in the air to my left. It is suspended in a way similar to how a harvest moon is suspended in the sky when it is still low on the horizon. It catches my attention immediately, and it speaks to me. It says, "Why did you pass up those activities and those people to whom you were drawn to go off with R?" It has a great effect on me, but I do not attempt to answer the question. I am just awestruck by it. I am not sure whether it was still in my dream or immediately after I woke up that I realized that the book was my professor at school. She was like a god in my dream, and in reality she acts like a god in the program I am taking. In a positive sense, I really like and respect her and find myself being influenced greatly by her, and shockingly to me, even try to emulate her.

The Volunteer's Psychodrama Experience

I felt that my dream was unusual because of the image of the book, and while I realized some of the significance it had, I felt that I didn't quite understand it all. After I told my dream, and following the warm-up phase, I had to choose people to play the different parts. Most of the characters were easy to choose, but the book was the most significant. It was really a gut level decision to choose whom I did to be the book. It was easy to enact the first part of my dream, walking along the path and encountering the two groups who asked me to join them. It was also easy to choose R.

I just remember that the enactment of my dream began with the conversa-

tion with the book, even though the book was the last part of my dream. That turned out to be a very good idea. When the book and I met face to face, the proximity of the book didn't feel accurate, so I knelt. The director decided that didn't seem correct, so the book stood on a chair and I stood up. That position seemed accurate. The book put his arms up and out, as if the book was open. He asked me to come close, but I couldn't. It was somehow too intimidating. The book told me that he was part of me. That was the first most significant outcome of the enactment. I had been seeing the book as an external imposing itself onto me. I had the sense that it was my conscience talking to me, but I had externalized the book into the figure of my teacher. Before the book finished dealing with me, I got support from the group. Rita, the director, suggested that I might need some support. So I chose one woman and one man to be my friends. They were indeed very supportive and I appreciated it, but I realized that I had to confront the book by myself and I was willing to. What I didn't expect in psychodrama was that one of the therapists would be with me the whole time. Don stood behind me and whenever I didn't have something to say, he expressed what he thought my feelings were. I was astounded because he was so completely accurate. I was amazed that he could tune in and verbalize my feelings. In fact, I still can't understand how he was able to do that from just hearing my dream and not knowing me at all. It was a magnificent feeling. It is not often that one feels understood or has someone right there when trying to cope with a difficult situation. As an only child growing up trying to understand my feelings without testing them out with someone, it was a unique experience. I remember shaking. I was conscious of it and also conscious of not trying to get it under control. I wasn't trying to contain myself at all. The book and I continued talking. I think the reason I thought the man I chose was the right person to be the book was that he had a beard and looked like a stereotyped image of God. He looked intimidating, but he was very compassionate, though assertive. He finally made the suggestion that I take the book and hold it. I had previously told him that I wanted to close the book because I was not ready to internalize what the book had to say to me, though I knew it was right. So the compromise was to close it, put it under my arm, and start at the beginning of my dream . . . to walk along the path, holding the book next to me. The person who played the book sat down, and someone handed me an atlas that was a sizable book, and I held it near me.

I walked along the path and encountered the two different groups who asked me to join them. They were indeed just like the people in my dream, very kindly and friendly, and they wanted me to stay with them. I declined. I met R. At first he started to talk, but it was inaccurate. [At this point, the Director asked R and the protagonist to reverse roles in order to provide clearer information about what R sounded like.] As a result of the role reversal, he (R) changed the content and his manner, and he became amazingly accurate.

He told me he wanted me to go along with him and do things his way. He questioned the book I had and he wanted to take it from me. Then came the second most significant part of the psychodrama: I refused to give him the book. There was no way that I was going to relinquish this book. It was indeed part of me. At that point, I felt my dream had been fully enacted, but Don told me to continue on with it. So I went on with what I would have liked to happen. R and I continued walking on. I looked at the book and I realized at that moment that the book was an atlas which was really apropos because it gave me direction about where to go. We walked down the hall and then turned back to the main room, and ended in the middle of the circle of all the people. At that time, I realized it was time to stop because I had arrived at a very comfortable place. It felt like I was where I wanted to be. A good place (no exact geographical place I know of) but I was with a companion and surrounded by friendly, caring people. It seemed ideal. I was content to remain there.

The Volunteer's Response to the Integration and Closing Phase

After the enactment ended, different people commented about how they felt. I was amazed that my dream turned out to be so involved and that people got caught up in it and related to it in different ways personal to them. I really felt very supported. During the break that followed, I spoke to different people and got such good feedback from them. I just felt great; one, I understood the significance of my dream, and two, there was such support.

I think a little background might be useful. I had been involved in a long, difficult relationship with R, which had terminated at the point that I had my dream and the ensuing psychodrama. I was emotionally attached to a situation that the rational part of me disapproved of. I had many times forgone events that I would have liked to take part in, or left events early that I did attend, to go to R who was putting some demands on me to do so. I felt they were unreasonable demands, particularly because I would always invite him to attend events with me and he would decline. It was really absurd for me to acquiesce. I think that was the origin of those people beckoning me to join them, and the question the book asked me after I met up with R. It was a question, or really a statement, that I have made to myself on many occasions. There is no doubt that the book is me, or a part of me. But I was not ready to "hear" it or follow it at the time. On the other hand, it was enough a part of me that I couldn't ignore it either. That the whole scenario took place at school made perfect sense. The impact school has on me is enormous. The courses, particularly the ones with Professor B, have dealt with the most intimate parts of my life, and B had zeroed in accurately on the meaning of many events in my life. She didn't mince words in doing so either. I do highly value her judgment.

At this point, I fully recognize the significance of my dream, and I'm

impressed at how the unconscious mind can symbolize events or problems that one encounters in life. I'm proud of the creativity of my dream. The book still presents a problem to me. I know it's right, but I have not fully recovered from the disappointment of the relationship where there was no room for me as a whole person, that is, me *with* my book. R had stated many times that he is totally self-centered, that he wants what he wants when he wants it, and if I do things his way, we'll both be happy. My problem was that it was so absurd that I didn't take him seriously. It is hard to accept that I was such a fool and that I loved and cared deeply about a person to whom I was really just an object. I am furious at myself that I can intellectually value my book, but my emotions are lagging behind, and I still hurt. I am grateful to my book, though, because it protected me, because while I loved him, I knew things were askew and I declined his proposals to marry.

Discussion

The essence and usefulness of this method was stated sensitively and sophisticatedly by the dreamer. The Ullman warm-up phase not only provided thought-provoking ideas regarding the dream but also helped establish a working bond between the dreamer and the group. The reenactment of the dream and the moving beyond it helped the dreamer become aware of issues and feelings she had not consciously considered; it also provided her with a safe ("good") place to rest and to contemplate the decisions she would have to make. Of significance was not only an increased understanding and appreciation of the dream's message but also the empathic support received and experienced by the dreamer from the workshop leaders and the group. The protagonist began to consider and assess her inner resources, the better to understand her previous self-defeating behavior patterns and to become aware of and work constructively with her inner conflicts. All of that enabled her to become a more integrated, whole person.

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The Development of Warmth and Trust in Psychodrama Training Groups: A Cross-Cultural Study With Sociometry

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DMITRY M. TULLER

ABSTRACT: The development of the feelings of warmth and trust was monitored by means of sociometric choices in two short-term psychodrama training workshops. The male and female participants in the study were Russian and Bulgarian psychologists and psychiatrists. The training was held in Moscow and in Sofia. From the results, the authors concluded that improvement in both warmth and trust was a function of a substantial decrease in negative choices (rejections), rather than a significant increase in positive (attractions) ones, and that a system of weighted scored choices seems more valid than that based on frequency (number) of responses alone.

ONE OF THE ATTRACTIVE FEATURES OF SOCIOMETRY is the ability to use its data for clinical inferences without resorting to elaborate statistical procedures and tests. Whether the data are organized as nominal, ordinal, or interval scaling, researchers can gain valuable information from this "raw" data by simply organizing, ranking, adding, subtracting, and calculating the ratios of the responses. Historically, this use of sociometry has been vigorously pursued by group-oriented psychodramatists, partly because it has been part and parcel of the psychodrama heritage (e.g., Moreno, 1942; 1960) and, perhaps more important, because it has practical advantages. The tradition of relying on the statistically untreated data to aid psychotherapeutic decisions, initiated by Moreno (1934) and nurtured and continued by others (Hale, 1985; Kumar & Treadwell, 1985; Northway, 1950), remains popular (Carvalho & Brito, 1995; Remer, 1995).

The easy access to computer technology has brought with it programs

designed to expedite the process of collecting, tabulating, and presenting the sociometric data (e.g., Treadwell, Leach, & Stein, 1993). With such a development, one would have expected to see, as evidenced in other areas of psychological diagnosis and evaluation, a major shift from the traditional approach toward a tendency to treat sociometric data with sophisticated methods of statistical analyses. Interestingly, however, the traditional approach has persisted and remained a popular practice. In some cases, it has even been expanded to include enactments based on *prima facie* analysis of the content of the explanations accompanying the choices made by the respondents (Remer, 1995).

There are good reasons for the group psychotherapist's continued attraction to sociometric information ("raw" data). The sociometric information is simple to collect and analyze and provides feedback quickly. The procedure of data gathering takes only minutes, and both the tabulation and the skill of charting the sociogram, even without the aid of computerized feedback, are easy to master. Sociometric data unravel underlying group structures, often not easily detected by simple observations, and provide information valuable to the group leader.

Furthermore, one of the most valuable characteristics of sociometry is its ability to continuously monitor group dynamics in terms of the daily shifting of the emotional attachments among the members. Thus, through sociometric explorations, one can actually chart the flow of a group process as it unfolds during session after session or day after day. The importance of having such a step-by-step monitoring capability has been repeatedly alluded to by several writers (Bernard & MacKenzie, 1994; Kipper, 1986; MacKenzie & Tschuschke, 1994; Page & Berkow, 1994).

The literature revealed that mutual feelings of warmth and trust among group members contribute to intentional disclosures (Derlega, 1984), and a climate of trust was said to be related to group effectiveness and perceived closeness among group members (Evans & Dion, 1991; Friedlander, Thibodeau, Nichols, Tucker, & Snyder, 1985; Roark & Shara, 1989). In this study, we investigated these issues among two groups of psychologists and psychotherapists. First, we expected that the trainees' involvement in the psychodramatic process would result in an overall increase in both feelings of warmth and trust among its members. Second, we expected that the feelings of warmth and trust would both show a clear pattern of development throughout the training. Specifically, we believed the pattern would show fluctuation rather than a steady increase. Also, we expected that the increase in warmth and trust would be attributed equally to an increase in choices and a reduction in rejections. We expected that a comparison of the developmental pattern in groups from two different cultures might add credence to the question of the universality of the obtained patterns.

METHOD

Participants

Two groups of psychologists and psychiatrists, members of psychodrama-training workshops, were the participants in the study. They were members of two separate groups, one comprising 23 Russian men and women and the other comprising 23 Bulgarian men and women. The former group was trained in Moscow, Russia, and the latter group in Sofia, Bulgaria. The age and gender distribution of the participants in each of the two groups varied from 21 to 52 years, with most participants in the 25 to 45 range. Women constituted about 60% of each group. About half of the participants were somewhat familiar with psychodrama, either through reading or by having previous psychodrama experience, and the rest were novices. The demographic characteristics of the two groups were also similar. Most of the participants in each group came from across their respective countries rather than from the capital cities of their respective countries. The vast majority of the participants did not know each other before the workshops; thus, the two training groups were conducted under similar conditions. The participants were in residence at the workshops sites, which were located on the outskirts of each city, and were led by the first author. Both training workshops included 50 training hrs. For the Russians, the training was spread over 6 days; for the Bulgarians, over 4 1/2 days. The training of the Russian and the Bulgarian groups took place several months apart, beginning with the Moscow group. Both groups were new and formed specifically for the purpose of the training. The participants were aware that any gathered data would be used by the authors to understand the dynamics of the respective groups, and they gave their consent for its use in the framework of a study.

Procedure

The participants answered queries on a sociometric instrument each training day after their lunch break and before the beginning of the 2 p.m. afternoon sessions. The instrument included two sets of sociometric inquiries. For each sociometric inquiry, a maximum of three selections was allowed. The instructions for the measurement of warmth were as follows: Please write, on the three lines below, the names of the three people in the group toward whom you feel the greatest warmth and then write, on the next three lines, the names of the three people in the group toward whom you feel the least warmth, that is, the people that leave you cold. Group members were also asked to assign a weighted score to each of the six names selected, using a 10-point Likert-type scale ranging from *highest cold* (1) to *greatest warmth* (10). The mid-point was 5.

The instructions for the measurement of trust were as follows: Please write, on the three lines below, the names of the three people in the group whom you feel you can trust most and then write, and on the next three lines, the names of the three people in the group whom you feel you can trust least. The assignment of a weighted score to each selection followed the same Likert-type scale described above with 1 indicating the least trust and 10 representing the greatest trust. The written responses were collected, and the data were tabulated by a local associate known to the participants. The participants consented to the local associate's involvement. From the outset, the workshop leaders promised the participants that they would see the group profile of their daily responses at the conclusion of the entire workshop. On the evening before the last training day, this was done, both to provide an overall feedback and to generate comments and discussions.

RESULTS

To show the developmental pattern of warmth and trust throughout the training experiences, we calculated the total selections (choices and rejections) and their weighted scores. The results also show the daily changes in the gap (difference) between the choices and the rejections. We present the data for the feelings of warmth first and will be follow with the data for the feelings of trust.

Warmth

The Number of the Sociometric Choices for Warmth

The results of the Russians' and the Bulgarians' sociometric selections concerning their feelings of warmth toward other group members are reported in Table 1. In the upper half of Table 1, we present the data for the number of the sociometric choices made by members of each of the two groups. The 1st 2 rows depict the number of the actual selections for attractions (Most) and rejections (Least). The 3rd row presents the maximum possible selections that could have been made each training day. The next 2 rows provide the percentage of the actual selections made each day, that is, the extent to which the total opportunities available were seized by members of the groups. The 4th row shows the percentage for the attraction selections (Most), and the 5th displays the rejections (Least). The difference between the percentage of the daily attraction and rejection selections appears in the 6th row. For example, following the first day, the Russians indicated 96% of all possible attractions selections and 87% of all possible rejection selections.

TABLE 1
Feelings of Warmth: The Number and the Intensity of Attraction and Rejection Responses Given by the Russian and the Bulgarian Groups, With Ratios and Percentages

Response	Russians: Day						Bulgarians: Day			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4
Number										
Most	66	63	63	64 ^d	54	46	60	69	62	66
Least	60	61	48	47	32	23	56	52	34	32
Max. Choices ^a	69	66	63	60	57	54	69 ^b			
Percentage										
Most	96	96	100	107	95	86	87	100	90	96
Least	87	92	76	78	56	43	78	72	43	46
Difference	9	4	24	29	39	43	8	24	43	42
Weighted scores of intensity										
Most	492	451	478	586	513	475	475	524	513	553
Least ^a	468	434	359	351	202	253	417	365	250	242
Max. value	690	660	630	600	570	540	690 ^b			
Percentage										
Most	71	68	76	98	90	88	69	76	74	80
Least	67	65	56	58	35	46	60	52	36	35
Difference	4	3	20	40	55	42	9	24	38	45
<i>n</i> ^c	23	22	21	20	19	18	23			

^aThe maximum of possible choices represents $n \times 3$ selection opportunities given for each subject. ^bThe maximum choices for Most Liked as well as Least Liked are 690 each (where $n = 23 \times 30$). ^cChanges in n are due to the fact that some members were not always present at the time the choices were made. They may have come late to the session. The 5th day was Easter, and some members spent the day and part of the next one with their family. ^dThe choices made on Day 4 were greater than the maximum number of possible choices because some participants made more than the $n \times 3$ selection opportunities given to each participant.

Warmth: Attractions in both groups. The development of feelings of warmth for the duration of the training in the two groups shows an opposing trend. The Russians ended with a 10 percentage-point drop in the relative number of persons selected (96% on the 1st day and 86% on the last), whereas the Bulgarians ended with an increase of 9 percentage points, from 87% to 96%. We find it interesting that both groups displayed an increase in the percentage of attraction selections, reaching a high peak toward the midpoint of the workshop, followed by a sharp drop toward its end. For the Russians, their last-day, 10 percentage point decrease was even greater, considering that they peaked on the 4th day at 107%, with an 11 percentage point increase, only to

drop 2 days later to 86%. The Bulgarians' peaked on the second day with an increase percentage point of 13% from the initial 87% to 100%, and dropped slightly to 96% 2 days later.

Warmth: Rejection in both groups. The results for the number of rejection selections (cold feelings) among the two groups show a clear, and similar, pattern (Table 1, 5th row). For the Russians, the decline was by half—from 87% of all possible selections on the first day to 43% on the last day. For the Bulgarians, the decline was from 78% on the 1st day to 46% on the last. It should be noted, however, that the Bulgarians' workshop was 2 days shorter.

Warmth: The attractions–rejections gap. The gap between the percentage of the attractions and the percentage of the rejections steadily increased each day (Table 1, 6th row). For the Russians, the gap grew from 9% on the 1st day to 43% on the end. On the last day, the rejections consisted of 50% of the attractions, compared with 91% on the 1st day. For the Bulgarians, the gap grew from 8% to 42%. On the last day, their rejections consisted of 48% of the attraction selections, compared with 93% on the 1st day.

The results seem to indicate that the change over time in the feelings of warmth was more pronounced in the decreased number of negative lack-of-warmth selections, rather than in the increased number of positive warmth responses.

The Intensity of the Sociometric Choices for Warmth

The level of intensity, or the depth, of the feelings of attraction (warmth) was determined by a weighted score assigned to each sociometric choice, the attractions as well as the rejections. The respondents used a 10-point Likert-type rating scale, ranging from *no warmth at all* (1) to *intense feelings of warmth* (10), to indicate the depth of their feelings of warmth for each of the selected members. The range of the weights was 6 to 10 to signify levels of attraction and 1 to 5 to signify levels of rejection. In presenting the results, however, we assigned the weights for the rejections, originally indicated by the respondents as 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1, the values of 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10, respectively. In this way, these weights matched the values assigned to the choices, thus making the comparisons of the intensity of the attraction and rejection selections simpler.

The data for the intensity of sociometric choices given by the two groups are given in the lower half of Table 1. The 1st 2 rows depict the sum total of the weighted scores assigned to all the sociometric choices made on each training day for the attractions (Most) and for the rejections (Least). The 3rd row presents the total, maximum, weighted scores that could be given each

day. The 4th and 5th row provide the percentage of the actual weights obtained daily, that is, the extent to which the total opportunities available were seized by members of the groups. The 4th row shows the percentage for the attraction choices (Most) and the 5th the percentage for the rejections (Least). The 6th row shows the difference between the percentage of the difference in the weighted scores between the attractions and rejections made each training day.

Warmth: Attraction in both groups. Both groups increased the intensity of their positive feelings of warmth. They began with a similar level of intensity, 71% for the Russians and 69% for the Bulgarians, but at the end of the workshop, the Russians had a 17 percentage-point increase and the Bulgarians an 11 percentage-point increase. The “mid-point peak followed by a sharp drop” phenomenon was evident only among the Russians, who, by the 4th day, recorded a 27 percentage-point increase (from 71% to 98%) only to drop 10 percentage points 2 days later. The Bulgarian group showed a more or less steady increase throughout the 4-day workshop.

Warmth: Rejection in both groups. An overall decrease in the sum of the weighted scores of the rejections (cold feelings) was evident in both groups; a drop for the Russians from 67% to 46%, and a greater drop for the Bulgarians from 60% to 35%.

Warmth: The attractions–rejections gap. There was a steady increase in the size of the gap between the percentage of the daily weighted scores for attractions and the rejections (Table 1, 12th row). Note that the initial size of the gap was smaller than that observed for the number of selections. On the 1st day, the gap between the attractions and the rejections was small (4% and 9% for the Russians and the Bulgarians, respectively), but it increased to 42% and 45%, respectively, on the last day. On the last day, the Russians’ weighted scores for the rejections consisted of 52% of the attractions, compared with 94% on the 1st day. Among the Bulgarians, the picture was similar; the rejections were 56% of the attractions on the last day, compared with 87% on the 1st day.

Again, we noted that the change over time regarding the depth of the feelings of warmth was more pronounced in the decrease of the negative, lack-of-warmth feelings than in the increase in the intensity of positive warmth responses.

Trust

The Number of the Sociometric Choices for Trust

Table 2 contains the data for the Russians and the Bulgarians on their responses to the questions about feelings of trust toward other group mem-

bers. The table is organized in the same way as Table 1, with the upper half displaying the data for the number of sociometric choices given by the two groups. The actual number of the attractions and rejections made appears in the 1st two rows and the 100% baseline in the 3rd. In the following discussion, however, we concentrate on the percentage of the attraction selections (Most, the 4th row) and the rejections (Least, the 5th row), and on the difference between the percentages of the attractions and rejections made each training day (6th row).

TABLE 2
Feelings of Trust: The Number and the Intensity of Attraction and Rejection Responses Given by the Russian and the Bulgarian Groups, With Percentages and Ratios

Response	Russians: Day						Bulgarians: Day			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	1	2	3	4
Number										
Most	66	60	59	64 ^d	57	50	59	66	59	62
Least	59	53	45	38	33	22	55	50	30	32
Max. Choices ^a	69	66	63	60	57	54	69 ^b			
Percentage										
Most	96	91	94	106	100	93	86	96	86	88
Least	86	80	71	63	58	41	78	72	43	46
Difference	10	11	23	43	42	52	8	24	43	42
Weighted scores of intensity										
Most	511	449	437	547	428	449	485	543	481	520
Least ^a	407	432	335	292	223	216	426	368	228	248
Max. value	690	660	630	600	570	540	690 ^b			
Percentage										
Most	74	68	69	91	75	83	70	77	70	75
Least	58	65	53	48	39	40	61	53	33	36
Difference	16	3	16	43	36	43	9	24	37	39
n^c	23	22	21	20	19	18	23			

^aThe maximum of possible choices represents $n \times 3$ selection opportunities given for each subject. ^bThe maximum choices for Most Liked as well as Least Liked are 690 each (where $n = 23 \times 30$). ^cChanges in n are due to the fact that some members were not always present at the time the choices were made. They may have come late to the session. The 5th day was Easter, and some members spent the day and part of the next one with their family. ^dThe choices made on Day 4 were greater than the maximum number of possible choices because some participants made more than the $n \times 3$ selection opportunities given to each participant.

Trust: Attractions and rejections in both groups. In both groups, the first-last day comparisons of the number of the selections made showed virtually no change. For the Russians, the overall change was a drop from 96% to 93%, whereas for the Bulgarians, the change was a gain from 86% to 88%. These changes are too small to suggest any trend. Again, both groups displayed the "mid-point peak followed by a sharp drop" phenomenon. The Russians had an increase by the 4th day from 96% to 106% but dropped to 93% 2 days later. The Bulgarians' selections increased by the 2nd day from 86% to 96% but dropped to 88% 2 days later.

The results concerning the rejections in both groups showed a similar pattern, when observed for warmth. Both groups had a continuous decline in their rejections. The Russians decreased rejections from the initial 86% level to 41% on the 6th day. The Bulgarians' rejection declined from 78% on the 1st day to 46% on the last.

Trust: The attractions-rejections gap. There was continuous increase in the size of the gap between the percentage of the attractions and the rejections made each day (Table 2, 6th row). Among the Russians, the difference between the attraction choices and the rejections grew from 10% on the first day to 52% at the end. On the last day, the Russians' total rejections consisted of 44% of the attractions, compared with 90% made on the 1st day. For the Bulgarian group, the gap grew from 8% on the first day to 42% at the end. On the last day, their rejections consisted of 52% of the attraction selections for the last day, compared with 91% on the 1st day.

The great change over time in the feelings of trust appeared to lie in the decrease of the number of the negative, lack-of-warmth selections rather than an increase in the number of the positive warmth responses.

The Intensity of the Sociometric Choices for Trust

The level of the intensity, or depth of the attraction (trust) feelings was determined by the same 10-point Likert-type scale of weighted scores used in the case of the feelings of warmth. Here too, the weights for the rejections, originally indicated by the respondents as 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1, were reassigned the values of 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10, respectively.

The data for the intensity of trust are reported in the lower half of Table 2 under the heading Weighted Scores of Intensity, and are arranged in the same manner as those concerning the feelings of warmth (the lower half of Table 1).

Trust: Attractions and rejections in both groups. A first-last day comparison of the responses to trust selections showed a small increase in the intensi-

ty of trust in both groups. The Russians' choices increased from 74% to 83%, and the Bulgarians' from 70% to 75%. The "mid-point followed by a drop" phenomenon was clearly evident among the Russians' responses, with an increase to 91% on the 4th day followed by a drop to 83% 2 days later. The Bulgarians peaked at 77% and ended at 75%.

The results concerning the intensity of the rejections showed a decline for the Russians from 58% to 40% and from 61% to 36% for the Bulgarians.

Trust: The attractions-rejections gap. Overall, the gap between the percentages of the attractions and their rejections increased daily (Table 2, 12th row). The Russians, however, began with an uncharacteristically wide initial gap of 16% that dropped on the 2nd day to a gap of 3%, and only then gradually increased the difference to its final 43%. This represents a 27 percentage-point increase from the 1st day, and a 40 percentage-point increase from the 2nd. On the last day, the Russians' total rejections consisted of 48% of the attractions, compared with 73% on the 1st day. Over the 4 days, the Bulgarians showed an increase in the gap from 9% to 39%. On their last day, the rejections consisted of 48% of the attractions, compared with approximately 87% on the 1st day.

A 4-Day Comparison

Because the length of the two training workshop varied—6 days for the Russians and 4 days for the Bulgarians—a 4-day comparison was also made. We summarized the foregoing results, including the 4-day comparisons, in Table 3. By the end of the 4th day, the Russians and the Bulgarians showed a similar increase in the number of attraction choices related to warmth (11 and 9 percentage points, respectively). A greater difference between the groups was evident on the intensity of the warmth. The Russians showed an increase of 27 percentage points, compared with the 11-point increase shown by the Bulgarians (Table 3, column 1). When concerned with the rejection selections, the Bulgarians reduced the number and the intensity of their selections substantially more than the Russians did; 32% vs. 9% for the number of rejections, and 25% vs. 9% for the intensity of them (Table 3, column 2).

At the close of the 4th day, the Russians had a far greater increase in trust than the Bulgarians did in both the number (10% vs. 2%) and the intensity (17% vs. 5%) of the feeling of trust (Table 3, column 3). The opposite trend, however, was evident for the rejections. It was the Bulgarians who showed the greatest reduction in both the number (32% vs. 23%) and the intensity (25% vs. 10%) of the rejections (Table 3, column 4). One should bear in mind, though, that the 4th day was the mid point of the Russians' workshop but the last day of the Bulgarians' training.

TABLE 3
Four-day Changes: Percentage-Point Changes of Number and Intensity of
Sociometric Choices for Warmth and Trust Given by the Russian
and the Bulgarian Groups

Group	Warmth		Trust	
	Attractions (1)	Rejections (2)	Attractions (3)	Rejections (4)
Numbers				
Russians	+11	-9	+10	-23
Bulgarians	+9	-32	+2	-32
Intensity				
Russians	+27	-9	+17	-10
Bulgarians	+11	-25	+5	-25

Discussion

The findings have several implications for the process of the flow of feelings of warmth and trust during the course of a training group and regarding the use of sociometry for monitoring group processes. The most interesting observation pertained to the question of whether or not the members of the groups increased their feelings of warmth and trust toward each other over time. The answer to this question appears to depend on which results one looks at.

The data to examine first are those of the attraction choices. A marked increase in attraction responses, over time, would constitute a clear affirmative answer. The results of the intensity of the choices for feelings of warmth and of trust indeed showed an increase; however, it ranges from none to a modest one. The small magnitude of the increase seemed incongruent with the participants' overt behavior, indicating a greater degree of closeness. The resolution of this disparity between the clinical observation and the statistical results for the attraction responses came, surprisingly, from the data of the rejection responses. It revealed that whether looking at the results for warmth or trust, the number of the responses, or their weighted scores in the Russian or the Bulgarian groups, we noted one consistent feature: Rejection responses decreased substantially, ranging from a 40% to a 56% decline. The answer to the above question, therefore, is affirmative, but it points to the following implications.

1. An increase in warmth and trust is a function of the combination of an increase in attraction and a substantial decrease in the rejections; that is, it is

a function of a sharp decrease in the negative without necessarily a matching increase in the positives.

2. Attraction and rejection choices are two independent psychological dimensions that need to be measured separately. Each has its own dynamics and an upward or downward acceleration. In assigning weighted scores to each, one ought to use separate scales instead of one scale, featuring a range of high to low values so that one end measures attractions and the other rejections.

Critics may suggest that the present data characterize only the first phase of a group formation. After all, they might argue, the two groups met for only a short period of time. It is conceivable that in a long-term group psychotherapy program, once rejections have been reduced to a minimum during the first phase, a substantial increase in attractions would follow in the later phases. The implications of the present findings, therefore, might be restricted to the first phase in group formation. This is a point that needs to be born in mind. On the other hand, it is also possible that the phenomenon discovered here holds true throughout the therapeutic experience, beyond the first phase. Clearly, a study in which long-term therapy groups are systematically monitored is needed.

The data also add information about whether or not sociometric explorations ought to include rejections choices. A review of the literature revealed a dispute on this issue. For example, Hoffman, Wilcox, Gomez, and Hollander (1992) conducted a study using only attractions. These researchers cited Hollander (1978), who recommended occasionally discarding rejection responses because feedback concerning rejections tends to antagonize the participants, destroy their trust, and cause embarrassment. Remer (1995), on the other hand, argues for systematic use of rejections choices and discussed ways in which a potential adverse effect of rejections' feedback can be ameliorated. We contend that our study clearly demonstrated the critical need for the inclusion of rejection responses. Had we had data only on attraction, we would have drawn a misleading conclusion.

The data point to the advantage of asking respondents to rate their choices on a weighted-score scale rather than relying solely on counting the number (frequency) of the choices. In fact, had the study been confined to frequency counts, our conclusion regarding the outcomes would have been somewhat different. Consider, for example, the 1st-last day comparison of the Russians' attraction responses regarding feelings of warmth. Based only on the frequency (number) of choices, the results showed a decrease (-10%). When, however, the same choices were calculated using the participants' assigned weighted scores, the results showed an increase (+17%). Was there, then, a decrease or an increase, and which finding ought to be considered? We would argue here that the latter outcome is the valid one.

The problem with using frequency (number) data for attraction choices is its vulnerability to a "ceiling effect." For instance, the participants were asked to make three attraction choices. Data in Tables 1 and 2 (4th line) showed that only once, on the 4th day of the Russian group, was this rule violated with the posting of choices over the maximal possible responses. On the 1st day, the Russians posted 96% of the possible choices for both warmth and trust. The Bulgarians posted 87% and 86% of all possible responses for warmth and trust, respectively. Thus, relying on frequency (number) of choices, the Russians' chances of improvement over time were restricted to a maximum of 4% and 14%. The use of the weighted scores system, on the other hand, allowed 24% and 29% maximum improvement. The same was true for the Bulgarians, where the weighted scores system allowed for 30% improvement, compared with 13% and 14% maximum improvement with frequency data.

We observed that both groups appeared to have more difficulty in expressing and improving feelings of trust than warmth. The improvement over time in the former was, on average, half of what evidenced in the latter. In general, when comparing the two groups, the data showed striking similarities. Given the cross-cultural character of this investigation, this is interpreted as lending credence to the findings. It would be beneficial to compare the present results with those for American groups. Obviously, there are cultural differences between the Russians and the Bulgarians. On the other hand, both countries emerged from the communist mentality and culturally coercive regimes, a fact that may or may not induce similarities. In that respect, the findings need to be regarded as tentative.

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Training Elementary School Students to Manage Conflict

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ABSTRACT. The effectiveness of a peer mediation program in a midwestern, suburban school in the United States was examined. Six classes (one combination second/third grade, one third grade, two fourth grades, and two fifth grades) containing 144 students received 9 hr of training in negotiating integrative agreements to their conflicts and mediating their classmates' conflicts. Eighty-three untrained third-, fourth-, and fifth-graders served as a control group. A peer mediation program was implemented. The role of mediator was rotated equally among all class members. A pretest/posttest, experimental/control group design was used. The results indicate that students successfully learned the negotiation and mediation procedures, were able to apply the procedures in actual conflict situations, and maintained this knowledge throughout the academic year.

CONFLICTS AMONG STUDENTS in U.S. schools result in destructive outcomes with alarming frequency. In many schools, outbreaks of violent behavior and the presence of weapons are all too common, with estimates indicating that over 25,000 handguns enter schools daily. A quarter of all high school seniors in 1993 reported being threatened with violence (Stop the Violence, 1994).

Providing students with a quality education is becoming more difficult as societal influences disrupt the curriculum. Even in schools where weapons are rare, students often try to resolve conflicts by using destructive strategies, such as verbal threats, withdrawal, telling the teacher, and restating demands (Johnson, Johnson, & Dudley, 1992). Most students seem to be unaware and

ignorant of steps that would allow them to manage conflicts constructively (Lam, 1989). Many educators have come to believe that students' academic experience should include training on managing interpersonal conflicts constructively.

Probably the most popular conflict training program in schools today is peer mediation (Johnson & Johnson, 1991; Rifkin, 1991). This strategy is based on mediation, a structured process in which a neutral and impartial third party (known as the mediator) assists two or more people to negotiate an integrative resolution to their conflict, and on *negotiation*, a process by which people who have both shared and opposing interests and who want to reach an agreement try to work out a settlement (Johnson & Johnson, 1991).

The two approaches to negotiation (Johnson & Johnson, 1994) are *distributive* (concession-convergence) and *integrative* (mutual gains). The distributive approach is aimed at maximizing one's own gains at the expense of the other, whereas the integrative approach is aimed at maximizing both parties' gains. In cooperative contexts that involve ongoing relationships, such as families and schools, using an integrative approach results in the most constructive outcomes (Johnson & Johnson, 1991).

Advocates for peer mediation programs have claimed that such programs reduce the rates of suspensions and detentions, referrals to the principal, and absenteeism, while increasing students' self-confidence, academic time on task, and academic achievement (Araki, 1990; Davis, 1986; Lam, 1989; Marshall, 1987; Maxwell, 1989; Tolson, McDonald, & Moriarty, 1992). Such claims are based primarily on anecdotal evidence provided by teachers and administrators. There has been little empirical research on the effectiveness of conflict resolution programs in schools, and many of the studies that have been conducted are atheoretical and contain methodological weaknesses, making their conclusions tentative. Of the 14 studies on peer mediation reviewed by Lam (1989), only 2 included a control group. Despite this lack of evidence, however, the popularity of peer mediation programs continues to increase (Rifkin, 1991).

Peer mediation programs in schools can generally be described as either *cadre* or as *total student body* programs. The cadre approach involves training a small number of students to serve as peer mediators (e.g., the Community Boards of San Francisco Conflict Managers Program and The School Mediators' Alternative Resolution Team, SMART, in New York City). This type of training usually consists of either a 1- to 2-day workshop or a semester-long class. The cadre approach to peer mediation, which can be adopted relatively easily and inexpensively, is based on the assumption that a few specially trained students can defuse and constructively resolve interpersonal conflicts among students.

How a peer mediator decreases the severity and frequency of interpersonal

conflicts among students is not clear. Advocates theorize that the presence of a cadre of peer mediators makes the process of conflict resolution more democratic and less blaming, thereby reducing the sense of alienation that may result from more traditional, autocratic methods of discipline (Moriarty & McDonald, 1991). Another possibility is that peer mediation programs suppress conflict among students, because facing one's peers is more embarrassing and unpleasant than being disciplined by a teacher or an administrator (Tolson, McDonald, & Moriarty, 1992).

The total student body approach to peer mediation, which involves teaching every student in the school how to manage conflicts constructively (Johnson & Johnson, 1991), is exemplified by the Chicago Conflict Resolution Program (mandatory for ninth graders) and by the University of Minnesota Cooperative Learning Center's Teaching Students To Be Peacemakers (TSP) program. In the TSP program, which is based on the theories of integrative bargaining (Pruitt & Lewis, 1977), perspective reversal (Johnson, 1971), and constructive conflict (Deutsch, 1973), all the students in a class or a school are provided with 10–20 hr of training, spread out over several weeks. The TSP program is based on the assumption that students are empowered to regulate their own behavior and to resolve interpersonal conflicts constructively when (a) all the students in the school know how to negotiate integrative agreements to their conflicts and how to mediate schoolmates' conflicts; (b) all the students can use negotiation and mediation procedures effectively; (c) the norms, values, and culture of the school promote and support the use of negotiation and mediation procedures; (d) peer mediators are available to support and enhance students' efforts to negotiate; and (e) the responsibility for peer mediation is rotated throughout the student body, so that each student has the opportunity to act as a mediator. Because training the whole student body in the same negotiation and mediation procedures requires a considerable amount of time and a large commitment from the faculty and administration, it is relatively expensive.

Only a few studies have been conducted on the total student body approach (Johnson, Johnson, & Dudley, 1992; Johnson, Johnson, Dudley, & Acikgoz, 1994). Additional research is necessary, involving a number of classes and grade levels and validating that even young children can be taught to negotiate integrative agreements to their conflicts with schoolmates (Deutsch, 1973; Johnson, 1971; Pruitt & Lewis, 1977).

Our purpose in the present study was to test empirically the effectiveness of the total student body approach (using the TSP Program) to peer mediation training, in several different grade levels and classes. To realize this objective, we determined how well students (a) learned conceptually the steps involved in negotiating integrative agreements and mediating schoolmates' conflicts,

(b) were able to describe how they would use the steps to manage specific conflicts, and (c) maintained this knowledge over time.

METHOD

Participants

Two hundred twenty-seven students in a midwestern, suburban school in the United States participated in the study. All of the students had a middle-class background. Twenty-two of 28 teachers volunteered to participate in the program, including 4 fifth-grade teachers, 4 fourth-grade teachers, and 4 third-grade teachers (1 teacher taught a second/third split).

The students' academic achievement was heterogeneous; each class included a number of students who were gifted, learning-disabled, or needed special education. Two teachers at each grade level were randomly chosen to participate in the experimental group, and the other two teachers were assigned to the control group.

The experimental group, which received the conflict resolution training, consisted of 144 students (71 boys and 73 girls) in the following classes: 1 second/third grade, 1 third grade, 2 fourth grades, and 2 fifth grades. All of the students in the experimental classrooms were administered the dependent measures, but because of absenteeism, the number of students who were administered each dependent measure varied.

The control group, which did not receive any training, consisted of 148 students (72 boys and 76 girls) in the following classes: 2 third grades, 2 fourth grades, and 2 fifth grades. Because of the time limitations imposed by the school, not all control participants were administered all dependent measures. Sixty-eight students (33 boys and 35 girls) in the six control classes were randomly selected for the computer scenario (written), 47 students (21 boys and 26 girls) were randomly selected for the name-calling scenario (written), and 21 students (8 boys and 13 girls) were randomly selected for the cutting-in-line scenario (interview).

For each measure, the names of all of the students in each class were arranged in alphabetical order and numerically coded. We used a table of random numbers to select each student. The number of students chosen from each classroom was approximately equal, but the number of students who were administered each measure depended on how much time the school made available. Because each control sample was randomly selected from the entire control group, some of the control participants were administered all three of the measures; others were administered two; and still others, only one. A total of 83 control students (38 boys and 45 girls) were administered the dependent measures.

Independent Variable

We used a pretest/posttest design in which the experimental group was tested at three points—pretraining, posttraining, and the end of the school year—and the control groups were administered the postmeasures immediately after training had ended. Peer mediation training was the independent variable.

The students were divided into cooperative pairs to learn the procedures and skills being taught in the program, through role play, drill/review exercises, group discussion, and direct instruction (Johnson & Johnson, 1991). The training consisted of three parts: (a) defining conflict, (b) negotiation, and (c) mediation. The negotiation procedure consisted of five steps (jointly defining the conflict, exchanging positions and interests, reversing perspectives, suggesting at least three possible agreements that would entail mutual gain, and reaching an integrative agreement). The mediation procedure consisted of four steps (ending hostilities, ensuring commitment to mediation, facilitating negotiations, and formalizing the agreement). Six classes were trained. Two classes received eighteen 30 min-training sessions (3 per week), a total of 9 hr of training. Four classes received twelve 45 min-training sessions (2 per week), a total of 9 hr of training.

The peer mediation program was implemented once the training had been completed. Each day, the teacher choose 2 students to act as class mediators. Each student in the class served as a mediator with equal frequency. The mediators wore special T-shirts and patrolled the playground and lunchroom, making themselves available to mediate conflicts that occurred in the classroom or in the school. The peer mediator program was part of the curriculum until the end of the school year.

The students in the control group, who did not receive any peer mediation training, were administered only the postmeasures.

Dependent Measures

Five dependent variables were included in this study. The first was the Total Recall Test (Johnson, Johnson, & Dudley, 1992). The students were asked to write, step-by-step, how they would settle a conflict. The students' responses were evaluated for the presence of the six steps of the negotiation procedure and the four steps of the mediation procedure.

The second dependent variable, the Delayed Total Recall Measure, was a paper-and-pencil measure administered to all participating students at the end of the academic year, in the same way as the initial total recall measure. The students' answers were evaluated for their ability to accurately recall the negotiation and mediation procedures.

The third dependent variable, the Conflict Scenario Written Measure (John-

son, Johnson, & Dudley, 1992), was a paper-and-pencil measure that was administered to all participating students, both immediately before and 2 weeks after the training session. The students (a) read and (b) listened to the researcher read two brief scenarios that ended in an unresolved conflict. For each conflict, the students were given a sheet of paper with a paragraph describing the conflict and were asked to write an essay about what they would do if they were actually involved in that situation. The teachers had supplied accounts of the following two conflict scenarios, which had actually occurred in their classrooms: (a) two students wanted to use the only available computer at the same time, and (b) a student had been calling a classmate names for several days. All of the students responded to these two scenarios.

The students' answers were classified according to which type of strategy they used to handle the conflict. Potential strategies were arranged in a hierarchy that ranged from the most destructive (physical aggression) to the most constructive (full negotiations), and each type of strategy was assigned a number of points. The strategies were as follows: *do not know* (0 points), *aggression* (1 point), *threats* (2 points), *withdrawal* (3 points), *telling the teacher* (4 points), *commanding or requesting the other to give in* (5 points), *evoking norms the other should conform to* (6 points), *proposing alternatives for the other to do* (7 points), *minimal negotiations* ("I would negotiate") (8 points), *negotiations for mutual agreement* ("I would negotiate an agreement we both would like") (9 points), *negotiations with perspective taking* ("I would try to understand his/her point of view and negotiate an agreement we both would like") (10 points), and *full negotiations* (all steps in the procedure taught mentioned) (11 points).

The fourth dependent variable, the Conflict Scenario Interview Measure, was administered to a random sample of 69 students both immediately before and 2 weeks after the training. A conflict situation was presented to each student. The students were asked to assume the role of a person involved in the conflict and to tell the interviewer how they would resolve the problem. The students' responses were recorded in writing by the interviewer. The conflict scenario, which had been provided by the teachers, involved a classmate who had "cut" in front of another student in the cafeteria line. The students' responses describing how they would handle the conflict were classified using the same coding system that was used for the written scenario measure.

The fifth dependent variable, the participating teachers' and the principal's attitudes, was measured using the Conflict Resolution Interview Schedule (Johnson, Johnson, & Dudley, 1992). The teachers and the principal were asked about the effects the training had on the students, the classroom environment, academic activities, and the students' parents.

All student responses were coded independently by two advanced doctoral students in social psychology who had received 2 hr of training and who were

unaware of the two experimental conditions. The level of agreement was 89%, using the ratio of agreements to coded occurrences.

Procedure

The study was conducted during the 1991–1992 academic year. A group of teachers volunteered to participate in the study after the program was explained at the beginning of the school year. From this group of volunteers, two teachers from the third-grade, fourth-grade, and fifth-grade classes (one teacher had a combination second/third grade) were randomly selected to be in the experimental condition, and two were randomly selected to be in the control condition. The students in the experimental condition received 9 hr of training over several weeks. Two classes received training in September and October, two classes received training in January and February, and two classes received training in March and April.

The curriculum and the procedures that were used to train the students were the same for each class. The curriculum we used was drawn from *Teaching Students to Be Peacemakers* (Johnson & Johnson, 1995). Each student was provided with a copy of *My Mediation Notebook* (Johnson & Johnson, 1995), which contains information and lesson plans for each session.

The students were divided into cooperative pairs to learn the procedures and skills in the training program, using role play, drill/review exercises, group discussions, and direct instruction. The training was conducted by three people who had experience conducting conflict training programs, two doctoral students who were certified teachers, and a professor who had helped write the program. The regular classroom teacher and aides assisted with the training.

The training consisted of three parts (Johnson & Johnson, 1991): (a) introduction to conflict training (to teach students what conflicts are); (b) negotiation training (to ensure that all of the students understand and can use the basic procedure for negotiating integrative agreements—jointly defining the conflict, exchanging positions and interests, reversing perspectives, inventing at least three optional agreements for mutual gain, and reaching an integrative agreement); and (c) mediation training (to ensure that all of the students understand the procedures for mediating conflicts among classmates and have the skills to do so—ending hostilities, ensuring commitment to mediation, facilitating negotiations, and formalizing the agreement).

The program was implemented once the training had been completed. Each day the teacher randomly selected two members of the class to serve as official mediators (the role of mediator was rotated so that each student in the class served with equal frequency). The mediators wore special T-shirts, patrolled the playground and lunchroom, and were available to mediate any conflicts

that occurred in the classroom. For the rest of the school year, the students attended refresher courses to refine their negotiation and mediation skills.

The conflict scenarios written and interview measures were administered before the training began and 2 weeks after it ended. The Delayed Total Recall Measure was administered at the end of the school year.

Experimental Check

A doctoral student in social psychology observed each training session to ensure that it was being conducted appropriately and effectively. The observer used a list of the essential aspects of the training sessions to verify that they were being implemented in each session.

Analysis

Because there were no significant differences on the dependent variables, either between the classes that were trained or between the boys and girls, we combined all the classes and all the students in one analysis. We used a repeated measures *t* test to determine the significance of the differences between the pre- and postresponses on the conflict scenarios written and interview measures, and a *t* test to determine the significance of the differences between the posttraining responses and the control group's responses on the conflict scenarios written and interview measures. The results of the study are also reported as percentages.

RESULTS

Our primary purpose was to ascertain whether the students had mastered the negotiation and mediation procedures. On a written test, 94% of the students accurately recalled 100% of the steps for negotiation and the procedures for mediation, and the remaining 6% of the students forgot only one step (see Table 1). Ninety-two percent of the students accurately recalled 100% of the mediation procedures, and the remaining 8% of the students recalled the procedures almost perfectly. When the retention conflict scenario measure was administered at the end of the school year, 92% of the students were able to write out all the negotiation and mediation steps, and the remaining 8% of the students forgot only one of the steps. Considering that several students had learning disabilities, these results indicate that the training was effective.

Our second question was whether the students would be able to describe how they would use the negotiation procedure to resolve conflicts. Two measures were used to answer this question—written responses to conflict scenarios and oral responses to a conflict scenario that was presented in an inter-

view. In the written measure, the students were asked to describe how two conflict scenarios (access to a computer and personal insult through name calling) should be resolved. The results for the computer-access conflict are reported in Table 2. Before training, the experimental students' main strategies were telling the teacher (33%), invoking norms (24%), asking the other person to give in (23%), and proposing a solution (15%). There were no attempts to negotiate a solution to the conflict. After training, 42% of the experimental

TABLE 1
Total Recall of Negotiation and Mediation Procedures Measure:
Number and Percentage of Trained Students Scoring at Each Level

Step	Immediate posttest				Delayed posttest			
	Negotiation		Mediation		Negotiation		Mediation	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
All steps	135	94	132	92	132	92	132	92
All but one step	9	6	12	8	12	8	12	8

TABLE 2
Frequency and Percentage of Responses on "Access to Computer"
Written Conflict Scenario Measure

Strategy	Pretraining		Posttraining		Control	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Do not know					1	2
Aggression	2	1	3	2	2	3
Threat	2	1	1	1	3	4
Withdrawal	3	2	2	1	5	7
Tell the teacher	46	33	17	13	17	25
Command/request	31	23	18	14	19	28
Invoke norms	33	24	14	11	10	15
Propose alternatives	21	15	21	16	11	16
Minimal negotiations			42	33		
Negotiating for mutual agreement			4	3		
Negotiating with perspective taking			1	1		
Full negotiations (all steps stated)			6	5		
Total	138	100	129	100	68	100

students used negotiation as their major strategy for dealing with the conflict over access to the computer. The results for the name-calling scenario are reported in Table 4. Before training, the experimental students' strategies consisted primarily of (a) asking the other student to stop (34%), (b) telling the teacher (24%), or (c) withdrawing (23%). None of the experimental students before training, and none of the control group mentioned negotiating as a way to manage the conflict. After training, 31% of the experimental group's responses involved negotiating.

Two statistical analyses were conducted on the written scenario data (see Tables 3 and 5). First, a paired t test was conducted on the difference between the experimental group's pre- and posttraining scores. There was a significant increase in constructive conflict management on the access to the computer written scenario, $t(122) = 7.32, p < .0001$, and on the personal-insult name-calling scenario, $t(120) = 7.06, p < .0001$. Second, we conducted a t test to compare the experimental group's posttraining scores with those of the control group. The experimental students used more constructive strategies than the control group did to resolve the written computer scenario, $t(195) = 6.36, p < .0001$, and the personal-insult name-calling scenario, $t(171) = 5.06, p < .0001$. There were no significant differences between the pretest scores of the experimental group and the control group's scores. There were no significant differences among grade levels for these measures.

The students' responses in the interview are reported in Table 6. Before the peer mediation training, the experimental students' main response was to ask the other party to give in (59%). After training, 32% of the responses involved negotiating. None of the control students' responses involved negotiating. A comparison of the pre- and posttraining scores on the interview scenario indicated that there was a significant training effect, $t(47) = 4.07, p < .0002$, and that the participants in the experimental condition managed the conflict more constructively than the participants in the control group did, $t(68) = 2.54$,

TABLE 3
Mean Responses on Constructive Conflict Management Scale,
Access to Computer Written Scenario

Condition	Pretest		Posttest	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Trained	5.07	1.40	6.57	2.06
Untrained			4.75	1.60

Note. Trained pre-post, $t(122) = 7.32, p < .0001$. Trained/untrained, $t(195) = 6.36, p < .0001$.

TABLE 4
Frequency and Percentage of Responses on "Name Calling"
Written Conflict Scenario Measure

Strategy	Pretraining		Posttraining		Control	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Do not know	1	1				
Aggression	8	6	2	2		
Threat	4	4	1	1	3	6
Withdrawal	32	23	22	18	14	30
Tell the teacher	33	24	14	11	16	34
Command/request	47	34	36	28	10	22
Invoke norms	3	2	2	2	3	6
Propose alternatives	9	6	9	7	1	2
Minimal negotiations			30	23		
Negotiating for mutual agreement			6	5		
Negotiating with perspective taking			1	1		
Full negotiations (all steps stated)			3	2		
Total	137	100	126	100	47	100

TABLE 5
Mean Responses on Constructive Conflict Management Scale,
Name Calling Written Scenario

Condition	Pretest		Posttest	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Trained	4.09	1.34	5.70	2.12
Untrained			3.98	1.11

Note. Trained pre-post, $t(120) = 7.06$, $p < .0001$. Trained/untrained, $t(171) = 5.06$, $p < .0001$.

$p < .01$ (see Table 7). There were no significant differences between the scores for the experimental group's pretraining scores and those of the control group.

The final dependent variable was the teachers' and principal's reactions to the peer mediation training and program. When interviewed, the six participating teachers and the school principal all endorsed the program. The teachers reported that the training reduced the severity and destructiveness of stu-

TABLE 6
Frequency and Percentage of Responses on "Cutting In Line"
Interview Conflict Scenario Measure

Strategy	Pretraining		Posttraining		Control	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Do not know	0		0		0	
Aggression	1	2	0		0	
Threat	3	6	1	2	1	5
Withdrawal	5	10	5	10	3	14
Tell the teacher	5	10	2	5	2	10
Command/request	30	59	16	33	7	33
Invoke norms	7	13	9	18	8	38
Propose alternatives	0		0		0	
Minimal negotiations	0		5	10	0	
Negotiating for mutual agreement	0		9	18	0	
Negotiating with perspective taking	.0		1	2	0	
Full negotiations (all steps stated)	0		1	2	0	
Total	51	100	49	100	21	100

TABLE 7
Mean Responses on Constructive Conflict Management Scale,
Interview Scenario

Condition	Pretest		Posttest	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Trained	4.59	1.18	6.14	2.02
Untrained			4.86	1.24

Note. Trained pre-post, $t(47) = 4.07$, $p < .0002$. Trained/untrained, $t(68) = 2.54$, $p < .01$.

dents' conflicts, resulting in a more positive classroom climate. The teachers stated that because the students managed their own conflicts constructively, the teachers and the principal spent a great deal less time resolving students' conflicts. All five of the adults who were interviewed said that, without qualification, they would participate in future peer mediation training.

DISCUSSION

The present data on peer mediation programs in schools are important for several reasons. First, the effectiveness of a total student body approach to peer mediation was examined; second, elementary school children were trained to use negotiation and mediation procedures; and third, most of the studies that have been conducted previously lack the methodological quality of the present study.

The first step in demonstrating the effectiveness of the total student body approach to peer mediation training was to prove that the students did in fact learn the procedures that are necessary for negotiation and mediation. Ninety-four percent of the students in the heterogeneous elementary school classes (with students ranging from second to fifth grade) included in the experimental condition accurately recalled 100% of the steps in the procedures immediately after the training had ended. Thus, the first hypothesis, that the procedures can be conceptually learned in a relatively short period of time by academically heterogeneous students as young as second graders, was corroborated.

Just knowing the procedures did not mean that the students were capable of applying them. For this reason, we wanted to ascertain whether the students who had received training would be able to describe how they would use negotiation and mediation procedures in actual conflict situations. The pre- and posttraining comparison and the experimental-control comparison of participants' responses to the written and interview conflict scenario measures indicated that training had a significant, positive effect on students' potential ability to use negotiation and mediation procedures in specific conflicts.

Because peer mediation training can be regarded as successful only if students retain for a considerable length of time what they have learned, the third issue we investigated in this study was whether the students were able to retain throughout the school year what they had learned about negotiation and mediation. At the end of the academic year, months after the students had received their training, 92% of those who had been trained remembered all of the steps of negotiation and mediation. One possible explanation for this high rate of retention is that the students used these procedures to manage day-to-day conflicts with classmates and peers.

The fourth issue we investigated was whether the adults in the school perceived the peer mediation program as constructive and helpful. The results of the interviews indicated that the teachers and the principal believed the program reduced the incidence of destructively managed conflicts, resulting in a more positive classroom climate. When students regulate their own behavior, the need for teachers and administrators to monitor and control student actions declines. Discipline improves, and teachers are freed to devote their energy to teaching.

Knowing how to negotiate integrative agreements to resolve conflicts and to mediate schoolmates' conflicts and being able to apply this knowledge are important for numerous reasons. First, students are empowered to regulate their own behavior. Self-regulation is the ability to act in socially approved ways in the absence of monitoring by others (Flavell, 1985). It is a central and significant hallmark of cognitive and social development. Adults who act as referees or judges put children in a dependent position, thereby depriving them of opportunities to learn valuable social skills. Second, children who are able to negotiate and mediate have a developmental advantage over children who are not. Using one's own competencies to resolve one's conflicts with others in a constructive way may increase the child's (a) ego strength and ability to cope with stress and adversity and (b) ability to build and maintain high quality relationships with peers.

There has been a considerable amount of theorizing and research on constructive conflict resolution (Deutsch, 1973), integrative bargaining (Pruitt & Lewis, 1977), and perspective reversal (Johnson, 1971). Almost all such research, however, has consisted of small, tightly-controlled, experimental studies of short duration. The theory validated by the research studies has not been specifically applied and evaluated over a relatively long period of time in settings outside the laboratory, such as schools—a crucial step in demonstrating the utility of these theories. Because the TSP procedures used in the present study were based closely on theory and research in these areas (see Johnson & Johnson, 1991), the present findings corroborate the validity of the theories.

Overall, the present results empirically confirm anecdotal evidence about the effectiveness of peer mediation in schools and validate the assumptions underlying the total student body approach to peer mediation. Because the training program was based on theories concerning integrative bargaining (Pruitt & Lewis, 1977), perspective reversal (Johnson, 1971), and constructive conflict resolution (Deutsch, 1973), the present results link training for elementary school students and the literature on conflict resolution. Few schools have made the commitment to teach students the procedures they need to manage conflicts constructively, and without direct training, many students may never learn to do so. If schools are to become a place where destructive conflicts are prevented and constructive conflicts are used to improve the quality of classroom life and instruction, compelling evidence of the effectiveness of peer mediation programs needs to be generated, and the variables that mediate the effectiveness of integrative negotiations and mediation must be identified and explored. One productive avenue of work would be to compare the effectiveness of the two approaches to peer mediation, cadre and total student body, to delineate (a) their comparative strengths and weaknesses and (b) the conditions under which each will have optimal effectiveness. With considerable future research, these goals can be attained.

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Decade of the Brain

Neuroscience, Memory, and Language, edited by Richard D. Broadwell, consists of 11 papers from symposia cosponsored by the National Institute of Mental Health of the National Institutes of Health and the Library of Congress to mark the Decade of the Brain proclaimed by President George Bush in 1990.

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Research Report: Friendship Patterns of Women

Because sociometry seeks to identify and explore the group structures and the valences of linkages between people, sociometrists may be interested in the research done by Kathleen Sullivan Ricker on the nature of women's friendships. Most psychologists and other mental health workers agree that friendships play a vital role in one's healthy adjustment to life. Friendships among women have been found to be of particular importance for the non-judgmental conversation, the emotional support, and the enhancement of personal growth afforded the partners in these relationships. What was not known was whether what women seek and what they receive in these relationships changes during their life cycle. Very few studies have focused on women's same-sex friendships. Tesch and Martin (1983) found age-related differences in what their subjects sought from friendships, but they did not study women specifically, nor did they study women over 30 years of age. The purpose of the Ricker (1987) study was to investigate the criteria, functions and maintenance concerns of women in two periods of the age continuum, younger (20–39) and older (50–69).

An instrument was developed to measure these aspects of friendship with three kinds of friends: best friend, acquaintance, and former good friend. Three lifestyle groups were studied: business women, social services women, and housewives. A pilot study was run to validate the instrument. It involved 30 women representing both age groups and all three career groups. The items tapping criteria, functions, and maintenance were further refined. The items in the instrument were based on Wright's (1969, 1974) theory of friendship. Wright's instrument had predictive validity but was designed for use with both men and women and thus does not contain the word *woman*. The results of the study were based on a final sample of 119 participants: 38 business women, 44 social services women, and 37 housewives. Cronbach's alpha was used to calculate for the scale. Reliabilities for all items in the total scale ranged in the .70s and .80s.

No significant differences were found between the two age groups of women in the psychological functions of ego support, self-affirmation, and stimulation. Moreover, the criteria of friendship were virtually the same for

both age groups, but with some differences in commonality (similar interests), intimacy (self-disclosure), power (desired influence), and maintenance difficulty. There was no difference in status (conveyance of prestige) between the two groups. Assistance (willingness to help a friend) was higher in the younger group. There were also differences in satisfaction, with women in the older cohort group generally being more satisfied. Perhaps this is an example of the old saying that there is no friend like an old friend. The character of women's same-sex friendships varied only slightly from one career group to another, with assistance (willingness to help a friend) distinguishing between the groups. Housewives were more willing to assist.

Based on the data, Ricker concluded that the psychological functions of ego support, self-affirmation, and stimulation along with the criteria of friendship (voluntary interdependence) are as important for younger women as they are for older women. It appears that for women the functions of friendship are set at an early age and are then maintained. The study produced a number of other findings not reported here. Kathleen Sullivan Ricker, Ph.D., is a psychologist in private practice and can be contacted about this research at 825 North Weber, Colorado Springs, CO 80903.

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BOOK REVIEWS

Internal Family Systems Therapy. Richard C. Schwartz, Ph.D.
New York: Guilford. 1995. 250 pps. Hardback.

Moreno noted that the self emerges from the roles, and over the years, this pluralistic model of the mind has been “discovered” by many others in literature as well as psychology. The author of this book has creatively synthesized developments in family-systems therapy with this pluralistic model—that is, the personality is seen as being a composite of many parts, in spite of the illusory tendency to experience oneself as a unity. Stated simply, much of traditional intrapsychic psychodynamics can be translated from the bulky and often obscure analytic jargon into a dramaturgical language—and more than a language, a scene—a dialogue between and among parts. Yet such an approach does not dilute the richness of psychodynamic insights but rather further enriches them.

What is extraordinary about *Internal Family Systems Therapy* is that it explicates at both theoretical and practical levels the actual themes that are most commonly encountered. In this sense, this book is one of the “meatiest” I have read in a long time and addresses scores of common strategic and tactical issues in psychotherapy. I appreciated not only the author’s humanity and freedom from artificial constraints but also his corresponding solid grounding in helping his clients to feel safe and his extension of his evaluation to address the widest range of issues—biological, intrapsychic, interpersonal, family, subcultural, and cultural. Schwartz’s discussions can easily be extended to include almost all types of problems.

I have often felt that family therapy is closer to psychodrama than conventional group therapy because the family therapist must be so much more active—teaching, mediating, negotiating, reframing, and not infrequently dealing with actual spatial positionings. Nowadays, many family therapists edge into actional approaches such as family sculpture, and some even go into the “ancestral psychodramas” by imaginatively exploring the dynamics of one’s family of origin. I am sorry that Schwartz does not explicitly mention psychodrama, but then he does not deal with the issue of how his approach could be integrated with other schools of thought, either. From my viewpoint, however, it is easy to see how readily a psychodramatist could use the princi-

ples in *Internal Family Systems Therapy* as a helpful framework for dealing with the shifting roles in a protagonist's enactment.

Early in this book, the author presented a number of sources in the literature and in psychology that support such a model—though the term Schwartz chooses to use is *multiplicity of the mind* rather than *pluralistic*. The author's review of the state of this model in psychology is certainly relevant to my efforts to expand Moreno's approach to role theory as a psychology. I consider this book to be a complement to my role dynamics theory and an explication of the potential richness of the psychodramatic multiple-ego technique.

For example, the parts of the psyche that are given the task of protecting the sense of self-esteem may choose divergent strategies—distraction, rational management, or passive withdrawal. As I read Schwartz's description of the role categories of "firefighter, manager, and exile," I was reminded of O. J. Simpson's lawyers and the stories of their conflicts with one another regarding strategy. One can find another example of this in a recent book by the best-selling author Richard Bach, *Running to Safety*: an exquisite interaction in a fantasy encounter of a middle-aged man and his "exile" inner child, the kinds of negotiation as needed, and the nuances of the "inner child's" feelings associated with his exile—all offer a literary vignette that illustrates this process of inner multiplicity.

I have a few minor disagreements with the author concerning how best to communicate understandings about psychodynamics, such as whether it might be better to call these complexes "subpersonalities" and give them personal names or keep them a little less personalized by giving them the names of their roles, such as "protector" or "vengeance." More significant, though, is the way the author was able to develop enough vitality and relevance to evoke my desire to engage his presentation intellectually at this level of fine-tuning of theory.

I was impressed with the clarity and relative succinctness of Schwartz's writing. This was refreshing; for example, at the end of the book, the author added an appendix in which he summarized his approach. The author organized the book in a pleasantly logical progression of the topics—a general theoretical introduction; an extensive case presentation that illustrates his approach; a further, more specific integration of theory and technique; an expansion of the ideas to working not only with individuals but also with families, using certain elements of this approach; and even a discussion of culture. The author also wove in the need for therapists to cultivate their own working-through of conflicts.

A side virtue of the author's approach is his success in demystifying much of the psychoanalytic obscurity and retaining the vicissitudes of the affects, letting them be personified as if they were characters interacting in a drama. This partial concretization is so much more understandable than the tenden-

cies in psychoanalytic writing toward hyperabstraction, and further, it side-steps many of the unwarranted or obsolete assumptions of the psychoanalytic system.

Schwartz's approach has much of the imagery of Jung's analytic psychology but with more particulars regarding the qualities of the interactions among the complexes/parts. So again, *Internal Family Systems Therapy* offers a variety of integrations. The book definitely complements some other works that are quite similar, and the author cite sources such as Hal and Sidra Stone's work with inner dialogue.

Schwartz devoted the bulk of his book to ways of applying his approach to a variety of clinical problems—he is especially interested in treating bulimia and other eating disorders. The way Schwartz works with the parts offers many parallels with how psycho dramatists can work with protagonists. For example, when he describes the “predicament” of the mother in a family, it involves sociodramatic role constraints that could easily be enacted, along with doubling, in order to bring out the depth and interpenetration of role conflicts that attend these predicaments.

He also expands the model to include new implications for working with family systems, a little more complex than, say, Virginia Satir's typology of different family roles. Schwartz even addresses the “predicaments” of major social roles, thus tying in a cultural and sociological perspective. Further perspectives on the author's approach may be found in a book he co-authored called *The Mosaic Mind* (also 1995). Patricia Fazzone has used this method as synergistic of psychodrama, and Schwartz (in personal communication) has been using psychodramatic techniques in his work.

I found *Internal Family Systems Therapy* to be a most stimulating book that primarily offers a rich variety of considerations regarding the strategy and tactics of working with the individual client (as a system of parts) or a family. I think this book complements (rather than being redundant to) other writings regarding psychodrama and systems thinking (such as William's *The Passionate Technique*). Again I want to emphasize that the techniques for mediating among the parts can be applied also by psychodramatists or drama therapists in the process of making directorial decisions during the action phase.

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Rehearsals for Growth: Theatre Improvisation for Psychotherapists.

Daniel Wiener, Ph.D.

New York: W.W. Norton. 1994. 270 pps.

Daniel Wiener is a clinical psychologist whose wife, actress Gloria Maddox influenced him to integrate Keith Johnstone's approach to improvisational theater ("improv") into his therapy, with couples and families. Wiener had previously used psychodrama and other action approaches.

Like others who have discovered the value and importance of spontaneity and play, Wiener was impressed with the pervasiveness of inhibition in many patients and the impact of developing this dimension of the patients' capacities—an intervention, as the author pointed out, at the level of the relational system itself. In attending to the relationship itself, his approach has some connection to Morenean ideas.

In the first two chapters, the author reviewed some of the theoretical considerations regarding the use of drama and the nature of play. These chapters are worth reading by anyone wishing to appreciate the variety of perspectives that, in their aggregate, lead to a compelling justification for psychodrama and its related approaches.

In chapter three, Wiener compared his method, abbreviated as RfG, with other therapies; and the chapter is a fascinating review of some of the other action-oriented or highly structured types of therapy. As such, it deserves to be studied by anyone seeking to understand at a theoretical level how psychodrama also might compare with the other approaches mentioned. Wiener introduces a classification schema regarding three themes: action vs verbal; constructivist vs objective "truth" discovery; and individual vs systems orientation.

The next few chapters deal with the basic principles of improv as forms of spontaneity training. The fourth chapter, titled "Accepting and Blocking Offers," contains descriptions of ways that people foster or inhibit communications in their personal relationships. Although the orientation is aimed at developing the knack of improv, the issues raised can also be applied in diagnosing dysfunctional family dynamics, even when no role playing is involved.

One of the values of this book is its listing of more than ninety spontaneity-training exercises. Following a discussion of several types of techniques and exercises, Wiener considers the range of general approaches that border on the creative dramatics in *Art of Play* (1988). He reviews a number of problems that come up, and his listing on pages 154–156 of interferences with improvisation stands as an excellent elaboration of the kinds of things directors need to keep in mind when evaluating patients, using situation tests (Haas & Moreno, 1961).

I appreciated the way Wiener was able to examine objectively the issues that arose in the course of the use of these interventions. One example, on

pages 221–223, revealed how the playing of a scene by one person may be taken as not-play by the other person and acknowledged the need to watch for and be prepared to deal with such occasions.

Later in the book, Wiener described examples of how these techniques are integrated into individual as well as couples, family, and group therapy. He noted that the creation of a character leads to an incorporation of some of that character's qualities into one's own life. This observation was also made by J. L. Moreno around 1923, regarding the "classic" case of George and Barbara, actors in Moreno's Theatre of spontaneity troupe, how their role playing really gave Moreno the idea of a therapeutic use of improvisational drama. This approach is also, in a sense, similar to Kelly's personal construct therapy.

Wiener included a fair amount of useful references and an interesting taxonomy of variables related to role playing. Wiener's last chapter on using this approach in the training of family therapists describes a variety of approaches that could be adapted to psychodrama training.

The overall impact of this book is intriguing. It illustrates the way other approaches can arise quasi-independently, by addressing the same perceived needs—the need for creativity, improvisation, and the natural vehicle of the theater. At times, I found it to be more like psychodrama, and at other times, more like drama therapy. Perhaps because of my own greater familiarity with psychodrama, I believe in having patients play more roles from their own real-life situations—not just what happened in reality, but, using surplus reality, what other possibilities might be played out (Blatner, 1994). Thus, I felt that his use of these approaches, especially those that involved playing "distanced" roles—roles of imagined characters—to be perhaps unnecessarily distracting. On the other hand, I want to acknowledge that with some patients a measure of distancing allows for less defensiveness. In other words, I think that therapists should be able to select from any methodological variation, from having patients put on scripted plays, at one extreme, to more classical psychodrama at the other—with lessened distancing and increased improv along this "spectrum."

Thus, Wiener's book offers therapists another vehicle within an increasing complex of approaches. Related themes include using theater games and improv for pure spontaneity training, in adult education courses or personal growth programs. Therapists use these approaches as adjuncts to other theatrical activities, such as "Talk-Theatre" or Jonathan Fox's "Playback Theatre." These approaches are only a few steps away from the use of structured experiences and role playing in human resources development programs and in business and other organizations. This book furthers the sociatrist thrust of Morenean ideology, to promote spontaneity and creativity as important values and methods within therapy and the wider culture. I recommend your reading this book, whether you are a drama therapist or a psychodramatist.

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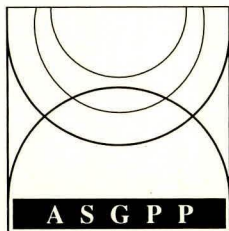
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