

SECTION
XI

Resources for Multicultural Groups and Diverse Relationships in the School

The interpersonal environment and groups that schools serve are increasingly complex and diverse. The chapters in this section address how to work effectively with children and families of color and various sexual orientations and offers further discussions about the best practices that may improve the school engagement and education of multicultural and diverse populations.

Working with Culturally/Racially Diverse Students to Improve Connection to School and Academic Performance

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CHAPTER
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Getting Started

About half of low-income and minority youth do not graduate from high school on time, and across income and cultural or racial-ethnic heritage, boys are more at risk than girls of underperforming in school (Elmore & Oyserman, 2011). While it is commonly assumed that most children graduate high school, in fact a careful analyses by birth cohort undertaken by Orfield and colleagues at the Harvard Civil Rights Project (Orfield et al., 2004) shows that only 76.8% of children who are Asian/Pacific Islander and 74.9% of white children graduate on time. Among American Indian (51.1%), African-American (50.2%), and Hispanic (53.2%) children, graduation rates are lower, as noted in parentheses. This analysis is important not only

because it implies that all children need help graduating high school but also because it implies that children of color may face more obstacles to graduation. The impact of children of color on overall graduation rates is likely to increase in the near future since the proportion of children of color in the United States is increasing. Brookings Institute (2011) analyses of census data reveal that while currently 58.8% of all children are white, among children aged three and younger, this proportion is less than half (49.9%). This changing demographic profile of American children is due both to immigration and to differences in birth rates among various racial-ethnic groups in the United States. Generally, an increasing percentage of school-aged children are immigrants (now 18.8%), with the largest first- and second-generation immigrant population currently of Latino origin (51%).

As of 2008, Mexico was the main country of origin for immigrant children living in the United States. Thus, in immigrant families, over one-third included children born in Mexico or at least one parent born in Mexico.

While there have been some improvements in educational attainment of Latinos, they lag behind white and Asian groups in school attainment (Kohler & Lazarin, 2007). This subgroup is important because children of Hispanic heritage now make up 22% of all children in the United States (Pew Hispanic Center, Fry & Passel, 2009). Generational status, legal authorization, income, and academic attainment are related. Thus, only about 7% of Hispanic children are estimated to be unauthorized immigrants, but this percentage masks the fact that about two-thirds of foreign-born Hispanic children are unauthorized. Altogether, about a third (37%) of Hispanic children are the U.S.-born children of U.S.-born parents, more than half (52%) are the U.S.-born sons or daughters of at least one foreign-born parent, and 11% of these children are themselves foreign-born. Immigrant children are more likely to live in low-income households, to have parents with low educational attainment, and to have three or more siblings.

All of these factors interact to limit parental ability to be involved in children's schools. For social workers in schools, an important task is to help students at risk of school failure see the connection between the mundane present with its everyday behaviors and a future self—often envisioned in terms of vague yet positive hopes and dreams. Underperformance in school and school failure are an enormous waste of human potential and increase risk of negative outcomes (delinquency, depression, substance use, early risky sexual activity) in adolescence and adulthood. Low academic attainment and especially lack of a high school diploma increase risk in adulthood—it is harder to get and keep a job, harder to earn enough income, and, as a result, harder to provide for one's children. Thus, improving connection to school and academic performance is a central task for the prevention of problematic outcomes both during adolescence and in adulthood.

What We Know

Early research suggests that when asked about their hopes and dreams for themselves in

adulthood—their hoped-for possible selves (PS)—youths have high hopes that do not differ across levels of risk (Oyserman & Markus, 1990a). Even very low income youth report high hopes and dreams. However, more variance is found when asking youth about their more proximal PS for the coming year (Oyserman & Markus, 1990a) and when asking youth if they are doing anything to try to attain these PS (Oyserman & Saltz, 1993). Content of more proximal positive (to-be-attained) and negative (to-be-avoided) PS (Oyserman & Markus, 1990a) and not trying to attain positive PS (or avoid negative PS) are both related to more problem behaviors (Oyserman & Saltz, 1993).

Low-income and minority status do not themselves undermine children's school-focused PS. Children living in low-income neighborhoods and growing up with parents with low educational attainment and low professional status do not differ from other children in whether they have school-focused PS. They differ from other children in whether they have strategies to attain these PS (Oyserman, Johnson, & James, 2011). Thus the question for social work interventions is how to translate already high hopes and dreams for the future into proximal PS focused on connection to school and academic attainment: that is, how to help youth link PS to current behavior (Oyserman & James, 2008).

Operationalizing PS

PS are defined as images of ourselves not as we currently are but at positive or negative end states—the self who already passed the algebra test, the self who failed to lose weight, the self who falls in with the “wrong” crowd (Oyserman & James, 2008). A central life task of adolescence and early adulthood is figuring out not simply what one is like now but also who one might become; not only what is possible for the self but also how to fit together the many available images of the future (Oyserman, 2001). PS of teens are likely to include expectations and concerns about how one will do in school, how one will fit in socially, and how to get through adolescence without becoming off track—pregnant, arrested, or hooked on drugs (Oyserman & Fryberg, 2006; Oyserman & James, 2011). Indeed, existing evidence suggests that expectations and concerns about succeeding in school or being a good student are the most common PS in adolescence, even among very

low income minority teens at high risk of school failure (Oyserman & Destin, 2010; Oyserman & Fryberg, 2006). Possible selves are sometimes but not always linked to strategies for their attainment, over time, children perform best in school when their possible selves are linked with pragmatic strategies, providing them a pathway toward their possible selves (Oyserman, Bybee, Terry, & Hart-Johnson, 2004).

PS, Gender, Culture, and Racial-Ethnic Identity

For urban, low-income, and minority youths, PS and racial-ethnic identity (REI) and other social identities are likely to be interwoven (Oyserman & Destin, 2010). Moreover, gender differences are also found. Boys contrast themselves with their peers and girls assimilate the experiences of their peers into their own PS. In high-risk contexts in which many underperform, this implies that, on average, boys assume that their chances to attain their school-focused PS are higher than their peers (who on average are doing poorly). However, girls look at their low-performing peers and assume that their chances are low as well (Kemmelmeyer & Oyserman, 2001a, 2001b). This may be one reason that girls in high-risk contexts perform better than boys—they are more worried that they may fail and so try harder.

In addition, findings from studies primarily focused on African-American middle and high school youths in Detroit suggest that both PS and REI play an important role in school performance and vulnerability to depression (Altschul, Oyserman, & Bybee, 2006; Oyserman, 2008; Oyserman, Bybee, & Terry, 2003; Oyserman, Gant, & Ager, 1995; Oyserman & Harrison, 1998; Oyserman, Harrison, Bybee, 2001; Oyserman, Terry, & Bybee, 2002). These studies document that academic efficacy and academic outcomes improve when academic achievement is an integral part of REI, but that having an REI that includes academic achievement is harder in segregated neighborhoods (Oyserman & Yoon, 2009; see also Altschul, Oyserman, & Bybee, 2008; Oyserman, Kemmelmeier, Fryberg, Brosh, & Hart-Johnson, 2003, for research focused on American Indian, Mexican American, and Arab youth). Simply having a positive self-image or a positive sense of connection to one's racial-ethnic group is not enough. Because PS and REI are both potential sources of academic focus,

interventions that promote focus on PS as congruent with REI and on REI as congruent with school attainment are more likely to be effective (Oyserman & Destin, 2010).

How Might PS Influence Behavior?

But how do PS sustain effortful action to influence behavior? By articulating and detailing the look and feel of the future, PS may sustain effortful action by making the future come alive as a possible reality (Oyserman & James, 2008). Without an academic PS to consider, a student has no reason not to stay up late to see another TV show or video. Thus, PS may function to reduce the impact of moment-to-moment shifts in what is made salient by one's social context. They focus attention on successful attainment of self-goals and avoidance of anti-goals. Becoming like one's academic success PS could involve strategies such as "go to all my classes" and "set my alarm clock so I won't get up late." For homework to feel like an investment in one's future, rather than simply as a chore, homework has to feel like a strategy to make progress toward the future (Destin & Oyserman, 2010). PS do not develop in isolation; youth need to be able to find connections between their PS and other important identities such as REI and to feel that important others (including parents and other adults who may be role models) view their PS as plausible. Low-income youth, nonheterosexual LGBT (lesbian, gay, bi- or trans-gendered) youth and youth of color may find it difficult to create positive and believable PS focused on school as a pathway to adulthood unless these PS are fostered in a social context that creates local norms highlighting the relevance of academic achievement for being part of one's social identity (including REI, social class, and LGBT identity).

What We Can Do

There is experimental evidence that how one thinks about oneself influences school-relevant cognitive processes (perception, recall, performance; Oyserman, Sorensen, Reber, & Chen, 2009). However, research on PS generally (Oyserman & James, 2011) and on PS of minority and low-income

youth specifically (Oyserman & Fryberg, 2006) is mostly correlational and necessarily leaves unanswered how to translate findings about correlations between PS, school involvement, and REI (or LGBT or social-class identity) into a framework for change. To address this gap, in our own research we have focused on experimental manipulations to capture the “active” aspects of PS and social identity (Oyserman, Bybee, & Terry, 2003; Oyserman, Bybee, Terry, & Hart-Johnson, 2004; Oyserman, Gant, & Ager, 1995; Oyserman & Markus, 1990b; Oyserman & Saltz, 1993; Oyserman, Terry, & Bybee, 2002) and used these as the basis for developing a brief intervention, outlined below. The intervention was designed, implemented, and evaluated with funding from the National Institutes of Health (Grant number MH58299, Oyserman PI). Core aims were to engage low-income youth from diverse racial-ethnic backgrounds in developing clearly articulated PS that (1) linked current school involvement with adult futures, (2) linked strategies to attain these PS to important social identities, and (3) helped students interpret difficulty in working on these PS as meaning that the PS were important, not impossible, to attain (see also Oyserman, Bybee, & Terry, 2006). Other interventions that cue connection of PS to the future, link strategies to identity, and help children interpret difficulty should also produce the same effect. For example, increasing parent involvement with school may also have this effect (Oyserman, Brickman, & Rhodes, 2007).

All too often, social work practitioners attempt to develop comprehensive interventions that require more time and resources than they are able to marshal over time. Given the need for very brief, low-budget universal interventions, we developed an intervention called School-to-Jobs with the goal of meeting the social worker’s need for a brief, cheap, fun intervention that can be sustained over time in high-need schools.

The School-to-Jobs (STJ) program aims to promote development of PS pathways from middle to high school by helping youths (1) articulate PS goals and strategies to obtain their PS, (2) create a link between PS and adult identities so the future feels near, (3) create a link between PS and social identities such as REI so strategies feel identity congruent, and (4) interpret difficulties along the way as meaning that their PS is important, not impossible, to attain. The School-to-Jobs program has been successfully used with low-income children from various racial-ethnic backgrounds in

a number of states. Social workers working in a school should first learn what they can about the children—their immigration, language, and acculturation situation and what other issues may be unique to the group. For example, I am currently beginning work with immigrant children from a new area, Yemen, and before proceeding I am spending time learning how children, parents, and teachers make sense of the children’s identities and possibilities in America.

Thumbnail Sketch of the STJ Intervention

The goal was that the intervention would highlight and elicit the relevance of school to attaining one’s PS. The intervention is small-group based (groups of about 12 students) and has been tested as both an after-school (Oyserman et al., 2002) and in-school program (Oyserman et al., 2006) for middle school students. The after-school test of the intervention followed youth to the end of the academic year and documented significantly reduced risk of being sent out of class, significantly improved attendance and time spent doing homework, as well as change in the youth’s PS, comparing control and intervention youth and statistically controlling for previous academic attainment (Oyserman et al., 2006). A second randomized clinical trial of the intervention involved an in-school test with a 2-year follow-up (Oyserman et al., 2006). Here significant change was found in grades and attendance by school records, as well as reduction in grade retention (being held back a year). Again effects were mediated by change in youth PS. In terms of efficacy, a standard criteria is that a program’s success should be replicated in at least two randomized trials to provide assurance that a program is probably efficacious. The STJ program meets this standard. At the next stage, the success of the STJ program needs to be replicated with a different research team to ascertain that the program is robustly efficacious. Replication to date has occurred without separate evaluation of efficacy.

STJ uses a small-group, active learning paradigm with a series of small-group activities, within which youth gain a sense of their own vision for the future and learn to develop strategies to help attain this vision; parents and community members join in developing youth’s skills. The name of the program, School-to-Jobs, was chosen

to emphasize the connection between current action and future goals. STJ utilizes a social cognitive approach, utilizing basic social psychological theory and research on the nature of information processing and motivation (Oyserman et al., 2002; Oyserman & Destin, 2010; Oyserman, Elmore, & Smith, 2012). This research suggests that structured activities occurring in everyday settings can have great impact on who children think they are now and what is possible for them to achieve in the future because subtle contextual shifts can powerfully change the sense made of daily experiences. The meaning made of everyday experience in turn fuels motivation.

Specifically, the goal of STJ is to develop a sequence of activities and tasks that provide youth with experiences of creating and detailing more explicit academic PS that feel congruent with REI and other social identities, feel connected to adult futures, and provide an interpretation of difficulty as meaning that school is important, not impossible, as a PS. Activities were designed to create well-explicated PS with clear, comprehensive, plausible strategies to achieve these PS.

Parents and community members are included in two final optional sessions. Adults are brought in to anchor youth in an adult worldview, to provide opportunities to practice skills needed to obtain support from adults, and to allow youth to practice obtaining support for their emerging PS from adults. Thus, adults are brought in as tools for youth rather than as teachers or authority figures. STJ sessions are interactive. Students actively engage the material. Sessions build on one another. Early sessions are easy and evoke a general sense that everyone has a future. Each subsequent session makes the future feel nearer and more connected to other identities and helps students interpret difficulty as importance by making failures and difficulties along the way normative. Below is a thumbnail sketch of the sessions, followed by an example of the “cheat sheet” summary trainers use to ensure that they are following the manual and an example of the observer checklist used to assess fidelity of delivery. The intervention, summary sheets, and fidelity assessment are collected in a manual that can be obtained from the author. As can be seen, the checklist allows for careful testing of the process, something critical for learning what is working and when.

Thumbnail Sketch of Sessions

These thumbnail sketches are taken from Oyserman, Bybee, and Terry (2006) which provides a full evaluation of the program as well.

1. *Creating a group.* (Goal: Create a positive sense of membership and set the stage for school involvement and adult PS). Activity: Trainers and participants discuss their expectations and concerns about program content; participants develop program rules. Activities include introducing one another in terms of skills and abilities to succeed this school year, human knot, and other activities that build the idea that group members have positive attributes related to school achievement and that others also want to do well in school.
2. *Adult images.* (Goal: Create a concrete experience of imagining adulthood). Activity: Participants choose from pictures portraying adults in the domains of adulthood (work, family, lifestyle, community service, health, and hobbies) and then describe how these represent their future images. (Pictures fit the racial/ethnic background of participants; making and hearing about choices gets participants to think about the future.)
3. *Time lines.* (Goal: Concretize the connection between present and future, and normalize failures and setbacks as part of progress to the future.) Activity: Participants draw personal time lines from the present as far into the future as they can. Trainers define *forks in the road* (choices that have consequences) and *roadblocks* (obstacles placed by others and situations—for example, lack of financial resources, racial and/or sexual discrimination), and participants draw at least one of each in their time line. Discussion connects current activities and future visions, and youth give each other feedback focused on sequences and ways to go around obstacles.
4. *PS and strategies boards.* (Goal: Concretize the connection between current behavior, next year, and adult attainments.) Activity: Using poster board and colored stickers, participants map out next year and adult PS and the strategies they are using now or could use. Then they map out all the school-related PS and strategies used so that participants using particular strategies can explain what they are doing and guide others through obstacles.

5. *Solving everyday problems I.* (Goal: Provide participants with concrete experience breaking down everyday school problems into more manageable parts.) Activity: In prior sessions, solo activities were the springboard to group discussion. The next sessions use group activity as springboard because participants are confident enough with one another to work together in small groups and group work reinforces positive REI. Participants solve logic problems together, developing a strategy of writing down the known to solve for the unknown. Using this success as a springboard, each group develops strategies for handling a set of school-focused problems (doing poorly in math class, tackling a big history assignment) by first listing the questions they must ask themselves or get information about prior to deciding on a course of action. The session ends with full group discussion of questions raised and decisions made.
6. *Solving everyday problems II.* (Goal: Reinforce participants' ability to make school-related plans for the future and to reach out to adults to accomplish this.) Activity: Using the same small-group format as in the previous session, participants develop a list of requirements for high school graduation and prerequisites/skills needed for entry into college and other training, then work as a large group to find out about the actual requirements for local educational institutions. This is connected back to the adult visions, time lines, and strategy board sessions—helping youth see the process by which they can attain the PS they have imagined and deal with obstacles or forks in the road.
7. *Wrapping up, moving forward.* (Goal: Organize experiences so far and set the stage for bringing parents/guardians to the group.) Activity: Participants “walk through” the program by discussing what they did in each session, what they learned in each, and what they liked and disliked about the program. Parent or other important adult involvement is discussed with a focus on how these adults from the youth's own community can help youth on their pathways to adulthood. Youth explore the similarities and differences they see between their own experiences and those they imagine their parents had.
8. *Building an alliance and developing communication skills.* (Goal: Allow youth and parents to state their concerns for the student in the coming year, see limitations of current communication skills in handling these concerns, and practice another model in a structured setting.) Activity: Parents

and youth introduce one another, and youth lead a review of previous sessions. Then parents and youth separate to discuss what concerns each has about the transition to high school. These concerns form the basis for discussion of how to communicate with one another on important topics. Trainers role-play parent and youth suggestions and then operationalize communication as active listening and “taking the floor.” Parents pair off with their own child to try out being an active listener and taking the floor. Both parent and child have a chance to experience the listener and the floor role, allowing both to raise and to react to a point of concern. Then participants talk about the experience and commit to practice this skill. This section focuses on REI by highlighting connections between parents and youth, the importance of school, and difficulties encountered along the way.

9. *Jobs, careers, and informational interviewing.* (Goal: Identify gaps in knowledge about how schooling links to careers and provide youth with skills to obtain this information.) Activity: Parents describe how they got their current jobs (or strategies they have tried to get jobs in the past if not currently employed), and youth describe how to find out about jobs and careers. Trainers highlight parent and youth frustration about connecting qualifications and experiences to desired careers and jobs, thus introducing the concept of informational interviewing. Parents and youth practice informational interviewing and then use this skill to do informational interviews with community members who join the group at this point. Then participants discuss ways that they can use informational interviewing at a number of junctures in the future. Youth talk about barriers to contacting people in the community who have jobs that seem of interest to them. Community members discuss ways to make contacts, responding to specific concerns raised by youth and giving youth a chance to role-play these strategies. This session focuses on REI by highlighting role models from youth's racial-ethnic community.

Applying Interventions within a Response to Intervention Framework

Education is often framed as a *universal intervention*, something provided to all children with the

Box 57.1 Detailed Outline—Session 1

- Greet/welcome participants. Check names against roster. Greet latecomers.
- Introduce one another (trainers). Also identify the trait each has that helps him or her to succeed in work or school.
- Introduce observer. Emphasize role to observe trainers to help improve program (and not to grade students).
- Ask what an introduction is. (It is a way of saying who you are and what you can contribute.) Write definition on newsprint.
- Identify goals for introductions (they differ depending on context).
- Ask about skills and abilities for succeeding in school (since this is school to jobs).
- Write tasks and examples on newsprint.
- Introduce partner skills. (Pass out marbles. Ask for questions before task begins. Circulate, check for understanding.)
- Ask youth to introduce partners. Ask them to repeat names.
- Explain concepts (expectations/concerns). Use newsprint to write group responses.
- Reinforce and repeat four basic themes that will be covered (1. setting clear goals for next year and afterward; 2. developing strategies to work on these goals; 3. thinking about a path to the future; 4. working with teachers, parents and others in the community as resources).
- Elicit group rules. Write on newsprint.
- State aim of program. Use prepared newsprint.
- State goal. Use prepared newsprint.
- Explain group naming activity. Give examples, elicit ideas.
- Explain session schedule. Provide contact information. Write on board.
- Review. Ask participant to name all names.
- Explain task, line up from youngest to oldest without talking. (Encourage. When completed, ask month of birth.)
- Congratulate. Reinforce cooperation.
- Explain task, stand in circle, cross arms in front, grab hands of two people across the circle, without letting go, uncross hands and re-form the circle. (Trainers are part of the circle.) Congratulate. Reinforce cooperation.
- Work on adult images. Ask, “What will adulthood be like for you?”
- Provide snacks. Pass out session evaluation forms. Ask for help rearranging the room.
- Pick up evaluation forms. Make sure attendance form is filled out. Say goodbyes. Rate participant participation.

This material is from the School-to-Jobs Intervention Manual, Oyserman (2006).

assumption that it benefits children and the society in which they live. However, children differ in how much of the legally mandated days and years of schooling they actually attend and in what they learn while in school. For these reasons, educational programs may also target children at risk of low attendance and performance (termed *targeted* or *selective* intervention in the 1989 Institute of Medicine framework). So that the universal intervention of education may be supplemented with additional targeted programs for children at risk of or already experiencing deficits in attendance and performance, including school dropout. The goal would be an intervention to prevent risk or ameliorate the negative consequences of problems that have already emerged in attendance and performance.

Programs that are universally implemented within schools that serve at-risk children fit this framework—they can be considered targeted to the extent that they focus on schools in which risk is likely.

Within education, concern that the goal of universal education may not be met in some groups led to consideration of differences in children’s “Response to Intervention” (RTI) (Shapiro, Zigmond, Wallace, & Marston, 2011). The initial question RTI was meant to address was whether specific learning disability (SLD) in children could be assessed early by carefully monitoring children’s learning progress. The RTI method has now been expanded as an early intervention for those who may have SLD or a behavior disability. RTI involves screening to identify low-performing

Box 57.2 Detailed Outline—Session 2

- Greet participants by name. Take attendance.
- Say, “Today is session 2: adult images.”
- Ask for what happened last session. (Elicit activities. Elicit rationale.)
- Ask students to choose pictures that represent visions of themselves as adults.
- Tell them to pick at least 10 pictures.
- Ask them to ask themselves what the pictures mean to them.
- Ask them when these pictures will be true of them.
- Tell them that all will discuss these pictures afterward.
- Make sure instructions are clear. Have participants begin. Pass out snacks.
- Mingle—check for understanding.
- Have everyone rejoin circle.
- Show pictures, explain to group, while group listens and pays attention to common themes.
- Explain task: Each participant writes on newsprint something similar about everyone’s adult visions.
- Ask for questions
- Mingle, help individually as needed
- Discuss themes that are there and areas that are missing (jobs, family, friends, community involvement, lifestyle).
- Review concept of adult domains: adult images about jobs, family, friends, community involvement, lifestyle).
- Explain concept: Adult images can be goals if they are worked on, and this will be discussed in coming sessions.
- Tell them that the next session will identify role models.
- Pass out session evaluation forms. Ask for help rearranging the room.
- Pick up evaluation forms. Make sure attendance form is filled out. Say goodbyes. Rate participant participation.

This material is from the *School-to-Jobs Intervention Manual*, Oyserman (2006).

students, monitoring their progress while learning (rather than waiting for end-point assessments such as semester grades), implementing research-supported intervention to bolster learning, and finally intervening individually as necessary to support learning.

Thus, in addition to focusing on targeted and selected intervention for children at risk of low performance, the RTI approach highlights the need to obtain ongoing assessment to closely monitor the academic and behavioral performance of students as they are learning. Consider the *School-to-Jobs* intervention (Oyserman, Bybee, & Terry, 2006; Oyserman, Terry, Bybee, 2002). Rather than document that the intervention works by demonstrating differences in end-of-semester and end-of-year grades, attendance, and standardized test scores, and RTI approach would emphasize assessment at a more micro-level. This would require more sensitive measures than end-of-unit assessment. For example, changes could first occur in whether a child completes homework or participates in class or is attending to instructions. Self-reports of behavior are problematic, so what would need to be collected

is process-level actual behavior (Schwarz & Oyserman, 2011). To the extent that teachers collect this information, it can be used as a more process-level assessment of child learning and of change due to intervention.

Key Points to Remember

- Motivation is identity-based; people prefer to act in identity-congruent ways.
 - Identities feel stable but are actually highly context-sensitive.
 - This means that what feels right in context may not be what had been planned outside of context.
- People do not always act to attain future identities (possible selves).
- People are more likely to act to attain their future identities when these identities:
 - come to mind in context
 - are connected to strategies

Table 57.1 School-to-Jobs Observation Form

Youth Session 1		Date ___/___/___		School Code ___			
Site: _____		Group _____		Class Code ___			
Trainers: _____		Observer _____					
<i>Task</i>	<i>Y</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Detailed Trainer Activity</i>	<i>Y</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Group Behavior</i>	<i>1-5</i>
<i>Start on time</i>	—	—	<i>START TIME</i> _____				
Opening							
• Welcome	—	—	• Greet and welcome participants	—	—	• Talk with trainers	—
• Introductions	—	—	• Check names against roster	—	—	• Talk with each other	—
			• Greet latecomers	—	—	• Listen	—
			• Trainers introduce each other (name, University of Michigan)	—	—	• Acknowledge observer	—
			• Introduce observer	—	—		
			• Emphasize role to observe trainers to help improve program	—	—		
Introduction							
• Introduce the concept of introductions as goal oriented	—	—	• Ask what an introduction is	—	—	• Share ideas	—
			• Reinforce: is a way of saying who you are and what you can contribute	—	—		
			• Write definition on newsprint	—	—		
• Introduce school-to-jobs as success oriented	—	—	• Different goals for introductions	—	—	• Share ideas	—
			• Ask about skills and abilities for succeeding in school	—	—		
			• Write tasks and examples on newsprint	—	—		
• Introduce task	—	—	• Explain activity (partners learn of partner skills, introduce)	—	—	• Take marble	—
• Group creation process—is atmosphere starting to feel like a group?	—	—		—	—		

(continued)

Table 57.1 (Continued)

<i>Task</i>	<i>Y</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Detailed Trainer Activity</i>	<i>Y</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Group Behavior</i>	<i>1-5</i>
	—	—	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pass out marbles • Ask for questions before task begins • Circulate, check for understanding • Ask youth to introduce partners • Ask for repetition of names • Introduce new task, explain concept • Ask for expectations • Use newsprint to write group expectations • Ask for concerns • Use newsprint to write group concerns • Reinforce and repeat four basic themes that will be covered. • setting clear goals for next year and afterward • developing strategies to work on these goals • thinking about a path to the future • working with teachers, parents, and others in the community as resources 	—	—	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Separate into pairs • Share skills and abilities 	—
• Group feeling that group as a whole has skills and abilities that can be relied on.	—	—		—	—		—
Expectations and concerns	—	—		—	—	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduce partner • Practice saying names 	—
• Give youth a voice	—	—		—	—	• Participate	—
• Crystallize and focus group goals	—	—		—	—	• Listen	—
	—	—		—	—		—
	—	—		—	—		—
	—	—		—	—		—
• Create group ownership (sense of being heard and a member of something)	—	—		—	—	• Participate	—
	—	—		—	—		—
Aim	—	—	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Elicit group rules • Write on newsprint • State aim (help create road map, need to think about goals, work on strategies, develop alternatives) 	—	—	• Listen	—
Program aim is clarified	—	—	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use prepared newsprint • State goal (a clear, more detailed sense of what you need to do and how to do it) 	—	—		—
Naming group	—	—		—	—		—

- feel congruent with important social identities (such as racial-ethnic identity, gender identity, social class identity, and LGBT identity)
- Small shifts in context matter.
 - Who one may become (future identities) and what comes to mind when one thinks of oneself now (current identities) are dynamically created in context.
 - This means that small interventions can have large effects.

Further Learning

For more and continuously updated publications referring to each of the aspects covered in this chapter (self, identity, culture, and implications for behavior, please visit my Web site: <http://site-maker.umich.edu/daphna.oyserman>

Hands-On Examples

An example of an intervention session checklist for use in rating fidelity of implementation can be found in Table 57.1.

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