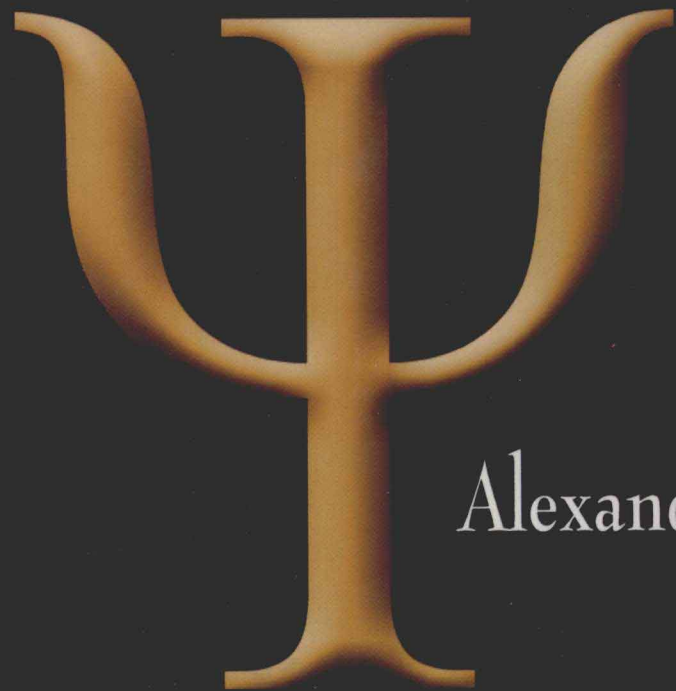


# ADVANCES IN PSYCHOLOGY RESEARCH

VOLUME 73

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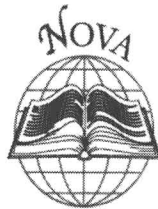
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Editor

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ADVANCES IN PSYCHOLOGY RESEARCH

# ADVANCES IN PSYCHOLOGY RESEARCH VOLUME 73

ALEXANDRA M. COLUMBUS  
EDITOR



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**ADVANCES IN PSYCHOLOGY RESEARCH**

**ADVANCES IN PSYCHOLOGY  
RESEARCH VOLUME 73**

# **ADVANCES IN PSYCHOLOGY RESEARCH**

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## PREFACE

This continuing series presents original research results on the leading edge of psychology analysis. Each article has been carefully selected in an attempt to present substantial results across a broad spectrum. This book reviews research on ways of defining and resolving peer interpersonal conflict; personality, music and problem solving; body-focused repetitive behaviors; and adolescents in foster care and their attachment-security to significant others.

Chapter 1- Interpersonal conflict resolution studies contribute to the better understanding of human behavior. This chapter will begin with a description of the nature, the causes, and the outcomes of interpersonal conflict. Various categorization schemes of peer interpersonal conflict resolution strategies will be presented. This will be followed by extensive reference to peer interpersonal conflict problems that children with special educational needs face in their everyday interactions. Finally, there will be a critical evaluation of the effectiveness of peer interpersonal conflict resolution programs and interventions implemented in general and special education units, taking into account the impact of culture.

Chapter 2- Stepping foot into any public school in the United States today quickly confirms that good communication skills are essential to the teaching-learning enterprise. Teachers engage students in the necessary mental wrestling of conceptual development, yet they also send messages about the behaviors they deem appropriate for such engagement. In order to send such messages, they use their culturally-constructed ideas of what is effective -- they lecture, listen, persuade, cajole, motivate, demonstrate, and orchestrate. Sometimes, too, they ignore, berate, and punish. Learners, also use their culturally-based methods to display their understanding and interest in the material, the approach, the rules, and of course, the teacher. And with every message sent, the possibility exists that construal and intention may differ, and conflict will arise.

The American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education (AACTE, 2010) has created a blueprint for what education should look like in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. They argue that educators must be able to prepare their students for a dynamic, changing and global world. The authors explain,

Chapter 3- Many scholars stress that teaching about the shared past plays a major role in the formation of national, ethnic, religious, and regional identities, in addition to influencing intergroup perceptions and relations. Although programs on improving history education provide sufficient information about the reduction of negative perceptions and xenophobia, they shed considerably less light on the impact of history education on structural components

of identity formation. This paper examines the critical points in identity formation resulting from history education, including its impact on self-esteem; prototypes; borders between groups; forms, modes and conceptions of identity; and types of categorization. In addition, this paper identifies ways of reducing conflict-provoking attitudes and intentions through the revision of history curricula.

Karina Korostelina is an Associate Professor at the Institute for Conflict Analysis and Resolution, George Mason University, and a Fellow of the European Research Center of Migration and Ethnic Relations. Among her books are: *The system of social identities*, *The social identity and conflict: Structure, dynamic and implications* and *Interethnic coexistence in the Crimea: The ways of achievement* (editor) and *Identity, morality and threat* (editor).

Chapter 4- According to Eysenck's (1990) theory of personality, extraverted individuals have a tendency to seek out high levels of stimulation whereas introverted individuals have a tendency to avoid excessive external stimulation. In Study 1, participants completed a personality questionnaire and were then exposed to two types of music. Results revealed that extraverts preferred listening to stimulating rather than calming music while introverts preferred listening to calming rather than stimulating music. In Study 2, participants completed personality questionnaires and numerous cognitive problem solving tasks. Results suggested that extraverts performed better than introverts on spatial thinking tasks in the presence of stimulating music while introverts performed better than extraverts on these tasks when exposed to calming music.

Chapter 5- Pathological hair pulling (trichotillomania), skin picking, and nail biting are part of a group of disorders referred to as body-focused repetitive behaviors (BFRBs). Although these behaviors frequently occur, BFRBs other than trichotillomania have received limited empirical and clinical attention. Body-focused repetitive behaviors are potentially debilitating disorders that may result in substantial physical damage, impairing medical complications, and psychological distress. Similarities in clinical characteristics, phenomenology, function, affective correlates, impairment, and treatment methods substantiate the classification of these behaviors under a single diagnostic category. Yet, only pathological hair pulling is currently recognized in diagnostic nomenclature, which contributes to a relative dearth of literature on the phenomenology and treatment of pathological skin picking and nail biting. With this in mind, the present paper presents a review of the extant literature regarding BFRBs, highlighting the need for future research in this area.

Chapter 6- A growing body of evidence suggests that older youth in foster care are at greater risk for mental health problems than youth not in foster care. Although results from community samples of adolescents indicate that a secure attachment to parents and peers is associated with youths' psychological well-being, there is scant information on foster care adolescents' secure attachment to parental figures and peers and their well-being. In this one-year longitudinal study, foster-care adolescents' attachment-security with biological parents, foster parents, and peers was assessed in relation to adolescents' well-being. The sample included 184 adolescents who ranged in age from 17-20 years old. The sample was ethnically diverse (40% African American, 35% Latino, 12% Caucasian, and 13% Other), and just over half (56%) were female. At Time 2, 167 adolescents were successfully contacted and re-interviewed. Findings indicated that adolescents' attachment-security with biological parents, foster parents, and peers at Time 1 was positively associated with adolescents' concurrent well-being. Further, multiple regression analysis for a sub-sample of adolescents who

reported on all three attachment figures ( $n = 119$ ) indicated that adolescents' attachment-security with biological parents uniquely contributed to adolescents' report of fewer depressive symptoms at Time 1, whereas adolescents' attachment-security with foster parents uniquely contributed to adolescents' greater life-satisfaction at Time 1. There were several significant effects of adolescents' attachment-security with foster parents and peers at Time 1 and adolescents' well-being at Time 2. The potential positive benefits of adolescents' attachment-security are discussed. In addition, the research highlights the need to provide stable, high-quality placements for adolescents in foster care.

Chapter 7- Survey studies indicate that hallucinations and other anomalous perceptions constitute relatively common mental events in adults, yet they remain poorly characterized in younger individuals. Information about the factor structure of anomalous perceptions or information on their frequency in the general and clinical youth populations are still incomplete. Recent epidemiological studies have provided the most consistent data, suggesting that some early anomalous perceptions such as auditory hallucinations can be predictive of later psychiatric illness during adulthood. Would this be true of other anomalous perceptions? Longitudinal studies also observe that the intrusive quality of early hallucinations combined to emotional distress in young voice-hearers sustain the expression and development of auditory hallucinations. If perceived distress and intrusiveness contribute to the potential unfolding of hallucinations, how do they relate to other anomalous perceptions? The first step to answer these questions is to provide a psychometric instrument that could assess the variety of anomalous perceptions in youths, combined with subjective ratings of frequency, distress and intrusiveness. This chapter presents preliminary data on the validation of a self-report instrument shown to reliably measure anomalous perceptions and their experiential dimensions in adults. The current study introduces a validation of the Cardiff Anomalous Perception Scale adapted for francophone youths. The results demonstrate its usefulness in characterizing the multifactorial nature of anomalous perceptions in youths. Further, the analyses support the pertinence of this instrument as an assessment tool for psychosis-proneness in young samples. Finally, the study highlights significant associations between a specific anomalous perceptions and self-reported anxiety and depression ratings. The CAPS adaptation for youths thus contains the features required for the advancement of research on anomalous perceptions in young individuals.



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## *Chapter 1*

# **WAYS OF DEFINING AND RESOLVING PEER INTERPERSONAL CONFLICT: APPLICATIONS IN GENERAL AND SPECIAL EDUCATION SETTINGS**

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## **ABSTRACT**

Interpersonal conflict resolution studies contribute to the better understanding of human behavior. This chapter will begin with a description of the nature, the causes, and the outcomes of interpersonal conflict. Various categorization schemes of peer interpersonal conflict resolution strategies will be presented. This will be followed by extensive reference to peer interpersonal conflict problems that children with special educational needs face in their everyday interactions. Finally, there will be a critical evaluation of the effectiveness of peer interpersonal conflict resolution programs and interventions implemented in general and special education units, taking into account the impact of culture.

## **1. DEFINITION OF INTERPERSONAL CONFLICT**

Conflicts are “time-distributed social episodes” consisting of a series of discrete components that include issues, oppositions, resolutions, and outcomes (Shantz, 1987, p. 285). Deutsch (1991) argued that conflicts appear in all levels of social life, such as the interpersonal, intergroup, interorganizational and international, with the present chapter focusing on the former. It should be pointed out that although the notion of conflict has a negative connotation through its association with psychopathology and social disorder, it could also be constructive since it forms the root of personal and social change (Cosier, 1967).

During the past decades there has been extensive research on the topic of conflict that has failed to generate a generally accepted definition and typology of the construct (Wall & Callister, 1995). Most researchers provide various definitions of conflict that include when, where or how it occurs, and what impact it has (e.g., Amason & Sapienza, 1997; Jehn, 1995; Mortensen & Hinds, 2001). However, Barki and Hartwick (2004) claim that “definitions which begin with statements such as “conflict arises from...”, “conflict occurs when...” or “conflict exists when...” only provide descriptions of the antecedents of conflict or the conditions under which it can occur, not what conflict is” (p. 217). Some definitions that are more specific seem to portray conflict as a simple difference of opinion (Moore, 1998); a factor that obstructs behavior (Alper, Tjosvold, & Law, 2000); or a combination of negative emotions (Bodtker & Jameson, 2001). However, most researchers (Putnam & Poole, 1987; Thomas, 1992a, 1992b) seem to agree that three constructs that are inherent to conflict are disagreement, negative emotion, and interference – and that these components reflect the principal cognitive, affective, and behavioral elements of conflict.

Conflicts vary on the basis of the following attributes: the nature of interdependence that exists between the conflicting parties; the types of strategies and tactics they use; the actual conflict process; the methods employed to intervene in the conflict; as well as the diverse outcomes of the conflict (Jones et al., 1997). Fink (1968), whose theory has influenced the conceptualization of conflict, defined conflict as:

"Any social situation or process in which two or more social entities are linked by at least one form of antagonistic psychological relation or at least one form of antagonistic interaction," in which were included "a number of different kinds of psychological antagonisms (e.g., incompatible goals, mutually exclusive interests, emotional hostility, factual or value dissensus, traditional enmities, etc.) and a number of different kinds of antagonistic interaction (ranging from the most direct, violent and unregulated struggle to the most subtle, indirect, and highly regulated forms of mutual interference), none of which is necessarily present in all instances of conflict." (p. 456)

Several theorists have contributed to the elucidation of the concept of interpersonal conflict, with Hammond (1965) introducing the first theory. He proposed that conflicts between parties who perform judgment tasks should be viewed from a purely cognitive perspective that ignores their motivations and values. Other researchers have made even further distinctions to the concept of interpersonal conflict by defining it in terms of task, process, and relationship conflict (Jehn & Mannix, 2001), as well as cognitive versus affective conflicts (Amason, 1996; Amason & Schweiger, 1994). However, Kerlinger and Lee (2000) emphasize the importance of operationalizing the concept of interpersonal conflict in order to be able to understand and to study it better. Brehmer (1976) concluded that interpersonal conflict can help advance the way researchers conceptualize cognitive conflict in both laboratory and real world settings, and its role in performing judgment tasks has been acknowledged (Dhami & Harries, 2001; Loewenstein & Lerner, 2003; Rieskamp & Hoffrage, 1999). However, Dhami and Olson (2008) reviewed the evolution of the interpersonal conflict paradigm and reported that it has regrettably been neglected and more research needs to be done in this area.

In this chapter we endorse the definition of interpersonal conflict that was introduced by Hocker and Wilmot (1995): “conflict is an expressed difference between at least two

independent parties who recognize that they have incompatible motivations, limited compensations, and who are aware of the other partner's interface in the pursuit of their aims'' (p. 20).

## **What Triggers Interpersonal Conflicts?**

Deutsch (1973) was one the first theorists who proposed that there is a clear distinction between positive and negative functions of conflict that he called "constructive" and "destructive" respectively. Individuals who engage in constructive conflicts use problem-solving strategies based on negotiation. On the other hand, individuals who engage in destructive conflicts try to resolve their problems by resorting to threats and coercion. People involved in conflicts may have both cooperative and competitive interests, which can determine both the nature and the outcome of the conflicts (Deutsch, 1985). So, two individuals might disagree either in principle or in practice or both, because they have different ways of dealing with a problem or because they do not apply their problem-solving strategies consistently (Hammond, 1965).

Factors that trigger the appearance of conflict are (Deutsch, 1973):

1. contact and visibility of differences: People or groups who have little or no contact with one another are not likely to get into a conflict;
2. perceived incompatibility of attitudes, beliefs, goals, values, ideologies, interests, and resources;
3. perceived utility of the conflict.

When reviewing the relevant literature it seems that miscommunication or lack of communication, emotional issues, contextual issues, human needs and identity-based needs influence the nature, the duration, the frequency and the management of the conflict. These complicated factors explain also the variance and the individual differences that are observed in interpersonal conflicts.

## **2. PEER INTERPERSONAL CONFLICTS**

Peer conflicts involve more than one person and are defined as situations where an individual protests, retaliates, or resists the actions of another (Shantz, 1987). Children engage in interpersonal conflicts with their parents and siblings, but the focus of this chapter is on interpersonal conflicts with peers with whom children spend most of their time. Relative research focuses mainly on conflicts that occur in dyads of close peers. Interpersonal conflict is differentiated according to the age and the gender of the child, as well as the quality of the friendship (Kerlinger et al., 2000).

Every time children come in contact with peers or with adults, interpersonal conflicts are likely to occur; actually, children seem to spend more time in conflict than in cooperation on a daily basis (Laursen, 1993; Ricaud-Droisy & Zaouche-Gaudron, 2003). Interpersonal

conflicts include also the emotional element that enhances children's experience (Schaffer, 1997) by motivating them to organize their relevant knowledge (DeVries & Zan, 1994). Hay and Ross (1982) studied 21-month-old children and found that those who won a toy would often abandon it immediately in order to engage in a new dispute over another toy held by the former opponent. Conflict management is essential to avoid the negative consequences of conflict (Collins & Laursen, 1992), but many children cannot apply it effectively in order to come up with a solution that is satisfactory to all parties involved (Selman, 1981; Selman, Beardslee, Schultz, Krup, & Podorefsky, 1986).

At the beginning of the school year that children meet each other for the first time, it is quite common to observe conflicts and assertive interactions that do not result in conflict and aim at establishing group dynamics (Strayer, 1992). When the role of each member of the group is distinct, then arguments and conflicts tend to subside and children support each other- mainly for opportunistic reasons (Strayer & Noel, 1986). Children who use "softer" ways of conflict management tend to create friendships easier (Gottman, 1983), since the conflicts that arise between them lead to integrative resolutions (Rizzo, 1989). Most childhood friendships are characterized by a succession of agreements and disagreements that forge them (Renshaw et al., 1983).

Conflict resolutions can provide valuable insight to the way in which children are introduced to and acquire principles of justice (Ross, 1996), learn to regulate their emotions (Fabes & Eisenberg, 1992), and define personal autonomy (Nucci, Killen, & Smetana, 1996). Gottman and Krokoff (1989) actually reported that conflict management predicts relationship satisfaction better than the frequency of conflict episodes, supporting thus the division between constructive and destructive conflicts.

Disagreements and conflicts between peers constitute a critical developmental challenge that can lead to the acquisition of valuable social skills (Dunn, 1993). They have been linked to various developmental outcomes, such as cognition, emotion, social competence and understanding (Hartup, 1992; Jensen-Campbell, Graziano, & Hair, 1996; Laursen & Collins, 1994; Renshaw & Asher, 1983). Indeed, Shantz and Hartup (1992) argue that interpersonal conflict constitutes a social phenomenon that plays a significant role in human development and stimulates developmental change within the individual. Children, who want to resolve a conflict effectively, need to take into account the opinions of other people. Piaget (1965) believed that interpersonal conflict between individuals of equal power (peers) could function as a way to reduce egocentrism by providing opportunities for children to first confront and then consider others' points of view. Cognitive conflict that tends to generate within the context of peer conflict can lead to children's increasing ability to cooperate with others. Piaget also introduced the concept of "disequilibrium" - fueled by conflict between the child's beliefs and his/her environment - as a basis for cognitive development. Finally, he argued that peer relationships change the child's understanding of the social world, as well as his/her subsequent behavior in it. Therefore, conflict can provide participants with important information about social boundaries (Vuchinich, 1990).

Young children up to the age of 5 engage in brief conflicts, which have an average duration of 23.6 seconds and are fairly frequent - approximately 1 every 2.5 to 11 minutes (Chen, Fein, Killen, & Tam, 2001). Children under the age of 5 usually quarrel about the allocation of resources - such as toys, materials, space (Chen et al., 2001; Corsaro & Rizzo, 1990; Killen & Turiel, 1991). However, even when there are plenty of toys to share, children continue to engage in conflict and this is an indication that the real issue in many conflicts is

not just object control but also social control (Shantz, 1987). During the preschool years, there are more socially oriented conflicts that involve claims about opinions and beliefs, psychological harm, and social order, and fewer conflicts initiated by physical harm (Chen et al., 2001; Corsaro et al., 1990).

When we observe interpersonal conflict in the course of development, we can see that it can take on different forms and it can vary from isolated instances to a continuum of oppositional events. Most research in the area targets distinct episodes of interpersonal conflict that occur at different points in time and can be classified into three sequential stages – namely, instigation, termination, and resolution. *Instigation* is usually perceived along two main dimensions: morality and sociability (Killen & de Waal, 2000). For example, two children may fight over an object (moral domain) or about the rules of the game that they play (social domain). *Termination* refers to the strategies and the tactics that children employ when they want to end a conflict. Termination of a conflict can be achieved either through unilateral means that are linked to power and coercion, or through bilateral means that are characterized by negotiation and reconciliation (Killen et al., 2000). *Resolution* can be: distributive when the gain of one child is the loss of the other child; variable when both children either win or loose; and integrative when children may agree to work together in order to have mutual benefit from a particular situation (Littlefield, Love, Peck, & Wertheim, 1993; Verbeek, Hartup, & Collins, 2000).

Observations from research have led to the conclusion that children engage in different conflicts with their friends than they do with their non-friends. The difference does not lie in their length or frequency, but in their intensity and the conflict management techniques that children choose (Hartup, Laursen, Stewart, & Eastenson, 1988; Newcomb & Bagwell, 1995). Friends usually resolve conflict through disengagement and negotiation, whereas non-friends resort to standing firm and/or subordination (Vespo & Caplan, 1993). The aftermath of conflict is also different, since friends tend to stick together more often than non-friends (Verbeek, 1997). This ability to use affirmative and negotiation conflict management tactics helps friends become significant sources of consensual validation, develop a sense of well-being (Hartup & Stevens, 1997), and enhance their cognitive functioning and performance (Hartup, 1996).

## **Peer Interpersonal Conflicts, Social Status, and Psychosocial Development**

Despite the documented benefits that conflicts have on development, they may also lead to risky situations if they get out of control and so it is important to identify the factors that turn conflicts into positive or negative experiences (Jensen-Campbell et al., 2003). The first impression that children make seems to mark their social status, since the ones who argue frequently at first tend to be rejected throughout the year, even if their behavior improves later on (Ladd, Price, & Hart, 1988). Denham and Holt (1993) actually found that the reputation that children acquire is a significantly stronger predictor of positive social status later in the year than their actual social behavior. By looking at this data, we could assume that the ability of children to resolve their conflicts constructively affects their status among their peers and vice versa. For example, children with poor interpersonal conflict resolution skills are at

higher risk of becoming victims of bullying behavior from others and, thus, opting to withdraw from social interactions (Mishna, 2003).

There is evidence to suggest that children who can manage their interpersonal conflicts more effectively are also considered to be more popular (Bryant, 1992), although positive peer status is usually associated with personality traits (Coie & Dodge, 1983; Dodge, Coie, Pettit, & Price, 1990). In fact, some studies that examined children's responses to hypothetical conflict scenarios and to limited-resource conditions concluded that children using coercive strategies tended to be rejected by their peers (Chung & Asher, 1996; Putallaz & Sheppard, 1990).

Unger, Sussman, and Dent (2003) found that at-risk adolescents who tend to respond to interpersonal conflict with verbal or psychological aggression are more likely to engage in substance use. They should attend educational programs that turn out to be successful in improving adolescents' conflict management skills (Bosworth, Espelage, DuBay, Daytner, & Karageorge, 2000; Stern, 1999). However, since aggressive patterns tend to emerge in childhood (Herrenkohl et al., 2000; Kellam, Ling, Merisca, Brown, & Ialongo, 1998), it is important to teach conflict management and coping skills throughout childhood.

It should be mentioned, though, that most studies on interpersonal conflict resolution focus primarily on the immediate resolution and do not provide adequate information on whether children tend to make peace with one another with some delay after a conflict-induced separation. Butovskaya, Verbree, Ljunberg, and Lunardini (2000) reviewed four studies on this topic that were conducted in different cultural backgrounds and concluded that post-conflict peacemaking exists in different forms in all cultures and varies with age.

### 3. TYPOLOGY OF PEER INTERPERSONAL CONFLICT RESOLUTION STRATEGIES

The most usual way for children to initiate conflicts is by simply saying "No," offering alternative suggestions, taking their time or avoiding to reach an agreement. Their initial reaction to disagreement is insisting, aggravating, reasoning, offering alternative proposals, compromising, ignoring, and requesting explanation, and physical force (Eisenberg & Garvey, 1981). Some other children choose to respond to conflict by soliciting the help of an adult in a direct or indirect way (Chen et al., 2001). Sackin and Thelen (1984) observed that children commonly use two main types of gestures: subordinate (e.g., crying, withdrawing, and yielding) and conciliatory (e.g., cooperative propositions, apologies, symbolic offers, and sharing of objects) in order to manage conflicts. This means that destructive resolutions are only one of the many strategies that children can choose to manage conflicts. In fact, physical aggression is often expressed without preceding conflict and relatively few physical attacks or threats are resisted by young peers (Chen, 2003).

The most traditional conflict management typologies that were introduced in chronological order by Koch (1974, 1979), Nader and Todd (1978), and Black (1993) argued that conflicts can be handled mainly through negotiation, self-help or coercion, avoidance, toleration, and third-party assisted settlements (namely, mediation, arbitration, and adjudication). *Negotiation* refers to the process of resolving a conflict through decisions that are taken jointly by the disputants themselves and can result in mutually acceptable solutions



or compromises. *Self-help/coercion* is the use of unilateral action in an attempt to address a grievance and may be expressed in various ways that range from theft to murder. *Avoidance* entails temporary or permanent termination or minimization of an interaction with a disputant. *Toleration* refers to the process of ignoring the cause of the conflict and maintaining the relationship with the offending party. *Settlement* requires resolving a conflict through a nonpartisan third party, who may assume the role of the friendly peacemaker, the mediator, the arbitrator, the adjudicator, and the repressive peacemaker.

Vuchinich (1990) offered five slightly different conflict resolution strategies – compromise, third-party intervention, withdrawal, standoff, and submission – whereas other researchers have grouped them into three categories – *negotiation* (compromise and third-party resolution), *disengagement* (withdrawal and standoff), and *coercion* (submission) (Jensen-Campbell et al., 1996). Competent and effective conflict resolution strategies include “a social, rather than an egocentric, orientation, an effort and ability to balance one’s own interests with those of others, and the ability to discover relevant social norms and other’s interests, and to assess accurately conflict situations and to decide on the most appropriate approach to take... These behaviors include the use of reasoning, request for explanations and justifications, the offer of alternative proposals, a willingness to compromise, and, in general, the use of conciliatory gestures such as apologizing and sharing” (Chen, 2003, p. 204).

According to Burke (1970), there are 5 methods of conflict resolution:

- (a) *withdrawing*: it was observed that it is easier to refrain than to retreat from an argument, since silence is golden; therefore, if children do not participate in conflict, they cannot be affected by it;
- (b) *smoothing*: minimize or decrease the differences that exist, place more emphasis on common interests, and avoid discussing issues that might cause conflicts or hurt feelings;
- (c) *compromising*: this is a method of splitting the difference, bargaining, or looking for an intermediate position; it is better to get half rather than nothing;
- (d) *forcing*: it represents a win-lose situation, since the children who participate in conflict are viewed as competitors and not as collaborators. There are fixed positions that could lead to a polarization, which creates a winner and a loser;
- (e) *confrontation* - problem solving: there is open exchange of information about the conflict or the problem as each person views it. All included parties may try to work through their differences in an effort to reach the optimal solution for everybody. Likewise, everyone can be a winner.

Carlson (1987, p. 308) suggested the following social interaction strategies:

“*Accommodating*: Indirect, pleasant, and polite ways of responding but respondent does not seek to gain his or her way”;

“*Avoidance*: Non-social reactions of descriptions of unpleasant emotions about the situation”;

“*Hostile*: Threatening, verbally rebuking, or punishing other children”;

“*Compromise*: Efforts to maintain a sociable relationship, but also to maximize the ability of one or both persons to get what they want”.



Spivack, Platt and Shure (1976) introduced an interpersonal problem resolution model that contains “i) *goal identification*, involving the recognition of the aims, emotions and needs of the parties to an interpersonal conflict; ii) *alternative thinking*, i.e. the production of a range of alternative solutions to the problematic situation the individual is facing; iii) *consequential thinking*, whereby the individual foresees the consequences of the different solutions before finally selecting one of them; iv) *solution implementation*, whereby the preferred solution is put into effect” (Agaliotis & Goudiras, 2004, p. 17).

Renshaw and Asher (1983) proposed the typology of ‘friendship – assertiveness’, according to which Carlson (1987) devised a model of interpersonal conflict resolution strategies “i) *positive-outgoing-assertive*, characterized by a desire for social relations, an extrovert pattern of behaviour, but also a high degree of assertiveness in one’s dealings with others; ii) *accommodation*, characterized by an orientation towards interaction but with less pushiness and more inclination to conform to environmental conditions; iii) *rule-oriented*, i.e. judging relations on the basis of informal social laws or the instructions of some form of authority; iv) *avoidance*, characterised by systematic attempts to distance the individual from possible involvement in conflict; v) *hostile*, characterized by desire to retaliate and to suspend social relations in the event of any real or imaginary harm to the self; vi) *compromise*, characterized by attempts to balance the wishes of all those involved in a social relationship; vii) *egocentric-demanding*, characterized by attempts to achieve personal objectives riding roughshod over the feelings of others” (Agaliotis et al., 2004, p. 17-18).

Selman and Demorest (1984) proposed that interpersonal negotiation goes through a developmental process that begins with the ‘*impulsive-physical*’ level, where the strategies that individuals choose are impulsive and characterized by direct domination of, or submission to, others. The next level is the ‘*unilateral-coercive*’, where the use of strategies is now conscious and one-sided, aiming either at controlling others or at submitting to their demands. The third level is called ‘*reciprocal-influential*’, where the selected strategies intend to influence others or the self, to allow a change in opinion or a new perspective on things. The final level is the ‘*collaborative – mutual*’, where there is a systematic application of strategies of cooperation intended to achieve consensus in the definition of objectives.

After careful consideration of these models, Agaliotis et al. (2004, p. 18) proposed a modified correspondence proposal that involves “a) transposing the ‘*accommodation*’ category of strategies from the ‘*unilateral-coercive*’ level to the ‘*reciprocal-influential*’ level, and b) making the ‘*collaborative-mutual*’ level of interpersonal negotiation correspond to a new (eighth) strategy, to be known as the ‘*positive-outgoing-collaborative*’ strategy and which is characterized by the kind of outgoing social behavior which strives to achieve cooperation.” The correspondence finally adopted for that study is presented in Table 1 below.

In order to be able to use constructive problem-solving tactics - such as negotiation – children need to have enhanced social-cognitive development, which is usually linked to age, gender, personality, social skills, the cause of the conflict, and the nature of the relationship with the conflict partner (Selman et al., 1986), as well as the chosen methodology to assess peer interpersonal conflict strategies.